Learning to Teach Speaking during the Practicum in Pre-Service Teacher Education in Korea

Eun Jin Jang

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Leeds

School of Education

September 2018

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

This copy has been supplied on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to give my sincere thanks to my first supervisor Prof. Borg for his guidance and continuous support during the course of my study, to my second supervisor Dr. Wedell for his encouragement and invaluable advice in developing my study further, and to my third supervisor Dr. Wilson for his insight and clear direction in helping to refine my thesis during the final stage before submission. I would also like to thank the School of Education for granting me a scholarship and supporting me during the completion of my study.

My sincere appreciation of gratitude is extended to all of the research participants: student teachers, teacher trainers, mentors, and head teachers. I cannot express enough thanks to them for their time and commitment to supporting my study. Furthermore, I appreciate the continuous support given by principals in secondary schools and departmental heads in teacher colleges in Korea.

My sincere thanks also go to my English church families and friends who helped me and offered me prayer support during my difficult periods of ill health along with the challenges I faced in relation to immigration. I would like to express special gratitude to Lynne from St. George's Church for caring for me as part of an English family. I would also like to express my sincere appreciation to Revd. Pusey and Eric of the Emmanuel Chaplaincy, Revd. Rockley and prayer ministry of the Blenheim Baptist Church, Revd. Oh in Warwick, and Assistant Pastor Lee in Korea for their pastoral care. I also thank Liz, Mandy, Samuel, and Patryk for their sincere support and friendship.

Most of all, I should extend my deepest gratitude to my parents in Korea for their endless love and sacrifice, which is beyond what I can express. I am grateful for how they have supported me throughout the extended period of my study in the UK. My completion of this thesis could not have been accomplished without the support of my family. My heartfelt thanks go to my faithful father who provided continued support even when times were rough, and to my loving mother who always strengthened and comforted me with countless words of encouragement. Above all, I thank God for enabling me on the long journey to pursuing and achieving a PhD.

Abstract

This study investigated student teachers' teaching of English during the practicum with a particular focus on the teaching of speaking in the secondary school context in Korea. A multiple case study was conducted with three state teacher education institutions based in large cities in Korea. The aims of the study were to understand the student teachers' practices and views of the teaching of speaking during the practicum and to identify any influence on their practices while undertaking the practicum. By tracing any change in their cognition after the practicum it was also aimed to understand to what extent the practicum had an impact on their learning to teach speaking.

This study collected data via classroom observations, subsequent interviews with the student teachers and their trainers as well as their mentors and head teachers during the practicum, and relevant documents gathered in the research context. The analysis of the cases showed that there was an impact of the practicum on the trainees' learning to teach speaking but this was limited and bound to their teaching context and that the extent of their learning or cognition change also varied to different degrees according to their teacher competency. Overall, no significant development in their cognition during the practicum was found. There was also incongruence between the trainees' initial expectations of the teaching of speaking with their actual practice, although their initial pedagogical beliefs with regard to student-centered communicative teaching were to some extent consistent throughout their practice. This incongruence was caused by the gap between the nature of teacher training and the reality of teaching in the classroom with a lack of collaboration between teacher colleges and secondary schools.

This study sheds light on the area of teaching speaking on which little research has been previously conducted particularly in the EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context by providing an in-depth qualitative account of student teachers' learning to teach speaking during the practicum through empirical research. This study, therefore, contributes to our understanding of teacher learning in the field of TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) teacher education.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	i
Abstract	ii
Table of Contents	iii
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures	x
List of Abbreviations	xi
List of Transcript Conventions	xii
Chapter 1. Introduction	
- 1.1. Introduction to the Study	1
1.2. Aims and Significance of the Study	
1.3. Overview of the Research Context.	<i>2</i> 6
1.4. English Education in Korea	
1.4.1 Educational Background	
1.4.2 National Curriculum	
1.4.2.1 Governmental Policies and National Curriculum Reforms	
1.4.2.2 National Curriculum Reforms for English Education in Secondary Sch	
1.4.3 English Education in Secondary Schools	
1.4.3.1 The Roles of Teachers and Students	
1.4.3.2 The Social and Cultural Contexts of Communicative Approaches	10
1.5. EFL Teacher Education in Korea	
1.5.1 The Traditional System of Pre-service Secondary English Teacher Education	
1.5.1.1 The System of the Teacher Certification	
1.5.1.2 The Period of the Practicum	
1.5.2 New Education Policy and Pre-service Secondary English Teacher Education.	
1.5.3 Recent Changes in In-service Secondary English Teacher Education	
1.6. Summary	16
Chapter 2. Literature Review	18
2.1. Overview	18
Part One. Literature Review on the Teaching Practicum	18
2.2. Research on Teacher Education and the Teaching Practicum	
2.3. The Role of the Practicum for Teacher Learning	
2.3.1 The Role of the Practicum	
2.3.2 The Role of Classroom Observation and Teaching Practice	
2.3.3 The Role of Mentoring	
2.3.4 The Role of Supervision2.4. The Nature of Teacher Learning during the Practicum	
2.4.1. Constructivist Views of Teacher Learning	
2.4.2. Socio-Cultural Perspectives and Inquiry-Based Reflective Models	
2.4.2. Socio Cultura l'espectives and inquiry Based Reneeuve Models	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	· _ /

2.5. The Impact of the Practicum on Teacher Cognition	28
2.5.1 Research on Teacher Cognition	
2.5.2 The Influence of Prior Cognition on Teaching Practice	29
2.5.3 The Impact of Teaching Practice on Teacher Knowledge	
2.5.4 The Impact of Teacher Training on Teacher Cognition	
2.6. The Challenges of the Practicum	
2.7. The Support from Teacher Training for the Practicum	37
Part Two. Literature Review on Teaching Speaking	40
2.8. Teaching Speaking in Contemporary ELT	40
2.8.1 Spoken Language and Speech Development	
2.8.2 Teaching Speaking in the Classroom	
2.9. Contemporary Perspectives and Principles for Teaching Speaking	42
2.9.1 Learner-Centred Pedagogies	42
2.9.2 Communicative Paradigms	
2.9.3 Task-Based Frameworks	
2.10. Contemporary Methodologies and Approaches to Teaching Speaking	
2.10.1 Communicative Tasks for Teaching Speaking	
2.10.1.1 Interaction Modification through Two-Way Communicative Tasks	
2.10.1.2 Input Enhancement through Structured and Repeated Tasks	
2.10.1.3 Proficiency Development through Accuracy and Fluency Tasks	
2.10.2 Communicative Strategies for Teaching Speaking	
2.10.3 Collaborative and Cooperative Strategies for Teaching Speaking	
2.10.3.1 Cognitive and Affective Learner Factors	
2.10.3.2 Socio-cultural and Contextual Factors	
2.11. Teaching Speaking in EFL Contexts	51
2.12. Summary	51
2.12. Summary	
Chapter 3. Methodology	
Chapter of Methodology	
3.1. Overview	57
3.2. Research Focus.	
3.4. Research Questions.	
3.4. Research Design	
3.4.1 Qualitative Research	
3.4.2 Naturalistic Inquiry	
3.4.3 Researcher Role	
	61
3.4.4 Purposeful Sampling	01
3.4.4 Purposeful Sampling	
1 1 0	62
3.4.5 Grounded Theory	62 62
3.4.5 Grounded Theory	62 62 66
 3.4.5 Grounded Theory 3.5. Case Study 3.6. Research Methods 3.6.1 Data Collection	62 62 66 66
 3.4.5 Grounded Theory. 3.5. Case Study. 3.6. Research Methods. 3.6.1 Data Collection. 3.6.1.1 Questionnaire. 3.6.1.2 Observation. 	62 62 66 66 68
 3.4.5 Grounded Theory 3.5. Case Study 3.6. Research Methods 3.6.1 Data Collection 3.6.1.1 Questionnaire 3.6.1.2 Observation 3.6.1.3 Interview 	62 62 66 66 68 70
 3.4.5 Grounded Theory. 3.5. Case Study. 3.6. Research Methods. 3.6.1 Data Collection. 3.6.1.1 Questionnaire. 3.6.1.2 Observation. 	62 62 66 66 68 70 73

3.6.2.1 Fieldwork Preparation (Piloting)	75
3.6.2.2 Institution Selection	
3.6.2.3 Participant Identification	78
3.6.2.4 Fieldwork	
3.6.2.4.1 Stage 1 – Teacher College	
3.6.2.4.2 Stage 2 – Practicum	
3.6.2.4.3 Stage 3 – Teacher College	
3.6.3 Transcribing and Translating Data	
3.6.4 Data Analysis	
3.6.4.1 Interview and Observation Analysis through Constant Comparative	
Coding	97
3.6.4.2 Case to Case Data Processing	
3.6.4.3 Cross-Case Synthesis and Theorising	
3.7. Validity and Reliability	
3.7.1 Triangulation	
3.7.2 Reflexivity	
3.7.3 Trustworthiness	
3.8. Ethics	
3.9. Summary	
·	

Chapter 4. Findings (1): Case 1 – Jinsung in Teacher College A 110
--

4.1. Overview	110
4.2. Teacher Training	
4.2.1 Trainer A1's Perspectives of the Practice Teaching Course	
4.2.2 Trainer A2's Perspectives of the English Language Course	
4.3. Teacher Trainee – Jinsung	
4.3.1 Jinsung's School Teachers' Perspectives of the Practicum and	
Teaching Speaking	116
4.3.1.1 Jinsung's Head Teacher's Perspectives of Practicum	
4.3.1.2 Jinsung's Mentor's Perspectives of Teaching Speaking	117
4.3.2 Jinsung's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking before the Practicum	118
4.3.3 Jinsung's Views and Practices of Teaching Speaking during the Practicum	122
4.3.3.1 Classroom Observation.	122
4.3.3.2 Jinsung's Practices of Teaching Speaking	
4.3.3.3 Jinsung's Views of Teaching Speaking and Context Factors	134
4.3.4 Jinsung's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking after the Practicum	142
4.3.5 Comparisons between Pre-practicum and Post-practicum	146
4.4. Summary	150

Chapter 5. Findings (2): Case 2 – Eunhae in Teacher College B...... 153

5.1. Overview	153
5.2. Teacher Training	
5.2.1 Trainer B1's Perspectives of the Teaching Listening Course	
5.2.2 Trainer B2's Perspectives of the Teaching Speaking Course	
5.3. Teacher Trainee – Eunhae	

5.3.1 Eunhae's School Teachers' Perspectives of the Practicum and	
Teaching Speaking	158
5.3.1.1 Eunhae's Head Teacher's Perspectives of the Practicum	158
5.3.1.2 Eunhae's Mentor's Perspectives of Teaching Speaking	159
5.3.2 Eunhae's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking before the Practicum	ı 160
5.3.3 Eunhae's Views and Practices of Teaching Speaking during the Practicum	165
5.3.3.1 Classroom Observation	165
5.3.3.2 Eunhae's Practices of Teaching Speaking	167
5.3.3.3 Eunhae's Views of Teaching Speaking and Context Factors	174
5.3.4 Eunhae's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking after the Practicum.	182
5.3.5 Comparisons between Pre-Practicum and Post-Practicum	186
5.6. Summary	190

Chapter 6. Findings (3): Case 3 – Haewon in Teacher College C.....193

6.1. Overview	193
6.2. Teacher Training	
6.2.1 Trainer C1's Perspectives of the Teaching English and	
American Culture Course	194
6.1.2 Trainer C2's Perspectives of the Teaching Methodology Course	195
6.3. Teacher Trainee – Haewon	197
6.3.1 Haewon's School Teachers' Perspectives of the Practicum and	
Teaching Speaking	197
6.3.1.1 Haewon's Head Teacher's Perspectives of the Practicum	
6.3.1.2 Haewon's Mentor's Perspectives of Teaching Speaking	.198
6.3.2 Haewon's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking before the Practicum	199
6.3.3 Haewon's Views and Practices of Teaching Speaking during the Practicum	202
6.3.3.1 Classroom Observation	203
6.3.3.2 Haewon's Practices of Teaching Speaking	204
6.3.3.3 Haewon's Views of Teaching Speaking and Context Factors	
6.3.4 Haewon's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking after the Practicum	
6.3.5 Comparisons between Pre-Practicum and Post-Practicum	
6.4. Summary	
-	

Chapter 7. Discussion	233
7.1. Overview	233
7.2. The Extent of the Practicum Effect on the Trainees' Cognition Change	and
Deeper Understanding of Teaching Speaking: Based on Comparisons o	f the
Trainees' Level of Understanding of Teaching Speaking before and after	er
the Practicum	234
7.2.1 Nature of Prior Cognition and Theoretical Knowledge Transfer	235
7.2.2 Nature of Practical Knowledge Development during the Practicum	237
7.2.3 The Extent of Overall Cognition Change after the Practicum through	
Conflicts and Challenges in Practicum Contexts	238
7.3. Challenges of Teaching Speaking in the National Curriculum Mandate	
Manner upon Consideration of Influences of Teacher Colleges and Sch	ool
Contexts	241

7.3.1 Challenges for Implementing TEE by the National Curriculum	
Recommendations	241
7.3.1.1 Basic Classroom English and Differentiation of TEE according to Lev	el241
7.3.1.2 Reconsideration of the Mother Tongue to Support TEE	243
7.3.2 Challenges for Implementing CLT by the National Curriculum	
Recommendations	244
7.3.2.1 Learner-Centred Communication-Oriented Approaches under	
Level-Based Curricula	244
7.3.2.2 Communicative Strategies and Activities according to	
National Curriculum Reforms	245
7.3.2.3 Incongruence between Theory and Practice of CLT under	
Contextual Challenges	
7.3.2.3.1 Teaching Speaking as Integrated with Listening and Reading	
7.3.2.3.2 Teaching Speaking as Textbook-Based Oral Practice	
7.3.3 Influences of School Contexts on Teaching Speaking	
7.3.3.1 Influences of School Policies, Head Teachers, Mentors, and Students.	
7.3.3.2 Influences of Education Systems and Socio-Cultural Contexts	
7.3.4 Influences of Teacher College Systems on Teaching Speaking	
7.3.4.1 Influences of Teacher Training Courses and Institutional Changes	
7.3.4.2 Lack of Coherent Curricula to Link Teacher Training and the Practicul 7.3.4.3 Lack of Collaboration between Teacher Colleges and Secondary School	
7.4. Comparisons of Similarities and Differences between the Cases	
7.5. Overall Impact of the Practicum on Learning to Teach Speaking	
7.6. Implications for Naturalistic Generalisation based on Lessons	
from the Case Studies	267
from the Case Studies	
from the Case Studies 7.7. Summary	
7.7. Summary	268
	268
7.7. Summary Chapter 8. Conclusion	268 269
7.7. SummaryChapter 8. Conclusion8.1. Overview	268 269 269
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 	268 269 269 269
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 	268 269 269 269
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher 	268 269 269 269 269 270
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 	268 269 269 269 270 271
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develop 	268 269 269 269 270 271 p
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develop Teacher Competency. 	268 269 269 269 270 271 p
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develoy Teacher Competency. 8.3.3 Developing Support Systems through Trainer Mentor Collaboration to 	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develop Teacher Competency. 8.3.3 Developing Support Systems through Trainer Mentor Collaboration to Maximize Field-Experience in School Contexts. 	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develop Teacher Competency. 8.3.3 Developing Support Systems through Trainer Mentor Collaboration to Maximize Field-Experience in School Contexts. 8.4. Implications for Teaching Speaking in EFL Contexts through Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Contexts. 	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develop Teacher Competency. 8.3.3 Developing Support Systems through Trainer Mentor Collaboration to Maximize Field-Experience in School Contexts. 8.4. Implications for Teaching Speaking in EFL Contexts through Communic Pedagogy and Methodology and Material Development. 	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative
 7.7. Summary. Chapter 8. Conclusion. 8.1. Overview. 8.2. Overview of the Study. 8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum. 8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts. 8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develop Teacher Competency. 8.3.3 Developing Support Systems through Trainer Mentor Collaboration to Maximize Field-Experience in School Contexts. 8.4. Implications for Teaching Speaking in EFL Contexts through Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Communication Contexts. 	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative 274
 7.7. Summary Chapter 8. Conclusion	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative 274
 7.7. Summary Chapter 8. Conclusion	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative 274 274 274
 7.7. Summary Chapter 8. Conclusion	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative 274 274 275 276
 7.7. Summary Chapter 8. Conclusion	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative 274 274 274 274 274 275 276 276
 7.7. Summary Chapter 8. Conclusion	268 269 269 269 270 271 p 272 273 cative 274 274 275 276 276 277

8.5.3 Challenges to Learning to Teach Speaking according to the National Curricu during the Practicum	279
8.5.4 The Extent of the Practicum Impact on Understanding of Teaching Speaking 8.6. Contributions of the Research	
8.7. Limitations of the Research	
8.8. Suggestions for Further Research	
8.6. Concluding Remarks	
o.o. Concluding Remarks	
References	287
Appendices	
Appendix 1. Teacher College Curricula	
Appendix 2. Preliminary Questionnaire	
Appendix 3. Initial Trainee Interview Topic Example	
Appendix 4. Trainer Interview Topic Example	
Appendix 5. Pre-observation Trainee Interview Topic Example	
Appendix 6. Classroom Observation	343
Appendix 7. Post-observation Trainee Interview Topic Example	
Appendix 8. Follow-Up Trainee Interview Topic Example	
Appendix 9. Mentor Interview Topic Example	
Appendix 10. Head Teacher Interview Topic Example	347
Appendix 11. Follow-Up Questionnaire	348
Appendix 12. Interview Analysis – Stage 1	350
Appendix 13. Interview Analysis – Stage 2	351
Appendix 14. Interview Analysis – Stage 3	352
Appendix 15. Classroom Observation – Jinsung (Field-note: Page 2)	353
Classroom Observation – Jinsung (Field-note: Page 7)	354
Appendix 16. Worksheet – Cross-Case Comparisons	355
Appendix 17. Information Sheet	357
Appendix 18. Consent Form	359
Appendix 19. Participant Letter	360
Appendix 20. The Activity Book in Jinsung's Lesson (Listening and Speaking)	361
Appendix 21. Jinsung's Lesson Plan	362
Appendix 22. The Textbook in Eunhae's Lesson (Listening and Speaking)	363
Appendix 23. Eunhae's PowerPoint Slides (Page1)	
Appendix 24. Eunhae's Lesson Plan	
Appendix 25. The Textbook in Haewon's Lesson (Reading and Speaking)	
Appendix 26. Haewon's PowerPoint Slides in Lesson 2 (Page 1)	
Appendix 27. Haewon's Handouts (Page 1)	
Appendix 28. Haewon's Lesson Plan in Lesson 2	
Appendix 29. Fieldwork Photos	
(Photos from the Lessons and English Speaking Zones)	371

List of Tables

Table 4.1. The differences between Jinsung's Views of Teaching Speaking before	
and after the Practicum	147
Table 5.1. The Differences between Eunhae's Views of Teaching Speaking before	
and after the Practicum	187
Table 6.1. The Differences between Haewon's views of Teaching Speaking before	
and after the Practicum2	225

List of Figures

Figure 3.1 < Fieldwork Stages>
Figure 3.2 < Practicum in Secondary Schools >
Figure 3.3 < Interactive Dimensions of Interrelated Factors to Teacher Learning
during Practicum >
Figure 3.4 < Fieldwork Period >
Figure 3.5 < Fieldwork Schedule >
Figure 3.6 < Relationships between Research Questions and Research Methods >85
Figure 3.7 < Research Design >
Figure 7.1 < Interactive Dimension from Hierarchical Innovation to Collaborative
Relationship >
Figure 7.2 < Influencing Factors on Learning to Teach Speaking in Practicum
Context >

List of Abbreviations

BERA	British Education Research Association
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELT	English Language Teaching
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
L1	First Language (Mother Tongue)
L2	Second Language (Target Language)
MOE	Ministry of Education
MEST	Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology
MEHRD	Ministry of Education and Human Resource Development
MPOE	Metropolitan and Provincial Office of Education
NSAT	National Scholastic Aptitude Test
PPP	Presentation Practice Production
PPT	PowerPoint Slide
TBL	Task-Based Learning
TEE	Teaching English in English
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

List of Transcript Conventions

[]	indicates omitted dialogue
	indicates a substantial pause during the talk
,	indicates a short pause during the talk (to mark a temporary stop or
	hesitation)
Italics	italics to mark classroom English which was spoken only in English by the
	trainees or the students (which was not translated from Korean)
Bold	bold characters to stress the specific functions of classroom talk spoken by
	the trainees or the students (based on data analysis)

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Introduction to the Study

In recent years as a response to globalization, there has been educational innovation in Korea to improve the quality of English education and English teacher education. In order to improve oral proficiency in English through school education, the government has introduced new education policies including recruitment of English speaking teachers to teach speaking, constant revision of the national curriculum, and the creation of an English-friendly educational environment. There have been gradual national curriculum reforms in recent years, as the new policy allows partial or full revision of the national curriculum whenever it is required to support social changes or educational needs. The policy resulted in national curriculum revision in February 2007 (MEHRD, 2007a), December 2009 (MEST, 2009), and September 2015 (MOE, 2015).

What has become evident during the curriculum change process in recent years is a gap between policy and practice. While policy emphasized the development of spoken English skills in schools, English teachers lack the required skill to teach English in English or to implement communicative pedagogy through task-based instruction in addition to a lack of understanding of effective methodology to teach speaking. There is a need for more teacher support through pre-service and in-service teacher education.

The changes introduced by the new policy also brought demands for teacher education. Preservice teacher education is beginning to be adjusted to try to better meet the new requirements for initial teacher preparation, by increasing the emphasis on the role of actual practice and on teaching performance as a measure of teacher quality. This study investigated pre-service trainees' practicum in terms of how it contributed to teacher learning. The particular focus was on how the trainees learn to teach speaking in the desired 'communicative' manner during teaching practice within a particular context of practice, and how or whether the inter-relations between factors such as teacher training, teacher cognition and teaching context affect each individual trainee's experience.

This study was of interest theoretically as the literature review suggested that there was a paucity of research on teacher learning through initial teaching practice in relation to teacher

cognition particularly in the area of teaching of spoken English. In terms of practice, this study examined an aspect of English teaching that is central to policy changes that have been taking place in recent years in Korea. That is, from 2008, government policy has aimed to enhance the quality of English education in public schools by strengthening pre-service English teacher education and introducing spoken English teacher certification.

To clarify the terms used in the thesis, I would first define the notion of 'teacher cognition' in my study. Throughout my discussion of 'teacher cognition', I use the term broadly to refer to various aspects of teachers' cognitions. I do not intend to separate teachers' beliefs, perceptions, knowledge, thinking or understanding from one another but use them integrally as part of teacher cognition. I also refer to student teachers or teacher trainees as 'trainees' throughout the thesis.

In the remainder of the thesis, I first introduce background information about Korean education to explain the research context in the introductory chapter (Chapter 1). Since educational changes and political power are closely related in Korea, I discuss recent education innovations by providing a brief history of national English curricula development trends. The literature review chapter (Chapter 2) explores the areas of previous research relevant to the research topic such as the role of the practicum in pre-service teacher education and current theory and methodology for the teaching of speaking in ELT (English Language Teaching). The methodology chapter (Chapter 3) presents the research questions and the design and process of the study. The findings chapters (Chapters 4 to 6) discuss the key findings of the three cases as divided into three chapters. In the discussion chapter (Chapter 7), the central themes derived from data analyses are discussed in detail. Finally, the conclusion chapter (Chapter 8) draws implications and indicates the areas for further study.

1.2. Aims and Significance of the Study

This study was an inquiry of the practicum impact on teacher learning in initial teacher education in Korea. The study aimed to investigate student teachers' cognition and practice during the practicum with a focus on teaching speaking. The main research question examined the relationship between the practicum experience and student teachers' cognition development. As Thomas (2010) refers to the 'prima facie' of research questions, I state the main research question below to inform the reader of what this study is about. Further sub-

questions of the study are presented in Chapter 3 Methodology with the main question revisited.

- Research Question: To what extent does the pre-service teachers' experience during the practicum affect their understanding of teaching speaking?

Since Korean English policies have been reformed to strengthen English teacher education and enhance the teaching of speaking in public schools, there is a need to examine the effect of pre-service English teacher education in relation to classroom practice of CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) and TEE (Teaching English in English). Therefore, this study investigated the extent to which the practicum had an impact on student teachers' cognition and practice of teaching speaking, and through the study it was anticipated to find out how the preservice English teacher education in Korea influenced student teachers' understanding of CLT and TEE and how this was manifested in classroom practice in school contexts.

The significance of this study can be explained regarding its importance in the field of TESOL, in terms of education policy and curriculum innovation in Korea, and in relation to my positionality as a TESOL educator. This study was of interest as the literature review on TESOL teacher education showed little research on the practicum to inquire about the nature of student teachers' cognition development during the practicum through qualitative and empirical investigations. This was particularly the case in Korea from the review of previous research on Korean secondary school English teacher education (e.g. Moodie and Nam, 2016). Moreover, the literature review has indicated that speaking skills have been scarcely researched amongst the four language skills (Hughes, 2002; Cohen, 1996), and based on an extensive literature review on TESOL teacher education including TESOL in Korea, it is clear that there are very few studies which examined the teaching of speaking in relation to teacher cognition and practice as compared to the teaching of grammar or writing (Borg, 2006), and therefore it is necessary to conduct more research on teaching speaking in relation to student teachers' cognition and practice in pre-service teacher education in TESOL (Wyatt, 2009; Borg, 2006). Contemporary ELT has given increasing attention to CLT and communicative competence development (e.g. Jeon and Song, 2014; Skuse, 2014; Celce-Murcia et al., 1997; Nunan, 1991; Rivers, 1987) as it is important to develop the ability to communicate in English amongst the non-native speakers of English for cross-cultural communication (Jenkins, 2007),

and therefore teaching how to communicate in English would be vital. Regrettably, the teaching of speaking has been rarely researched in TESOL due to the challenges of classroom innovation in a school context (Savignon, 1983). Therefore, I have conducted a qualitative study that helps to fill this gap in the literature and contributes to the field of ELT and TESOL teacher education.

In addition, English education, particularly, teaching speaking has been emphasised in Korea in recent years under new education policy announced since 2008, which intended to introduce teaching English in English (as a medium of instruction) into English classrooms in public schools and improve the quality of English education in Korea (Moodie and Nam, 2016; Lee and Park, 2010). There have been many changes including national curriculum reforms since then (e.g. MOE, 2015; MEST, 2009; MEHRD, 2007) and English curricula were revised in order to move toward communicative competence development in English. Along with strong spoken English policy, there has also been much emphasis on pre-service English teacher education in Korea over the past decade given that quality teacher training would result in quality teaching of English. Therefore, this study was of interest because of its focus on what was the center of English policy in recent years in Korea. This study makes a contribution to education policy, especially, spoken English policy in Korea, by informing further all the stakeholders involved in curriculum innovation in Korea of the nature of teaching speaking, CLT and TEE in state-school English classrooms during the period of the practicum through the voices of student teachers of English in response to the policy initiatives. This study also contributes to secondary school English teacher education in Korea and TESOL teacher education by bringing insight into the complicated internal process of teacher learning and contextual factors during initial teaching practice.

Moreover, this study was of interest personally because I am an experienced TESOL educator. I am an outsider researcher but with an insider view of the research context to some extent in that I share ethnicity and culture with the research participants and the research settings are not completely strange to me (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009: Mercer, 2007). Sikes (2004) states that it is important for researchers to think about their paradigmatic and philosophical positioning and how their assumptions and positioning influence their research approach. It is important to be aware of and explain the researcher's positioning and monitoring the influence on their research will enable the researcher to guard against bias in and criticism of

their research processes and outcomes (Sikes, 2004). Therefore, I explain my background in the field of TESOL where I position myself as a senior English teacher since teachers' cultural assumptions and beliefs, or personal and social values influence their positionality (Rehm and Allison, 2006). I worked as an English teacher in both secondary schools and foreign language institutions in Korea before I came to the UK for higher education. I initially worked as an English teacher in middle school but as my main interest was the teaching of speaking, I moved my position to become a spoken English teacher and I had been involved particularly in the teaching of speaking to teenagers in foreign language institutions in Korea. I refer to those English teachers who are mainly responsible for teaching speaking skills and developing students' oral proficiency through private tuition outside formal school education as a spoken English teacher. As written English skills are prioritized in school education, speaking skills or spoken English are usually taught in foreign language institutions either by native English teachers (who are from English speaking countries such as USA, UK, Canada or Australia) or by Korean English teachers who are fluent in spoken English. My teaching experience as a spoken English teacher has continued in the UK as I have worked with international teenagers in the language centers or the summer schools as a spoken English teacher during and after my Master's degree in ELT until the first year of my PhD. Since I have gained much experience in teaching speaking, I had a desire to help EFL teachers and students in acquiring spoken English in classroom environments and increasing communicative competence in speaking through skillful and appropriate teaching approaches to Korean contexts. However, I was also aware from my experience that good teaching of speaking was not merely related to teaching skills but to many other factors that underpinned the classroom aspirations in the minds of the teachers, and I was motivated to further look into such factors governing the internal process of classroom practice. Having played the role of a senior instructor in charge of training novice teachers, I have expanded my interest in initial teacher training and have developed my initial motive to explore further the field of initial teacher training and the impact on trainees' cognitive and practical development in the EFL context of Korea and contribute to TESOL teacher education. From an axiological perspective (Creswell and Poth, 2018), I acknowledge that my values and experiences as a spoken English teacher in TESOL would frame how I approached this study and how I interpreted data and findings. My positionality, therefore, has an influence on my approach to the study, requiring reflexivity in being conscious of the risk of bias and preventing it as far as possible (Schostak, 2010) (see Chapter 3).

1.3. Overview of the Research Context

The educational context of the study will be discussed in the next two sections. First, the system of secondary school English education in Korea will be discussed by presenting a brief history of the national English curriculum development. After this, the system of pre-service English teacher education in Korea will be discussed in relation to the recent changes made to teacher certification and teacher training, and the expected changes for in-service English teacher education will also be briefly reviewed.

1.4. English Education in Korea

In this section, I will first introduce the educational background to English learning and teaching in Korea and provide a detailed review of national English curricula and secondary school English education in Korea.

1.4.1 Educational Background

The importance of English education has been highly emphasized in Korea particularly in recent years. English is taught as one of the foreign languages in Korea, but its significance is highly recognized all over the country (Chung and Choi, 2016), since English has been viewed as an instrumental tool to achieve success and advancement in professional career development after graduation, along with 'the educational fever', which refers to a generally high expectation for education in Korea. English education has been examination-centered in preparation for the national scholastic aptitude test (NSAT) for the university entrance. Under the existing education system, there has been much emphasis on written English rather than spoken English or language use outside the classroom in the real world. However, in the era of a global and information-based society, English is viewed as an international language (EIL) or a lingua franca (ELF). Therefore, it has become increasingly recognized that it is important to acquire spoken English and communicative ability in order to communicate effectively across cultures (e.g. Jenkins, 2007). Changes in official views of English can be seen by looking at the development history of the national curriculum revision, particularly, from the major innovation in the 6th or 7th national curriculum (e.g. Kwon, 2008; Chang and Lee, 2003) to 2007 and 2009 revised national curricula which are in effect until the present.

1.4.2 National Curriculum

Now I will briefly review Korean national curricula in relation to the governmental policies and then the recent trends of English curriculum reforms in secondary schools.

1.4.2.1 Governmental Policies and National Curriculum Reforms

The previous national curricula in Korea were changed every ten years by the central government according to changes in government policy but since 1989 they have been reformed every five years (Wang and Park, 2008). As the national curriculum reforms resulted from political power changes rather than in response to educational or social needs, there was little involvement by schools or teachers in the decision-making of education policy or curriculum development (Kim, 2004). The planning, monitoring, and assessing of compulsory education in Korea is controlled by the Ministry of Education (MOE), which from 2008 to 2012 has been called the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST). Compulsory education consists of a six-year primary school and a three-year lower-secondary school, which are followed by a three-year upper-secondary school and a four-year university for those who continue education. All the levels of public and private schools are under control of the MOE, which sets the criteria or guidelines for the number of subjects in each school, the time allocation for each subject, and the type of textbooks including teaching methods and activities (INCA, 2008).

Though the decision-making on the Korean curriculum was greatly centralized by the government, there has been a gradual decentralization of decision-making processes in the education system through the national curriculum reforms over the last decade. There has been collaboration in curriculum revision at the local level by the Metropolitan and Provincial Office of Education (MPOE) since the 6th national curriculum (Wang and Park, 2008), and new education policy has been employed to establish and develop school-level curricula (Wang and Park, 2008). Greater efforts are also being made to incorporate autonomy and creativity amongst students as a central focus of the national curriculum revision based on learner-centered pedagogy (MOE, 2015; MEST, 2011). Moreover, in line with globalization, there has been an increasing emphasis on English education.

1.4.2.2 National Curriculum Reforms for English Education in Secondary Schools

English is one of the major subjects in the Korean curriculum. Until the national curriculum reforms in the 1990s, English education centered on grammar instruction through teacherdirected whole-class teaching. There was a focus on knowledge transmission, influenced by traditional educational philosophy based on Confucianism. (e.g. Lee, 2006; Cha, 2003). There have been a number of revisions in the English national curriculum since the 1990s to cope with the recent trend of globalization (Park, 2005) by a growing move toward progressivism in educational philosophy (Chang and Lee, 2003).

From the 5th national curriculum (1989), spoken English has been emphasized, and teaching of listening and speaking skills have been given attention in secondary school English education (Im, 2007). Since 1997 English education has become compulsory in primary schools from grade 3 at the age of nine (Im, 2007), and native speakers of English have been assigned to assist teaching spoken English (Kwon, 2008). The overall aims of English education are stated in the revised national curriculum (2007) as 'to develop communicative competence to be able to understand and use English for daily life conversations, and also by learning the foreign culture to develop and introduce our national culture to the foreign country' (MEST, 2008a:20). The goal of secondary school English education is to equip students with oral proficiency in English to have a good command of English in a global or international society.

From the 6th national curriculum (1992), there was a shift of emphasis toward a communicative approach, with the movement from a grammatical syllabus to a notional-functional syllabus, and in the 7th national curriculum (1995) a learner-centered curriculum was advocated (Wang and Park, 2008). The main changes in the 7th national curriculum are the employment of a process-oriented syllabus and the adoption of a task-based communicative approach to provide a variety of meaning-focused communicative tasks for autonomous language learning (MEST, 2008b; Chang and Lee, 2003).

The 7th national curriculum emphasized the need for balancing between accuracy and fluency by focusing on 'form' and 'communicative function' to incorporate grammar structure and language function (MEST, 2008b). The curriculum focused on individual differences in abilities and aptitudes with a proficiency-based or level-based (streamed) curriculum system

(MEST, 2008b; Chang, 2001, cited in Chang and Lee, 2003). However, it was indicated that there was a mismatch between communicative methodology and the notional-functional syllabus with communicative practice heavily based on language-function drilling without involving meaningful communication (Yoon, 2004), thus constituting a gap between theory and practice (Kwon, 2008). To attend to this gap and rapid social changes, the new national curriculum (partially revised in 2007 and announced in 2009) introduced a continual (partial or full) revision process, allowing for continual revisions whenever necessary to incorporate social changes or educational needs (MEST, 2008a). The revised national curriculum (2009) aims to enhance communicative competence and cultural awareness to encourage natural communication, as well as aiming to develop teaching methodologies and assessment systems to adjust the standard of speaking to the Korean context. In addition, the revised national curriculum (2015), which is applied to grade 1 in secondary education from March 2018, places more emphasis on student-centered communication-oriented teaching and learning of English, thus reducing learning standards and encouraging performance-based assessment. By reducing the learning standards for achievement and the amount of content to learn each year, the government intends to lower the burden and demand on students in terms of learning subject knowledge and to enable students to be more able to participate in communicative activities or collaborative projects during the class hours in English lessons.

1.4.3 English Education in Secondary Schools

Contemporary ELT approaches such as communicative language teaching (CLT) and taskbased learning (TBL) have been introduced in Korea in recent years with a movement of communicative competence to replace a focus on grammar (Canale and Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972). Since the introduction of CLT and TBL in the national curriculum in the 1990s, there have been dramatic changes in educational policies for English education in order to incorporate new approaches in secondary schools in Korea. However, it has been indicated that there has been no significant change in classroom contexts in terms of teachers' and students' roles or in relation to learner-centered or collaborative pedagogy (e.g. Lim, 2007). There seem to be a number of factors that influence the effectiveness of curriculum innovation and education policy for secondary school English education in Korea, and it is important to understand CLT or TBL in terms of the relationships between teachers and students in the social and cultural contexts of secondary schools in Korea, which I explain below.

1.4.3.1 The Roles of Teachers and Students

English education in Korea was characterized as teacher-fronted or teacher-centered since it was the teacher who played a central role in the process of classroom learning and teaching. This has been the case in the teaching of all subjects, including the teaching of English. The teacher was traditionally viewed as an authority figure, and the dominant role of the teacher and passive attitudes of the students were typical in the traditional large classrooms in Korea. This vertical teacher-student relation was influenced by the Confucian tradition, which emphasizes a hierarchical social structure or relationship (e.g. Lee, 2006; Cha, 2003; Littlewood, 1999; Jones, 1995).

Students are also reticent to participate in communicative interaction due to anxiety provoked by speaking in a foreign language in the large classroom (e.g. see MacIntyre et al., 2003, 1998; Tsui, 1996; Horwitz et al., 1986; Steinberg and Horwitz, 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1984). Though since the 1990s the traditional roles of teachers and students have been challenged to move toward learner-centered and communicative classrooms, there seem still to be barriers and constraints to communication-oriented or task-based learning and teaching of English as traditional concepts or expectations of teaching remain in the socio-cultural contexts of Korea.

1.4.3.2 The Social and Cultural Contexts of Communicative Approaches

In secondary schools in Korea, students take six 45 minute lessons during the day (for five days per week since 2008) and English lessons are allocated for 3 hours per week for grade 1 and grade 2, and 4 hours per week for grade 3. Even though it is encouraged to make the most use of English in the classroom with an increasing emphasis on the ability to speak English fluently through communicative methodology, there is still limited exposure to English as there is no real need to communicate in English outside the classroom in Korea. There is also frequent use of the mother tongue (L1) in the classroom.

With no systematic teacher training in communicative methodology, individual teachers seem to have diverse views and perspectives on the roles and functions of CLT in the classroom. Moreover, English teachers in secondary schools lack the necessary skills for group instruction or task design to teach English communicatively and may adopt new approaches inappropriately in EFL classrooms (e.g. Kwon, 2008; Yoon, 2004). There are also contextual

constraints on teacher and student autonomy under the existing education system, which works against the decentralization advocated by the recent national curriculum revisions. For example, the school curriculum is heavily examination-centered (Im and Jeon, 2009), based on written skills (Im, 2007). Though there were attempts to vary the textbooks across the schools to reflect students' proficiencies (Im, 2007) and to improve the quality of the textbooks by presenting spoken English examples, grading tasks, and integrating language skills according to the 7th national curriculum (Hahn, 2001), the textbooks do not differentiate individual abilities or interests.

In addition, English teachers' lack of oral proficiency in speaking English seems to be a barrier to the successful implementation of CLT in secondary schools in Korea (Choi, 2013; Kim, 2008a, 2002; Choi, 2000). Though recent research reports that there has been an improvement in the level of oral proficiency of the newly qualified English teachers in Korea (Shin, 2012), since the development of spoken English was usually based on private teaching outside school education (Kim, 2017; Koo, 2007), most English teachers still remain limited in their oral proficiency and ability to teach English in English (Ko, 2016; Jo, 2013; Im and Jeon, 2009; Jeon, 2008; Kim, 2008a, 2002). To incorporate the revised national curriculum requirements, the teacher is supposed to be a deliverer of high-level subject knowledge and also a supporter of the learning and teaching context (Im, 2008; Yang 1998) to create a cheerful atmosphere or environment free from fear of speech errors or peer pressure (Park, 2000). Hence much continuous teacher development is needed to support such teacher competence and autonomy.

The large class size which typically consists of 25 to 30 students is also a hindrance to providing more communicative opportunities or individual feedback as well as to monitoring group work or task control. Though the streamed system (which allocates students into smaller classes according to their academic abilities) has been introduced in secondary schools in recent years, class sizes have not greatly reduced, and therefore the same problems have continued (e.g. Min and Jo, 2014). It seems necessary to train teachers in grouping and to train students in working cooperatively for success in collaborative learning and teaching of English (e.g. Johnson and Johnson, 1998). There is also a need for qualified English teachers as well as more English teachers in order to effectively teach speaking in line with government policy. It is important to understand these factors which affect the successful introduction of communicative approaches to English teaching in Korean secondary schools, in order to be able to improve teachers' practice with systematic support from pre-service and in-service

teacher training. In the next section, I will discuss the system of English teacher education in Korea.

1.5. EFL Teacher Education in Korea

Since English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) in Korea, English teacher education was traditionally organized to train teachers to teach English as one of the foreign languages which are taught in secondary schools. In light of the new English policy, however, the direction of English teacher education has also gone through a rapid change at both pre-service and inservice levels in recent years. Now I will explain the changes in English teacher training programs in Korea with a primary focus on pre-service English teacher education.

1.5.1 The Traditional System of Pre-service Secondary English Teacher Education

In this section, I will first explain the traditional system of pre-service English teacher education at the secondary level in relation to the teacher certification and the practicum.

1.5.1.1 The System of the Teacher Certification

Pre-service teacher education in Korea is provided in teachers' colleges and departments of education (or graduate schools of education) in major universities as regulated in the national curriculum (MEHRD, 2007b). Upon completion of four-year teacher training, trainees are awarded an English teacher certificate (class 1 from teachers' colleges and class 2 from education developments in universities) at graduation. The system of teacher education in Korea has been centered on theoretical aspects by providing foundational courses on subject knowledge and pedagogy (for example, English Linguistics, English Grammar, English Reading and Writing, English Literature, English Teaching Theories and Methodologies, English Textbooks and Materials, English Conversations), whereas there are relatively few opportunities for trainees to have practical teaching experience, either as part of their course or through their fairly short period of in-school teaching practice.

Pre-service secondary teacher education has been organized according to the curricula of individual teacher colleges or education departments in universities (Kim, 2009). It was viewed as trainer-centered, since training courses were delivered by lectures under trainer

control, rather than through interaction and collaboration between trainers and trainees. There has also been little training to develop oral proficiency, with little exposure to spoken English, and since there is no real need to use English outside the classroom, most trainees develop oral proficiency in private language institutions outside of the regular teacher education curricula. It has also been indicated that there is a lack of connection between the teacher education system and the school curriculum. The teacher certification system has been criticized as ineffective to measure teaching quality, as the assessment system is mainly centered on theory (Kim, 2009; Im, 2008). Therefore, there is a demand for the reformation of pre-service English teacher education, in order to better prepare trainees to incorporate recent innovations in English education.

1.5.1.2 The Period of the Practicum

The practicum is an assessed and compulsory component of pre-service teacher training. It usually takes place in local lower or upper secondary schools, as arranged by the pre-service teacher education institutions. The trainees in the final year (4th grade in the university) are sent to secondary schools for teaching practice between March and May for 4 weeks. During the practicum, the trainees experience a short period of supervised teaching including observations in the early weeks, followed by intensive independent teaching for the rest of the period.

There is no standardized scheme of support from the mentor or the trainer in the pre-service teacher education institution during the practicum. The mentor role played by a classroom teacher is flexible during the practicum, and it is not obligatory to arrange regular meetings with the trainees apart from observing and commenting on teaching practice during the early period of teaching or assessing overall performance at the end. There is therefore great variety in terms of the type of support that the trainees receive from classroom teachers as the mentors' styles vary. Thus, while the trainees are free from the control of the mentors, they have to deal independently with the different challenges that arise from adjusting to classroom teaching and school life during the practicum.

The need to extend the practicum has also been raised. It has been pointed out that the practicum is too short to enable trainees to apply what they learned from teacher training to classroom practice as it is intended to do (Kim, 2009, 2000). After the completion of pre-

service teacher education with an English teacher certificate, trainees begin professional careers as teachers after passing through the open competition, which is called a teacher appointment examination (Jo, 2008).

1.5.2 New Education Policy and Pre-service Secondary English Teacher Education

Over the last decade, the Korean government has announced new education policies to change the English education system. One of the government projects to promote English education in Korea was to establish TEE in public schools (MEST, 2008c). With an emphasis on spoken English development, the government introduced intensive teacher training at pre-service and in-service levels to train English teachers for TEE and to create an English-friendly educational environment in public schools (Im and Jeon, 2009). Under the government policy, English speaking teachers were also recruited in the autumn of 2009 from those holding English teachers' certificates and were employed in public schools mainly to take charge of teaching speaking from 2010. More native speakers of English were also employed to assist and collaborate with English speaking teachers and enhance students' motivation and oral proficiency (Kim and Hahn, 2009).

To support the development of communicative competence in English, the government has attempted to increase the amount of exposure to English, and also to create learner-centered educational environments in public schools. For example, the hours of primary school English classes were increased, from 1 to 2 hours per week for grade 3 and 4 in 2010, and from 2 to 3 hours per week for grade 5 and 6 in 2011, and English study rooms were introduced to create English-friendly classrooms which were designated for experiential learning of English in primary schools and English-specific autonomous learning in secondary schools (MEST, 2008d). There was also an attempt to introduce a national English ability test (NEAT) to replace 'TOEIC' or 'TOFEL' and to assess English including speaking in the NSAT between 2012 and 2014. Whilst the NEAT was discontinued from 2015, the government has introduced a criterion-based assessment system to assess English in the NSAT from 2018. Regarding recent changes in the NSAT, however, teachers, students, and parents seem to encounter confusion and be concerned that whilst private tuition did not decrease, English education may become more examination-centered despite the fact that the government has been laying stress on developing communicative competence in English through school education (Lee, 2016, 2014).

Concerning the teacher education system, one of the main changes in recent years was the employment of the teacher performance assessment system across the country from 2010. The aim of assessing teachers was to improve the effectiveness of teaching and as a result to promote the effectiveness of learning in the classroom. Under the government policy to develop English education and English teacher education, it was also proposed to strengthen the teacher certification system to improve the quality of the teacher through effective teacher selection procedures, that is, placing more emphasis on testing teaching performance (Im, 2008), and intensifying the assessment of pre-service teacher education institutions (Lee, 2009).

It seems that until recent changes, there has been a lack of connection between theory and practice in teacher education, and this seems to be attributed to the traditional knowledgebased teacher education system in Korea (Im, 2008). There was a need for changes to existing teacher education programs to reflect the new contexts of teaching and the needs of the trainees. In response, there has been a shift in the teacher education curriculum in recent years according to the emphasis on spoken English in the national curriculum (Im, 2008). This shift has been toward spending more time during initial teacher training programs on developing spoken English, teaching methodology, and classroom English to cope with TEE.

The government planned to further develop the system of pre-service English teacher education. The changes included varying courses and seminars in teacher training in order to support trainees' needs and interests for professional development, as well as providing further professional teacher training at graduate schools after graduating from the teacher college (Kim, 2009). In addition, it was encouraged to focus more on the process of teacher learning and to involve the trainees in interactions and discussions through various tasks during teacher training, moving from top-down to bottom-up approaches (Im, 2007). The government also proposed to offer more opportunities for teaching practice and classroom observations during the practicum (Im, 2007; Kim, 2000).

1.5.3 Recent Changes in In-service Secondary English Teacher Education

There has also been much change in in-service English teacher education in Korea as a result of the shift of government policies and curriculum reforms in recent years. There is much emphasis on in-service teacher training in oral proficiency through spoken English courses or multimedia programs. The government has been trying to increase regular in-service teacher training and introduce contemporary teacher training models (e.g. Richards and Farrell, 2005; Wallace, 1991; Nunan, 1989a) in order to train English teachers in CLT and TEE (e.g. Jung and Ko, 2015; Lee and Jung, 2012), whilst varying in-service teacher training programmes through interactive activities to meet teachers' needs and interests. Peer observation or collegial collaboration by the community of teachers is also encouraged for self-directed or inquiry-based teacher learning. There seems also to be a movement toward building partnerships between university educators, school teachers, curriculum developers, and policymakers, as well as collaborations between educational organizations and research centers or academic associations in English education.

1.6. Summary

In this chapter, I have reviewed English education and English teacher education in Korea to inform the research context, and I have also explained the aims and significance of the study and my positionality. From the review of the education context in Korea, there seems to be much pressure on English teachers in Korea to acquire the practical skills needed to cope with the current educational system and incorporate new educational changes under rapid educational policy changes and curriculum reforms, and therefore there is a need to continue professional development after pre-service teacher education. There seems also a need to reconsider aspects of how pre-service teacher education is conceived, and to enhance the collaboration between teacher education, secondary education and the Ministry of Education. The educational policy aims at reducing the burden of private teaching and enhancing the quality of teaching in public schooling. To enhance the quality of school education by improving the quality of classroom practice, there needs to be effective support from teacher education.

There was therefore a need and a demand for research on how pre-service English teacher education in Korea can better support the goals of the national curriculum, through systematic investigations of the dimensions of teacher training with a consideration of the social and cultural contexts of secondary schools and with reflection on the nature of teacher learning in initial teacher training in relation to classroom practice. When designing the study, it was of interest to consider how pre-service English teacher education in Korea can contribute to teacher development and teacher learning through connecting theory and practice with policy to keep up with educational changes towards the new direction of English education.

To define and justify the focus of this study further, the following literature review will explore contemporary views on the pre-service teaching practicum and teaching speaking in ELT.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1. Overview

This chapter consists of two parts. In Part One I review the literature on the teaching practicum and in Part Two I review the literature on teaching speaking. The first part of the literature review explores the role of the practicum in pre-service teacher education in the light of contemporary perspectives on teacher education. Given that there is an increasing awareness of the significance of the practicum in pre-service teacher education in Korea, I first review recent trends in research on teacher education and the practicum, and the role of the practicum will be discussed in relation to the nature of teacher learning, the impact on teacher cognition, contextual challenges, and teacher training support.

The second part of the literature review examines the dynamic aspects and processes of teaching speaking in the classroom in the light of contemporary theoretical and methodological development in ELT. After briefly looking at the study of teaching speaking in contemporary ELT, contemporary perspectives and approaches to teaching speaking with respect to CLT and TBL will be reviewed, and issues related to implementing CLT and TBL in EFL contexts will also be reviewed with a consideration of the Korean EFL context where teaching speaking has been stressed in recent years.

I have reviewed previous research relevant to my study and have provided a theoretical review of literature as well as substantive findings in that a theoretical review of literature serves as a conceptual and theoretical underpinning for my study.

Part One. Literature Review on the Teaching Practicum

2.2. Research on Teacher Education and the Teaching Practicum

Research on teacher education has shifted the emphasis in the last two decades. According to Cochran-Smith and Fries (2008), a brief history of research on teacher education (mainly in the USA) can be summarised as a focus on curriculum studies between the 1920s and 1950s, on teacher training from the 1950s to the 1980s, and on teacher learning between the 1980s and the 2000s, with a growing interest in education policy from the late 1990s until the 2000s.

Most research on teacher training between the 1960s and 1970s was based on empirical research on effective teaching or microteaching. Whilst there was too much emphasis on teachers' behaviors, however, teachers' inner life in relation to how they learn or think was completely neglected and it was not until the 1980s that TESOL teacher education research focused on teacher learning and teacher cognition. Research started to investigate teacher belief and knowledge in relation to classroom practice to understand teacher learning from the teacher cognition perspective (Borg, 2006; Freeman, 2002). However, as Cochran-Smith and Fries (2008) indicate, there was little research into teachers' cognitions about student learning (Shulman, 2002) or education policy.

Shulman (2002, cited in Cochran-Smith and Fries, 2008:1081) argues that more research on teacher education is necessary with a consideration of 'cognition, content, context, and outcome', to understand the relationships between teacher belief and knowledge, classroom practice, and student learning and achievement (Cochran-Smith and Fries, 2008:1087). That is, there is a need for more research on teacher education through the integration of curriculum studies, teacher training, teacher learning, and educational policies through effective research methodologies (Cochran-Smith and Fries, 2008:1087) to support teacher learning from and for practice (Darling-Hammond, 2006:305). As Nakata (2015) and Borg (2009) state that previous educational research has been largely based on positivism and quantitative research traditions until recently, there is a call for more empirical research in teacher education and TESOL in particular.

Research reports the importance of field experience for teacher learning in pre-service teacher education (e.g. Farrell, 2008). The teaching practicum has been researched in relation to preservice teachers' initial teaching practice and its impact on teacher learning as an effective tool in teacher training (Malderez and Wedell, 2007; Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1986). The practicum is crucial to enhance prospective teachers' understanding of teaching through the real experience of teaching since actual learning to teach takes place during classroom practice (e.g. Grinberg, 2002; Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1986). The practicum is also essential as a bridge between teacher preparation and teacher career (Stanulis and Russell, 2000).

Research on the practicum is necessary to investigate the contribution of field experience to teacher learning or professional development (Richards and Crooks, 1988, cited in Farrell,

2008). However, there has been relatively little research on the practicum in teacher education (Baek and Ham, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2006). There is a paucity of research on student teachers' initial teaching experience or conceptualisation of teaching during the practicum in relation to the nature of teacher learning or the impact of teacher training on teacher learning in the field of TESOL (Canh, 2014; Farrell, 2008, 2001; Borg, 2006; Crookes, 2003; Johnson, 1996a). Previous research on the TESOL practicum has shown that different factors influence pre-service English teacher cognition and practice during the practicum (e.g. Yavuz, 2011; Kabilan and Izzaham, 2008; Farrell, 2008, 2007, 2003, 2001; Da Silva, 2005; Johnson, 1996a, 1994, 1992; Numrich, 1996) and there is a need for more empirical research on the practicum in TESOL teacher education to examine the inter-relations between teacher cognition and practice or the development of teacher cognition and practice during the practicum (Borg, 2006).

2.3. The Role of the Practicum for Teacher Learning

In this section, the role of the practicum is reviewed briefly with regard to student teachers' learning through observations, teaching practice, mentoring, and supervision.

2.3.1 The Role of the Practicum

The teaching practicum refers to the practical teaching period taking place in schools, which is designed as part of pre-service teacher training programs to provide student teachers with in-school practice teaching experience. This involves observations and supervised teaching for a certain duration in a placement through partnerships between teacher colleges and local schools. Through observations and guided teaching with the assistance of mentoring and supervision, trainees acquire the practicalities of teaching, situated and contextualized in school contexts (Spooner-Lane et al., 2009; Lave and Wenger, 1991).

According to Olaitan and Agusiobon (1981), the desirable goal of the practicum is to help teacher colleges develop further by evaluating the effect of teacher training, identifying areas for further improvement, and building up relationships with local schools, as well as to contribute to the development of local schools by promoting teachers' teaching and students' learning, improving school curricula, and bringing innovations to teaching processes and methodologies. However, there are differences in the length of the practicum between

countries. For example, the practicum in East Asian countries like China, Vietnam, Hong Kong, and South Korea is 4 to 6 weeks, and in Malaysia and Turkey it lasts 14 weeks, while European countries tend to have a longer practicum, that is, 24 weeks in Norway, over 14 weeks in the case of the UK and the USA, and 1 year placement in Portugal. There is also variation in the amount of teaching practice and the support from or training for mentors and supervisors during the practicum (Farrell, 2008; Arnold, 2006; Burant and Kirby, 2002; Olaitan and Agusiobo, 1981).

2.3.2 The Role of Classroom Observation and Teaching Practice

The important role of classroom observation has been emphasized as a major tool to train teaching skills in pre-service teacher education. Dewey (1904) mentions the importance of the apprenticeship of observing the classroom teacher during the practicum in acquiring practical skills and understanding the psychological aspects and interactive dimensions of teaching, that is, the perspectives and motives behind teaching (Borg, 2006). Through observations, trainees get to understand the relationship between theory and practice in the classroom by monitoring the classroom teacher (e.g. Day, 1990), and systematic observations help trainees to understand teaching processes and develop teaching strategies (e.g. Fish, 1989).

Once trainees have observed classroom teachers, they start teaching practice in the classroom. Teaching practice is viewed as central in learning to teach through field experience (e.g. Chiang, 2008; Russell, 1995; Whitehead, 1995; Calderhead, 1988), that is, for making sense of teaching by classroom experience (Johnson, 1996b). The essential role of teaching practice is to give trainees the opportunity to learn to teach from actual practice (Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001; Tickle, 1989). The process of learning to teach during the practicum appears to be rather complex, unsystematic, and unplanned (Gage, 2008), but teaching practice is essential to acquire professional knowledge or practical knowledge, that is, practical 'knowing' (Maynard, 1996), and for the recruitment of trainees to the teaching profession (Olaitan and Agusiobo, 1981).

The experience of teaching practice provides trainees, who obtained subject or curriculum knowledge and teaching methodology in teacher education, with the opportunity to put theory into practice and examine the relationships between subject knowledge and classroom practice, thus becoming more aware of the relationships between what to teach and how to teach, that

is, 'knowledge what' and 'knowledge how' (Malderez and Wedell, 2007; Olaitan and Agusiobo, 1981). Teaching practice during the practicum aims at promoting teacher learning through the developmental phases of teaching (Furlong and Maynard, 1995; Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead, 1987; Fuller, 1969), and practical knowledge by helping trainees conceptualize teaching experience (Johnston, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Schön, 1987, 1983; Elbaz, 1983). That is, trainees, go through a number of stages from awareness-raising and adjusting to schools, to participating in classrooms (Olaitan and Agusiobo, 1981), and learn to teach from learning the content of the lesson towards more fundamental or subtle aspects of teaching (Bateson, 1972, cited in Handal and Lauvås, 1987).

Teaching practice enables trainees to acquire practical skills such as lesson planning and classroom management, to familiarise themselves with instructional methods and materials or school curricula and systems, to discover personal strengths and weaknesses for effective teaching, and to build up collegial relationships (Chiang, 2008; Farrell, 2001; Richards and Crookes, 1988; Olaitan and Agusiobo, 1981). In addition to acquiring practical teaching skills, trainees become more aware of their own theories, principles or philosophies of teaching, elaborate their previous beliefs on teaching (Farrell, 2007; Urmston, 2003; Maynard, 1996; Handal and Lauvås, 1987), and develop teacher knowledge and teacher efficacy (Chiang, 2008; Fives et al., 2006; Tang, 2004; Tillema, 2000).

2.3.3 The Role of Mentoring

Mentoring in teacher education generally refers to scaffolding support provided to the novice teacher by the experienced teacher and is often based on one to one communication or relationship. In this study, mentoring is defined as individual support or guidance provided to the student teacher by the classroom teacher who is in charge of the observing, monitoring, and assessing of the student teacher's teaching practice during the practicum. Mentoring support has been regarded as essential for the success and growth of trainees during the practicum as experienced teachers help transform novice teachers' perspectives and practices of teaching (Feiman-Nemser and Beasley, 1997). As Farrell (2008) indicates, the role of a mentor has been emphasized as a direct source for trainees' emotional and practical support with a powerful influence on teaching styles (e.g. Brouwer and Korthagen, 2005; Moor, 2003) or instructional decision-making (e.g. Ronfeldt and Reininger, 2012; Rozelle and Wilson,

2012; Cook, 2007). A mentor is the classroom teacher who is in charge of supervising an individual trainee through face to face mentoring support during the practicum and plays an important role in observing and providing feedback on the trainee's teaching practice as well as assisting the trainee's socialization in the classroom. Each trainee is allocated to a particular mentor's classroom. The mentor's scaffolding helps trainees learn classroom instruction and management strategies, and enhances their learning potential of teaching (Tomlinson, 1995), while lack of mentor support in terms of teaching methods often causes trainees to struggle with classroom practice (Yayli, 2008; Mallette et al., 2000; Winitzky et al., 1992).

Studies report the important role of mentor support in trainees' learning to teach (e.g. Mena et al., 2017; Velzen et al, 2012; Nilssen, 2010; Duffield, 2006; Farrell, 2001; Zanting et al, 1998; McNamara, 1994; McLaughlin, 1994). Mentoring support, however, varies due to mentors' professional abilities in modeling teaching or providing post-observation feedback, which is important to the provision of guided support for trainees during the practicum (Cohen et al., 2004), and the mentor-trainee relationship seems also crucial to trainees' professional development. Duffield (2006) studied the practicum in a professional development school context in the USA and noted the influence of the type of mentor support on trainees' teaching practice. Positive effects of mentor support were built on trusting relationships and shared ownership in teaching. Similarly, Mena et al. (2017) also found that the style of mentoring influenced trainees' practical knowledge construction during the practicum in their study conducted in the Netherlands with more non-directive mentor conversations leading to a high level of knowledge acquisition. From contemporary perspectives, mentoring is also viewed as joint participation between the mentor and the trainee. As opposed to the traditional role in providing emotional support or direct advice on practice, cooperative or collaborative mentoring is encouraged. For example, the study by Velzen et al (2012) showed how trainees' learning was supported by guided mentoring from the modeling of teaching through sharing practical knowledge. Ferrier-Kerr (2009) also reported that the mentor-trainee collaboration in reflection and co-planning or team teaching facilitated the professional development of mentors and trainees. Collaborative mentoring seems to benefit trainees by co-planning or collaborative decision-making on the lesson, and by exchanging practical knowledge without direct intervention in practice (Velzen et al., 2012; Feiman-Nemser and Beasley, 1997).

2.3.4 The Role of Supervision

Post-observation supervision provided by the supervisor in the teacher college has played a significant role in pre-service teacher education. A supervisor can be defined as an on-school university trainer who is sent from the teacher college to conduct school visits during the practicum in order to supervise trainees' teaching practice and whose main role is to observe trainees' lessons and provide critical feedback on each trainee's teaching practice regarding their weaknesses and strengths through reflective and cooperative face to face dialogic interaction. Supervisors' constructive feedback on teaching practice after observing trainees has been viewed to be useful in enhancing trainees' learning by facilitating both skill learning and conceptual learning of teaching (e.g. Engin, 2012; Korthagen, 2010; White, 2009; Boyd et al., 2009; Grossman et al., 2009; Meijer et al., 2009; McIntyre et al., 1996; Proctor, 1994; Handal and Lauvås, 1987; Stones, 1984). Scaffolding support given by the supervisor of the teacher college during the practicum has been reported to be most effective in promoting reflective practice and autonomous teacher learning. According to Akcan and Tatar (2010), feedback given by the supervisor was more effective than the mentor's feedback during the practicum. While mentors provided context-specific and direct feedback, feedback from university supervisors tended to be more supportive in developing trainees' reflection on teaching. Similarly, Cheng et al. (2012) and Beck and Kosnik (2002) indicated the significance of quality supervision involving critical feedback. Supervisors can also mediate for trainees to learn from mentors and develop practical knowledge by explicating their conception of teaching (Zanting et al., 1998). As Grossman et al (2009) noted, supervisors' skilled coaching or clinical support will help trainees digest fully what they learn from teaching.

In contemporary perspectives on supervision, collaboration or cooperation between the supervisor and the trainee is emphasized. For example, collaborative dialogue between supervisors and trainees is encouraged to enhance teacher thinking and learning through actively reflecting on classroom experience (e.g. Engin, 2012; Balli, 2011; White, 2009; Roberts, 1998; Edge, 1992). Particular attention has been paid to the quality of supervisory talk with regard to the impact on reflection. Engin (2012) indicated that supervisors' non-judgmental cooperative discourse with diverse intervention helped trainees' reflection. White (2009) also argued for the importance of supervisors' professional dialogue and quality feedback through purposeful interaction. Dialogic relationships with supervisors through

collaborative and reflective dialogue further develop trainees' professional learning from practice (Meristo et al., 2013; Brandt, 2008) and are important to identify trainees' prior cognition during teacher training (Balli, 2011).

Recently there has also been an increased awareness of the importance of collaborative support between supervisors and mentors (e.g. Yazan, 2015; Buitink, 2009; Gimbert, 2002; Borko and Mayfield; 1995). Joint supervision between supervisors and mentors is considered to maximize the impact of scaffolding on trainees' learning and professional development (e.g. Vogel and Avissar, 2009; Beck and Kosnik, 2002). For example, Philpott (2016) reports the effectiveness of collaborative narration between supervisors and mentors on shaping trainees' understanding of practice as supervisors and mentors guide trainees' narration and reflection of classroom experience. Dialogic relations in a triad model seem to be effective to support trainees through collaborative reflection. Now I will move to the literature on teacher learning with reference to the practicum.

2.4. The Nature of Teacher Learning during the Practicum

This section reviews contemporary perspectives on teacher learning as regards the constructivist views, socio-cultural theories and reflective models, and experiential learning to understand the nature of teacher learning during the practicum.

2.4.1. Constructivist Views of Teacher Learning

From a constructivist perspective, teacher learning is viewed as knowledge-building by experiential learning of teaching and self-directed and critical reflection on classroom practice (e.g. Richards and Farrell, 2005; Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001; Roberts, 1998; Mayer-Smith and Mitchell, 1997; Elbaz, 1993; Handal and Lauvås, 1987). The constructivist model of learning has developed out of the cognitive learning movement (e.g. Chomsky, 1957) as opposed to the behaviorist model of learning (e.g. Skinner, 1957) through the 1960s (Roberts, 1998). In contrast to the craft model (e.g. Grimmett and MacKinnon, 1992) based on behaviorism, the constructivist model emphasizes teacher learning through the reconstruction of prior belief or knowledge (Roberts, 1998; MacKinnon and Scarff-Seatter, 1997). That is, constructivist teacher training involves monitoring trainees' personal understanding or previous perceptions, linking teaching experiences to theoretical perspectives through

reflection (Mayer-Smith and Mitchell, 1997), and further exploring or elaborating trainees' perceptions and practices of teaching by encouraging reflective thinking during the practicum. Constructivist views of teacher learning appear to add value to pre-service teacher education in terms of connecting prior cognition with teaching experience and linking theory with practice. The focus of this study was refined further based on this constructivist position which is important to understand how trainees learn during the practicum.

2.4.2. Socio-cultural Perspectives and Inquiry-Based Reflective Models

From a sociocultural perspective (Vygotsky, 1981, cited in Rosaen and Florio-Ruane, 2008), teacher learning is viewed as socially and culturally situated in the classroom context through the process of socialization in the context of teaching (Johnson, 2009; Rosaen and Florio-Ruane, 2008; Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Roberts, 1998; Dewey, 1938). In comparison to the traditional methods of teacher training based on theoretical lectures, contemporary approaches emphasize the importance of reflection in teacher learning, and inquiry-based (Rivera and Gómez, 2017; Nguyen, 2009; Zeichner, 1983) or research-based reflective practice (Kynäslahti et al., 2006) seems to enhance teacher learning. That is, teacher learning is facilitated by engaging in teaching practice and a variety of practical activities related to teaching principles (Rosaen and Florio-Ruane, 2008) as teacher belief is emergent, shaped and reshaped through social interaction in teaching context by actual teaching (Barahona, 2014). During the practicum, trainees go through a kind of conflict while comparing their learning experience as a learner to their teaching experience as a teacher, drawing upon 'gestalts' as unconscious 'internal entities' guiding behaviors (Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001: 42-5). According to Rivera and Gómez (2017), while EFL trainees' contextual understanding was enhanced during the inquiry-based practicum in Colombia, trainees appeared to struggle with conflict caused by an ideal teacher identity, and incoherent instruction due to difficulty implementing communicative teaching in context. Therefore, it is crucial to raise trainees' awareness of the practical theories underlying practice through reflection as teaching practice is based on the personal and practical theories that trainees possess (Handal and Lauvås, 1987:18). Based on the socio-cultural standpoint, this study looked into how perceived theory and actual practice interact while trainees construct their own theories of teaching.

2.4.3. Experiential and Reflective Learning of Teaching

The notion of a 'reflective practitioner' has become a central focus in teacher education research since the 1980s, viewing reflection as a way of encouraging on-going personal and professional teacher development (Richards and Farrell, 2005; Korthagen, 2001; Richards and Lockhart, 1994; Elbaz, 1993; Zeichner and Liston, 1987). Reflection promotes teacher efficacy and classroom practice (e.g. Moradkhani et al., 2017; Postholm, 2008), and plays a key role in pre-service teacher education as a major tool of teacher learning. That is, the crucial role of reflection in promoting teacher thinking and understanding of teaching has been emphasized, with an increasing interest in the process of teacher learning by experience, that is, experiential learning of teaching (Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001; Schön, 1987, 1983; Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Kolb, 1984; Kolb and Fry, 1975; Dewey, 1938, 1904). Recent studies report the effect of reflection on trainees' learning and teaching during the practicum (e.g. Serdar Tülüce and Çeçen, 2016; Lee and Fortune, 2013; Al-hassan et al., 2012; Scherff and Singer, 2012; Kim and Yi, 2010; Parkison, 2009; Harford and MacRuairc, 2008). For example, according to Serdar Tülüce and Çeçen (2016), the reflective practice helped Turkish English student teachers understand teaching contexts and learners and moved their selfcentered or rather technical focus of teaching to be learner-oriented.

There is a wide range of definitions of the nature of reflection from different perspectives (Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001). Dewey (1933: 9, cited in Luk, 2008: 627) defines reflection as an 'active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends'. According to Korthagen and Wubbels (2001), learning by reflection on practice is more effective than learning by theory alone, as it aims at bridging the gap between theory and practice. For example, the authors present an example of 1-year teacher training in Utrecht University as a realistic program linking theory to practice as it was based on school experience (teaching practice) followed by on-campus reflection on teaching practice. It consisted of two types of the practicum where student teachers experienced a shielded teaching period at the beginning of teacher training and an independent teaching period at the end of the program. As Dewey (1904) mentions the difference between the conception and conduct of practice, to acquire the essentials of teaching, trainees need to put theoretical knowledge of teaching principles into real contexts through actual teaching (Maynard, 1996) and learn to teach from experience (Degago, 2007; Richards and Crookes, 1988).

Myers and Simson (1998:58, cited in Chitpin et al., 2008) explain that teacher learning is driven 'by teaching and from teaching'. That is, practical experience in the classroom promotes learning to teach (Rosaen and Florio-Ruane, 2008). According to Korthagen and Wubbels (2001:43), experiential learning is defined as 'the acquisition of knowledge, attitudes, and skills with respect to oneself and one's environment by means of one's own observation of and participation in situations, and by systematically thinking about this under supervision.' Experiential learning through reflection on classroom practice is believed to be essential to accelerate autonomous and self-directed teacher learning (Kolb, 1984; Kolb and Fry, 1975), while it might neglect the role of guided learning in teacher training (Day, 1999). There seems to be a growing interest in the importance of critical reflection to transform teacher cognition and promote teacher learning. Many studies stress the essential role of critical reflection in initial teacher training (e.g. Min et al., 2017; Hagevik et al., 2012; Brandt, 2008; Farrell, 2007; Shkedi and Laron, 2004; Ward and Mccotter, 2004; Johnson, 2002; Tillema, 2000) as well as the effect of dialogic reflection (e.g. Kim and Silver, 2016; McGarr and McCormack, 2016; Walsh and Mann, 2015; Husu et al., 2008). As Mena at al. (2017) indicated the importance of providing scaffolding to improve the quality of critical reflection, scaffolded or guided critical reflection during teacher training seems to be crucial to provoke trainees' critical thinking and practice change.

2.5. The Impact of the Practicum on Teacher Cognition

In this section, given the importance of teacher cognition in understanding classroom practice, the role of teacher cognition is reviewed in relation to teacher learning during the practicum. First, teacher cognition research will be reviewed briefly, and then I will explore the role of prior cognition and teacher knowledge in relation to practice, and discuss the impact of teacher training on teacher cognition.

2.5.1 Research on Teacher Cognition

Teacher cognition has been studied increasingly in teacher education research with a growing awareness of the importance of teachers' mental lives to understand classroom practice or the impact of teacher education. However, it was not until the late 1960s that teacher cognition started to be given attention in relation to classroom practice (Borg, 2006) and there was not

much research conducted on teacher cognition through detailed and systematic investigations until the mid-1970s (Verloop, 1989). From the late 1980s throughout the 1990s, there was increasing interest in the integration between theory and practice in relation to teacher cognition and teacher learning (Korthagen, 2001).

As Borg (2006) outlined in his review of research on teacher cognition in language education, from the 1980s teacher planning or decision-making (e.g. Clark and Peterson, 1986) was investigated to understand the psychological and cognitive aspects of classroom processes (Borg, 2006), and throughout the 1990s classroom practice was examined in relation to teacher knowledge (e.g. Golombek 1998; Clandinin and Connelly, 1987; Elbaz 1981) or instructional decisions (e.g. Smith, 1996; Shavelson and Stern, 1981) with a growing awareness of reflection as a central tool of teacher learning (Borg, 2006). The relationships between language teacher cognition and practice started to be researched (e.g. Breen et al., 2001; Golombek, 1998; Ulichny, 1996; Woods, 1996) and pre-service language teacher cognition and practice have also been widely researched in relation to the practicum in the field of TESOL (see recent research on the TESOL practicum by Serdar Tülüce and Cecen, 2016; Mosaddaq, 2016; Yang, 2014; Yazan, 2015; Hamiloğlu, 2013; Liaw, 2012; Farrell, 2008, 2007, 2003, 2001, 1999; Kabilan and Izzaham, 2008; Orland-Barak and Yinon, 2007; Borg, 2005; Da Silva, 2005; Crookes, 2003; Urmston, 2003; Peacock, 2001; Johnson, 1996a, 1994, 1992; Richards et al., 1996; Numrich, 1996). In the next section, I review research on teachers' prior cognition and its influence on practice.

2.5.2 The Influence of Prior Cognition on Teaching Practice

Teacher cognition and classroom practice seem to be interconnected by 'symbiotic relationships' (Foss and Kleinsasser, 1996: 441, cited in Borg, 2003:91). Research reports the importance of understanding teacher cognition in relation to classroom practice as a teacher prior belief or knowledge is a powerful source of influence on practice (Bailey et al., 1996; Johnson, 1994; Lortie, 1975). According to Orafi and Borg (2009), teachers' existing pedagogical beliefs influenced curriculum innovations and communicative approaches. Similarly, Feryok (2008) reports that multiple teacher cognitions or practical theories about students and contexts shaped CLT approaches. Borg (1998) explains that a range of teacher cognitions related to instructional considerations and classroom contexts influenced teaching grammar. Johnson (1994) and Numrich (1996) also indicate the role of the apprenticeship of

observation (e.g. Lortie, 1975) in prospective language teachers' pedagogical decisions. This means that the apprenticeship from observing classroom teachers as a learner for a long period of schooling influences how trainees perceive how to teach as they try to imitate their teachers during teaching practice. Many studies report the influence of pre-service language teachers' previous learning from schooling on their classroom decisions during the practicum, also shaping their language learning and teaching philosophies (see McGarr and McCormack, 2016; Liaw, 2012; Farrell, 2007; Numrich, 1996).

It seems important to understand prior cognition in relation to teaching practice as teacher learning is influenced by the reinterpretation of theory in the light of prior cognition (Barnes, 1998). As Freeman and Johnson (1998) argue, it is necessary to understand the influence of trainees' prior cognition on learning to teach during the practicum in relation to the previous learning experience in order to help them internalize theory and practice (Borg, 2006). According to Pajares (1992) and Richardson and Placier (2001), prior cognition is not easy to change once it has been established, but has a significant influence on teaching practice during the practicum (Borg, 2005; Bailey et al., 1996; Carter and Doyle, 1996; Richardson, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Kagan, 1992; Gore and Zeichner, 1991; Munby, 1982). Though research reports the importance of teaching practice in shaping trainees' beliefs about teaching (Mewborn, 1999; Grossman, 1990), trainees' existing beliefs affect their perspectives on teaching practice (Boz, 2008; Oosterheert and Vermunt, 2001; Richardson, 1996) and also shape their understanding of teacher training (Pajares, 2002; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Lortie, 1975). Research indicates the importance of making trainees aware of prior cognition during teacher training courses and the practicum through reflection and interactive discussions on prior belief or knowledge (e.g. Thomson et al., 2012; Balli, 2011; Ng et al., 2010; Farrell, 2007; Kagan, 1992). For example, Balli (2011) and Powell (2000) stress the importance of challenging trainees' prior cognition by active critical discussions during teacher training in order to effect benefit from the discipline of teacher training during the practicum. Fajet et al. (2005) and Peacock (2001) also suggest that teacher training should help trainees change misconceptions of teaching and form more accurate views on teaching by reflection on prior cognition. It seems important to understand trainees' teaching practice in relation to their existing knowledge of teaching from the previous schooling and teacher training as trainees' beliefs, assumptions, principles or theories of teaching influence their practice while learning to teach during the practicum (Farrell, 2007; Borg, 2006; Korthagen

and Wubbels, 2001). Having reviewed the role of prior cognition in relation to practice, now I will turn to the influence of practice on teacher knowledge.

2.5.3 The Impact of Teaching Practice on Teacher Knowledge

Teacher knowledge has been widely researched to understand the knowledge base that teachers possess and continuously transform for personal and professional development. Teacher knowledge, as intertwined or embedded in teacher belief (Pajares, 1992; Kagan, 1992), is important to understand teacher learning as it determines what and how teachers teach in the classroom (Freeman, 2002). Johnston and Goettsch (2000) indicate the dynamic nature of teacher knowledge as teachers use different sources of knowledge for instructional decisions. Elbaz (1981) sheds light on the practical nature of teacher knowledge which is formulated and reconstructed through practice. Practical knowledge has been given much attention in teacher cognition performed as an important source of enhancing practice (see recent research on teacher cognition by Debreli, 2016; Sheridan, 2016; Abdelhafez, 2014; Stenberg et al., 2014; Li, 2013; Cheng et al., 2012; Gholami and Husu, 2012; Woods and Çakır, 2011; Wyatt, 2009; Levin and He, 2008).

Practical knowledge is experiential and practical as it is acquired from experience in practice, and it is implicit in nature as 'tacit knowledge' (Polanyi, 1967, cited in Eraut, 1994) or professional 'know-how', which is embedded in professional expertise to guide professional decision-making or action (Eraut, 1994). It is context-specific (Winitzky and Kauchak, 1997; Kessels and Korthagen, 1996) and combined with the knowledge of self, subject, curriculum, instruction or schooling (Elbaz, 1981, 1983). Golombek (1998) also explains the nature of experiential knowledge of teachers as deeply rooted and situated in the context of teaching and actively constructed by making sense of experience (e.g. Clandinin and Connelly, 1986; Dewey, 1938), in that teacher knowledge is a social construct, which is co-constructed by participating and socialising in the context of teaching from the social cognitive and constructive perspectives (e.g. Rosaen and Florio-Ruane, 2008; Howard, 1994; Dewey, 1938).

Research reports pre-service language teachers' unrealistic or inappropriate understanding of teaching due to lack of practical knowledge of teaching (Brookhart and Freeman, 1992). That is, trainees lack the repertoire of 'mental scripts and behavioral routines' (Berliner, 1987: 72, cited in Tsang, 2004:165) with 'naive and incomplete images of teaching' (Kennedy,

2006:211). Studies report that trainees possess little knowledge about school and classroom contexts, and students, or teaching and learning (Kagan, 1992; Weinstein, 1989) and therefore merely focus on applying theory to practice (Holt-Reynolds, 1992) with simple and optimistic views about teaching (Richardson, 1996; Weinstein, 1989). Moreover, this positive bias in conceptualizing teaching is reported to continue even after the practicum (Conway, 2001). Research also indicates trainees' misconception of pedagogy due to theory-based teacher training with little practical knowledge (Segall, 2001; Holt-Reynolds; 2000). However, their rather naïve theoretical views of teaching seem to develop gradually towards more sophisticated views of teaching by classroom practice (Cheng et al., 2009). Furlong and Maynard (1995) reported that trainees' ideal views of teaching developed through teaching practice in ways to provide more support for student learning. Similar results were noted by Serdar Tülüce and Çeçen (2016) regarding trainees' elaborated views of learners during the practicum. The study by Tang (2004) also shows how trainees' practical knowledge developed by the dynamic process of making sense of teaching and developing the teaching self in context. According to Schepens et al. (2007), trainees' practical knowledge growth was facilitated through active mentor and trainer support under the partnership. Similarly, Buitink (2009) also stated that trainees' practical theory developed gradually over the year of placement in the Netherlands with good support from the school-university partnership. Debreli (2016) studied the practicum impact on the Turkish pre-service teachers of English for secondary education and found trainees' initial belief change with growing practical knowledge over the nine months although trainees' little exposure to practice during teacher training caused difficulties in putting theoretical knowledge in context.

Winitzky and Kauchak (1997) also found that trainees' initial knowledge of teaching was fragmentary and unstable in nature, but grew gradually throughout preservice teacher education, and the notion of reflection-in-action (Schön, 1983, 1987) seems to draw an implication on the internal process of teacher learning during the practicum (Roberts, 1998) as it is closely related to knowledge-in-action, that is, theory in use (Ghaye and Ghaye, 1998). It seems important to develop trainees' procedural knowledge of how to apply theory to practice to facilitate the process of turning theoretical knowledge into practical knowledge during the practicum (Bronkhorst et al., 2011; Leinhardt et al. 1995; Eraut, 1994). However, according to Elbaz (1981), it should also be noted that contextual constraints determine the extent to which practical knowledge could grow through teaching practice, as multiple and

complex factors interact with trainees in the socio-cultural contexts of teaching, such as 'prevailing conceptualizations of the processes of curriculum and instruction', and their own or society's perceptions of their role. As Applegate (1989) indicates, since learning to teach is 'a complex interrelationship of processes', the contemporary perspective of knowledge-based teacher learning emphasizes the process of gaining and expanding the essential knowledge of teaching through practice of teaching and continuous learning of 'learning to teach' in the context of teaching.

From reviewing the literature in relation to teacher knowledge, it seems clear that there is a significant contribution of practice to growing teacher knowledge. This implies further the importance of teaching practice in pre-service teacher education and how the practicum should serve to build up student teachers' personal practical knowledge of teaching. Based on an understanding of growing teacher knowledge by practice, this study explored the nature of teacher learning during the practicum and if there was any change in trainees' cognition. Now I will discuss the critical issue of how teacher training can impact teacher cognition.

2.5.4 The Impact of Teacher Training on Teacher Cognition

Much research has been conducted to investigate the impact of teacher education on teacher cognition and practice change (Borg, 2006). Studies have shown some evidence of considerable change or development in student teachers' cognition throughout pre-service teacher education (see recent research by Burri et al., 2017; Debreli, 2016; Sheridan, 2016; Siwatu, 2011; Ng et al., 2010; Polat, 2010; Cherubini, 2009; Nguyen, 2009; Chiang, 2008; Levin and He, 2008; Korthagen et al., 2006; MacDonald et al., 2001; Tillema, 2000; Winitzky and Kauchak, 1997). For example, Cherubini (2009) reported that the pre-service teacher training course had an effect on developing trainees' critical thinking and teacher efficacy in the context of Canada. Similar reports on the impact of the pre-service teacher training course on teacher cognition and identity development were also made by Burri et al. (2017) in the study of the pronunciation pedagogy course in Australia. Tillema (2000) also indicated primary school trainees' prior cognition change after the practicum through guided reflection during the pre-service teacher training course in the Netherlands. Similarly, Sheridan (2016) reported that trainees' pedagogical beliefs changed throughout pre-service teacher education when they linked practice with course work using critical reflection. The study by Woods and Çakır (2011) also showed how Turkish EFL graduates' theoretical beliefs of CLT were transformed into more context-driven personal practical knowledge when they started to reinterpret their own teaching experience through reflection and articulation. Whilst much research has explored the impact of teacher training on student teachers' cognition, however, it should be noted that many studies that examined student teachers' cognition used questionnaire instruments to derive findings, which may be less sensitive to trace changes in beliefs than interviews.

Research also reports the limited impact of training intervention on teacher learning as training in practical teaching does not always lead to change in the practical theories underlying practice since individual trainees possess different theories of teaching and learning to teach (Handal and Lauvås, 1987). For example, studies by Ye (2016), Liaw (2012), Borg (2005), Urmston (2003), Peacock (2001), and Richards et al. (1996) report little change in trainees' prior cognition during the teacher training course. According to Richards et al. (1996), except for some impact of teacher training on teaching practice, there was no significant change in prospective teachers' existing beliefs. Peacock (2001) also indicated the limitation of teacher training in changing trainees' core beliefs. That is, practice change does not always bring about cognition change just as cognition change does not always result in practice change (Borg, 2003). Similarly, the small impact of the practicum on trainees' teacher efficacy was reported by Ronfeldt and Reininger (2012) and Siwatu (2011), who examined American student teachers' self-efficacy beliefs during the practicum, whilst Ng et al. (2010) found that trainees' personal beliefs on good teaching remained consistent throughout initial teacher training in Australia. Yook and Lee (2016) also indicated that initial teacher training in Korea had little effect on preparing English teachers for classroom teaching. Though the impact of teacher training seems to vary depending on teaching contexts, relatively limited effect of the practicum seems to be attributed to the imbalance between training on theory and on practice (Wideen et al., 1998) in addition to insufficient support for critical reflection on practice (Leavy et al., 2007; Cole, 1997; Armaline and Hoover, 1989). Again, it should be noted that many studies above which investigated student teachers' cognition in relation to the practicum, adopted questionnaires as the main research method as mentioned before, and in addition, quite a few studies which explored teacher cognition seem to be based on a single research instrument design which may have a limitation to account for teacher cognition in relation to the context of classroom practice.

Research indicates the important role of initial teacher training in developing trainees' resilient self-efficacy beliefs or strong agency in order to enable them to pursue innovative practice and professional development during the practicum (Yazan, 2015; Yuan and Lee, 2014; Siwatu, 2011; Shkedi and Laron, 2004; Tillema, 2000) as the vision of teacher education is easily lost under contextual challenges through the influence of school contexts (Shkedi and Laron, 2004; Tillema, 2000). Studies also report the need for supporting EFL or ESL trainees' language development as trainees' oral proficiency affects their instructional choices and classroom activities (Horwitz, 1996) and is correlated to their emerging teacher identity and teacher competency (e.g. Lee, 2009; Spezzini and Oxford, 1998) since language teacher proficiency influences language teacher efficacy (Eslami and Fatahi, 2008; Chaćon, 2005). It seems important to formulate trainees' teacher identity by raising their awareness of the cultural influence of school contexts on teaching practice before the practicum (Duff and Uchida, 1997) to prevent trainees from dropping off from teaching careers after the practicum (Hong, 2010). However, there is variety in the nature or extent of the impact of teacher education on each trainee's cognition and practice as a result of the diversity in student teachers' personal characteristics and training programs as well as contexts of classroom practice (Borg, 2003). In the next section, issues related to practicum contexts are reviewed regarding the challenges which trainees experience as one of the major influences on teacher learning during the practicum.

2.6. The Challenges of the Practicum

Teacher belief and practice seem to be influenced by and entangled with the particulars of classroom and school contexts as teacher learning is socially situated and constructed in the context of teaching from the social cognitive perspectives (Rosaen and Florio-Ruane, 2008; Howard, 1994; Bandura, 1992; Lave, 1988; Dewey, 1938). The socio-cultural contexts seem to foster or constrain classroom practice and the growth of practical knowledge or teacher development. As Clift (2008) indicates, a number of factors influence teacher learning during the practicum (see Rivera and Gómez, 2017; Bickmore et al., 2005; Grossman and Thompson, 2004) and contextual constraints which act as a barrier to teaching practice are well reported in the studies by Ye (2016), Farrell (2008), Lee (2007), Da Silva (2005), and Zeichner and Gore (1990). For example, Da Silva (2005) indicated that Brazilian pre-service English teachers' teaching of speaking was constrained by contextual factors such as class size and L1

use. Similarly, Ahn (2011) and Lee (2007) reported that Korean pre-service English teachers encountered challenges with TEE and CLT practice during the practicum due to the large class and the mixed level of students. Zeichner and Gore (1990) also reported that under the school system which was unsupportive of professional teacher development or innovation in practice, trainees adopted traditional teaching methods during the practicum. This confirms that without support in the school context there is an unsuccessful transfer of teacher training to the practicum as trainees conform to expert teachers' practice (Allen, 2009; Huang and Waxman, 2009). On the other hand, it was also reported that though trainees valued the discipline of teacher education they tended to incorporate practice of the school community during the practicum. Trainees attempted to assimilate and integrate into their school context by partly adopting the model practice of school teachers in their practice, at the same time as also attempting to implement innovation (Farrell, 2008; Brouwer and Korthagen, 2005; Freeman and Johnson, 1998). Freeman and Johnson (1998) indicated the critical role of the school context in teacher learning in that professional teacher knowledge is context-dependent and is 'situated knowledge' (McNamara, 1994:119) and teacher cognition and practice are embedded in the classroom context or the school culture (Munby et al., 2001). Research also shows that teacher belief and practice are inter-related but contextual constraints seem to determine the extent to which teacher belief and practice are congruent. For example, Karimi and Nazari (2017) indicated that the limited time and emphasis on textbook coverage resulted in incongruity in Iranian English teachers' beliefs and practices of listening. Leavy et al. (2007) also reported that trainees conformed to behaviorist views of teaching under contextual challenges during the practicum especially when they were not given time for critical reflection to integrate teacher training in context.

Trainees also encounter challenges during teaching practice due to lack of knowledge of classroom routines and processes, or practical skills and strategies for effective teaching, and therefore their practice is less consistent (Rivera and Gómez, 2017; Johnson, 1996a; Numrich, 1996). Recent studies by Rivera and Gómez (2017) and Kabilan and Izzaham (2008) have shown what kind of challenges trainees face during the EFL practicum due to a lack of practical skills for implementing CLT or TEE. Similarly, the study by Rahayuningsih (2016) indicated Indonesian trainees' confusion and struggles caused by a lack of skills for an effective material design for ESP learners. According to Intrator (2006) and Liston et al. (2006), trainees often experience emotional tension related to teaching practice. The challenge

of the practicum is explained further by Darling-Hammond (2006:305) who indicates the difficulty of classroom practice as regards the complexity of teaching and 'the dense and multifaceted nature of the classroom' which is ever-changing and unpredictable (McIntyre, 1994). Trainees lack decision-making skills in employing alternative methods according to the different dynamics of the students but may also be affected by the assessment purpose of the practicum (Farrell, 2008; Olaitan and Agusiobo, 1981). With little knowledge of teaching, trainees tend to focus more on classroom management than instruction (Morine-Dershimer, 1993). Studies also indicate that trainees value teaching or teacher qualities in terms of affective characteristics while ignoring the professional aspects or preparations (Thomson et al., 2012; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Weinstein, 1989). However, their teaching seems to move from 'survival-oriented' towards 'pedagogically-oriented' while gaining more experience in teaching (Tann, 1994:101). Therefore, it seems important to support trainees to cope with the various challenges of the practicum and move beyond survival-oriented towards more 'meaning-oriented' teacher learning with more attention to student learning (Bronkhorst et al., 2011:1121). The next section will discuss the role of teacher training support during the practicum.

2.7. The Support from Teacher Training for the Practicum

Initial teacher training serves an important role to provide trainees with support during the practicum. From the constructivist views of teacher training and the contemporary models of reflective and inquiry-based teacher learning, the main role of initial teacher training is to help trainees construct knowledge of teaching by articulating and reflecting on teaching experience (Korthagen et al., 2006; Tigchelaar and Korthagen, 2004; Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001). According to Caspersen (2013), the value of pre-service teacher education perceived by trainers, trainees, and teachers was integrating theoretical and practical knowledge and supporting practical reasoning. However, according to Nguyen (2015) and Yayli (2008), there is a fundamental gap between theory and practice during the practicum with tension in perceiving theory and practice. On the one hand, the teacher trainer is mainly in charge of instructing trainees during teacher training courses at the teacher college, and on the other hand, the school mentor provides in-school guidance for trainees' day to day classroom practice during the practicum. As indicated by Ryan and Healy (2009) and Segall (2001),

more opportunities for real practice are necessary to prepare trainees for the practicum and minimize the gap between theory and practice.

Support from teacher training during the practicum is important to help trainees make sense of their experiences and discover their own beliefs of teaching (Grossman, 1990). Supporting reflection and collaboration amongst the trainees maximizes teacher learning during the practicum (Hawkins, 2004) as it facilitates the conceptual transformations of their perceptions and practices (Roberts, 1998; MacKinnon and Scarff-Seatter, 1997; Mayer-Smith and Mitchell, 1997). According to Crespo (2002), trainees' learning during the practicum was facilitated with the assistance of reflective writing and debriefing on teaching. Brouwer and Korthagen (2005) also reported that more reflection and collaborative support between mentors and trainers helped trainees make sense of the discipline of teacher training.

The role of professional development schools has been emphasized as an effective way to provide trainees with more context-based support during the practicum through collaborative partnerships between universities and schools. The positive role of professional development schools on trainees' learning is found in recent studies by Hagevik et al. (2012), Grossman et al. (2011), Duffield (2006), Mule (2006), Tang (2003), Beck and Kosnik (2000) (2001), Furlong et al. (2000), and Winitzky et al. (1992). For example, the study by Hagevik et al. (2012) show the effect of action research carried out through the university-school collaborative partnership on developing trainees' critical reflection over the year-long internship practicum. Similar reports are made by Beck and Kosnik (2000, 2001). The university-school partnership models have also been found to be beneficial in encouraging mentor and trainer collaborative relationships and shared responsibilities on trainees (Velzen et al., 2012; Graham 2006; Wilson, 2006). The study of Velzen et al. (2012) presents how school-based trainer support and collaborative mentor support enhanced trainees' inquirybased reflective practice. According to Kagan et al. (1993), university-school partnerships also facilitated trainers' and mentors' professional development. As noted by many studies, encouraging institutional collaborations seems to be important to provide a more coherent practicum experience because, as Tang (2003) stated, lack of university-school partnerships can cause incoherent learning experience amongst trainees according to the nature of support and challenge during the practicum. Ong'ondo and Borg (2011) also suggested that there should be more support from and communication between mentors and trainers through university-school coordination to facilitate trainees' pedagogic skill development and active

innovation and reflection during the practicum. As Sundli (2007) indicated, to promote effective partnerships, there is a need for developing new ways to recruit cooperating schools and cooperating teachers, based on contemporary views on constructivist teacher learning. According to Tag and Chow (2007), there is also a need for change in the assessment culture towards more teacher learning-oriented assessment (Yan and He, 2010; George et al., 2002).

On the other hand, research indicates the importance of collegial support through constructive feedback and critical discussion or reflection on reflection during the practicum (Kabilan, 2007; Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001). Professional dialogue amongst trainees is viewed as an effective way to develop critical thinking from the early stages of teacher training (Craig, 2007, cited in Nokes et al., 2008). For example, peer mentoring refers to trainees' cooperative mentoring activities between the trainees with each trainee playing the role of a mentor to another (e.g. Cornu, 2005; Forbes, 2004), and peer coaching during the practicum also means a community of collaborative support amongst the trainees where trainees engage in observing and reflecting on one another's lessons and exchange or share ideas on how to improve lessons and teaching skills for further personal and professional development (e.g. Vacilotto and Cummings 2007). Either peer coaching or peer mentoring as well as paired teaching (e.g. Nokes et al., 2008; Smith, 2004) seems to facilitate teacher learning by collegial collaboration (Ross and Bruce, 2007; Bransford et al, 2000; Edge, 1992). Building supportive teacher learning communities has also been suggested to be an effective way to promote trainees' teaching practice and professional growth during the practicum (e.g. Cornu and Ewing, 2008; Westheimer, 2008; Sim, 2006; Tan, 2006; Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2003; Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Wenger, 1998). Based on the literature review, the extent to which such support was available in the context of this study was investigated. The next part of the literature review focuses on teaching speaking.

Part 2. Literature Review on Teaching Speaking

2.8. Teaching Speaking in Contemporary ELT

This section provides a brief theoretical background to speaking as a basis for subsequent discussions on the principles and approaches of teaching speaking. I first look at aspects of spoken language and speech development in relation to learning and teaching speaking, and then how speaking can be learned and taught in the classroom.

2.8.1 Spoken Language and Speech Development

The distinctive nature of spoken language is dynamic, interpersonal, and contextual, and it is also transient and situational as it is dependent on real-time interaction (Hughes, 2002). The most common feature of spoken language is repetition (Bygate, 2006). The structure of spoken discourse is realized by fixed phrases and colloquial or formulaic routines with a frequent ellipsis (Carter and McCarthy, 1995; McCarthy and Carter, 1995) and spoken grammar often displays informal grammatical structure using certain vocabulary, focusing more on the message (McCarthy and Carter, 2001, 1995).

The difficulty of acquiring spoken language is attributed to the complexity involved in speech processing, which is impermanent and based on real-time spoken interaction in socio-cultural contexts (Bygate, 2006). Speaking develops through interactive processes between interlocutors by formulating and reformulating speech through systematic and holistic thinking since meaning is conceptualized by being incorporated into hierarchical or sequential language structure and transferred into comprehensible speech (Bygate, 2006; Scovel, 1998).

Understanding the complexity involved in speaking should help explain why teaching speaking has been regarded as the most challenging discipline in language teaching (Bygate, 2006; Thornbury, 2000). Moreover, as compared to other language skills, speaking skills have been scarcely researched (Hughes, 2002; Cohen, 1996), and there has been a paucity of research on teaching speaking in relation to teacher cognition and practice in pre-service English teacher education (Wyatt, 2009; Borg, 2006). More research on the teaching of speaking is necessary particularly in pre-service teacher education in EFL contexts. The nature

of learning and teaching of speaking in the classroom will be discussed in the next section considering ways to facilitate English speaking in the classroom.

2.8.2 Teaching Speaking in the Classroom

Nowadays English is recognized as a world language, widely used in a global society. There is great diversity in its style and status across speech communities with different sociolinguistic and political power (Kachru, 1985; Quirk, 1985). Since English is viewed as an international language, to acquire communicative competence in English has been highly significant in ELT (Canale and Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972), and it is regarded as necessary to develop the ability to communicate effectively with speakers of English across cultures or nations for the use of English as a 'lingua franca' (Jenkins, 2007).

According to Martinez-Flor et al. (2006:139), speaking is 'an interactive, social, and contextualized communicative event,' and to fully understand communication processes, it is essential to consider the socio-cultural contexts where communicative interaction takes place (Burns and Seidlhofer, 2002, cited in Martinez-Flor et al., 2006:139). The classroom is viewed as a social context with specific rules governing classroom discourse and interaction patterns from socio-cultural perspectives (Luk and Lin, 2007; Freeman, 2004; Gee, 2004; Cazden, 2001; Johnson, 1995), therefore it is necessary to understand teaching speaking within classroom contexts where meanings are socially negotiated and constructed (Freeman, 2004; Gee, 2004). To improve speaking skills in the classroom and in order for autonomous learning of speaking to take place, students need to be given opportunities to be exposed to speaking.

To maximize speaking in English in the classroom it seems crucial to create communicative classrooms where students freely engage in communicative activities. I define 'a communicative classroom' as a learner-centered language classroom where students are encouraged to communicate in English with one another and participate in speaking practice in a non-threatening and supportive environment. In communicative classrooms, students get involved in speaking practice during communicative tasks as a group throughout the lessons (Bygate, 2006). According to Bygate (2006), it is essential to structure classroom talk, and task talk between the teacher and students or amongst students is essential in order to maximize the opportunities to transform linguistic knowledge into language use in the classroom, and it is important also to balance between spontaneous communicative language

use and language learning or to link language use with learning. Similarly, Swain (1985) indicates the importance of the balance between input and output to promote oral proficiency with accuracy and fluency (Bygate, 2006; Brumfit, 1984). As Johnstone (1989) indicates, due to the limited potential for natural acquisition in the classroom environment, it is necessary to develop communicative competence by awareness-raising on speech processing and facilitating speech automation, as speaking develops through the process of conscious monitoring and modulation of speech accuracy towards unconscious and automated production of fluent speech. Now I will explore contemporary views of teaching speaking in detail.

2.9. Contemporary Perspectives and Principles for Teaching Speaking

This section looks at theoretical aspects of teaching speaking from communicative perspectives. I will first review learner-centered pedagogies as a basis of contemporary ELT, and then communicative paradigms (CLT) and task-based frameworks (TBL).

2.9.1 Learner-Centred Pedagogies

Contemporary ELT emphasizes learner-centered pedagogy. Learner-centered pedagogy focuses on the process of language learning through 'experiential learning' (Kolb, 1984) or 'learning by doing' (Dewey, 1938), and learners are encouraged to actively engage in classroom processes for personal development (Kohonen, 1992). From the perspective of cognitive psychology, learning is viewed as cognitive development and socialization (e.g. Holliday et al., 2004; Lantolf, 2000; Mohan and Smith, 1992; Vygotsky, 1978), and scaffolding through interaction and cooperation is crucial (e.g. Ehrman and Dörnyei, 1998; Campbell and Kryszewska, 1992; Murray, 1992; Rivers, 1987) to accelerate language learning by shared understanding or co-constructing of meaning (Johnson, 1995; Freeman, 1992; Barnes, 1976) from a constructivist position (Vygotsky, 1978). In learner-centered classrooms as compared to teacher-led classrooms, learner autonomy and ownership are encouraged for autonomous or independent learning (e.g. Yang, 1998; Kohonen, 1992; Hughes, 1983; Morrow, 1981) by incorporating individual differences in learning needs and interests in classroom decisions on topics or task design (e.g. Campbell and Kryszewska, 1992; Nunan, 1988a; 1988b).

2.9.2 Communicative Paradigms

CLT evolved around the middle of the 1970s and developed rapidly throughout the 1980s as a new approach to language pedagogy with a shift of traditional methodology in ELT (Li, 1998; Robinson, 1987). The key principles of CLT are summarised below:

• Language Learning through Communication -

The main principle of CLT is realized in its emphasis on language learning through communication (e.g. Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Johnson, 1995; Littlewood, 1992; Widdowson, 1978; Barnes, 1976), which reflects natural acquisition (Hughes, 1983). CLT maximises opportunities for language use from the early stage of language learning by engaging in meaningful and purposeful communicative interaction (e.g. Hiep, 2007; Brown, 1994; Nunan, 1989b; Breen and Candlin, 1980), using the target language (L2) not only as the language of content but also as the language of interaction (Rivers, 1987).

• Development of Communicative Competence –

CLT has brought a shift of emphasis from grammar towards communicative competence by encouraging genuine and spontaneous language use in the classroom (Celce-Murcia et al., 1997; Nunan, 1991; Wilkins, 1983). CLT aims at developing communicative competence, which consists of grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence (Canale and Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972), by maximizing language use in the classroom beyond the sentence level with real communicative purposes (Andrews, 1983). CLT is not only concerned with language functions (Widdowson, 1978; Halliday, 1973) but also socio-cultural contexts for socially and culturally appropriate language use (Berns, 1990, cited in Celce-Murcia et al., 1997:143).

• Balance between Accuracy and Fluency –

Though CLT puts much emphasis on fluency, it attempts to balance fluency with accuracy for further communicative competence development (Brumfit, 1984). Fluency is memory-based, involving retrieving memorized chunks of the language, while accuracy is rule-based, requiring the application of the analytical language rules. According to Nation and Newton

(2009:152), fluency is measured by 'speed of access or production and by the number of hesitations' while accuracy is measured by 'the amount of error and complexity by the presence of more complicated constructions, such as subordinate clauses.' Therefore, fluency can be defined as production of spontaneous speech by real-time processing of the target language by the non-native speakers of English, and it is the ability of the speaker to express and respond promptly coherent and consistent speech with ease or without hesitation, while accuracy can be defined as production of well-formed speech, which is determined by how the speech is grammatically and lexically accurate according to the target language system, and the degree of which is measured by the extent to which the speech is without speech errors. It seems necessary to combine the practice of fluency and accuracy by real-time processing and analytical monitoring of the target language (Thornbury, 2000).

• Integration of Grammar –

CLT encourages fluent speech in communicative interaction by trying not to interrupt speech with a focus on meaning (Littlewood, 1992; Edge, 1989; Rivers, 1987), and instead of direct error correction, indirect or retrospective grammar instruction is encouraged for discovery learning (Ellis, 2014; Nunan, 2004; Thomson, 1996) through noticing or consciousness-raising in form-focused communicative tasks (e.g. Ellis, 2001a; Thornbury, 1997; Batstone, 1996, 1994; Schmidt, 1990). However, according to recent studies, explicit error correction seems also useful to facilitate language learning depending on the type of errors or to prevent fossilization from unattended language errors (e.g. Kim, 2016; Ellis, 2014; Li, 2009; Lyster, 2001).

• Language Learning through Interaction –

Research reports the significance of interaction amongst students in enhancing language learning and oral proficiency (e.g. Hsieh, 2016; Nguyen, 2013; Brooks, 2009; Mackey, 1999; Pica et al., 1996). For example, studies by Hsieh (2006), Brooks (2009), Mackey (1999), and Pica et al (1996) showed the effect of conversational interaction on L2 development, and particularly according to Brooks (2009), interaction between the students was found to be more effective than interaction between a student and a native speaker interlocutor during the oral test. Therefore, for further language development, it seems important to maximize the opportunity for students to engage in communicative interaction in the classroom (Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Brown, 1994; Rivers, 1987) by turning input into intake or output (Liu,

2013; Zhang, 2009; Long, 1996; Swain, 1995) through negotiation of meaning (Rahimian, 2014; Liu et al., 2004).

2.9.3 Task-Based Frameworks

TBL emerged as a branch of CLT (Littlewood, 2004; Nunan, 2004, 1999), focusing on language use in real life (Willis, 2004). To encourage purposeful target language use in meaningful contexts, students work on real life tasks with real life materials, exploring real life situations (Skehan, 2003, 1998; Widdowson, 1996; Long and Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1989b). As Johnson (1983:53) states, communicative approaches are based on procedural syllabuses, which are called 'a syllabus of tasks', and TBL, based on constructivist views of learning (Vygotsky, 1978), assists CLT, focusing on learning processes or learner-centered autonomous learning through a variety of communicative tasks to support communicative classrooms (Long, 2015; Ellis, 2014; Carless, 2004a, Nunan, 2004). The main principles of TBL are summarised below:

• Task Definition and Authenticity –

The notion of a task is usually defined in terms of a goal or an activity but there are various definitions (Long, 2015; Ellis, 2003; Bygate et al., 2001; Pica et al., 1993). Willis (1996:36) defines a task as 'a goal-oriented communicative activity with a specific outcome, where the emphasis is on exchanging meanings, not producing specific language forms.' That is, a communicative task is a means to 'approximate the demands of the real-world target tasks' (Robinson, 2005:1). To provoke real world language use, TBL emphasises task authenticity, which is a means to enable genuine communication to occur between the text and students (Breen, 1985, cited in White, 2006:113) in order to bridge the gap between knowledge of the language and the ability to use the language in the real world (Guariento and Morley, 2001).

• Task Cycle and Complexity –

Willis (2004:37) suggests a task cycle, which consists of 'pre-task', 'in-task', and 'post-task', as effective to improve comprehensible input and extensive output. In contrast to PPP (Presentation-Practice-Production), TBL prioritizes language practice with language focus at the end, to encourage language use beyond current competence (Thornbury, 2000). However,

to further language development, communication itself is not sufficient, and it is crucial to structure communication through appropriate and effective communicative task design (Bygate, 2006). Task grading or adjusting task complexity modifies communicative tasks (e.g. Long, 2015; Tajzad and Ostovar-Namaghi, 2014; Vasiljevic, 2011; Bygate, 1999; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Nunan, 1989b). For example, Tajzad and Ostovar-Namaghi (2014) report the effectiveness of integrated communicative approaches in increasing more communication and interaction amongst EFL learners in Iran.

Communicative tasks are divided into closed or open tasks according to the task goals, and one-way or two-way and reciprocal or non-reciprocal tasks according to the type of information exchanges (Willis, 2004; Ellis et al., 1999). That is, one-way tasks refer to non-reciprocal tasks which are non-interactive tasks where learners are not engaged in interaction, requiring 'a one-way flow of information from a speaker to a listener' (Ellis, 2001b:49) which is often found in listening tasks, while two-way tasks refer to speaking tasks requiring 'a two-way flow of information between a speaker and a listener' (Ellis, 2001b:49) and are based on interaction and negotiation of meaning between the learners under communicative tasks. According to Rahimian (2014), both one-way and two-way communicative tasks were found to be useful to modify EFL learners' output and negotiation of meaning. The effectiveness of task-based communicative teaching on EFL students' speaking development is also exemplified in the study of Hsieh (2016) who examined Taiwanese secondary school students' preference and performance of speaking practice during the English only program. That is, based on the task cycle (Willis, 2004), engaging in communicative tasks was effective to improve students' motivation and oral proficiency while reducing anxiety about speaking.

I have so far explored CLT and TBL theory in detail as this section aims at understanding the theoretical background of communicative pedagogy to provide the basis for my subsequent analysis of how trainees teach speaking during the practicum. Now I will move to practical aspects of communicative pedagogy and how speaking is instructed communicatively.

2.10. Contemporary Methodologies and Approaches to Teaching Speaking

In the following sub-sections, contemporary methodologies and approaches for teaching speaking are reviewed with regard to communicative tasks, communicative strategies, and collaborative or cooperative strategies.

2.10.1 Communicative Tasks for Teaching Speaking

In this section, I review communicative tasks regarding interaction modification, input enhancement, accuracy, and fluency. The purpose of this review is to explore practical ways to teach speaking using communicative tasks with reference to the literature.

2.10.1.1 Interaction Modification through Two-Way Communicative Tasks

Pica et al. (1993) argue for the benefits of two-way communicative tasks for enhanced comprehension of input and modified output for speech development. To develop communicative competence through modified interaction, communicative activities such as information-gap activities or jigsaws (e.g. Skuse, 2014; Fotos and Ellis, 1991; Nunan, 1989b; Doughty and Pica, 1986; Gass and Varonis, 1985; Long and Porter, 1985), problem-solving or decision-making tasks (e.g. Hwang, 2010; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Lynch, 1991; Nunan, 1989b; Prabhu, 1987; Littlewood, 1981; Maley, 1981), and role-plays or simulations (e.g. Park and Cho, 2012; Byrne, 1986; Jones, 1982; Littlewood, 1981; Sturtridge, 1981) ave been widely employed through pair or group work in communicative classrooms. In particular, information-gap tasks have been frequently adopted as most effective to encourage two-way communication as the information gap stimulates information exchanges (Nunan, 1989b; Morrow, 1981). Studies by Skuse (2014) and Doughty and Pica (1986) showed how information exchange increased turn-taking and conversational modification of classroom interaction, and Pica et al. (1993, 1991, 1989) also presented modified output during native vs non-native interaction using information exchange tasks. Similarly, opinion-gap tasks or discussion tasks have also been viewed to be beneficial in articulating diverse responses (e.g. Kim, 2014; Brooks, 2009; Samuda and Bygate, 2008; Ellis, 2003). For example, Kim (2014) studied the effect of different speaking tasks on Korean university learners of English and found that discussion tasks were preferable and effective than information exchange or summary tasks. The study suggested that speaking tasks be appropriately implemented to suit EFL learners' level and preference. According to Galante and Thompson (2017), drama-based speaking tasks are more effective in facilitating learner interaction and negotiation of meaning than traditional communicative tasks and may be beneficially adopted in EFL contexts. Recent studies that investigated speaking activities in Korean primary or secondary schools also report the effect of drama or story-telling. For example, Kim and Kim (2013) found that drama-based speaking activities were effective in developing Korean secondary school

students' speaking skills. Similarly, Jung (2015) and Jung and Kim (2012) reported storytelling as being useful to develop Korean primary school students' speaking fluency and positive motivation for learning speaking. As reviewed above, communicative tasks have been widely researched as a way to increase communicative interaction and oral proficiency. However, as Hwang (2010) indicated, it can be noted that many studies which were reviewed above or elsewhere examined the effect of communicative tasks on learners' oral proficiency mainly based on statistical analysis using experimental designs, thus lacking contextual information related to language learning or learner factors, and there is a need for more qualitative approaches which can inform the context and quality of the two-way communicative interaction.

2.10.1.2 Input Enhancement through Structured and Repeated Tasks

Research also reports that comprehensible input is important for language development (Krashen, 1981, cited in Robinson, 1987:145) since speaking develops through the conceptualization of meaning (Bygate, 2006). Task interaction improves the comprehension of input through the negotiation of meaning (Pica et al., 1987) and repeated tasks promote speech development through input enhancement (e.g. Bei, 2013; Skehan et al., 2012; Bygate, 2006, 2001, 1996; Lynch and Maclean, 2000). For example, Bei (2013) studied adult EFL learners in Hong Kong and found a positive effect of repeated narrative tasks on both fluency and accuracy development. Through graded or structured tasks, grammatical input is enhanced with a focus on form and meaning (Van Patten, 2015; Takimoto, 2006; Erlam, 2003; Ellis, 2001a; Allen, 2000; Schmidt, 1990), and explicit input tasks also foster intake and output (Henry et al., 2009; Ellis, 2003; Van Patten, 1990). Henry et al. (2009) found a facilitative effect of explicit information on L2 German learners' sentence processing. Another example of the benefit of explicit input is found in Lee and Yoon (2014) who reported the effect of explicit formulaic speech instruction and repeated practice on speaking fluency of Korean secondary school students. Takahashi (2005) also reported a different effect of input enhancement tasks on Japanese learners' pragmatic awareness.

2.10.1.3 Proficiency Development through Accuracy and Fluency Tasks

For proficiency development, however, it seems essential to maintain a balance between accuracy and fluency activities (Brown, 2007; Heilenman and Kaplan, 1985) or receptive and

productive activities (Batstone, 1996) by making use of a range of communicative tasks (Johnstone, 1989). Fluency activities are more meaning-focused, while accuracy activities are form-focused (Brumfit, 1984). Speech fluency develops through the process of repetition and automation (Skehan et al., 2012; Taguchi, 2007; Thornbury, 2000; Johnstone, 1989; Gatbonton and Segalowitz, 1988; Littlewood, 1981) and is influenced by the task type or structure (Skehan and Foster, 1999; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Gass and Varonis, 1985). Therefore, making a good choice of communicative tasks in relation to learners' cognitive and linguistic level is important for proficiency development.

2.10.2 Communicative Strategies for Teaching Speaking

To maximize the effect of communicative tasks on language learning and oral proficiency, it seems also to be essential to train learners in communicative strategies. Communicative strategies usually refer to learners' strategies to compensate for communication breakdowns during conversations due to the lack of resources in learners' target language linguistic systems (Dörnyei, 1995; Bialystok, 1990; Bygate, 1987; Tarone, 1981, 1980). Communicative strategies combined with strategic competence (Cananel and Swain, 1980) are closely related to learning strategies. According to Field (2000), however, a communication strategy is different from a learning strategy as it is related to the immediate response to the communicative problem while a learning strategy is related to the storage and retrieval of information in the long-term memory. The former is concerned with developing fluency while the latter is concerned with acquiring accuracy. Training in communicative strategies promotes the effect of genuine communicative interaction on proficiency development (Yousef et al., 2013; Nakatani, 2005; Pattison, 1987). Conversational skills and discourse strategies also help learners develop strategic competence (see Ahour and Maleki, 2014; Hughes, 2002; Cohen, 1996; Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1994; Nolasco and Arthur, 1987) and sociolinguistic competence with cross-cultural awareness (Scollon and Wong-Scollon, 1991).

2.10.3 Collaborative and Cooperative Strategies for Teaching Speaking

Research reports that cooperation or collaboration amongst learners in group interaction facilitates speaking practice by lowering anxiety and increasing motivation (e.g. Nguyen, 2013; Jacobs and McCafferty, 2006; Slavin, 1990; Long and Porter, 1985; Pica and Doughty, 1985). To promote communicative interaction further, it is necessary to train learners in

cooperative and collaborative strategies as well as interactive and interpersonal strategies (Lam and Wong, 2000; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Therefore, in this section, I briefly review collaborative and cooperative strategies regarding learner factors and sociocultural contexts.

2.10.3.1 Cognitive and Affective Learner Factors

Learners' characteristics affect the effectiveness of communicative tasks as learners' affective and cognitive factors such as anxiety, motivation, autonomy, maturity, and learning styles influence how they participate in language learning (see Feng and Chen, 2009; Dörnyei and Kormos, 2000; Littlewood, 1992; Nunan, 1989b; Savignon, 1983). It is therefore important to understand learner factors to enhance cooperation or collaboration in communicative interaction. Since speaking a foreign language provokes anxiety due to the insecurity caused by adjusting to the new language system and its socio-cultural values (Littlewood, 1992) and as speaking anxiety negatively influences language learning (see Liu and Chen, 2015; Liu and Jackson, 2008; Yan and Horwitz, 2008; Young, 1990; Horwitz et al., 1986; Friedman, 1980), it is important to create cooperative and collaborative environments which reduce speaking anxiety and improve motivation and autonomy (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Slavin, 1990), and to provide training in learning strategies (Agor, 2014; Feng and Chen, 2009, Oxford, 1990). There is learner diversity particularly in large classrooms with mixed abilities, and one way to enhance cooperative or collaborative language learning is to adjust the task type or complexity (Kim, 2014; Peng, 2012; Courtney, 1996; Tong-Fredericks, 1984) to learners' cognitive maturity and ability (Vasiljevic, 2011; Nunan, 1989b) and vary task design according to learners' motives and interests (Gardner, 1985).

2.10.3.2 Socio-Cultural and Contextual Factors

There are barriers to learner autonomy and cooperation or collaboration in traditional classrooms where communicative interaction amongst learners is constrained by teacher control (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975). As learners are used to passive learning in teacher-led classrooms (Thanh-Pham, 2008), it is necessary to change such a passive culture by encouraging learners to take initiative in classroom interaction and take active part in communicative activities (Xie, 2010; Niemi, 2002; Littlewood, 2000; Liu, 1998; Littlewood, 1992). There is also frequent use of L1 in EFL classrooms, but strategic L1 use seems to

reduce anxiety, promote comprehension of English and confidence in speaking, and enhance social relationships amongst learners (see further discussions in Simasiku et al., 2015; Hall and Cook, 2013; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Carless, 2008; Swain and Lapkin, 2005; Wigglesworth, 2003).

Having explored the aspects of communicative pedagogy in ELT, in the next section I will review the literature on teaching speaking with a particular reference to pedagogical implementations in EFL contexts.

2.11. Teaching Speaking in EFL Contexts

Despite the advantages of CLT in promoting language learning and communicative interaction, CLT has been criticized due to theoretical and methodological problems in pedagogical implementations and educational innovations in a wider range of educational contexts particularly in EFL countries (Liu et al., 2004; Li, 1998; Burnaby and Sun, 1989). Though CLT has strength in principle arising from multiple theoretical backgrounds from relevant disciplines (Celce-Murcia et al., 1997), there has been much debate about CLT. The major difficulties in introducing CLT in EFL contexts have been identified as lack of oral proficiency in English amongst teachers and students, lack of teacher training in teaching methodology, large classes, traditional textbooks, grammar-based examination systems, limited resources, difficulty in assessment, and teachers' and students' reluctant attitudes to curriculum reforms in traditional classrooms (e.g. Jabeen, 2014; Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Littlewood, 2013; Noom-Ura, 2013; Underwood, 2012; Hu, 2005; Nunan, 2003; Li, 1998; Ellis, 1996; Anderson, 1993; Valdes and Jhones, 1991; Burnaby and Sun, 1989).

One of the main problems which hinders the implementation of CLT and speaking practice in EFL contexts is related to the existing education system centred on grammar-based exams (e.g. Moodie and Nam, 2016; Yazan, 2016; Jabeen, 2014; Likitrattanaporn, 2014; Richards and Rodgers, 2014; Wu and Alrabah, 2014; Dincer and Yeşilyurt 2013; Shin, 2012; Underwood, 2012; Li and Baldauf, 2011; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Chen et al., 2005; Li, 1998; Kirkpatrick, 1984), and the socio-cultural expectation for the grammar-based exam preparation in the classroom (Ahn, 2011; Carless, 2004b). However, the lack of interest in speaking and emphasis instead on grammar seems to be caused by the fact that there is no real communicative purpose or need to speak English outside the classroom in EFL contexts

(Yazan, 2016; MacNeil, 1988, cited in Gorsuch, 2000). On the other hand, despite generally limited training on speaking in EFL contexts, English teachers' oral proficiency has been viewed as very critical in EFL countries (Butler, 2005; Liu et al., 2004) because CLT requires higher oral proficiency from non-native English teachers since the teachers' oral proficiency influences their communicative methodology and language use (Amengual-Pizarro, 2007; Horwitz, 1996; Reves and Medgyes, 1994). However, because of the demand for professional skills in task management in addition to higher oral proficiency, CLT has been perceived negatively amongst EFL teachers and criticized as an excessive burden on the part of the teacher (Jeon, 2009; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Carless, 2004b; Li, 1998).

Even though spoken English use is encouraged in the classroom according to curriculum reforms in EFL countries, students' generally low oral proficiency under the inflexible school system (Shin, 2012; Kang, 2008) in addition to teachers' lack of oral proficiency (Kim and Lee, 2015; Jo, 2013; Jeon, 2008; Kim, 2008a, 2002; Liu et al, 2004; Carless, 2004b; Choi, 2000) seems to result in dominant L1 use in the classroom. For example, Kim and Lee (2015) reported that Korean primary school pre-service teachers' self-confidence in oral proficiency and teaching speaking were found to be very low although they highly valued TEE policy. Similarly, Jeon (2008) also indicated teachers' perceived lack of oral proficiency to be the main cause of avoidance of TEE. However, it should be noted that including Jeon (2008) and Kim and Lee (2015) many studies which examined Korean English teachers' spoken English use were based on surveys or questionnaires, and the findings may have a limitation in that they do not provide a holistic explanation of teachers' perspectives of TEE practice in comparison with classroom data. According to Shin (2012) and Ahn (2011), TEE policy in Korea is challenging due to contextual constraints caused by students' poor understanding of spoken English despite newly recruited or qualified English teachers' good oral proficiency. Similarly, Kang (2008) also reported that the teacher's code-switching between Korean and English was adopted in consideration of students' interest and comprehension. Frequent L1 use has been previously viewed as controversial in terms of the impact on language learning (Swain and Lapkin, 2000; Chaudron, 1988). However, recent studies suggest the positive impact of L1 on increasing critical thinking and communication in L2 (e.g. Sampson, 2012; Kim and Choe, 2011; Lee, 2001; Swain and Lapkin, 2000; Cook, 1999; Harbord, 1992). L1 seems to support the process of language learning as a motivational or meta-cognitive resource (e.g. Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003; Lucas and Katz, 1994;

Auerbach, 1993). Therefore, appropriate use of L1 differentiated to level needs to be encouraged (Hall and Cook, 2013; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Carless, 2008).

There are also constraints to CLT from the socio-cultural or classroom contexts of Asian EFL countries. For example, the large class size in public schools makes classroom management difficult during communicative tasks (e.g. Jabeen, 2014; Ahn, 2011; Yook, 2011; Jeon, 2009; Li, 1998; Ellis, 1996; Johnstone, 1989). In addition, the time pressure under the exam-centered school education seems to make CLT and TBL implementations difficult with little chance to practise speaking within the class hours (Lee, 2016; Shin, 2012; Butler, 2011; Carless, 2007). For example, Jeon et al (2011) refer to the high zeal or expectation for developing communicative competence in Korea while the amount of time to learn spoken English in English classes during school education is very limited. Jeon and Song (2014) also indicated the need for more English classes in Korea in order to increase exposure to and practice in spoken English. According to Yim (2009, cited in Moodie and Nam, 2006), the difficulty in introducing TBL in Korean school contexts was caused by the exam wash-back effect. Shin (2012) also mentioned that the education system which is centered on the exam severely limits the instructional or material choices open to Koran teachers of English, thus inhibiting CLT implementations. Similarly, Dincer and Yeşilyurt (2013) studied Turkish pre-service English teachers' beliefs of teaching speaking and found that their negative beliefs of teaching speaking arose from their limited prior experience of learning speaking under the traditional school education system. Again it can be noted that although there are many studies which examine Asian EFL teachers' perceptions of CLT or TBL, they often seem to adopt surveys, and such quantified results based on statistics seem to lack empirical evidence in relation to the reality of classroom practice in context, in addition to having limitations in the extent to which self-reports can unveil teachers' beliefs underpinning their practice.

It has also been indicated by previous research that students from the Confucian tradition in East Asian countries tend to be reticent or reluctant to engage with speaking activities (e.g. Peng, 2012; Mak, 2011; Littlewood, 2010; Wen and Clément, 2003; Liu and Littlewood, 1997), since this tradition views the teacher as an authoritative figure and values the role of a teacher for subject knowledge transmission (Yu, 2001; Carless, 1999). On the other hand, research also indicates lack of in-service teacher training on teaching methodology and material development to support existing teachers with appropriate knowledge and skills related to implementing curriculum innovation or spoken English policy in EFL contexts (e.g.

Moodie and Nam, 2016; Ko, 2016; Choi, 2013; Jo, 2013; Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009; Ahn, 2008; Im and Jeon, 2009; Jeon, 2008; Kim, 2008b; Kim, 2000). For example, according to Ko (2016), Choi (2013), and Kim (2008b), English teachers in Korea were found to lack effective skills for TEE, thus resulting in dominant teacher talk either by L1 or L2 with no meaningful communication between the students, and Jo (2013) also reported that English teachers in Korea were not ready to teach fully TEE based classes though they were very positive about TEE policy. As shown above, there are quite a few studies in Korea which have conducted observations as the main research tool to investigate classroom practice, but it can be noted that many studies are based on statistical results, and seem to have a limitation in the extent to which they can provide a fuller picture of the classroom context in relation to the individual teachers' views of their practice or other factors which may influence their practice. It should also be noted that quite a few studies are solely based on a single research method (e.g. questionnaire or interview), therefore may lack validity.

EFL teachers seem also to have lack of understanding of communicative pedagogy with misconceptions of CLT (e.g. Butler, 2011; Guilloteaux, 2004; Ho, 2004; Li, 1998; Thompson, 1996) or different beliefs and attitudes regarding CLT (e.g. Littlewood, 2013; Butler, 2005; Carless, 2004b; Mitchell and Lee, 2003; Zheng and Adamson, 2003; Gorsuch, 2000). In addition, it was reported that there were different contextual adaptations of CLT amongst EFL teachers by adopting mixed approaches in traditional contexts according to their perceptions of CLT. However, Littlewood (2013) viewed this adaptation as necessary to develop communication-oriented language teaching in ways to suit EFL contexts. Garton (2014), Butler (2011), and Carless (2007) also argue that more contextually sensitive communicative and task-based teaching methodologies should be developed in Asian EFL countries. The literature review seems to suggest the need for systematic teacher training on communicative methodology and task design to develop context-sensitive CLT frameworks in EFL contexts. Again, these were areas that I took into consideration in my study.

2.12. Summary

I have explored previous research relevant to my study topic to construct a theoretical framework for my study. Based on socio-cultural and constructivist perspectives of teacher learning, I have looked into student teachers' learning and cognition development while interacting with the practicum context, and I have analyzed student teachers' practice of

teaching speaking from contemporary perspectives of communicative paradigms. The literature review on the teaching practicum and teaching speaking has shown that there has not been much research on pre-service teacher cognition and practice during the practicum in the field of TESOL (Farrell, 2008; Borg, 2006) and that there has also been lack of research on teaching speaking in relation to teacher cognition and practice (Wyatt, 2009; Borg, 2006).

Research on teacher cognition over the past decades has contributed to increasing knowledge about teachers' thoughts and beliefs behind their practice and the importance of understanding teacher cognition in relation to classroom practice in context, and many studies have investigated student teachers' cognition in relation to the influence on or the impact of teacher training. Whilst there is a considerable amount of research on teacher cognition in pre-service teacher education, there has been comparatively little research that examines the practicum in relation to student teachers' cognition and practice development. Given the important role of the practicum in teacher learning and the significant influence of teacher cognition on classroom practice as previously reported (Liu et al., 2004; Gorsuch, 2000), there is clearly a need for more research on teacher learning during the TESOL practicum in relation to the interrelations between teacher cognition and practice. In addition, as spoken English has been under-researched amongst the other language skills (Hughes, 2002; Cohen, 1996), there is a demand for more research on teaching speaking in relation to teacher cognition and practice particularly in Asian EFL contexts including Korea where there is a paucity of research (Woods and Çakır, 2011; Wyatt, 2009; Hiep, 2007). This study, therefore, has filled this gap in the literature by researching teaching speaking during the EFL practicum in Korea.

The literature review has also identified a methodological gap in previous research in that many studies on teacher cognition in TESOL pre-service teacher education were conducted by quantitative methods (Nakata, 2015; Borg, 2009), and were often based on a single research instrument. It was found that many studies on pre-service English teacher education in Korea investigated student teachers' perceptions of initial teacher training mainly through statistical measurements using questionnaires (Moodie and Nam, 2016). Self-report instruments seem to have a methodological limitation in assessing teacher cognition as teachers' hidden beliefs (as well as their practices) are not always realized by themselves, and single research design (using questionnaires or interviews) seems to lack empirical evidence as they measure teacher cognition on its own without providing authentic classroom data which can explain the context of actual teaching (Yook and Lee, 2016; Li, 2013).

Korean curriculum reforms have been centered on CLT over the past two decades, but the difficulties of implementing CLT in Korean schools have been well reported in relation to institutional constraints (Ahn, 2011; Jeon, 2009; Guilloteaux, 2004; Choi, 2000; Li, 1998). Whilst the exam washback effect inhibits classroom practice of CLT or TEE (Moodie and Nam, 2016; Shin, 2012), there has been little empirical research on CLT or TEE which examines teacher cognition in relation to contextual factors in Korea. Many studies that investigated speaking activities in Korean secondary schools according to curriculum reforms often adopted experimental designs and were based on statistical results, which seem to have a limitation in explaining the complexities of teaching and learning of speaking and contextual variables (Moodie and Nam, 2016). Since the gap between education policy, teacher education, and classroom practice has been criticized as the main barrier to establishing curriculum reforms in Asian EFL contexts, to narrow the gap and develop EFL teacher education in Korea, more research is necessary to examine the impact of initial teacher training on student teachers' professional development through in-depth qualitative approaches that look into the context of teaching practice. Therefore, I have conducted a qualitative study using mixed methods, reflecting the perspectives of all parties involved in the practicum context in order to provide a holistic view of teacher learning during the practicum.

The literature review enabled me to identify a theoretical-methodological limitation of previous research while acknowledging the contributions of existing studies to the knowledge base of TESOL teacher education, thus to situate my study within the broad body of research where there is a gap which needs to be filled. On the basis of the literature review on the practicum and teaching speaking and with a reflection on the educational context of Korea, overall research design including research questions and research methods will be discussed in the methodology chapter which follows.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1. Overview

In this chapter, the overall research design is presented. First, the research focus and research questions are presented, and the nature of qualitative research as a natural inquiry is discussed, reviewing the significant role of the researcher and the issues related to sampling and grounded theory. Then the research methods section provides a detailed explanation of data collection and analysis processes in each phase of the study. Finally, a discussion on the validity and reliability of the study and ethical issues will follow.

3.2. Research Focus

The study explored teacher learning during the practicum in EFL pre-service teacher education in Korea. The purpose of the study was to examine the development of pre-service English teachers' understanding and experience of teaching speaking during the EFL practicum in Korea with respect to the shift of emphasis towards communication-oriented and task-based pedagogies in the national curriculum reform. Case studies of three student teachers were conducted through classroom observations and in-depth field interviews in teacher colleges and secondary schools in Korea.

3.3. Research Questions

The research questions of the study consist of the main question which investigates the relationship between the experience of the practicum and student teachers' cognition development, and three sub-questions which trace student teachers' cognition change before and after the practicum and possible contextual challenges to and influences on any such change.

Main Question:

To what extent does the pre-service teachers' experience during the practicum affect their understanding of teaching speaking?

Sub-Questions:

- What is the pre-service teachers' understanding of teaching speaking gained from teacher training before the practicum?
- What is the pre-service teachers' understanding of teaching speaking after the practicum?
- What challenges to learning to teach speaking in the manner expected by the national curriculum do the pre-service teachers confront over the practicum?

3.4. Research Design

The study was designed as a qualitative case study. The nature of qualitative research will be discussed first by reviewing the ontological and epistemological standpoints, and comparing positivism and interpretive paradigms, exploring the researcher role, sampling procedures, and grounded theory techniques, and the design of case study will also be discussed.

3.4.1 Qualitative Research

Qualitative research has been widely employed in education as it is considered to be useful to enhance an understanding of a particular educational topic with a detailed complex view of the field under investigation in a natural setting (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Qualitative research emphasizes the process of discovering the nature of a reality that is socially situated and constructed through close relationships between the researcher and the researched. In contrast, quantitative research is mainly concerned with investigating the causal relationships between variables using statistical measurement (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011), although it has been used integrally with qualitative research since the 1990s with a growing interest in mixed methods (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005).

Qualitative research adopts interconnected and interpretive multiple methods in order to make the most sense of or better understand the world under inquiry (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). The main assumptions of qualitative research (e.g. Natasi and Schensul, 2005; Merriam, 1998) are summarised below:

- a) Qualitative research focuses on the reality and meaning constructed by social interaction amongst members of a particular community and the ways people make sense of the world.
- b) Qualitative research values the researcher's role as a primary instrument who is actively involved in the research process, negotiating and interacting with participants.
- c) Qualitative research explores a particular aspect of natural context through inductive approaches to data collection and data analysis to derive theory from data by a rich and thick description of data with detailed observation field-notes and in-depth and subsequent interviews.
- d) Qualitative research contributes to theory development through attempting to inform and modify theory by comparing existing theory to grounded theory from the research.

Epistemologically, the nature of qualitative research is well explained by an interpretive paradigm on which the study is based. The epistemological position can be compared to the ontological position which displays a distinctive viewpoint regarding what constitutes reality. There is a difference in worldview on the existence of reality between ontology and epistemology in that ontology is concerned with being, while epistemology is related to knowing (Mason, 2002). However, the ontological position recognizes multiple constructions of reality by individuals (Lincoln and Guba, 1985) and this constructivist ontological stance offers a way to make sense of the world as the reality is constructed by individual interpretations of experience (Cordella and Shaikh, 2006).

3.4.2 Naturalistic Inquiry

Qualitative inquiry is often equated with a naturalistic or interpretive inquiry, which developed to challenge the positivist paradigm during the early 1970s (Reynolds, 1980). Naturalistic inquiry is contradictory to positivism in many respects. While positivists argue for a single reality and focus on testing scientific theories, naturalists emphasize multiple constructions of reality and value the interactive relationships between the researcher and the informant (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Naturalistic inquiry is concerned with a 'context of discovery' in search of the origin of scientific theories (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:25).

Investigations of meanings attached to social life are based on the epistemological stance, which is concerned with a personal construction of reality (Kelly, 1955, cited in Lincoln and

Guba, 1985:77) by attempting to grasp the subjective meaning attached to a social phenomenon (Schutz, 1967, cited in Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In contrast to positivists' objective reality based on the researcher's explanation through quantifiable measurement, a qualitative epistemological stance looks into individual reality through an interpretive paradigm (Myers, 1997, cited in Cordella and Shaikh, 2006).

The interpretive paradigm, which developed between 1970 and 1986 as 'a more pluralistic, interpretive, open-ended perspective' based on constructivism or post-positivism (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:9) emphasizes individual meanings attached to social life (Reynolds, 1980). Unlike positivism which looks at reality 'out there,' an interpretive paradigm views 'knowledge as a social construction' (Cordella and Shaikh, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2000) thus valuing social interaction amongst participants and the researcher's interpretations as well as those of the participants' throughout the research process.

Based on the interpretive paradigm, the study was conducted to understand the participants' perspectives in socio-cultural contexts through detailed observation field-notes with attention to contextual factors which could affect how the participants interact with one another in the particular contexts (Neuman, 2011). In-depth interviews which reflect the participants' interpretations of the contexts were also conducted to understand how the participants interpret meanings in specific contexts or how different views are formulated in different contexts. The researcher's interpretations were reflected in the decision-making process of generating and analyzing data as qualitative research enables the researcher to make sense of research processes using personal understandings or subjective insights as part of the data (Newman, 2011). However, I took precautions to minimize bias throughout the study as explained below in detail.

3.4.3 Researcher Role

In qualitative research, the researcher is viewed as the instrument (Patton, 1990), and the researcher is socially situated in the field and plays a vital role, simultaneously guiding and constraining the research process (Denzin and Lincoln, 2011). That is, my role as an active researcher was significant throughout this study through active engagement in interaction and communication with various participants and interpreting the research field with an open mind. In qualitative research, the research design is an on-going development process (Merriam,

1998). Therefore, it was important for me to bear a certain degree of uncertainty and to respond appropriately to any necessary change or adjustment during the research process, and through this constant interpretive process in the field, the research design was shaped further. The researcher's interpersonal skills are viewed as vital for obtaining quality data (Nastasi and Schensul, 2005). It is essential as a qualitative researcher to be a good communicator to build up a rapport with the participants (Merriam, 1998). Developing and keeping a trusting and reliable relationship with each participant was crucial to enable the gathering of further information and continuous data in each context through cooperative support and help from the participants. As Merriam (1998) indicated, it is also necessary to be aware of potential bias from the subjective researcher role or arising from the researcher's influence on the participants and their accounts. Therefore, a thorough reflexive method using personal journals always followed while gathering data during the fieldwork and whilst interpreting and reporting the findings during data analyses with a reasonable and descriptive account of each decision given or with a clear rationale provided.

3.4.4 Purposeful Sampling

Purposeful sampling was employed for the study to discover and understand the particular issues under investigation and select 'information-rich cases' (Patton, 1990, cited in Merriam, 1998:63). As mentioned by Creswell and Poth (2018), participants were chosen based on the specific criteria identified according to the purpose of the study (see p.64-65 for details on the criteria of purposeful sampling). Purposeful sampling, similar to theoretical sampling, involves on-going processes in gathering the total sample (Merriam, 1998) and the size of sampling is likely to be decided according to the amount of information needed for the research (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). When designing the study, there was uncertainty, to some extent, in terms of the number of participants to include or the sites to visit in the early stage of the research, but sampling was shaped and developed continuously in the field while the research proceeded as Merriam (1998) indicated.

A holistic process of purposeful sampling contributes to gathering data according to the research purpose and developing theory from data. According to Charmaz (1990), there is merit in initial sampling to understand the research site before further data collection. In this study, initial sampling took place in one teacher college before the practicum according to the research design and gathering institutional documents and conducting initial interviews with

selected participants were useful to gain a good understanding of the major issues related to the research context. However, once the practicum began, there was, as expected, unpredictable variation in relation to accessing school contexts and conducting observations in that the permissions for observations had to be sought individually by the trainees once the practicum began. Therefore, it was necessary to adjust the duration of the fieldwork to enable more data collection and to enhance the quality of data. Further sampling was carried out upon consideration of the contextual circumstances and the amount of data required to fulfill the purpose of the study. Data collection procedures are discussed fully in detail later in relation to the research process.

3.4.5 Grounded Theory

Grounded theory research was developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The grounded theory approach aims to discover theory from data in the field, and the generation and development of theory are closely connected to the context of the inquiry under research (Creswell and Poth, 2018). In the grounded theory approach, data collection and analysis processes occur simultaneously (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). That is, interpretation processes start from initial data collection, thus informing subsequent data collection (Nastasi and Schensul, 2005), and sampling continues until the point of theoretical saturation when no more data need to be collected to contribute to the developing theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Transforming data is an on-going participatory process involving constant interpretation and analysis of data (Wolcott, 1994).

For the purpose of gathering rich data contextualized in the field, in-depth field interviews were conducted with detailed field-notes recorded to fully take into account each participant's view in data collection and analysis processes and generate data-driven theory with a deeper understanding of the inquiry under research. Data collection and analysis processes were continuously modified and shaped.

3.5. Case Study

The case study has been widely adopted in education as it provides the possibility of developing an in-depth understanding of the situation through a detailed descriptive account of the inquiry, and of shedding further insights to the field of the research (e.g. Yin, 2014;

Simons, 2009; Merriam, 1998; Nunan, 1992). This study is based on a case study because it is useful in researching educational inquiries in consideration of particular contextual relations (Yin, 2014). Merriam (1998:41) explains the merit of a case study in qualitative research as 'a means of investigating complex social units consisting of multiple variables of potential importance in understanding the phenomenon' through 'a rich and holistic account of a phenomenon.' Qualitative case study in education is often framed by a number of relevant disciplines, and educational processes, problems or programs are examined to bring about further understanding which could affect and improve practice (Merriam, 1998). The case study has been particularly useful to study educational innovation to evaluate educational programs and inform policy (Merriam, 1998).

The case study is defined by Yin (2018:15), as an empirical inquiry that 'investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the "case") in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident'. According to Creswell and Poth (2018:96), the case study is 'an exploration of a bounded system or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information-rich in context.' The most common view of the case study is characterized by the intensive and extensive description and analysis of a 'single unit' or a 'bounded system' (Smith, 1978, cited in Merriam, 1998:19). That is, the 'case' is defined by Miles et al. (2014:28) as 'a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context,' and it is also 'a unit of analysis.'

A multiple case study was designed for the study in order to gain an in-depth contextual understanding of the ways that the pre-service English teachers in Korea approach and incorporate or integrate teaching speaking in their practice in the practicum context. A multiple case study was adopted since it enables cross-case analysis and interpretation and therefore increases external validity (Merriam, 1998). A multiple case study strengthens the findings by presenting compelling evidence, which is more powerful than a single case study for analytical conclusions (Yin, 2014). Miles et al. (2014:33) also indicate the strength of a multiple case study in that 'by looking at a range of similar and contrasting cases, we can understand a single-case finding, grounding it by specifying how and where and, if possible, why it carries on as it does'.

The study was initially designed to gather data from trainees in one pre-service teacher education institution during the first practicum, but the fieldwork was extended and shaped by further data collection, and the research continued to involve more trainees from more teacher colleges during the second practicum within the criteria set for purposeful sampling. Since the number of participants had to be determined and adjusted in the field, there was a degree of uncertainty and the total number of participants was not decided until data collection was completed. One of the challenges of a case study is for the researcher to identify the case and decide on whether to study a single case or multiple cases. Determining the boundaries of a case is important as it serves as a rationale in defining a case (Miles et al., 2014). That is, a case is selected by establishing certain criteria, within which a case is defined or identified. However, it is also found to be challenging to establish a rationale for purposeful sampling, as well as deciding on the boundaries of a case 'in terms of time, events, and processes' (Creswell and Poth, 2018:102).

Multiple cases were selected for the purpose of the study through comparable case selection (Miles et al., 2014) considering the extent to which variation is required, assuming that 'the more cases,' 'the greater the variation across the cases' (Merriam, 1998:40), and each case was selected carefully in that in a multiple case study each case needs to serve 'a specific purpose within the whole inquiry' (Yin, 1994:45). Case selection, as well as institution selection, was driven theoretically based on purposeful sampling (Miles et al., 2014). That is, three teacher education institutions were selected for the study according to purposeful sampling from the criteria set for public sector teacher training universities (see section 3.6.2.2). In selecting each institution, I considered whether the teacher college was located in the large cities including the capital city where education policy is initiated, whether the site is easy to access in terms of logistics, and more importantly whether the teacher college curriculum and the courses provided to trainees, especially to the fourth year trainees, reflected the emphasis of education policy initiatives and English curriculum reforms. Initially, one teacher college in the capital city was selected. However, the initial plan to select four cases from one teacher college was adjusted in the field, considering institutional and contextual constraints with regard to possible access to schools and availability for observations. Thus, to meet the purpose of the study, two more teacher colleges were selected. From the participants of the three teacher colleges, I selected cases based on the number of observations of the speaking lessons which were available during the practicum, and in consideration of variation in terms of teacher training and school contexts (see section 4.1). Three cases were

finally selected in accordance with the research focus and upon consideration of the time required to complete the study. Each case consisted of one trainee from each teacher college, that is, three trainees from three teacher colleges.

Each case was based on multiple data sources which were rich in context since the case study consists of a wide range of data collection to provide 'an in-depth picture of the case' (Creswell and Poth, 2018:125) through a combination of interviews, documents, and direct or participant observation (Yin, 2014). Through detailed description and a holistic analysis of the entire case (Yin, 2009 cited in Creswell and Poth, 2018:100), an interpretation of the researcher emerged about each case through a detailed description as Stake (1995, cited in Creswell and Poth, 2018:101) indicated. The case study is descriptive and also interpretive or evaluative, and most case studies are in combination with another in that while a descriptive case study is to give a detailed description of the phenomenon, an interpretive case study is to interpret and theorize the phenomenon by inductive and analytical data processing (Merriam, 1998). In the multiple case study, it is necessary to provide a detailed description of each case and an interpretation of themes within the case, which is called a 'within-case analysis', followed by a thematic analysis across the cases, which is called a 'cross-case analysis,' also with an interpretation of the meaning of the case (Creswell and Poth, 2018:100). At the final interpretation stage, the researcher reports the overall 'lessons' from the case (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:362).

The case study benefits field research with rich and thick description and analysis, but it also has limitations in that it is highly dependent on the researcher's instincts and abilities throughout the process of data collection and analysis, and it has been criticized due to its over-generalization or 'lack of representativeness' (Hamel, 1993, cited in Merriam, 1998:42). It has also been indicated that though the multiple case study design is preferred where there is an attempt to generalize the results of case studies, the multiple case study might result in lack of depth in every single case (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Therefore, upon consideration of the limitations of case studies and the risk of researcher bias, pre-cautions were taken, and multiple research methods were adopted to build up each in-depth case (Creswell and Poth, 2018). The research methods of the study will be discussed below in detail.

3.6. Research Methods

The research methods of the study include questionnaires, observations, interviews, and documents. The rationale for the design of the instruments is discussed briefly in relation to data collection before the research process is explained in detail. That is, the role of multiple research instruments is discussed first (in section 3.6.1), and detailed discussion on generating data during the fieldwork is provided according to the main stages of the research process (in section 3.6.2). Then the process of transcribing and translating data is briefly reviewed (in section 3.6.3) and the reflexive process adopted to analyze the data by the grounded theory approach through developing coding systems and linking research instruments with research questions is finally presented (in section 3.6.4).

3.6.1 Data Collection

The role of each data collection instrument and the rationale behind each instrument are discussed below by looking at the design of questionnaires, observations, interviews, and documents, respectively.

3.6.1.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires have been widely used in case studies for the purpose of a survey. For example, a survey can interact with a case study by 'giving a rounded view of a limited number of cases alongside an extensive view of a wide range of cases' (Olsen, 2014:13). There is usually variety in the type of questions from requesting factual knowledge to measuring the respondents' subjective viewpoints either by open questions or by multiple-choice questions which include ranking order, rating, and 'agree or disagree' or 'true or false' (Fowler, 1995). A preliminary questionnaire was designed and distributed to a class of the final year trainees in each teacher college as a preparatory source of information and as a starting point prior to the main data collection during the practicum. The purpose of the questionnaire was not systematically analyzed for statistical measurements first of all as the study was qualitative research which is opposed to quantitative orientation (Hannah and Lautsch, 2011), and as the average response rate of the questionnaire between the teacher colleges was different, it was

not analyzed in detail qualitatively upon consideration of whether questionnaires can make valid comparisons. As people are not always able to articulate their hidden thoughts behind their action by themselves, it was considered whether the questionnaire would present the respondent's beliefs sufficiently and if the answers based on self-reports would be accurate representations of the respondents' beliefs as the respondents may not interpret the questionnaire as it is intended (Robson, 2016; Muijs, 2004). Therefore, the questionnaire was used as documentary data for a secondary source of information to understand the research context and based on the preliminary analysis it was used to corroborate and augment interview data.

In designing a preliminary questionnaire, a few question categories were pre-identified according to the research focus, and only open questions were used in line with the qualitative nature and purpose of the study. As compared to closed questions (such as yes-no questions with no response category), open questions have benefits to gather in-depth information with diversity in the degree of the respondents' answers though they are rather time-consuming to analyze (Neuman, 2011). Care was also taken to make a clear question that can initiate the respondent's own interpretation and understanding. The preliminary questionnaire provided an overall view of the trainees' initial ideas or experiences about teaching and learning of speaking by communicative methodology, though at a rather superficial level, and informed their expectations about the practicum or their views of teacher training courses in general (see Appendix 2). Information gathered from the questionnaire was very useful in gaining some understanding of teacher college contexts and the trainees who would be researched in the field prior to the main data collection, and based on the trainees' views as a whole, the research design was shaped. That is, the questionnaires served as a guide to the design of the initial trainee interviews and trainer interviews after the participants were identified, and they were also reviewed after conducting the interviews.

The questionnaire also played a role in identifying potential participants. It enabled the researcher to identify those who were in agreement to participate in the study and to make initial contact with them. To ensure the anonymity of the participants is important according to the purpose of the questionnaire particularly when there is a greater degree of sensitivity involved in the subject matter (Tyagi, 1989). The questionnaire was designed and conducted with caution not to cause any risk of exposing the privacy or personal information of the questionnaire participants during the study other than gathering the participants' views on

teacher training and English curriculum reforms in general. However, as the questionnaire served to decide on the suitability of the potential participants in the study based on the responses and make contact, the questionnaire participants' contact emails were initially gathered but only those who were happy to be contacted via email were asked to feel free to leave contact information. Once initial contact with potential participants was made, personal information was removed from the questionnaires, and each questionnaire was assigned with a pseudo name and was numbered with an alphabetic and numeric code for data analysis. All the questionnaires gathered from each teacher college were stored securely in a locked drawer for the prevention of unauthorised access, and also electronically in an online storage (Adobe Document Cloud) in a password protected computer during data analysis in order to guard against exposure of personal data to unauthorised people as well as to prevent accidental damage or loss of data. In order to protect each participant's anonymity and confidentiality of the information shared, all the information from the questionnaires were not shared with other participants, considering the extent to which the questionnaire responses can be identifiable of an individual participant. Based on the rationale for purposeful sampling for the purpose of the study (which explored novice student teachers' initial teaching), the preliminary questionnaire helped identify those who had no previous classroom teaching experience. There were also follow-up questionnaires in the teacher colleges after the practicum. By way of follow-up, a follow-up questionnaire (see Appendix 11) was distributed with the intention of gathering information on an overall idea of the trainees' views of teaching speaking after the practicum as a whole class and to compare and validate the case study participants' views with those of their contemporaries.

3.6.1.2 Observation

Observation has been a common and popular research tool, particularly in field research as it is a useful instrument to collect rich data with an in-depth and detailed description of the context using extensive field-notes through an interpretive approach. Observation is viewed to be 'the fundamental base' of all the research methods in social science research (Adler and Adler, 1994:389) and to play 'a central role' in language teacher cognition research (Borg, 2006:231). In the case study, direct or participant observation has been widely adopted as evidence from observation adds invaluable information to the topic under research (Yin, 2014). For this study, direct observation was conducted in teacher colleges and secondary schools based on the interpretive paradigm which values the coconstruction of knowledge between the researcher and the researched in the context of research.

Direct observation is beneficial in gathering rich contextual information and understanding the relationships of the participants with the researcher directly involved in the context of observation (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Murray and Lawrence, 2000; Nueman, 2000). However, it should be noted that since direct observation allows the researcher to be present in the natural setting of research, it can affect the researched in their behaviors by acknowledging the presence of the researcher. Therefore, caution was given not to interfere with or influence those who were observed as a non-participant observation.

Observation within the naturalistic paradigm is often carried out as unstructured, and, as opposed to positivist structured observation, does not use a strick check-list measuring predetermined behaviors (Mulhall, 2003). In unstructured observation, the researcher can play various roles from complete participant to complete observer (Mulhall, 2003). According to Adler and Adler (1994, cited in Merriam, 1998:101), there is a difference between 'observer as participant' and 'participant as observer'. That is, the 'observer as participant' plays a 'peripheral membership role,' in which the observer closely interacts with the group under observer's participation in the setting is not a primary goal. On the other hand, the 'participant as observer' plays an 'active membership role' and is actively involved in the central activity of the setting. In this study, the researcher took the former position.

According to Angers and Machtmes (2005), observation is also useful to record actual action or conduct in comparison to 'what people say they did or believe they will do,' that is, 'actual action' as opposed to 'the stated account of action.' For this reason, observation data were useful to triangulate interview data, that is, to compare stated practice with the actual practice of the trainees and gather a whole picture of each trainee's experience during the practicum. Observation was conducted on the basis of an interpretative paradigm with an intention to understand the context from the participants' perspectives, valuing the participants' views or the ways the participants construct meaning in social interaction in order to interpret or understand accurately the particular context in that social interaction is defined by each individual who creates meaning about the particular events or circumstances (Newman, 2011). However, researchers also make use of their own 'knowledge and expertise' to interpret what is observed (Merriam, 1998:96), and a precise focus of what to observe also emerges while interacting with the context according to the research purpose (LeCompte and Preissle, 1992 cited in Merriam, 1998:97).

During the observation, field-notes were manually written without using any observation check-list, to provide a thick and detailed description of each classroom in consideration of contextual factors such as classroom settings and interaction patterns amongst the participants. I intended to record the classroom atmosphere or environment as a whole in as much detail as possible to give a precise picture of the scene and document the micro dimensions of the participants' interactive dynamics in a particular social context. The observation was primarily hand-written into the field-notes and also audio-recorded to help me to remember and retrieve the lessons which were observed and to document the field-notes with accuracy and in detail, and permissions were sought from the research participants. According to the criteria for purposeful sampling, the focus of classroom observation during the practicum was on how the trainees taught speaking and implemented TEE and CLT in the national curriculum mandated manner. The observation of courses in the teacher colleges was also aimed at understanding how the trainees communicated and interacted in English, or how they conducted microteaching. However, care was also taken against any potential bias in interpreting the scene in that though direct observation is useful to gain insights into the research context by directly contacting the participants during the observations (Neuman, 2011), there is greater researcher subjectivity in viewing the scene (Yin, 2014; Murray and Lawrence, 2000; Merriam, 1998). A detailed description of how observation was conducted will be presented in section 3.6.2.4.

3.6.1.3 Interview

A semi-structured interview is commonly used in qualitative research to take advantage of a structured question derived from the research focus as guidance during the interview, whilst the researcher tries to understand the interview context from the participants' perspectives by encouraging a natural flow of discussion which enhances information disclosure from the participants (e.g. Neuman, 2011; Krueger and Casey, 2000; Merriam, 1998; Fielding, 1993). The main data of this study were collected by interviews and all the interviews were semi-

structured, aiming to gather in-depth information on the participants' perspectives by exploring their views according to the research focus.

The interviews proceeded using the major topics and categories identified and formulated according to the research focus. However, the interview process developed further using probes or prompts, that is, following up or summing up the interviewees' comments, following a more natural flow of conversations, and also promoting good rapport with each participant (Fielding, 1993). The effectiveness of probes or prompts is well known as a useful strategy in a semi-structured interview to structure and guide the interview process effectively (Yin, 2014; Fielding, 1993).

Attention was also given to questioning throughout the interview process so as not to impose the researcher's subjective idea on the participants. According to Holstein and Gubrium (1997), interview questions, and topics or discussions raised during the interview can also affect the ways that the interviewees respond and answer. Fielding (1993) also indicated that to prevent bias on the interviewees' answers it is important to give a moderate level of guidance or direction in the interview questions. Therefore, it seems important to prevent bias caused by the interviewer's influence on the interviewees while understanding the interview process as an interactive process from an interpretative paradigm.

For the participants who gave consent to full participation in research including audiorecording, a small MP3 voice recorder was used. The interviews were audio-recorded for the efficiency of the interview process by saving time to record every detail manually and also for the purpose of retrieval afterward with enhanced accuracy and quality. While audio-recording, I also kept making a note of what was discussed during the interview in order to be attentive to the main issues and the interview process as a whole. There were few occasions when audiorecording was not used during recruiting potential participants when some of the potential participants felt uncomfortable with being recorded at the very early stage of research, and in such a case the interviews were manually recorded by myself in the notebook.

There are pros and cons of recording the interviews. Qualitative research interviews are usually recorded and transcribed in detail for in-depth analysis in the search for themes, and the recording offers many advantages for data analysis as it can be played repeatedly and increase reliability and validity of the data (Al-Yateem N, 2012). It offers precise records of what was

said, which will add to the accuracy of the data, therefore enhancing the validity of the findings. Whilst the recording provides accurate information about what the interviewees' views and ideas were, it can also affect the participants' comfort levels, that is, how they can feel at ease, as well as how they present themselves as they may try to present their opinions or their attitudes more favorably (Al-Yateem N, 2012). On the other hand, when the interview is not recorded, the researcher will be unable to capture as much detail as possible with the same degree of accuracy, but it is possible to initiate more open and frank responses in a less formal or more sociable situation. Upon consideration of the possible effect of recording on the participants, I gave caution in setting up the audio-recorder and tried to make it unobtrusive during the interview process so that the interview can flow similar to natural conversation, and while trust was built on developing rapport with each participant, each interview developed as natural and interactive conversation.

There were four interviews conducted with each trainee, that is, initial interviews, preobservation interviews, post-observation interviews, and follow-up interviews, before, during and after the practicum. The rationale behind multiple interviews can be found in what Seidman (2006:15) called 'in-depth, phenomenologically based interviewing'. As advocated by Seidman (2006), in-depth interviews were conducted and developed in a sequential order with each trainee through open questions to help trainees explore their experience, and a series of four interviews starting from the teacher college and continuing over the practicum period were effective to build on and situate trainees' experience in context, and advantageous in enabling trainees to explore and reconstruct their experience in the context of practice and finally reflect on the meaning of their experience under the topic of the study.

There were also interviews with trainers in the teacher colleges before and after the practicum, and with mentors and head teachers in the secondary schools during the practicum. Whilst the interviews with trainees were primary data for the study, the interviews with trainers and mentors or headteachers were a secondary source of information which aimed to validate the trainees' interviews as qualitative study credibility is enhanced by multiple sources of information (Simons, 2009; Patton, 1990). According to Kuzmanić (2009:42), 'valid qualitative research is about credibly representing different social worlds or different interpretations to the readers.' The interviews with trainers and mentors enabled the researcher to understand the trainees' teacher training, teaching practice, contextual experiences, and

challenges during the practicum from the different perspectives of trainers and mentors, thus corroborating and complementing the trainees' perspectives and practices of teaching speaking. As trainers and mentors were the key people involved in or influencing the trainees' teaching practice during the practicum, their detailed account of the trainees' preparation for teaching speaking in the teacher colleges as well as the trainees' practice of teaching speaking in the secondary schools helped to provide a whole picture of the trainees' practicum (see further discussion in section 3.7.1). Each interview aimed to generate the participants' own views of their practice or teaching context, and the interviews developed in sequence gradually and coherently with each interview shaping or refining subsequent interviews. For example, previous interviews informed the following interviews, and post-observation interviews were formulated in connection with observations. Following the rationale for purposeful sampling, the specific aims of each interview with the various participants at different stages will be discussed in detail in section 3.6.2.4.

3.6.1.4 Documentation

The case study makes use of documents to substantiate evidence from other sources (Yin, 2014). Documents are useful to enhance the quality of case study by verifying institutional terminology as well as providing specific information about the field under research in detail, thus increasing credibility or internal validity (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), and documents also help make further inferences for further investigations of the field or to shape research questions (Yin, 2014). As documentary data play useful and supplementary roles in the case study, it is important to systematically search for relevant documents for the research during the fieldwork (Yin, 2014).

The advantage of using documentary data is its stability as an objective source of data (Merriam, 1998). It is important, however, to assess documents regarding their authenticity with genuine origin (Bryman, 2008), and take caution to the process by which the documents are constructed. Determining the authenticity and accuracy of the documents is often viewed as part of the research process (Merriam, 1998).

In this study, documentary data were used as a secondary source to provide authentic and rich contextual information as they ground case study in the context of the inquiry under research (Merriam, 1998) and are useful to build up grounded theory and grounding in real-life context

is the ultimate goal of the naturalistic inquiry (Guba and Lincoln, 1981, cited in Merriam, 1998:126). All the documents were gathered based on purposeful sampling and consisted of official documents and personal documents which are most commonly used in the case study (Bryman, 2008; Merriam, 1998). The official documents collected were governmental publications (on educational policies), national curriculums (including documents on curriculum reforms), and institutional documents and materials from the teacher colleges and the secondary schools. Researcher-generated personal documents were questionnaires, observation field-notes, and photographs of the artifacts. All the documents gathered were reviewed as supplementary data to enhance understanding of the research context at different stages for different purposes.

The documents gathered from the teacher colleges consisted of teacher training curriculums and programs, course outlines and materials, and practicum guides. They were firstly reviewed before the practicum to understand the nature of teacher training in each teacher college and to get an idea of the practicum program and the practicum schools where trainees were placed. A practicum guide which was a sheet outlining the allocation of trainees in placement informed the number of trainees taking the practicum and the level of schools where trainees would work and helped to some extent to plan further data collection in the second practicum. Teacher training curriculums and programs, and course outlines and materials also informed the design of trainer interviews or initial trainee interviews in each teacher college.

The documents gathered from the secondary schools consisted of practicum training programs, textbooks and activity books (see Appendices 20, 22 and 25), PowerPoint (PPT) slides (see Appendices 23 and 26), lesson plans (see Appendices 21, 24 and 28), and task sheets or handouts (see Appendix 27). They were gathered during the practicum from the trainees after observations or from the head teachers during initial school visits. Lesson plans were analyzed and used to understand the lesson aims or classroom activities in more detail and they were useful to see the structure of the lessons when compared with the post-observation trainee interviews. For example, the lesson plans were helpful to understand the trainees' teaching of speaking as integrated with listening or reading and corroborated the trainees' views and emphasis on teaching speaking as adjusted to their own teaching contexts. In addition, the lesson plans helped to explore the difference between lesson planning and actual teaching when compared with the observations (field-notes) and to get attentive to specific aspects of classroom interaction in the observations which followed. Textbooks along with PowerPoint

slides and task sheets or handouts also helped understand the topic and content or instruction of the lessons and provided specific details on classroom activities or materials when constructing observation field-notes. PowerPoint slides enabled the researcher to review what was covered in the lessons and interpret how the trainees tried to integrate speaking in the lessons centered on grammar and vocabulary in the textbook, and they corroborated and augmented the trainee interviews and the findings. On the other hand, photographs taken from the teacher colleges and the secondary schools were used when interviewing the trainees or when retrieving data as a reminder of the teacher college contexts or the school and classroom contexts. According to Harper (2002:13), photographs are often informally used during qualitative research but 'images evoke deeper elements of human consciousness' than do words alone and visual images can be an effective research tool to stimulate reflective elicitation from the participants and provide common understanding between the researcher and the participants (Harper, 2002). A few photographs were taken during the practicum in the classrooms and in the English-speaking zones which were used for speaking lessons (usually by native English teachers but also by some trainees). The photographs of the lessons were useful to stimulate the trainees' memories of their lessons after classroom observations, for example, to help the trainees reflect on the type of classes and students or particular activities and materials adopted (see examples of classroom photos in Appendix 29). There were also additional documents, for example, governmental publications and national curriculums which were reviewed prior to the study to gather information on previous and current education policies and curriculum reforms or teacher education and school education systems in Korea and they helped in planning the research.

3.6.2 Research Process

In this section, the research process is described in detail from preparing for the fieldwork, through institution selections and participant identifications, to data generation.

3.6.2.1 Fieldwork Preparation (Piloting)

Apart from my previous research training on the MSc Educational Research as a foundation for my PhD, there was also a pilot for this study with an intention to test out questionnaire and interview techniques with a small number of the target population in Korea. A questionnaire was sent via email to two secondary school English teachers in Korea, to test whether the design of the questionnaire enabled it to generate the preliminary data which it aimed to obtain. The first questionnaire which was written only in English seemed to generate limited information from the respondents' answers with occasional confusion as one respondent requested a clarification for one of the questionnaire questions, so the second questionnaire was written in English and Korean (with Korean translation provided) and the respondents were also free to provide answers either in English or in Korean according to their preference. Each question was also simplified in order to avoid a complex or complicated question format which could result in the respondent's misinterpretation of the question. For example, each question was simplified to focus on only one issue in relation to education policy or teacher training on the teaching of speaking. When it was necessary to include a few further questions related to the main question in order to gather more information in more detail, sub-questions were written under the main question. I also provided an additional question to clarify the main question, that is, by stating the same question in two different expressions. When the questionnaire was sent out in the second time after making changes as stated above, each question seemed to be understood more clearly to the respondent than before, so the questionnaire generated rich information on each respondent's perspectives. The questionnaire provided a practical guide to construct more direct and focused questions and to avoid vague or too broad question formats. There were also opportunities to interview one secondary school English teacher and one pre-service English teacher trainer from Korea, who was visiting a Korean community in Leeds in the UK. I interviewed them in Korean because when people speak in their mother tongue, they feel comfortable, lowering down unnecessary tension or stress caused by communicating in a foreign language especially when the interview participants are not fluent in English. Therefore, interviewees can more easily engage in the conversation, developing a rapport based on the common cultural grounds mediated by the first language. Since the interview in qualitative study is a joint construction of meaning between the interviewer and the interviewee with the interviewer trying to understand the subjective world of the interviewee (Kuzmanić, 2009), it is important to make the interview process less threatening but more enjoyable in order to help the interviewee to express his or her ideas as naturally flowing in order to enhance the quality of the interview. The interviews proceeded smoothly and gathered detailed information on the perspectives of the interviewees. The interviews were audio-recorded with permission from the interviewees and later played back in order to adjust or improve the ways that I asked a question or made a probe. For example, after retrieving the interviews, I was able to see that it is important to use

appropriate prompts or follow-up questions in order to elaborate answers further when there was a short answer, but I also felt that I should not impose my personal opinions or comments during the interview so as not to influence the interviewee's' answers with researcher subjectivity. The interview practice helped to test the effectiveness of the interview as a useful instrument to generate rich information and provided an initial experience of interviewing in Korean prior to the fieldwork. The pilot served as guidance to reshape or reformulate the questionnaire and interview design by more effective sequencing or clear wording of questions in both Korean and English.

3.6.2.2 Institution Selection

I took into consideration the location of the city and the teacher college curriculum as the main criteria for an institutional selection amongst public sector teacher training universities, as it is an essential and interrelated process of data collection in qualitative research, to gain access to a research site, establish rapport with people in context, and define a criterion for purposeful sampling (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Since I gained research permission from the Head of Department in a few universities, I first selected Teacher College A as it was a public sector teacher training university supported by the government, and it was also located in the capital city. In general capital cities tend to take the lead in embedding curriculum innovation, and its location facilitated easy access for me as the researcher. Most importantly, the teacher college curriculum reflected the education policy emphasis on teaching speaking and TEE in the classroom, and on teaching practice and English curriculum reforms, for example, by running courses such as 'Classroom English Practice', 'English Curriculum and Textbook Study', and 'Teaching Practice' for the fourth year trainees prior to the practicum (see Appendix 1).

There was another pre-service teacher education institution, Teacher College C, in a large city in the very south of Korea, where I was initially given research permission. The teacher college curriculum also displayed a focus on spoken English and teaching methodology but as this university's location was a considerable distance from the capital city where I was based, I did not choose this university at first. However, as the practicum in Teacher College A commenced at the end of March, one month earlier than I initially expected (as the practicum was initially planned to take place in May), this gave me more time to further research the practicum during May. Since I was informed of the changed date of the practicum from Teacher College A just two weeks before the practicum was to begin, there was a rush to prepare for the research from flying to the field to recruiting potential participants, and therefore I decided to continue data collection during the practicum in May at Teacher College C, to ensure the gathering of enough data of good quality, especially given that the practicum in Korea is only a month's duration, usually including two weeks' teaching practice.

At the time when the practicum for Teacher College A was at its peak I received an email about research permission from another university in the capital city, Teacher College B, and as the teacher college curriculum showed a strong emphasis on training in spoken English and teaching methodologies (which included the teaching of speaking), in addition to its location in the capital city, I decided also to recruit more participants at this university. In fact, the practicum from Teacher College A was nearly finished around mid-April as the trainees started and finished the practicum one week earlier than usual, and this enabled me to prepare for further data collection. Moreover, as I found it difficult to gain permissions from and arrange observations in schools during the practicum with Teacher College A, especially given the short practicum and the remote location of each school, I was unsure whether I would be able to collect a sufficient amount of data to meet the purpose of the study. Therefore, upon consideration of the institutional and contextual constraints which I encountered or noticed during the research for the practicum in April, I decided to undertake further data collection primarily from Teacher College B and adjust the schedule appropriately with Teacher College C regarding possible school access after being informed of each trainee's teaching schedule during the early week of the practicum in May.

3.6.2.3 Participant Identification

The participants were recruited in each teacher college through purposeful sampling using the questionnaire during the initial stage of data collection. Pseudo initials were assigned to each teacher college alphabetically according to the location and the practicum period. Teacher College A was located in the capital city and held the practicum from late March until mid-April, Teacher College B was also located in the capital city but held the practicum between April and May and Teach College C was located in a large city in the south region and held the practicum in May. The process of participant recruitment in each teacher college will be presented below in order.

Teacher College A

The preliminary questionnaire was, first of all, distributed to the trainees in Year 4 (approx. 24 trainees) in Teacher College A after mid-March. The first participant recruitment for the study was carried out in Teacher College A under considerable time pressure due to the teacher college's schedule change, which involved the practicum starting earlier than I had previously been informed. The participant recruitment took place almost one week before the practicum. With the help of the teaching assistant, I was able to recruit potential participants by distributing and gathering the questionnaires in a few classes during the break. As the trainees in Year 4 were taking a few optional classes, some questionnaires were gathered by the teaching assistant. 14 questionnaires were gathered in total.

Once the questionnaires were gathered, I had to choose research participants amongst potential participants based on the questionnaires from those who were interested in my study and had no previous classroom teaching experience. Of 14 trainees who responded to the questionnaires, 10 trainees were interested in my study. Using the email addresses on the questionnaires, I was able to contact each of them to make sure that they were happy to participate in my study and to seek informed consent individually. After separating those who were not to take the practicum that year, 8 trainees were selected for individual consultations. After meeting them, two trainees who were to take the practicum in high schools were deselected according to the research purpose as high schools were regarded as less appropriate for the purpose of the study because high schools (upper-level secondary schools) in Korea are more exam-centered in preparation for the university entrance exam while middle schools (lower-level secondary schools) face less pressure from the university entrance exam and can offer more possibilities to observe the teaching of speaking. Therefore, 6 participants were identified.

Before the fieldwork started, my initial plan was to choose only 4 participants in Teacher College A, as this number was deemed appropriate for the study considering school locations and the possible number of school visits required per week. This number appeared to be sufficient to show variation, if any, within the criteria for participant selection from those who take the practicum in lower-level secondary schools. However, as school permissions needed to be granted from the principals in each school, and as actual teaching schedules for observations of the trainees were unknown at the recruiting stage, potential changes needed to be taken into consideration. Therefore, 6 trainees were initially selected as participants for the practicum in April to prevent losing participants during the study, and further changes were made to the initial plan of recruiting the participants only in Teacher College A by further recruitment of trainees in Teacher College B and Teacher College C for the practicum in May. Considering potential participant drop-outs and the number of school visits possible during the practicum, I decided to select only 4 trainees in each of the teacher colleges B and C because in May I had to research the trainees from the two teacher colleges. From all the potential recruits, the final decision regarding case selection was to choose one trainee from each teacher college as this would show variation between the teacher colleges.

Once the participants were identified, along with a letter of invitation to the study (see Appendix 19), the information sheets about the study (see Appendix 17) were explained to them following the ethical guidelines, and they were asked to sign the informed consent forms (see Appendix 18) if they agreed to proceed.

Teacher College C

The questionnaire was distributed to the trainees in Year 4 (approx. 30 trainees) in Teacher College C in late March until early April to recruit new participants for the practicum in May. I was introduced to a trainer by the head of the department and with much support from the trainer, the recruitment went very smoothly and progressed quickly from being introduced to a class of the trainees, through distributing and gathering the questionnaires, to meeting up with the new participants. The questionnaire was distributed at the beginning of the trainer's course for 15 minutes and 22 questionnaires were gathered. I was also given a chance to talk to the trainees in order to provide brief information about my research and ask for volunteers who would like to participate in my research. Two trainees responded to me immediately, and later three more trainees responded. I found from the questionnaires that none of them had previous teaching experience, and while initially meeting them over lunch break I found that four trainees were allocated in lower-secondary schools. Therefore, I felt that it was not necessary to contact more participants by email and decided on the 4 trainees as participants from Teacher College C.

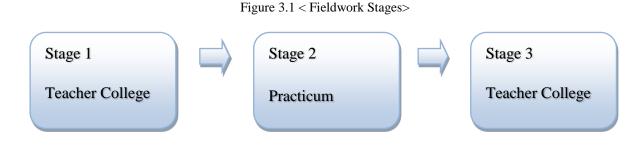
Teacher College B

The questionnaire was also distributed to the trainees in Year 4 (approx. 18 trainees) in Teacher College B around mid-April. With the assistance of a trainer, the questionnaires were distributed at the end of his course for 15 minutes and 16 questionnaires were gathered. After the course was over, I explained my research briefly to the trainees and again asked for volunteers who would like to participate in the research and three trainees responded to me. As there were not enough responses, I contacted the trainees by email using the information on the questionnaires. When I had three more trainees who wanted to take part in my study, I arranged meetings with the 6 trainees. Upon consideration of the logistics, that is, excluding 2 trainees whose placements were too far to access, there were 4 trainees, and no further recruiting was organized as I had reached the required 4 trainees as participants from Teacher College B.

Once the participants were recruited, data collection was undertaken during the practicum between April and May, and the final three case study participants were selected from all the participants from each teacher college once the practicum was finished (see section 3.5 and section 4.1 for details on case selections).

3.6.2.4 Fieldwork

The fieldwork consisted of three stages (see Figure 3.1). Intensive fieldwork took place during the practicum between April and May.



The practicum period in Korea is for about four weeks. Trainees observe teachers usually during the early period of the practicum and actually start to teach in the final two weeks (see Figure 3.2).

Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4
Orientation to Teaching Practice – Observation of the Classroom Teacher	Orientation to Teaching Practice – Observation within the School	Teaching Practice (under Supervision)	Teaching Practice (with Inspection)

Figure 3.2 < Practicum in Secondary Schools >

Initial and further data were also gathered in the teacher colleges before and after the practicum. The main emphasis in each stage of the fieldwork was to understand the interactive dimensions of teacher learning in relation to the specific contexts. That is, the aim was to examine whether contextual factors have a particular or context-specific influence on each trainee's practice of teaching speaking and cause a different conceptualization of experience of teaching speaking during the practicum. As each trainee would have a different view on teaching speaking and adopt a different approach to teaching speaking, it was aimed to compare the practice of teaching speaking to the trainees' understanding of teaching speaking in relation to prior cognition or teacher training. Figure 3.3 summarises an interactive dimension of teacher cognition interacting with teaching practice during the practicum. It presents how the opportunity for teaching practice or the quality of teaching speaking speaking and national contexts at micro and macro levels as well as the specific conditions related to the amount or quality of support in context. This will be discussed further in the discussion chapter.

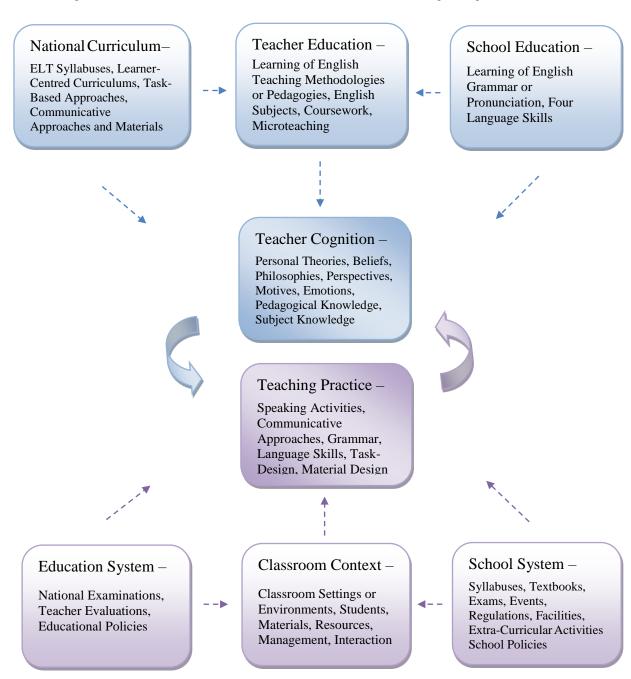


Figure 3.3 < Interactive Dimensions of Influences on Teacher Learning during Practicum >

The initial plan for data collection was adjusted in the field and the fieldwork was extended in order to gather more context-rich practicum data from both April and May given that the practicum in Korea is only one month. This enabled me to trace more fully the nature of teacher learning during the practicum. The fieldwork period over the five months is shown in Figure 3.4, and Figure 3.5 presents the fieldwork schedule each month with the total amount of data gathered from all the participants.

Figure	3.4 <	Fieldwork	Period >
--------	-------	-----------	----------

March to April	April and May	May to July
Observation:	Observation:	Observation:
Courses in Teacher Colleges	Lessons in Secondary Schools	Courses in Teacher Colleges
Questionnaire:	Interview:	Questionnaire:
Trainees in Year 4	Trainees, Mentors, and Teachers	Trainees in Year 4
Interview: Trainees and Trainers		Interview: Trainees and Trainers

Figure 3.5 < Fieldwork Schedule >

Teacher Education (March to April)

Week 3 and Week 4 (March) – Questionnaire, Observation, Trainer Interview, and Trainee Interviews in Teacher College A

Week 4 (March) and Week 1 (April) - Observation, Questionnaire, Trainer Interview,

and Trainee Interviews in Teacher College C

Week 4 and Week 5 (April) – Observation, Questionnaire, Trainer Interview, and Trainee Interviews in Teacher College B

Practicum I (April)

Week 1 - School Visits for Permissions and Interviews with Trainees

Week 2 - Observations, Interviews with Trainees, Mentors and Head Teachers

Week 3 - Observations, Interviews with Trainees, Mentors and Head Teachers

Practicum II (May)

Week 1 and Week 2 - School Visits for Permissions and Interviews with Trainees

Week 3 – Observations, Interviews with Trainees, Mentors and Head Teachers

Week 4 - Observations, Interviews with Trainees, Mentors and Head Teachers

Teacher Education (May to July)		
Week 1 and Week 2 (May) – Questionnaire, Observation, Trainer Interview,		
and Trainee Interviews in Teacher College A		
Week 1 and Week 2 (June) – Questionnaire, Observation, Trainer Interview,		
and Trainee Interviews in Teacher College B and C		
Week 1 and Week 2 (July) – Trainee Interviews in Teacher College B		
Week 3 and Week 4 (July) – Further Documents		
Total Observation Data (25) – Observations in Teacher Colleges (5)		
Observations in Secondary Schools (20)		
Total Interview Data (68) – Trainee Interviews (40), Trainer Interviews (8)		
Mentor Interviews (10), Head Teacher Interviews (10)		

Figure 3.6 compares the relationship between research questions and research methods and summarises data collection and analysis instruments according to the research stage.

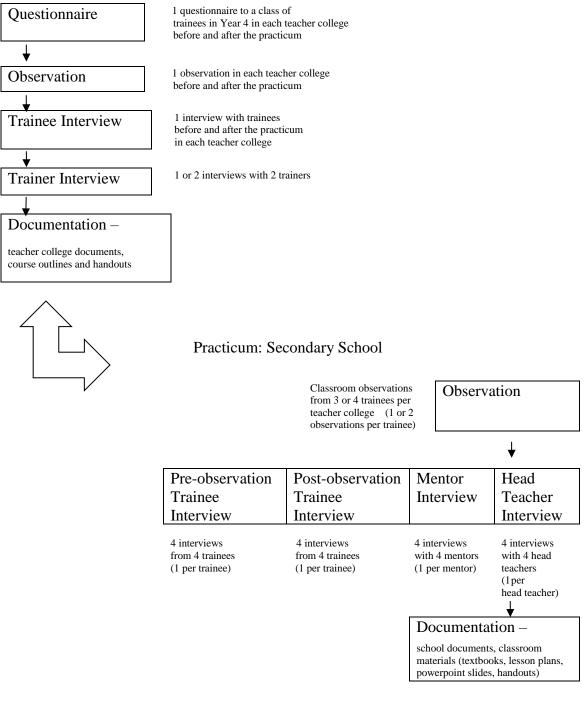
Research Stage	Data Collection	Data Analysis	Research Question
Stage 1	Observation	Thematic analysis	RQ1
Teacher College	Preliminary questionnaire	Thematic analysis	RQ1
	Initial trainee interview	Thematic analysis	RQ1
	Initial trainer interview	Thematic analysis	RQ1
Stage 2	Observation	Thematic analysis	RQ3
Secondary School	Pre or Post-observation interview	Thematic analysis	RQ3
(Practicum)	Mentor and head teacher interview	Thematic analysis	RQ3
Stage 3	Observation	Thematic analysis	RQ2
Teacher College	Follow-up questionnaire	Thematic analysis	RQ2
	Follow-up trainee interview	Thematic analysis	RQ(1)2(3)
	Follow-up trainer interview	Thematic analysis	RQ1

Figure 3.6 < Relationships between Research Questions and Research Methods >

The overall research design is summarised in Figure 3.7 to give a whole picture of the multiple sources of data.

Figure 3.7 < Research Design >

Teacher College



National Curriculum: English Education

Documentation -

governmental documents about educational policies and national curriculums for English education and English teacher education in Korea in recent years



The research process is explained below in detail according to the stage of the fieldwork.

3.6.2.4.1 Stage 1 – Teacher College

In stage 1, initial data were collected in the teacher colleges between March and April when the trainees were attending the courses before the practicum. The questionnaires were distributed, and initial interviews and course observations were conducted.

Preliminary Questionnaire

For the first practicum, the questionnaire was distributed in Teacher College A to the trainees in Year 4 in a core-course, 'Classroom English Practice', and in optional courses after mid-March. For the second practicum, the questionnaire was first distributed in Teacher College C to the trainees in Year 4 in the 'Teaching English and American Culture' course in early April. In the same way, the questionnaire was distributed in Teacher College B to the trainees in Year 4 in the 'Teaching Listening' course after mid-April.

Course Observation

There was an observation of one teacher training course in each teacher college before the practicum. The courses lasted about 3 to 4 hours per observation and were observed fully (except in Teacher College B where the course was partially observed). The observed courses were selected from those courses which provided training in Spoken English or teaching methodology within the criteria of purposeful sampling. In Teacher College A, the observation took place in the fourth week of March before the trainees were to take the practicum. The teaching assistant informed me of the 'Teaching Practice' course which was designed to help the trainees' practicum and I observed the course with permission from the trainer. The course was mainly based on microteaching through group presentations, that is, team-teaching of communicative lessons by a group of trainees with each one microteaching for 15 minutes, followed by discussion and feedback through interaction between the trainer and trainees.

In Teacher College C, I observed the 'Teaching English and American Culture' course. The trainees and the trainer communicated in English during the course and the course was based on discussion amongst the trainees in groups or a whole class. The topic of the course was religious ceremonies in English speaking countries, and after some trainees who had lived

abroad shared their cultural experiences, the rest of the course was based on the discussion in groups.

In Teacher College B, the 'Teaching Listening' course was partially observed at the end of the course before the participant recruitment. It was based on each trainee's microteaching of listening for 15 minutes, and peer feedback was written and gathered after each microteaching. The course was run in English. Overall, observing the courses taught in each teacher college informed me of how the courses taught prior to the practicum prepared the trainees practically for the practicum and helped to design trainer interviews and initial trainee interviews regarding teacher training.

Initial Trainee Interview

An initial interview was conducted with each trainee in each teacher college after participant recruitment. The interview was arranged at their convenience and conducted flexibly for half an hour on average or longer with some of them. The interview aimed to discover each trainee's prior understanding of learning and teaching of speaking before the practicum in relation to their experience of teacher training courses or previous schooling. The questions were designed to initiate the trainees' experience of learning speaking skills during their school days and their views of speaking activities or communicative tasks from their experience as learners and also to explore their experience of teacher training on teaching speaking in the teacher colleges.

I followed the guideline of the semi-structured interview (see Appendix 3) as it was initially structured as a reminder of the main topics and also to help myself not to be nervous during the first trainee interview. A few questions were also designed to initiate the trainees' personal expectations of teaching speaking for the practicum, for example, regarding their motives for teaching speaking in relation to the national curriculum mandates and their plans for speaking activities and strategies. Interviewing each trainee developed smoothly and naturally and as I became familiar with the interview process, I was able to engage in more natural conversations. This enabled me to gather rich and even additional information from each trainee. The initial trainee interviews were compared with the preliminary questionnaires to see how the case study trainees' initial views were similar or different to the whole group of the fourth year trainees within the same teacher colleges.

Initial Trainer Interview

The trainer interviews aimed to understand the trainers' perspectives on teacher training and the practicum and to ask about their courses especially the courses that I observed. I asked about the trainers' views on teaching speaking and communicative methodology and teacher training courses and practicum programs (see Appendix 4) in general and also asked more specific questions on the course that I observed. The interviews took place in the trainers' offices from half an hour to one hour, in Teacher College A with the trainers who taught 'Teaching Practice' and 'English Language', in Teacher College C with the trainers who taught 'Teaching American and English Culture' and 'Teaching Methodology', and in Teacher College B with the trainers who taught 'Teaching Listening' and 'Teaching Speaking'. The trainer interviews provided further contextual information on the courses that the final year trainees attended, including training of spoken English in each teacher college, and were compared with the course observations (field-notes).

3.6.2.4.2 Stage 2 – Practicum

In stage 2, the main data were gathered in the trainees' placement schools during the practicum over the two months between April and May. The first practicum took place at the end of March until mid-April with the trainees from Teacher College A and the second practicum took place in May with the trainees from Teacher College B and Teacher College C. There were two interviews with the trainees, that is, a pre-observation interview when they were observing teachers, and a post-observation interview after I had observed their teaching practice. There were one or two school visits for observations during each trainee's teaching practice, between week 2 and week 3 in April, and between week 3 and week 4 in May, depending on the availability of observations and permissions from the schools.

Pre-observation Trainee Interview

There were pre-observation interviews with the trainees during the first two weeks of the practicum when they were observing teachers before they began their own teaching prac tice. The interviews were conducted over the phone for approximately 15 to 30 minutes due to the logistics and shortage of time to visit all the participants who were taking the practicum in different schools. However, some interviews were conducted in person for approximately

30 to 45 minutes with those who were available to meet either in their universities or in their schools. Based on the rationale for purposeful sampling, the interviews aimed to understand how and what they actually learned by observing teachers particularly regarding teaching speaking and whether there was any change in their previous views on teaching speaking from their initial interviews, and also how they were settled in their classrooms and started to make sense of their school experiences in relation to contextual factors which might have an influence on their understanding of teaching speaking (see Appendix 5). The interviews provided useful information on the trainees' perspectives and experiences of the schools and the kind of support which they were able or unable to get from the schools.

Classroom Observation

Once the trainees started to teach during the practicum, I discussed the trainees' teaching schedules by phone and arranged the dates suitable to observe teaching speaking with each trainee, and there was also a pre-visit in their schools to seek permissions for observations. I visited each trainee's school for observations once or twice during their teaching practice. I initially planned to make at least two school visits and observe more than two lessons of teaching speaking per trainee, but I was able to observe only one or two lessons from most trainees. It was possible to observe extra-lessons for some trainees who taught a few lessons per day, but I found that quite a few trainees were teaching only a small number of lessons per week, only one or two lessons per day. They also taught speaking in a limited way either integrated with listening or reading (see Appendices 20, 22, and 25 for example pages of the textbook, and Appendices 21, 24, and 28 for lesson plans), or involving a kind of communicative practice when teaching grammar. Sometimes it also took a long time to get research permissions from the principals though the head teachers usually gave permissions during initial visits. Therefore, upon considering the complications of permission processes, logistics, and teaching schedules, the observation schedule had to be re-adjusted amongst the trainees.

Particularly during the practicum in April, due to the mid-term school exam which was to take place in late April, the trainees' teaching practice started one week earlier than usual (between week 2 and week 3) and they were given limited opportunities to teach. Moreover, their lessons were based on reading and grammar in preparation for the exam. For two trainees from Teacher College A, there were two observations of the same class for each trainee. The lessons were in sequence during the two weeks, but it was too short a period to be able to track any subsequent development in their teaching practice, and as the second observation happened to be their final lesson, part of the lesson was spent on a farewell party. For the other two trainees, I observed two lessons given by one trainee but only one lesson from another as they both had speaking lessons on the same day.

For the practicum in May, whilst the trainees in Teacher College C were unsure of their teaching schedules, I arranged school visits and observations first with the trainees from Teacher College B, but most trainees were taking their practicum in their old schools in different cities, and therefore I was able to make only one school visit per trainee. I observed two to four lessons given by each of the two trainees and one lesson of the other trainee. For Teacher College C, I was also able to arrange one or two school visits for the three trainees during week 3 and week 4 in May. As most trainees were teaching quite a lot of lessons, this enabled me to observe at least two lessons per trainee, and as two trainees were allocated in the same school, I was able to visit them twice.

During the observation, I conducted direct observation but a non-participant observation. I was situated in the classroom, closely examining the classroom events through the interpretive paradigm (e.g. Creswell and Poth, 2018; Punch, 2005; Nueman, 2000) but I tried to minimize my influence on the participants who were observed by not interrupting communicative interaction between the trainees and the students or amongst the students. However, I situated myself where I could get a good view of communicative interaction, depending on the activity type as stated by Angers and Machtmes (2005), and particularly during communicative practice amongst the students, I sat near one of the groups for observing and also audio-recording, so that I could record some of the classroom talks which could be retrieved later for transcribing. I used a small MP3 voice recorder to record some of the classroom talks only for the purpose of remembering and retrieving later with permission from each trainee who was in charge of their lesson. A few photographs were taken to be used as a reminder of each classroom, either at the beginning or end of each lesson and also before or after speaking activities, taking caution to minimize disruption to the lessons (see Appendix 29).

Field-notes were constructed with a consideration of contextual factors such as physical settings and interactions between the trainees and the students in as much detail as possible to capture the natural atmosphere of the classroom as a whole as a particular social context

(Blatchford et al., 2003). I tried to write down what I observed in two columns, divided into a description (which recorded the factual aspects of observations) on one side, and an interpretation (which reflected my personal explanation of the scene from my personal impression of the context) on the other (see Appendix 6), so that I could distinguish what actually happened (observation) from what I understood (interpretation) and in this way avoid any bias from my subjective view.

Following the rationale for purposeful sampling, observations aimed at understanding the trainees' practice of teaching speaking regarding their approaches or strategies for TEE and CLT in their lessons, and they were later compared with their stated views of practice from their previous interviews, and with the post-observation interviews. It was initially of interest to observe whether the trainees speak and teach in English in the classroom, and how they try to support students to speak in English, for example, to help students initiate opinions in English or interact and engage in communicative practice by using classroom English throughout their lessons, as well as how they implement speaking activities to maximize the opportunities for communicative practice amongst the students.

There was reflection on the previous interviews of the trainees before observations to be able to track a number of variables which may have affected their practice including: whether there was any evidence of the impact of teacher training on their practice from what they said about training courses on teaching speaking including TEE and CLT, whether there was any influence of their personal beliefs about teaching speaking on their practice, whether there was any relationship between their knowledge of the national curriculum and their practice, whether there was any difference between their stated account of practice and their actual practice, and whether there was any influence on the practice of their experience of observation during the early practicum. The field-notes were hand-written in the field and transferred to Word files to be compared later with the interview transcripts and they were also compared with the documents gathered from the lessons such as textbooks, lesson plans, and other classroom materials (see Appendices 20 to 28) either to verify or check specific details of the lessons.

Post-observation Trainee Interview

Post-observation interviews were conducted with the trainees in their classrooms either

immediately after observations or after they finished their work in schools. The interviews aimed to understand the trainees' views of their own teaching practice particularly their communicative approaches to teaching speaking (see Appendix 7). The focus of the interviews was refined further after observations to address issues related to the specific aspects of the lessons, that is, their experience of teaching speaking using particular communicative approaches and activities, and of difficulties and challenges from contextual factors such as students' characteristics, school systems, and available resources. By comparing their personal account of their experience with observations and their previous interviews, I aimed to track any change in their prior cognition initiated by their practice of teaching speaking, or any influence of their prior cognition, teacher training courses, and national curriculum policies on their teaching speaking, and any influence of contextual factors on their teaching speaking. During the interviews, I also intended to find out about the trainees' learning in general in their schools. Post-observation interviews generated very context-rich information on each trainee's perspectives and understanding of their practice, lasting one and a half hours (or less than two hours) on average, and were later compared and corroborated with the documents generated from classroom observations (e.g. Appendix 15 and Appendices 20 to 28).

Mentor Interview

Mentor interviews were conducted before or after observing the trainees during the school visits and lasted 30 to 45 minutes. The interviews aimed to gather extra information on the trainees' practice of teaching speaking by asking for the mentors' comments on the trainees' practice, and to understand the mentors' views of their own roles during the practicum or their views of the practicum in relation to the trainees' learning as well as their views and experiences of teaching speaking to see if there was any influence of the mentors on the trainees' teaching speaking (see Appendix 9). Additional information was also gathered regarding in-service training in schools in relation to the new English policy.

Head Teacher Interview

As head teachers were in charge of training the trainees to be immersed in various areas of school life during the practicum while mentors were more concerned with the trainees' teaching practice, I also interviewed them for half an hour to gather general information on the school systems and policies or programs for the practicum. I asked for the head teachers'

views on the trainees' teaching speaking and communicative lessons during the practicum (see Appendix 10), but unless they were English teachers, I only asked for their general comments.

3.6.2.4.3 Stage 3 – Teacher College

In stage 3, there was final data collection in the teacher colleges between May and July after the practicum when the trainees had returned to the teacher colleges. There was a follow-up questionnaire, a follow-up trainee interview and a follow-up trainer interview with an observation of debriefing.

Follow-up Questionnaire and Course Observation

There was a follow-up questionnaire distribution in each teacher college after the practicum. A further questionnaire was designed based on a reflection on the practicum (see Appendix 11) and distributed either in early May or in early June to the same group of trainees as before. There was also an observation of the debriefing session after the practicum in Teacher College A and Teacher College C and the same courses were observed as before. Debriefing on the practicum was held flexibly or informally by the trainers during the courses as a post-practicum conference to review or evaluate the practicum as a whole class. Observations of the debriefing sessions were useful to gather further information on the trainees' overall perspectives of learning from teaching during the practicum including personal episodes and problems and to see the critiques on the practicum as a whole class. The questionnaires also helped to see if the experience of the trainees who participated in the study were in common with those who went through the practicum from the same teacher colleges or not.

Follow-up Trainer Interview

Follow-up trainer interviews took place after the practicum in Teacher College A and Teacher College C with the same trainers after observing debriefing sessions. As the trainers were very supportive, I was able to gather further information on the trainers' views on the trainees' experience during the practicum.

Follow-up Trainee Interview

There was a follow-up interview with each trainee in each teacher college after the practicum.

The final trainee interview aimed to reflect on the trainees' learning during the practicum from their experience of teaching speaking by comparing their current understanding with their prior understanding of teaching speaking, and track whether there was any change or development in their prior understanding and knowledge of teaching speaking after the practicum. It was designed by reflecting on the observations and the previous interviews with a consideration of emerging themes during the practicum (see Appendix 8).

The interviews in Teacher College A were conducted during early May (until mid-May) and the interviews in Teacher College B and Teacher College C took place between June and July as the trainees were taking the end-of-term exam during June. The final trainee interview was an important source of information particularly to answer the central research question, that is, elucidating the impact of the practicum on the trainees' understanding of teaching speaking after the practicum. It also explored their views of teacher training, teaching practice, curriculum policy, and education policy in general in order to draw together an overall idea about the influence on their learning during the practicum.

3.6.3 Transcribing and Translating Data

After data collection was completed, on returning from the fieldwork, all the interview and observation data started to be transcribed and this process continued for a few months. Since I undertook intensive fieldwork which required traveling between urban and rural areas across the country, there was no time to transcribe the large volume of data that was being generated during the research process. Moreover, during the short practicum period, there were more participants to follow up in each teacher college in order to ensure against any future participant drop out or unexpected circumstances, and therefore there was a shortage of time even to visit all the schools since initial school visits to seek permissions for observations also had to be arranged after each practicum began. The interviews were audio-recorded and were fully transcribed in order to grasp the participants' intentions as accurately as possible and gather meaningful information about the contexts (Neuman, 2011). Transcription was produced systematically to maximize accuracy and readability (Duff and Roberts, 1997) in ways to represent the participants' meanings without any reduction as transcription is viewed as an interpretive process influenced by the researcher (Green at al., 1997a). The interview transcripts with the trainees were then fully translated from Korean into English after transcription was completed, taking care to attempt a precise interpretation of the meaning to

prevent any threat to validity (Temple and Young, 2004) and in a culturally appropriate manner (Olk, 2003). Translation was carried out by myself on the basis of my cultural and linguistic knowledge in both Korean and English since I am a native speaker of Korean and have lived in the UK for a long period working as a teacher of English in ESOL institutions and as an interpreter and translator of English for the Korean communities in the UK. I am a qualified interpreter and translator of English as I have been employed by the companies which provide interpreting and translating services to the Koreans who live in the UK as immigrants or visitors but do not have a good command of English. I am familiar with interpreting and translating various documents into Korean and English, so I translated all the interviews initially by myself using my cultural and linguistic knowledge and then I checked my translation with specialists. That is, in order to check if my translation was lexically and grammatically well-formed and delivered the meaning appropriately and effectively in English from a native English speaker's perspective, I consulted PhD colleagues who specialize in linguistics. I also contacted TESOL colleagues who speak Korean as a mother tongue and sought their comments on my translation of the interview transcripts, in particular, to see if my translation of specific words or phrases based on my initial interpretation were also viewed as appropriate in their opinions. Some of the feedback from the colleagues was useful and I reflected their comments on my translation.

The interview transcripts with the other participants were partially translated from Korean into English when necessary only for quoting after data analysis. Classroom observations were hand-written into field-notes. Audio-recorded classroom data were also fully transcribed and translated to understand the classroom context as a whole, and classroom English (which was spoken only in English by the trainees or the students during the lessons) was written as *italics* in order to distinguish it from translation from Korean. As soon as the transcription and translation work were done, data were ready to be analyzed.

3.6.4 Data Analysis

In this section, the analytical approaches taken to interview and observation data are illustrated. The process of data analysis is discussed in detail as regards coding processes, data processing and theorizing of the findings.

3.6.4.1 Interview and Observation Analysis through Constant Comparative Coding

Once the transcription and translation work were completed, interview data were analyzed thematically based on the grounded theory approach described by Strauss and Corbin (1998). As the study consisted of only three cases, all the data were analyzed manually by transferring data sets into Word documents, and there was no difficulty in devising and retrieving the data in an orderly manner. Manual analysis was chosen considering the advantages that it can bring to the data analysis process as it enhances the researcher familiarity with the data sets and allows for creativity in data analysis from the 'dining room table method of analysis' (McMillan and Schumacher, 2010:377), in addition to raising the researcher confidence from previous experience. Computer software such as NVivo or ATLAS.ti has been popular for convenience in storing and visualizing data but criticisms still arise in that software can generate distance between the researcher and the data or cause disruption to the researcher creativity which is essential for the quality of data analysis, as well as giving little flexibility in changing coding systems thus slowing down the speed of data analysis (Creswell and Poth, 2018). As it is the researcher's ability not the computer program's that analyses the data, it is important for the researcher to be confident in manipulating the data sets and deeply engage in data analysis within a reasonable time scale. Though computer software is widespread, it should be noted that some researchers still prefer manual analysis due to the ease of sorting and rearranging of data 'by hand and hard copy' (McMillan and Schumacher, 2010:377) and for 'more control over and ownership' of data analysis (Saldaña, 2009:22). Therefore, the choice of manual or computer analysis depends on the size of the research, the available time, and researcher expertise as Basit (2003) indicated. Having done initial training in NVivo, use of NVivo was considered but given that the study was based on a small number of case studies whilst computer software is acknowledged to be more useful for large scale research or team projects (Creswell and Poth, 2018), and given that electronic analysis requires a lot of time to acquire techniques for effective use (Basit, 2003), manual analysis was viewed as appropriate for the study to increase the efficiency of data analysis in a timely manner and prevent any negative effects, as mentioned above, of analyzing data electronically. Thematic analysis followed through a range of coding from systematic coding toward generating data-driven theory (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In the grounded theory approach, coding is the first step in data analysis to organize the data sets into small chunks and initially conceptualize the data (Briman and Burgess, 1995). Coding proceeded by a sequence of three stages as guided by Strauss and Corbin (1998).

Stage 1 –

The first stage of coding was open coding (see Appendix 12). Firstly, each interview transcript was placed into a table and the table was divided into two columns in order to mark codes and present analysis in the spare (blank) column. Accordingly, the interview transcripts were placed in the left column and the righthand column was made available for data analysis and coding. The open coding was based on a line-by-line analysis of keywords in the text to make sense of the data and supported a close examination of the properties and dimensions of the data as suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1998). The reason for producing a line-by-line summary for each segment of the interview transcript was not only to increase familiarity with data but also to conduct non-subjective and data-driven analyses, that is, to let the data tell its own stories (Wolcott, 1994). The line-by-line summary was produced in the right column for each sentence in the transcripts in order to reflect the interviewees' own views and meanings as well as their own words and descriptions. This summary provides both a useful tool for initial analysis and a basis for continuous analyses by separating out irrelevant information in the process of assigning an initial code within the summary. Once a line-byline summary was completed, initial codes were assigned to similar texts and numbered in order. While developing initial concepts as the basic unit for analyses that followed (Strauss and Corbin, 1998), any text unrelated to themes that developed were eventually separated during the repeated process of open coding. Each transcript was at least double coded to develop consistency in the coding scheme (Miles et al., 2014), and in this process, multiple coding was formulated through the identification of the initial category and development of the coding scheme. A process of open coding followed with each transcript, highlighting key points in the transcripts during the process of the identification of key themes (Miles et al., 2014) as it is important at this stage to 'reflect deeply on the contents and nuances' of the data to begin to take ownership of them (Saldaña, 2009:81).

Initial codes were provisional and tentative in nature and had to be revisited or reworded while continuously looking through the interview transcripts to identify an initial category (Saldaña, 2009), and I also printed out each interview transcript which was placed in the table with initial codes, in order to make it easy to compare between the codes which were still developing and make an analytic note of a developing theme on the margin in a more flexible manner. Initial codes were marked using a dash (the horizontal bar) under the summary. Some codes were highlighted in color for easy distinction between the codes in relation to the

research focus, and similar codes were further numbered using a hyphen under the same number (see open coding examples in Appendices 12 to 14). As Miles et al. (2014) illustrate, most initial codes were descriptive codes which summarised the text in a word or short phrase and they formed an inventory of topics under the research focus for easy indexing and categorizing but there were also codes with evaluative nature to indicate a positive or negative direction of change. In addition, process coding along with sub coding was often adopted in the manner of summarising action using gerunds since in the grounded theory approach process coding takes place to 'search for consequences of action/interaction' to build up categories (Saldaña, 2009:77). Subcoding was essential to add further information on the descriptive codes, so it was assigned using a bracket after a primary code to provide details on the code (Miles et al., 2014). Subcoding also included in-vivo coding whenever applicable, in order to reflect the participants' own words or terms (when the participants used specific terms in English or when coding native English speaking participants' interview transcripts). By coding each interview transcript repeatedly, the total amount of initial codes was reduced down to over 30 in order to construct an initial category.

Stage 2 -

Once initial categories emerged through the process of open coding, the next stage moved onto axial coding. Axial coding was used in order to relate initial codes identified in open coding and to assign them to further categories and emergent themes through a process of both deductive and inductive analysis. Each code that was initially assigned was re-visited to examine further the relationships amongst the codes. In this process, new codes in new groupings were added, and there was a continuous and repeated process of analysis, moving backward and forward to develop further categories based on initial codes (Dörnyei, 2007). Strauss and Corbin (1998) call this stage axial coding, a process conducted when major categories start to emerge in order to link them with sub-categories and it is necessary to group initial categories and develop more abstract concepts for further coding. This is one step further towards theorizing based on the data and a constant comparative method is viewed as essential in the development of themes within that data. However, this process first takes place often in the mind and memory of the researcher while they proceed with continuous coding following emerging themes in the data. This is an important step to generate the theoretical properties of the categories of data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998) while also developing consistency in the coding scheme (Westbrook, 1994).

Further coding proceeded continuously by comparing all the properties under initial codes and examining their relationships in search of patterns (Miles et al., 2014). At this stage, I made another table to transfer all the initial codes with the attached texts in order to help myself focus on comparing initial themes and generate further categories. Continuous iterative processes followed through constant comparisons between the codes and their properties, merging initial codes and on top of them assigning new codes informed by emerging themes, thus making initial categories linked to or grouped under the major category which was being developed through further analyses. The more complex the properties of the category, the more time and effort I devoted to defining and refining the properties and dimensions of the category. Further categories emerged by grouping similar categories based on common themes and conceptualizing their properties further. For example, initial codes such as 'exam preparation' and 'textbook focus' merged under the further code 'school context' and again under 'education system' and 'contextual constraints for CLT' and were marked using a triangular bracket under the initial codes (see Appendix 13). By refining overlaps between the codes, which were redundant or did not fit into the identified categories, the number of codes was reduced further and the codes became more consistent under the identified categories. Then I moved to the final stage of coding.

Stage 3 –

Finally, as the main categories were developed, there was a further grouping of codes according to the research questions, and this enabled me to make a further reduction of codes by selective coding, which was marked using a square bracket (see Appendix 14). Selective coding continued repeatedly to form core categories until the point of saturation as a thorough understanding of all the properties and dimensions related to the main category is important in the generation of theory (Westbrook, 1994). The main categories were clustered, that is, either grouped or divided according to similarities and differences in their properties (Westbrook, 1994) and there was a constant comparative process of integrating all the categories according to their relationships in search for emerging central themes (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Throughout the process of coding all the interview data, there was caution in interpreting the participants' accounts and conduct to guard against the researcher's subjective influence as the interpretations of the interviews reflect the 'quality' and 'reality' of each data (Punch, 2005:176).

After the interview data were coded, the field-notes were coded in the same way using constant comparative analysis to look for the patterns of pedagogical themes or more social and cultural themes in relation to each context of classroom observation (see Appendix 15). The field-notes were analyzed to be compared with the interview analysis for the purpose of triangulation and coding started in comparison with the themes identified in the interview analysis but there were also emerging codes which gradually developed, for example, such as descriptive codes, process codes, and pattern codes as guided by Miles et al. (2014) in the process of 'adding, removing, or reconfiguring codes' in conceptual and structural order (Miles et al., 2014:82). While assigning codes, key points in classroom talk by the trainees or the students were marked in bold according to emerging codes as well as underlining key texts (see Appendix 15). Preliminary analysis of classroom observation actually began while constructing the observation field-notes after observing each lesson by reviewing them in search for preliminary patterns (Westbrook, 1994) and writing down reflective notes, but later coding was assigned systematically and refined further by the constant comparative method of reducing data towards theorizing data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

3.6.4.2 Case to Case Data Processing

All the data were analyzed case by case and reflexive approaches were essential during continuous data analyses by constructing theoretical memos on the data sets from the early process of coding (Corbin and Strauss, 2015; McMillan and Schumacher, 2010). Multiple analytic memos and reflective notes including charts and tables which recorded key themes throughout each stage of coding were useful as a reminder of a big picture of the case constructed from the different data sets, and to see emerging and developing themes as a whole while each case was constructed and started to be written in a draft to report the main findings. Comparing categories from each type of data for one case (such as pre-practicum, preobservation, post-observation, and post-practicum interviews) by reviewing both primary and secondary data sources was crucial during drafting each case in order to transform the data into systematic reports in the findings chapter. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Strauss and Corbin (1998), this constant process of reflecting on and comparing all the data analyses was viewed as delimiting theory by looking for relationships as well as eliminating overlaps amongst the identified categories. Each case was analyzed repeatedly and systematically as it was important to have an in-depth understanding of each case before the cross-case discussion.

3.6.4.3 Cross-Case Synthesis and Theorising

After each case was produced, there were cross-case analyses to draw data-driven theories from all the cases through continuous interpreting processes. The cross-case analysis was conducted by looking for similarities or differences amongst the three cases in order to draw central theories and conclusions from all the findings and present them in the discussion chapter. I made an effort to apply the findings to the research questions as indicated by Stake (2006), as well as going back to the literature in order to compare my own findings and conclusions with previous or recent research in the literature and check any bias before proceeding with cross-case discussion. By continuously comparing each of the categories beyond the diversity of the findings in each case, theories and hypotheses were to be drawn as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967). Each case was initially analyzed according to the basic categories identified from the research questions (Creswell and Poth, 2018), but more sub-categories emerged in the process of case-by-case comparisons (Miles et al., 2014). During cross-case analyses, analytical notes were written to compare cases and interpret them in a systematic way until the central themes across cases were identified. To increase an understanding of each case for cross-case discussion, a worksheet (see Appendix 16) was also produced as a reminder of the key themes across cases in a visual manner as indicated by Stake (2006) in addition to reviewing a summary table of each case in the findings chapter. According to Stake (2006), a multiple case study intends to find the binding concept or idea across cases under various contexts and it is important to look for not only what is common but also what is different amongst the cases (Corbin and Strauss, 2015). However, it should also be noted that a multiple case study is not designed for the purpose of comparing cases, but cases are chosen for better understanding of the inquiry under research and reflect multiple situations while each case has its own meaning and provides useful information on its own context (Stake, 2006). It is important to address the verification or validity of qualitative findings and the next section will discuss the approaches adopted to increase this.

3.7. Validity and Reliability

The rationale and procedure for enhancing validity and reliability throughout the study will be discussed below in relation to the verification of the findings by triangulation and reflexivity, and the value of trustworthiness in qualitative research.

3.7.1 Triangulation

The study was designed using multiple research methods to triangulate data and increase reliability and validity in data processing, thus maximizing the quality of the data and findings. Multiple research methods adopted for the study consisted of classroom observations, subsequent interviews, and various documents including questionnaires. Creswell and Miller (2000:127) also explain that 'a popular practice is for qualitative inquirers to provide corroborating evidence collected through multiple methods, such as observations, interviews, and documents to locate major and minor themes.' By triangulating data through multiple methods, the researcher is guarded against the criticism of potential bias in the research findings, which Patton (1990:470) called 'an artifact of a single method, a single source, or a single investigator's bias'. The researcher's interpretive accounts are also valid because the researcher went through the validating process using multiple forms of evidence rather than a single incident occurred in the study. As Yin (2014) indicated, multiple sources of evidence with multiple measures of the same phenomenon enhance the quality of the research. Olsen (2004) also stated that triangulation through the mixing of methods and data enable diverse standpoints to cast light on the topic of the study. To enhance the validity of the study, there was methodological triangulation between the four methods adopted in the study. First of all, to validate the participants' views in comparison to their practice, interview transcripts were compared with observation field-notes. To see if the trainees' views and practices were consistent or not, the narrative data which presented the trainees' views on their practices as informed by interviews were validated by the documentary data which recorded the trainees' practices informed by observations. Since the trainees' practice of teaching speaking was informed not only by interviews but also by observations, the validity of the findings was enhanced. Trainee interviews were also compared and validated with the observations of teacher training courses. Since it is important to corroborate and augment all the data gathered for the study by comparing measurements from different angles and especially given the effective role of documents in corroborating information from other sources (Yin, 2014), documents from the schools and the teacher colleges including questionnaires were also reviewed and provided useful information to verify the research context or process and the interpretations of the findings. For example, questionnaires (see Appendices 2 and 11) were reviewed to validate the case study trainees' views before and after the practicum. The textbooks (see Appendices 20, 22 and 25) were also reviewed to supplement information and

check spelling regarding the content of the lessons in the observation field-notes or the trainee interviews and validated the findings.

In the same way, the perspectives of different categories of stakeholders of the study were compared to verify the significance of the findings from different perspectives using multiple sources of information (Simons, 2009) and also seek complementary information (Hammersley, 2008). For example, interviews with mentors and headteachers validated trainee interviews and helped to understand the trainees' views and practices in relation to the particular school contexts, elucidating further the school policies and specific conditions that supported or hindered the trainees' learning during the practicum. Trainer interviews along with course observations also helped to understand the trainees' views and practices in connection with teacher training and provided complementary information on the teacher college contexts. Each data collection at previous stages informed further data collection. That is, initial interviews with the trainees informed subsequent interviews with them as well as the direction of observations, and in the same way, observations shaped further the postobservation interviews. Whilst the triangulation of data using multiple methods is useful to increase validity, it should also be noted that evidence coming from multiple perspectives can be very divergent or contradictory rather than convergent (Olsen, 2004; Stake, 1995) and provide multiple pictures of the phenomenon. Multiple sources of data were either analyzed or reviewed at various stages during the study and helped refine the focus of analyses with enriched perspectives on research participants or contexts thus providing a collective understanding of the inquiry under research (Simons, 2009).

3.7.2 Reflexivity

The notion of reflexivity grew with a move toward empirical science between the 1920s and the 1930s and it influenced the rise of an interpretive approach (Reynolds, 1980, cited in Lincoln and Guba, 1985:76). In qualitative research, the researcher is actively involved in the research process, and according to the interpretive paradigm, it is important to understand the reflexivity of the researcher who is involved in data collection and analysis by constant saturation and validation throughout the research process. That is, reflexivity enables the interpretive researcher role to be viewed as valuable by constant comparisons and interpretations of the data, and also values researcher involvement in the research process through critical reflection to guard against subjectivity or self-bias (Polit and Beck, 2010)

since reflexivity is viewed not only 'as a concept of qualitative validity' but also 'as a useful tool for informing the research process' (McCabe and Holmes, 2009:1519). Altheide and Johnson (1994, cited in Creswell and Miller, 2000:125) also argue for the nature of qualitative 'validity-as-reflexive-accounting.' On the basis of reflexivity, my role as a participatory and interactive researcher in generating and processing data was validated through the continuous reflection in each process of the research and by providing reflexive interpretative accounts. That is, I constantly reflected on my language or attitude after each interview to monitor or minimise my influence on the participants, also reflecting on my prior assumptions from my background as a teacher (or as a senior instructor who was involved in novice teacher training) not to cause any bias or subjective account in interpreting or presenting the findings. To enhance reflexivity, I regularly kept personal notes (journals) to review the fieldwork process in detail moment by moment for critical self-appraisal (Stynes, 2018). I also tried to reflect the participants' voices in my study by using their own expressions through constant reflexive validation during data processing. The researcher position was also clearly stated as it is important to establish my researcher role as a reflexive inquirer in the study to ensure the validity of qualitative research (Creswell and Miller, 2000).

3.7.3 Trustworthiness

According to Creswell and Miller (2000), the process of assessing validity in qualitative research is defined by trustworthiness (also known as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability), and authenticity. The term 'validity' is often related to whether the results of the research are meaningful and reasonable or accurate to the participants (LeCompte, 2000). As in field research, the researcher's subjective insights or feelings are valued and form part of the data (Schostak, 2010), trustworthiness is more important than objectivity (of the results), along with authenticity in comparison to validity (Neuman, 2011). There are several ways to increase the trustworthiness of qualitative research in addition to the triangulation of data and the researcher reflexive activity discussed above (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Silverman, 2013; Creswell and Miller, 2000; Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

First of all, as Creswell and Miller (2000) mention that prolonged field engagement increases credibility and validity, the design of the study was adjusted for enhanced credibility and validity during data collection by extending the fieldwork, that is, to remain in the field longer than the initial plan and conduct more research for further data collection in relation to the

context of the practicum, particularly given the specific condition of the practicum which is relatively short. Practicum data were initially planned to be gathered during April from student teachers in one teacher college but after then there was further data collection during the practicum in May, recruiting more student teachers in other universities. Since prolonged engagement in the research context is essential to enhance the reflexive researcher account (Creswell and Miller, 2000), school visits were also organised such a way as to conduct classroom observations throughout the whole day in each school so that each context could be better explored or understood and so that enough observation data could be gathered, and especially given that there were limited chances for student teachers to teach speaking it was important to observe as many lessons as possible and secure a certain amount of observation data during the practicum according to the aims of the study. Remaining in the schools all day also enabled me as a reflexive researcher to gain more field engagement in addition to extra-observations taken (depending on how many lessons the trainees taught). That is, this enabled me to gather extra information about the school contexts by spending more time with the participants more closely, allowing for informal chats and conversations, thus increasing the depth of contextual understanding as mentioned by Patton (1990) and Lincoln and Guba (1985).

Producing a thick description of the research context and the process of data collection and analysis is also viewed as an essential way to improve the quality and transferability of qualitative reports (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Creswell and Miller, 2000). Each context was described in detail and each process of the research has been recorded with a detailed explanation of contextual views and situations. The descriptive reports or records aimed to provide enriched contextual information and validate my interpretive standpoints as a qualitative researcher. Through constant comparisons of each case and across cases by continuously making sense of 'categories, explanations, and interpretations' over and over again (Patton, 1980, cited in Creswell and Miller, 2000) and with clearly and substantially provided results and rationales, it aimed to enhance the credibility and validity of the study. The tables and figures were also clearly presented for visualization of data and findings and in order to increase readability and transparency of the research process, thus increasing the credibility of the findings (Hannah and Lautsch, 2011). Moreover, I also made an attempt to search for any negative cases by looking for data to support alternative explanations for possible different interpretations of the findings as suggested by Silverman (2013), Dörnyei (2007) and Patton (1990), as this increases the credibility of the findings.

Another way to improve the quality and dependability of data was member-checking on my interpretations of interviews by asking the participants to check and validate their accounts. Conducting member checks between the researcher and the participants is considered an effective way to enhance the quality, validity, and reliability of qualitative research (Angers and Machtmes, 2005). According to Creswell and Miller (2000), participants' views are valuable to support the researcher's account, and as qualitative research takes the view of a social construction of reality by participants, it is important to check 'how accurately participants' realities have been represented in the final account' (Creswell and Miller, 2000:125). The data gathered and analyzed for the study were member-checked via emails with attachments. This involved sending some of the transcripts of interview and observation data to a few participants by email and asking them to check the accuracy of the transcripts and to provide comments on how they felt. I also suggested that they make clarification requests in case they have any doubt that parts of the transcripts incorrectly reflect their accounts. I sent the transcripts to a few trainees, one trainer, and one mentor as they were happy to receive them for reviews. Those participants who replied to me were very positive and expressed their impressions of how the transcripts were accurately and thoroughly processed reflecting their accounts. Drafts of the findings were also circulated to them, assuming that by involving them in reviewing and commenting on research reports the overall trustworthiness of the study would be improved. However, due to the participants' busy schedules, I was able to receive comments only from a few trainees and one trainer. Overall the participants who reviewed the draft findings seemed to be happy with the ways that their reflective accounts and their experiences were analyzed and represented in the reports, and by reading the reports on their work, the trainees expressed that they looked back on their practicum further and became further reflective of their pedagogical approaches whilst they were pursuing their teaching career. For example, one trainee provided further comments and clarifications on her accounts of her students during the practicum, and this helped to clearly understand her views on her pedagogic strategies to the challenges related to student factors. Member-checking provided respondent validation on my interpretations of the trainees' perspectives and practices during the practicum, thus corroborating my findings. Through member-checking, I felt the importance of reflecting the participants' views in each stage of data processing, as data collection and analysis are both reflexive and collaborative processes between the researcher and the researched.

Finally, I also employed a peer-review strategy that is viewed as useful to validate data or findings (Merriam and Simpson, 2000). For example, there were open conversations and an exchange of opinions with colleagues about the interview transcripts during the initial period of developing coding schemes and their comments were valuable while making myself to be familiar with the data sets.

3.8. Ethics

In qualitative research, it is essential to give a careful consideration of ethical issues before the research is conducted with regard to the participants' permission or informed consent in observations and interviews or the amount of information required from the participants, in order to prevent any deception of the participants (Morse and Richards, 2002; Bell, 1987). Researchers also need to consider confidentiality, anonymity, and any possible harm to the participants, as well as whether the research could benefit the participants (Buckle et al., 2009). The research proposal for the study has met the stringent requirements of the Research Ethics Committee at the University of Leeds. Therefore, following the ethical guidelines of educational research (e.g. BERA), the study was conducted in such a way as to ensure the anonymity of the participants and confidentiality of all the information shared with the participants to protect the participants' privacy. For example, informed consent was sought by showing consent forms to the participants and asking each participant to sign them before the study (see Appendix 18). There was also an additional form that explained the nature of the study and the participants' right to withdraw (see Appendix 17) and a letter to introduce myself to the participants (see Appendix 19). Since Korean culture is rather reserved in relation to conducting educational research, I also took caution to meet the ethical requirements of the authorities involved in research permissions in Korea. For example, whilst East Asian countries are often viewed to be less strict about ethical requirements, there are ethical codes that can be very particular in granting access according to the social rules of the societies such as social or professional networks and connections. As satisfying the ethics of protocol can be very important, since initial permission for the research was given via email, I made individual visits for personal contact with the authorities of research sites to seek continuous assistance for the study during each stage of the research process (e.g. departmental heads or principals) given the hierarchy of Korean society. I kept polite moral etiquette while trying to build up trust and rapport with the research participants (e.g. Neuman, 2011). In producing the research reports or drafts, pseudo names were devised to name the

participants without using their real names and to ensure participants' anonymity (Punch, 1998). All the individual information was not revealed to another participant but kept confidentially until the end of data collection and will remain confidential even after the completion of the study.

3.9. Summary

The study explored teacher learning during the practicum in EFL pre-service teacher education in Korea by investigating the pre-service English teachers' understanding and experience of teaching speaking during the practicum in relation to the principles underpinning the national curriculum. Though there is a limitation of the case study design in terms of the length or scale of the fieldwork, with the lessons drawn from the study, it was hoped to bring further insights to teacher learning and teacher training in the field of TESOL and to contribute to communicative pedagogy and methodology development in the EFL context, thus further informing practice and policy.

In the next three chapters, the main findings of the study will be presented in detail using the key extracts from the data and with a reflection on data collection and analysis processes.

Chapter 4. Findings (1): Case 1 – Jinsung in Teacher College A

4.1. Overview

In the findings chapters, three case studies are presented: Case 1 Jinsung, Case 2 Eunhae, and Case 3 Haewon. These were informed by some interesting preliminary insights gained from the questionnaire data, which helped to provide an opportunity to identify some key issues that could be discussed in greater depth from observations and interviews with the three case study participants. These issues included: how the trainees from the three teacher colleges made sense of their practicum experiences, and whether their experiences or learning during the practicum were similar or different between the teacher colleges. Further information was gathered in relation to what challenges most trainees across the teacher colleges went through in the course of teaching speaking during the practicum and how they coped with those difficulties through individual strategies, or whether there was any influence of teacher training or school contexts on their learning of strategies for teaching speaking. For example, in terms of speaking practice, it was found that trainees who attended the same teacher colleges seemed to make use of a similar type of classroom activities for speaking practice. However, most trainees across the different teacher colleges commented on common contextual challenges in terms of the exam culture of the schools in Korea, although some trainees were more able to gain support for CLT lessons and facilities in their practicum schools. The questionnaires were useful in order to provide an overall view of how the trainees' individual experiences of the practicum varied according to their practicum schools but were also identical given the socio-cultural education context of Korea. It provided comparative views on how the trainees' cognition and practice of teaching speaking were influenced by their teacher training and school contexts and what variables at the macro or micro level caused differences or similarities between the trainees in comparison to the case study participants.

Based on these preliminary insights, I decided to focus only on three trainees. One trainee from each teacher college was considered appropriate to complete the data analysis within the time scale and to meet the purpose of the study. Primarily considering the number of observations available to me, particularly of the teaching of speaking, and to some extent to show variations in teacher training, school contexts, and the type of cooperating schools, these three cases were selected. To aid understanding of the research context for each case, background information on the teacher training courses and practicum systems at each of the teacher colleges and placement schools is provided at the beginning of each case. This information was gathered from trainers who were responsible for teaching methodology or spoken English courses in the teacher colleges, and teachers who trained the trainees in the placement schools during the practicum. Each case presents the trainee's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking before, during, and after the practicum using extracts from interviews and observation field-notes in sequential order. This chapter presents the first case, the teacher trainee Jinsung who is from Teacher College A. Jinsung's practicum was held in April.

4.2. Teacher Training

Teacher College A is a public sector teacher training institution, located in Seoul. The teacher training curriculum for the English education department has gone through changes in recent years in line with government policy, thus placing more emphasis on practice teaching, and the use of classroom English for the fourth year trainees, as well as running some of the courses in English. The four-week practicum at Teacher College A took place at the end of March and the trainees were spread over-eight different secondary schools. Most trainees were at lower secondary schools, with a few trainees allocated to upper secondary schools, or the schools where they graduated.

I will first discuss the teacher training courses in Teacher College A in relation to the trainers' perspectives of the teaching practice and English language courses in order to understand what training was actually offered to the trainees and how this might have affected their beliefs and views of the teaching of speaking. The 'teacher training' section for each case will be organized in the same way.

Trainer A1's course on practice teaching was running for the trainees in Year 4 during the first term to develop practical teaching skills prior to the practicum. It was mainly centered on microteaching and reflection with an emphasis on communicative teaching and teaching speaking skills. Trainer A2 taught the English language course, which aimed to develop the

first and second year trainees' English language skills. The trainers' views on their courses are briefly discussed in this section.

4.2.1 Trainer A1's Perspectives on the Teaching Practice Course

According to Trainer A1, the teacher college curriculum seemed to be strongly connected with government policy. She explained that her course was structured in line with the government policy with a focus on TEE and CLT, and was centered on microteaching, mainly teaching speaking, to prepare the trainees for the practicum:

As many of our trainees go to lower secondary schools during the practicum, with a consideration of the recent trends of TEE in the government policy, my aim for this course was to introduce to them more creative teaching styles using CLT methodologies, focusing more on speaking rather than talking about traditional ways of teaching. I thought microteaching would benefit most of them prior to the practicum next week, to prepare them to teach in schools, so during week 3 and week 4 we focused on speaking activities during microteaching so that they can have at least some experience of teaching in a friendly environment with their colleagues before they go to the practicum.

She talked about the nature of the course centered on teaching speaking such as elicitation strategies and speaking activities using communicative approaches. Her views of teaching speaking were very practical as she was both a teacher trainer and a teacher in the upper-secondary school affiliated to the teacher college A. She had a positive view of the fact that for the last few years this course has been taught by teachers from the secondary school:

From my point of view, this course is taught by the teachers who work in the secondary schools affiliated to this teacher college. So, for example, the head teacher in the upper secondary school taught this course last year, and then I took this course over from him this year. I think these days we are more emphasizing teaching practice according to the government policy, and this is not only for the teacher training courses but also in the teacher appointment exam the trainees' teaching practice is assessed, and this is the same even for the existing teachers, as their classroom practice is assessed in relation to TEE nowadays. In my opinion, the trainees in this teacher college seem to be very well aware of the new policy, and also prepare very hard for the new teacher appointment exam.

She commented very positively on the practical training at the teacher college in preparation for the practicum. As this course is taught by different teachers each year, there seems, as compared to other teacher colleges, to have been a collaboration between the teacher college and its allied school. The teacher college curriculum seems also to have been changed to be more practical in line with the government policy on the teacher appointment exam in an effort to reduce the gap between theory and practice. From her perspectives of the belief that teacher learning would be promoted by practical skill training, she expressed her passion for supporting the trainees and developing practical materials using her 10-year teaching experience and in-service teacher training. She explained her commitment to exploratory and reflective teacher training by running the course very interactively and collaboratively to facilitate the exchange of ideas amongst the trainees. She perceived the role of the practicum as essential to enable the trainees to develop realistic views of the classroom. However, she indicated the barrier to teaching speaking during the practicum under the exam-oriented education system in Korea:

During microteaching, I could see that most trainees designed their lessons with speaking activities or communicative teaching methodologies. But I think they will probably not be able to teach like that every day in the classroom because in our education system high school education and the university entrance exam are given much emphasis, and this cannot be ignored.

As an experienced English teacher, she valued student-centered approaches to teaching speaking, for example, reflecting students' learning styles in task design, and playing a supportive teacher role. However, she indicated that apart from the native English teacher's speaking lesson once a week, the exam system was centered on reading and grammar in the textbook with no speaking test. This seemed to represent a barrier to CLT and TEE in schools. There seemed also to be conflicting views about policy changes between the teachers:

There is also such an atmosphere amongst the teachers who are even unhappy about it... um, for example, some teachers dislike those who move forward from traditions and advance more than where they are now. [...] When our school became a private school this year, our new school policy was, at first, to focus on speaking, and teach at least three lessons per week only in English, but it became eventually frustrated by the others who disagreed with this for the sake of preparing for the university entrance exam.

Trainer A1's course was observed during the trainees' microteaching. The trainees' microteaching was team-teaching for 15 minutes. It was centered on speaking activities using elicitation strategies by nomination, questions, and audio-visuals materials. The extract below was taken from the observation field-note and shows microteaching and reflection with trainer feedback:

Microteaching and Feedback in Trainer A1's Teaching Practice Course (Trainee 16's Microteaching)

Trainee 16: So look at her diary here. Now we are going to make a sentence.		
On Monday what is she going to do?		
Trainees: Going swimming.		
Trainee 16: So how can we make a sentence?		

Trainees: She is going to go swimming on Monday. [...] Trainee 16: OK. Compare your ideas with your partner. Trainees: (Discuss with each other) Trainee 16: OK. Guys. Let's check the answers together. Jungi, can you do the first one, please? Trainee 8: She is busy this weekend because she is exercising in the gym. Trainee 16: Using 'be going to' can you make the sentence again? Trainee 8: She is going to exercise in the gym. Trainee 16: OK. She is going to exercise in the gym. [...] Trainer A1: OK. Now can you guys briefly share your feelings about your experiences? Trainee 8: At first I thought I could do this very easily. But when we actually prepared for the lesson, it was a bit harder. [...] So I realized I need to develop my teaching skills and my lesson preparations were not enough. Trainer A1: Yes. Teaching is not just done instantly. It requires preparations, won't be so easier than we *think*. [...] Trainer A1: Any more comments or questions? If not, I'm going to give you feedback. Trainer A1: The first trainee did quite well. It was a good idea to start the lesson by sharing personal experience. [...] Trainer A1: I think from my experience... do you know 'realia'? Trainees: Authentic resources. Trainer A1: Yes, to teach comparatives, it is also good to use handbags or t-shirts. [...] Trainer A1: Next point is, when you use the PowerPoint to explain grammar, it would have been better to give students a chance to answer, rather than give the answers straight away. You could guide students to think and answer your questions on the blackboard.

The trainees' microteaching seemed to be centered on what the trainer emphasized. Their communicative strategies seemed to reflect the previous input session which taught elicitation strategies, and how they conceptualized and developed their initial ideas of teaching speaking

before the practicum may also have been influenced by the course. After each team microteaching, each trainee reflected on difficulties related to elicitation, questioning, lesson planning, teaching skills, TEE and CLT, and then trainer feedback and discussion followed mostly in English. Team microteaching and self-reflection reflected the trainer's focus on reflective practice and her feedback was also consistent with her emphasis on practical skills for student-centered and task-based speaking activities. The course observation was useful to have an idea of the practical training provided for the fourth year trainees.

4.2.2 Trainer A2's Perspectives on the English Language Course

Trainer A2 expressed his views on the recent change in the English language course to focus on oral presentations and writing according to the new English policy. However, he was critical about this change as the course was still centered on vocabulary and grammar skills related to specific topic areas. He also viewed presentation skills as different from conversation skills. He criticized this change as an economical or commercial influence:

We used to teach four skills but from the last semester, um, we changed, instead of teaching four skills, we started to teach presentations and writing, um, this is probably because some of the top companies said that universities need to train students in presentations and writing skills, so we don't teach the freshmen English anymore, so in our general English classes, we teach presentations and writing. They were electives before but now they are part of the curriculum.

He felt that this change did not actually support oral proficiency development. Moreover, he was pessimistic about the new English policy as he perceived the traditional Korean culture to be a barrier to teaching speaking. He stressed the crucial role of the teacher's scaffolding support for success in teaching speaking in Korea as learners looked passive under teacher authority. While teaching English language courses for more than 9 years at the teacher college, he valued task-based communicative teaching as an effective way to develop the trainees' spoken English:

Um, I don't believe, say to people, just come in for free talking, talk and talk... Because I think students need some direction. [...] Basically the way I taught my conversation classes is, I always had a topic, um, and sometimes it is role-plays, sometimes it is supporting reading materials that they need to read about, and I give it to the students and put them in small groups, um, I could lead them to do some kind of warm-up that is related to the topic, and, um, they are talking in small groups and discuss it, you know, just talk.

He continued to explain how he used to integrate the teaching of other language skills with speaking by adopting supporting materials with an emphasis on spoken skill development.

Overall, though there was an emphasis on practice teaching or oral proficiency for the final year trainees to prepare for the practicum, the teacher college did not seem to provide much training on spoken English and practical teaching skills.

4.3. Teacher Trainee – Jinsung

Jinsung was aged 26 years, and enrolled in the English education department in Year 4 in Teacher College A. Background information gathered from the preliminary questionnaire showed that he had no study abroad experience, and, apart from a little private teaching he did not have previous classroom teaching experience. Jinsung's practicum took place in Secondary School A, which was located near Teacher College A. It was a lower secondary school running the practicum during April, taking trainees from a few teacher colleges.

Jinsung's views of teaching speaking are discussed below based on his interviews conducted before, during, and after the practicum, with a reflection on the observations of his lessons during the practicum to explore his perspectives of teaching speaking in relation to his practice. The practicum system in Secondary School A is also discussed in relation to the head teacher's perspectives on the practicum and the mentor's perspectives on teaching speaking as they were in charge of Jinsung's teaching practice during the practicum.

4.3.1 Jinsung's School Teachers' Perspectives on the Practicum and Teaching Speaking

4.3.1.1 Jinsung's Head Teacher's Perspectives on Practicum

Jinsung's head teacher seemed to have very traditional views on teacher training during the practicum. With more than 20 years' teaching experience, she valued teacher identity or personality as an important feature to become a teacher, stressing the role of a teacher as a moral model. She expressed her strong teacher identity and her humanistic belief in education with a strong commitment to supporting students by developing a good relationship with them and helping their development as a whole person. Viewing the aptitude or a desire to become a teacher as essential to be successful in a teaching career, she perceived the role of the practicum as a time for the trainees to examine or raise their self-awareness of their teacher

identity. Regarding teaching practice, she also took a conservative position based on the school system:

I think student teachers work very hard on their lesson preparations and of course they are better than us in terms of using IT facilities or making materials and resources. As they are here for a short time, I don't think of their teaching styles negatively if they teach in different ways from existing teachers, as we can also learn from them. However, from the school teacher's point of view, as students' exams are coming soon, we need to prepare for their exams, so we wouldn't recommend them to try out many communicative activities during their lessons. Of course, they also have to think about how they can cover the textbooks.

She also stated neutral views on the streamed system as it was in its early stage. However, she also indicated some drawbacks of the streamed system such as undifferentiated assessment between the levels, different classroom dynamics between the levels, and the shortage of facilities or teachers to teach different levels. She stressed the need for developing the streamed system further to be more suitable for the school context while it was still going through a transitional period.

4.3.1.2 Jinsung's Mentor's Perspectives on Teaching Speaking

Jinsung's mentor perceived teaching as an interactive process between the teacher and students. He explained the difficulty of student control particularly in the low level class, but perceived the value of the practicum in terms of having the opportunity to learn by interacting with and struggling with the naughty students, thus developing a better understanding of how to teach the students:

I'm quite concerned about students' attitudes in the low level class... because teaching is not just giving a lesson, but it is an interactive process with the students... however I'm actually very stressed out when I look at their naughty attitudes... I think the student teacher must also have felt such an aspect of teaching and difficulties when controlling naughty students during the practicum, but I'm sure that he would have learned a lot while interacting with students, and would have come up with a better understanding of them and how to teach them in terms of their level and characteristics...

While he acknowledged his lack of skills for teaching speaking, and therefore his ability to provide only little support for the trainee, he criticized the lack of support from the teacher college with no cooperation during the practicum:

In my opinion, I think the teacher college doesn't seem to take responsibility for their student teachers, and the teacher college should be able to make its system more systematic and effective to support the student teachers' practicum. For example, each college has its affiliated school, so they can have trainees to take more systematic training in those schools during the practicum. After assigning trainees to schools, it seems that they don't care about them, and leave everything in the trainees' hands, and I think this isn't recommendable, nor an appropriate thing to do.

Though he seemed to agree with the speaking policy, he took a critical standpoint regarding TEE due to the low level students' lack of understanding. He also indicated the difficulty of teaching speaking in the low level class due to the standardized exam system, which is undifferentiated according to level. Upon consideration of the school exam, he seemed, like the head teacher, to take a rather conservative view on CLT:

I'm not happy about the level-based curriculum, how it is running in the school at the moment... um, from my point of view, as the class is divided into smaller groups, apart from the effect on the number of the students in each level, I think there is no significant difference. [...] I mean, we use the same textbook to teach them no matter where they are placed... Even though we have different activity books for each level, um, we are using yellow books, um, but I think the book is quite difficult for the lower level students to follow... [...] Basically, the main problem is the assessment... because even if we teach a communicative lesson, after all, there will be an exam... The evaluation is basically meant to provide students with feedback on their learning, so the assessment should be able to support their motivation for learning but in reality, the exam exists just to make them despair with marks...

He was very critical about the small practical impact of speaking policy on the school context due to the exam system. He stressed the need for developing the exam system including spoken assessment and also spoken materials and methodologies in order to facilitate teaching speaking in schools. Jinsung's mentor and head teacher were very concerned about the school exam and their conservative attitudes to teaching speaking may have affected Jinsung's practice.

4.3.2 Jinsung's Beliefs and Perspectives on Teaching Speaking before the Practicum

Jinsung's initial views on teaching speaking are discussed with regard to his experiences of schooling and teacher training and his perspectives of curriculum policy and the practicum.

Learning Speaking from School Education

Reflecting on his school education, Jinsung mentioned his previous experience of learning speaking in primary school. Though speaking practice was simply based on repeating and memorizing short dialogues, he seems to have enjoyed presenting what he memorized in front of his classmates and being praised by the teacher. He reflected on how he practised speaking:

I was lucky, my classroom teacher was interested in English, so she asked us to practise one English expression every day... at that time I did not know what was wrong or right and I just did speaking but it was really fun. [...] For example, I still remember, well, when we say you've done very well... you are the victory, wow, wow... (Laugh)

With respect to teaching speaking methodology, however, he acknowledged the fact that the way he was taught speaking was very simple. He explained his interest in developing his own methodology for teaching speaking continuously while teaching in context:

Yes, that kind of thing is the very basic type. (Laugh) Surely if I keep trying, I will come up with better ways to do the activity in the future but at the moment I am still developing my skills.

From his account, his early experience of speaking practice seems to have encouraged his learning of speaking and this may also have stimulated his interest in teaching speaking.

Teacher Training on Teaching Speaking

Jinsung had critical views about the theoretical courses regarding the lack of theoretical depth and he argued for the importance of deepening theoretical knowledge of teaching in initial teacher training:

After class, I don't often feel that I've learned something, or I've taken out very much from the course... from my point of view, well, the theoretical depth is weak... but I would really like to learn something very in-depth theoretically to understand teaching better...

He indicated further the lack of coherence in the courses organized across the years. He felt that the theoretical courses taught from the education department during the early years of teacher training were simply based on presentations, often leading to little understanding of theory with the trainees' poor motivation and participation:

For example, the courses for the fourth year are quite good and the level is also high and appropriate to us but the courses taught in the education department during the early years are really weak in terms of the theoretical depth, maybe, because the trainers think that we are too young to follow in-depth theory... but we need in-depth theoretical understanding at later years anyway, so in my opinion, it will be better if we have more intensive and proper training from the early stages.

While he acknowledged the importance of theory, he emphasized teaching practice and the importance of theory to be more exploratory and practical:

We need more courses where we can practise what we can really use in the real school context, and we have such courses in the fourth year but we need more practical courses from the early years, such

courses can help us learn more about practice and develop one another, like being stimulated with full of ideas...

He seemed to indicate the need for providing more training in practical skills from the early years by engaging in microteaching with peer support. He explained further the need for more collaboration between the trainees and the trainers and amongst the trainees by exchanging feedback on the practice. He was also concerned about little support provided during the courses in relation to the trainees' practical needs for the practicum:

When we look at our training courses, what we learn or use here seems to be slightly different from what is actually used in the real context of the school, but it is also not focused on the teacher appointment exam, so I think there seem to be many courses, which don't reflect or meet our practical needs.

He was especially concerned about his oral proficiency with little training on speaking:

We also need to be more confident in terms of oral proficiency in English to be able to teach speaking to students... however I do not feel I am confident in my oral proficiency at the moment... so in my opinion, I hope our courses to be more supporting us in this respect though of course I know we have to develop our own skills for ourselves by our own efforts...

While he perceived being equipped with oral proficiency to be vital to develop teacher competency to teach speaking during the practicum, his account seemed to indicate that there was insufficient training on the trainees' spoken English and practical teaching skills.

Teaching Speaking in relation to Curriculum Policy

During the discussion on curriculum policy, Jinsung stated his positive views on the effect of CLT on student motivation and participation:

Yes, of course, I think CLT or TBL is effective for students in primary schools or secondary schools, as it helps them participate more in the classroom.

He was also interested in group work and team-teaching to support CLT:

In my opinion it will be better if there are a few teachers as a team in the classroom to support the communicative lesson. Moreover, if there is group work going on, then it will be really perfect.

However, regarding TEE policy, he expressed a great tension about TEE and mentioned his microteaching experience:

I personally think, even though I spoke in English only for about ten minutes during microteaching, I felt a lot of limitations in the extent to which I can teach in English in the classroom. [...] Well... frankly

speaking, I am feeling not very fluent myself in speaking in English. [...] I will try to teach in English, but TEE gives me a lot of pressure when I think about it. I think we should teach in English.

Even though he lacked confidence in TEE, perceiving his lack of oral proficiency, his views on TEE policy were generally positive by viewing TEE as part of teaching English.

Expectations for Teaching Speaking before the Practicum

Jinsung showed great interest in teaching speaking when he was discussing his plans for the practicum. His main aims of teaching speaking were to develop students' self-confidence and self-directed learning:

If I begin the practicum, I'm personally interested in helping students raise their self-esteem and selfconfidence in speaking during my teaching practice. [...] I would like to help students to study English for themselves.

His main interest in terms of the communicative approach was to use an elicitation strategy by questioning or nomination to maximize speaking practice though he was indecisive about the type of the speaking activity:

With regard to teaching speaking, I would like to help students to become more participant in the classroom and speak more. [...] I'll pick up a lot of kids and let them speak as much as possible in the classroom. But I have not thought about what kind of activities I can do yet. [...]

His approach to elicitation seemed to reflect his practice teaching course where elicitation was a central focus of microteaching. He also planned to teach speaking by integrating receptive and productive skills:

Speaking or writing skills are essential for language use, but reading and listening contain full of information. I think it will be good if I let the students gain much information in English during listening and reading. [...] So maybe teaching two language skills per lesson? For example, by combining and integrating listening and speaking, reading and speaking, something like that?

To facilitate student participation in speaking practice, he was also interested in how he can develop communicative or interactive strategies effectively:

I would like to communicate with them as much as possible. I will do my best to talk to them and let them talk during my lesson. I think I can think about how to interact effectively with them when I am in the school.

From his account, he seemed to be well aware of the importance of elicitation in teaching speaking while he was uncertain of what activity to employ. His expectation about teaching

speaking was also positive reflecting his optimistic views on the practicum as a novice teacher of English.

4.3.3 Jinsung's Views and Practices of Teaching Speaking during the Practicum

Jinsung's views and practices of teaching speaking will be discussed here by looking at his experiences during the observation week, the initial teaching week, and the final teaching week, with a reflection on his lessons. According to each stage of the practicum, key themes were derived from the interviews.

4.3.3.1 Classroom Observation

During the first two weeks of the practicum, Jinsung observed his mentor's and other teachers' English lessons. Jinsung's views of teaching speaking during the observation weeks are discussed below.

Classroom Practice about CLT and TEE

During the induction week, Jinsung was surprised by the variety in teacher proficiency and TEE practice while observing the teachers in the school, as the level of teachers' oral proficiency seemed to be matched with the students' level which they taught. That is, he noted that highly proficient teachers taught higher level students mainly in English, while lower proficiency teachers taught lower level students only in Korean:

In our school, I found that the higher level classes are taught only in English and the lower level classes are taught only in Korean. [...] I was really surprised... um... as classes are divided between higher and lower classes these days... um... I thought English teachers' oral proficiency will be the same no matter what level they teach... higher class teachers were really fluent, and mid-level class teachers' proficiency seemed to be in the middle level, but lower class teachers didn't speak in English very well.

He was also surprised by his mentor's low oral proficiency with no use of classroom English in the low level classroom, and this seemed to reinforce his preference for teaching in Korean while he felt that his own oral proficiency was not good enough for TEE:

My mentor teaches in Korean except when he reads the text for the students. To be honest with you, my mentor is not very fluent in speaking. Well, I don't speak English very well either. As my mentor teaches in Korean, I feel I will be okay to speak in Korean. If I prepare for English transcripts and practise them

before the lessons, then I will have no problem in TEE but it will be a burden for me to do so for every lesson... as my mentor teaches in Korean, I think I can teach in Korean without any pressure.

His mentor's mother tongue use seemed to support his excuse not to teach by TEE. However, regarding CLT, he was very impressed by skillful teachers in high level or mid-level classes as regards interesting communicative activities or effective instruction strategies. While he was very surprised by his mentor's traditional teaching style involving direct error correction with no student participation, his mentor's lesson seemed to stimulate his preference to CLT:

I was very surprised at my mentor's teaching style as he was totally teacher-centered and taught only by GTM. I don't really want to teach like him... I'm not sure yet how I'll be teaching. The other thing to say about my mentor is, he never praises students from what I observed. But students usually like to be praised by the teacher. He also doesn't give any explanation when students say things incorrectly, and he just tells them the correct answers only. So as for me, I would like to praise the students first whenever or whatever they answer. Students are usually reluctant to speak even though when they are asked to do so but when I saw my mentor's lesson, he never asked students to speak and get involved in the lesson. [...] So I will teach differently from him. (Laugh) I will make use of elicitation techniques a lot during the lesson.

From his account, he seemed to be interested in increasing student participation in speaking practice by adopting elicitation strategies encouraged during teacher training. While he was rather critical about his mentor in many respects, he was very impressed by his mentor's close relationship with the students as well as generous personality with an expert manner in controlling naughty students. He commented on his mentor as a veteran:

What I found out about him during the lesson is, he has very close relationships with the students. And he is very warm-hearted to the students. There are sometimes very rude students who ignore the teacher and speak rudely but after he punishes them, after then, immediately he is smiling at them and treating them very friendly... I felt that's the veteran. When I think about my mentor's such attitudes to the students... I think there is something that I can definitely learn from him, from his personality. [...] He often makes a joke with the students and also speaks very friendly to them, so from what I've seen, the students really like his attitudes to them and follow him very well.

His mentor's generous and friendly attitudes towards the students seem to have reinforced his student-centered views on the non-authoritative and supportive role of the teacher.

Teaching Speaking in School Context

Jinsung showed a strong emphasis on student-centered teaching of speaking during the observation week, and this was consistent with his initial interest in developing student

confidence and autonomy in learning speaking by playing a supportive teacher role. However, he felt ambiguity in measuring the exact level of the students:

Regarding the level of the students... I still feel very ambiguous about figuring out their level. When I did private teaching for one or two students, their level was quite good, so I thought the average level of the students will be like them, but one day I found that there were quite a lot more lower level students than I thought so I was surprised, and on the other day I discovered that it was much worse than that... so I cannot even help some of them.

Moreover, perceiving the low level students' poor motivation and concentration with frequent off-task behaviors during the observation weeks, he became more concerned about classroom management as a novice teacher. Though most lessons that he observed from his mentor or other English teachers would not have been entirely centered on teaching speaking skills due to the focus of school education in Korea generally being centered on teaching written skills for exam preparation, it seemed that observing expert English teachers' lessons would have helped him to learn classroom management or instruction skills in relation to the specific characteristics of students in the school, and would have provided him with useful information to plan for how to teach speaking to those students in his school and in particular in his mentor's classroom. Observations seem to have helped him to plan his initial approach to teaching speaking according to the students' level and characteristics and think about his own instruction and interaction strategies for student-centered teaching of speaking in the low level classroom where he will teach. As his main interest was teaching speaking, he was very attentive to how his mentor or other English teachers practise CLT and TEE so observing a few English lessons over a week would have informed him of the nature of CLT and TEE in his school and helped to develop his own approach to teaching speaking as compared to school teachers'. For example, observing the mentor's warm-hearted approach to students seems to have encouraged him to build up good relationships with students, as this could positively influence students' attitudes towards learning speaking skills based on rapport and trust. In the same way, his preference for CLT as disciplined from teacher training seems to have been further reinforced by other experienced English teachers' skillful practice of CLT and its impact on students' speaking.

4.3.3.2 Jinsung's Practices of Teaching Speaking

Jinsung taught 8 lessons for two weeks and was assigned to teach a unit in the textbook. In the two lessons that I observed, he taught listening and speaking sections in the textbook mainly using the activity book (see Appendix 20) and playing the textbook CD on the screen and he taught speaking and listening in an integrated manner. The observations took place in the two low level classes in Year 2, which consisted of 17 students in class 9 and 18 students in class 3, all of whom were mixed with boys and girls. The discussion below is based on a reflection on his practices of teaching speaking in terms of his use of Classroom English, his strategy for elicitation and interaction, and his student-centered approach to speaking practice. The language spoken in English by the trainee or the students is presented in italics.

Classroom English

During the lessons that I observed, Jinsung seldom used English as a medium of instruction and he mostly taught in Korean except for very few comments or praise on the students' answers usually after asking them to translate Korean into English as shown below in class 9:

Extract 1. Classroom English in Class 9

Jinsung: Then how can we say that I am going to be a writer in English?
Students: I'll become a writer.
Jinsung: What about asking your friend how you are so confident?
Students: How can you be so sure?
Jinsung: Yes. Very good.

As the above extract shows, it was noted that the students also spoke in English only in the manner of translating key expressions in the textbook into English. His little use of TEE seemed to reflect his understanding of the low level of the students. While he did not teach in English, he seemed to play the tape frequently as spoken input.

Interaction

One of the interesting aspects that I noted while observing him was that Jinsung frequently had a chat with the students in the classroom as shown below in class 9. He often talked with the students either before or after class and though he did not speak in English his approach to classroom interaction with the students seemed to be consistent with his initial plan for developing communicative interaction in the classroom:

As the bell rings, two students come into the classroom. The teacher trainee moves to the back of the classroom and starts to have a chat with the students. More students come into the classroom and some of them also join the talk. The teacher trainee was very friendly to the students and there was a friendly chat going on for a while between the teacher trainee and the students before the actual lesson started.

He seemed to have close relationships with the students as he intended before the practicum, though this may also have been an influence of his mentor's good relationships with the students as he mentioned during the observation week. During the lessons, he also often had a friendly chat with a few individual students using a joke. For example, he seemed to direct the students' attention to grammar after listening and make the classroom atmosphere friendly by using a joke with a particular student as shown below in class 9:

Extract 3. Interaction strategy - Use of joke in Class 9

Jinsung: (Write on the blackboard) Call somebody something... Call Woo-jin a genius...
Jinsung: People call Woo-jin a genius boy.
Students: (Laugh)
Jinsung: Well, what is a red planet then?
Student 1: Mars.
Jinsung: What is Mars?
Student 2: Red planet.
Jinsung: Good. Let's move onto the next one.

By using jokes he seemed to involve more students in interaction with him and motivate them to practise speaking. Also in class 3, he seemed to increase the students' motivation before speaking practice by making the students laugh as shown below:

Extract 4. Interaction strategy - Use of joke in Class 3

Jinsung: Well, shall we do *speaking practice* then, between the two people, '*Partner A*' and '*Partner B*'?

Student 1: No.

Jinsung: Raise your hands if you don't want to practise?

Jinsung: OK. No one doesn't want to practise, right?

Students: (Laugh)

Jinsung: So we will practise speaking. Look at the vocabulary first. What does the English word writer

mean?

Student 1: Writer.

Jinsung: Yes. That's right.

The jokes seemed to be spoken mainly in Korean considering the low level students but seemed to make them attentive to him. However, Jinsung seemed also to face difficulty in classroom management during translation work after listening in class 9, while trying to control the off-task student in a friendly manner:

Extract 5. Classroom management - Challenge with Classroom Control in Class 9

Jinsung: Dong-chul, what are you doing? I wonder if means I am curious about something.
Student 6: Yes.
Jinsung: Listen carefully to what they say in the next one. The next one is for Dong-chul.
Student 6: Yes.
Jinsung: (Play the tape) Look at the sun [].
Jinsung: Dong-chul, what are you doing?
Jinsung: I wonder if there is any?
Students: Life.
Jinsung: I wonder if
Student 2: I am curious about something.
Jinsung: Yes, Right. I wonder if means I am curious about something. Dong-chul?
Student 6: Yes.
Jinsung: I wonder if there is, Dong-chul, there is what?
Jinsung: What does 'there is any life 'mean? Dong-chul?
Student 6: Yes.
Student 6: (Look at the other student) He makes noises.
Jinsung: Don't think about your friend, Dong-chul.
It's your problem if you don't concentrate on the lesson.

Though he seemed to experience difficulty in classroom control occasionally during teaching listening and speaking due to the naughty students especially those who have poor speaking abilities, his focus on student-centered communicative interaction seemed to be reflected in his practice consistently.

Elicitation

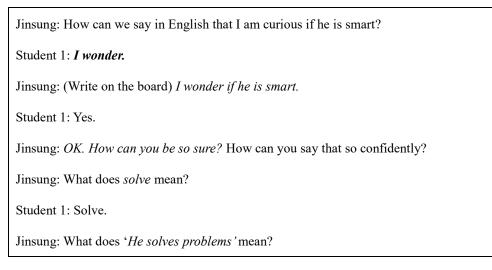
During his lessons, I also noted elicitation as one of his main communicative strategies. The extract in class 9 shows his elicitation strategy by nominating students or asking for volunteers during the grammar review:

Extract 6. Elicitation strategy - Nomination and request for volunteering in Class 9

Jinsung: OK. I have something to give you. Ji-won, you answer the meaning in Korean. Student 3: I have something to give you. Jinsung: Yes. Right. I have something to give you. Jinsung: I need someone to help me. Jinsung: Who else can answer this? Student 1: (Put hands up) Me. Jinsung: So what? Student 1: I need... Jinsung: I need what? Student 1: I need someone to help me. Jinsung: Yes, that's right.

While occasionally nominating students, he seemed to encourage more voluntary participation from the students and a few students seemed to volunteer to answer his questions. By his constant effort to elicit the students' speech, some students in class 9 seemed to be actively participating and also initiating in English:

Extract 7. Elicitation strategy - Open question in Class 9



Student 1: He solves problems.

Jinsung: He solves what problems?

Students: Difficult math problems.

Jinsung: (Write on the board) He solves difficult math problems. So he can be sure, can't he?

Students: Yes.

Jinsung made much use of elicitation during his lessons and this was consistent with his initial plan before the practicum. He usually asked very short questions frequently after listening to elicit students' answers:

Extract 8. Elicitation strategy - Repetitive short question in Class 9

Jinsung: (Play the tape) There are many kinds of life on the earth[].
Jinsung: <i>There are</i> ?
Student 1: (Shout) There is something.
Jinsung: Yes. Right. This means there is something.
Jinsung: There are what?
Students: (Shout) Many kinds, many kinds of life, animals
Jinsung: Yes. Right.
Jinsung: Where?
Students: (Shout) On the earth.

His questioning was not always eliciting students' speech in English as shown above and often based on translating grammar structure into Korean after listening. However, his frequent open questions made students also initiate in English as shown below in another example in class 9. Though students merely repeated the key expressions in the textbook, this seemed to provide students with further opportunities to speak English:

Extract 9. Elicitation strategy - Repetitive short question in Class 9

Jinsung: What do sci	entists want?
Student 1: To go to th	is planet.
Jinsung: Yes. Right.	
Jinsung: Where do th	ney want to go?
Students: Mars.	

During the grammar review, he repeatedly asked grammar points and he often used personal examples to elicit students' speech further:

Jinsung: Am I old compared to you?		
Students: Older.		
Jinsung: Yes. I'm older than you.		
Jinsung: Am I tall compared to you?		
Students: Taller.		
Jinsung: Yes. I'm taller than you.		

The example below also shows his use of praise when students responded to his questions voluntarily to encourage them:

Extract 11. Elicitation strategy - Use of praise in Class 9

Jinsung: Now look at B.

Jinsung: There are sentences that we learned earlier.

Who can read this first sentence? Put your hands up.

Jinsung: (Point out Student 5) OK.

Student 5: I wonder if there is any life.

Jinsung: What does this sentence mean?

Student 5: I am curious if there is any life.

Jinsung: That's right. Well done. I wonder if means... I am curious about something.

Though it was not clear whether his use of praise encouraged the students to speak more, his elicitation strategy seemed to some extent to help students speak in English in the classroom, but the students' practice of speaking was merely producing words or sentences in the textbook. This nature of oral practice is illustrated further below.

Oral Practice

Another feature of his lessons was the intensive review of grammar in the textbook using the activity book. He used the activity book frequently during his lessons and the main purpose of using the activity book was to practise grammar further through oral practice by altering the grammatical structure which was taught in the textbook. This seemed to be a consequence

of preparing for the mid-term exam which was to take place after the practicum. Due to the exam preparation, his teaching practice had to be finished early and the lessons that I observed were his last lessons during the practicum. However, he seemed to structure his lessons with listening and speaking integrally according to his initial interest in integrated teaching of speaking though practice of speaking was mainly centered on repeating short vocabulary and grammar structure as mentioned before, and oral practice was carried out by reading aloud of the key expressions in the textbook as a whole class in response to his questions asking students to translate them into Korean or English. Oral practice which was commonly found in his lessons can be defined as a kind of practice of speaking or spoken practice of English where students merely read aloud grammatical words and phrases or sentences orally by imitating or repeating the exact expressions in the textbook after listening to the tape recording or by reviewing the activity book according to Jinsung's request. The oral practice was often carried out as a whole class by chorus reading aloud but it was also performed individually or in pairs and it is in nature distinguished from communicative practice which is speaking practice involving communicative interaction between the students, where students exchange their opinions and ideas one another in the classroom. In class 9, he seemed to elicit more speech from the students by altering similar grammatical patterns:

Extract 12. Oral practice - Whole class practice by the further question in Class 9

Jinsung: Mars is colder than the earth. Right.

Jinsung: Then can we change this sentence? If I want to say in the beginning, the earth is...

Students: The earth is ... warmer than Mars.

Jinsung: Then how can we say in English the earth is bigger than Mars?

Students: The earth is bigger than Mars.

Sometimes, he also asked students to repeat oral practice of translation work once again as shown below in class 3:

Extract 13. Oral practice – Whole class practice by repetition in Class 3

Jinsung: Everyone, can we do this again?

Jinsung: I am curious if I will win the game.

Student 3: I wonder if I will win the game.

Jinsung: Yes. I wonder if I will win the game. That's right.

Some oral practice was carried out individually by nominating individual students:

Extract 14. Oral practice – Individual practice in Class 9

Jinsung: Look at B, and do Number 1. Ye-jin, you answer.Student 4: (Look at the textbook)Students: (Chat)Jinsung: Your friend is giving an answer to the class. When your friend is talking, what do you have to do?Student 3: Who is answering?Jinsung: Ye-jin. So everyone, be quiet and listen carefully.Student 4: (Read the answer slowly using the textbook) I...wonder...if...

As shown above, some girls were very shy to speak loudly in the classroom and sometimes he had to keep encouraging them to speak. Most practices of the speaking section in the activity book were carried out by chorus reading aloud of the model dialogue repeatedly:

Extract 15. Oral practice - Chorus reading of the dialogue in Class 9

Jinsung: You have to speak English as much as possible to learn to speak.			
So make it a habit. Right, listen and repeat loudly together.			
Students: Yes.			
Jinsung: (Play the tape) I'm sure I'll win the game.			
Students: I'm sure I'll win the game.			
Jinsung (Play the tape) How can you be so sure?			
Students: How can you be so sure?			
Jinsung: (Play the tape) Well, I'm trying my best every day.			
Students: Well, I'm trying my best every day.			
Jinsung: Everyone, you have to speak loudly in English.			
Jinsung: (Play the tape) I see. Then, good luck.			
Students: I see. Then, good luck.			

Most students simply repeated the model dialogue as a whole class after listening to the tape, and though he seemed to encourage the students to engage in more speaking practice, chorus reading aloud did not provide them with a chance to engage in communicative interaction.

Speaking Activity

As mentioned before, the model dialogue in the speaking section (see C in Listen and Speak Plus in the activity book in Appendix 20) was practised by the chorus reading aloud. A kind of speaking activity that I noted in class 9 was the oral practice of the dialogue between groups. He divided the class into two groups and chorus reading aloud of the dialogue continued between the two groups:

Extract 16. Speaking practice between groups in Class 9

Jinsung: Look at Number 1. Pass the test. Pass the test. From this group, can we start?
Students: I'm sure I will pass the test.
Jinsung: (Point out students on the left side) Now the other group.
Students: How can you be so sure?
Jinsung: (Point out students on the right side) And then this group. Number 2.
Students: I'm sure I will win the race.
Jinsung: (Point out students on the right side) And then the other group.
Students: How can you be so sure?
Jinsung: (Write on the board) Win the game. Win the game.
Jinsung: Say this part once again, everyone.
Students: I'm sure I will win the game.
Jinsung: How can we say that so confidently?
Student1 Student2: How can you be so sure?
Jinsung: Yes. Right. Well done.
Jinsung: 'Become a writer' means to be a writer. Then how can we say I am going to be a writer in English?
Students: (Raise voices and shout) I'll become a writer[]
Jinsung: How can we say that so confidently?
Students: (Raise voices and shout) How can you be so sure []
Jinsung: Yes, very good.

In the above extract, we can see that he also tries to elicit students' speech further by open questions during reading aloud of the dialogue in the activity book, and in response to his repeated questions, students seemed to get more excited and responsive raising their voices. The dialogue in the textbook was also practised in pairs with another example written on the

blackboard. In class 3 he often nominated two students to stand up and oral practice continued between them in pairs as shown in extract 17:

Extract 17. Speaking practice in pairs in Class 3

Jinsung: Well, now we will speak between A and B. Junhyun, speak A.
Students: (Laugh)
Student 3: I am sure this movie will be successful.
Jinsung: Yes. Right. I am sure this movie will be successful.
Jinsung: Your partner.
Student 6: How can you be sure if this movie will be successful?
Jinsung: Yes. How can you be sure if this movie will be successful?
Jinsung: Then how can we answer this?
Student 6: Um Uh

In the above extract, it is also noted that after speaking practice based on the textbook he seems to try to elicit more natural speech from the student with an open question though the student was unable to answer due to low oral proficiency. Overall, the teaching of the speaking section was merely based on reading aloud, and except reading aloud of the dialogue either in groups or in pairs, there was no speaking activity during his lessons.

4.3.3.3 Jinsung's Views of Teaching Speaking and Context Factors

As compared to Jinsung's practices, Jinsung's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking are discussed based on his views of his practices and contextual factors which may have affected his views or practices. The following themes seemed to be identified as central in Jinsung's views from the observations and interviews before and during the practicum.

Classroom English

What I first noted during Jinsung's lessons was his limited use of classroom English. Jinsung rarely used classroom English except when he praised students' answers, and during the post-observation interview, he explained the reason for this as regards the students' generally low proficiency. He explained the difficulty of teaching in English in the low level class due to little understanding of the students. However, he also acknowledged that he had emotional

tension because of his lack of oral proficiency, and this coincided with the earlier concerns of his lack of confidence in spoken English before the practicum. His emotional struggle with TEE is found in his episode in the below extract:

The student was quite persistent and asked me to tell a funny story in English but I think I made a mistake... because I said to him honestly, no, I can't tell a story in English very well, and then he said to me, why not, you are an English teacher, do you think you are qualified to teach English while being unable to tell a story in English? So I felt very hurt indeed... if I was really able to tell an interesting story in English very fluently like a native speaker, then I must not have felt very hurt, but I was actually unable to do so...

This episode seemed to show his lack of confidence in his oral proficiency and how he felt uneasy when employing TEE as a novice English teacher but this seems also to reflect a traditional educational culture in Korea originated from Confucianism, which expects a teacher to be a perfect deliverer of knowledge who does not make a mistake in terms of instructing the subject that he teaches.

Student-Centred Teaching Strategy

Jinsung explained how he developed his understanding of the students while observing his mentor and during his early teaching. He explained how he tried to sympathize with the students by showing gentle and generous attitudes to naughty students:

I'm very tall, so if I talk to my students looking down at them, then this may threaten them, so I always try to lower my position, and ask them, what are you doing now? (Laugh) [...] I asked them if they understood what I explained or not, and they said yes, so as I said to you before, I'm interested in developing students' self-confidence, by student-centered teaching. So I said to the off-task students who did not pay attention to my lesson, yes, right, keep playing the game if you want during my lesson, while nominating other students to answer my question, and continuing the lesson. And after then they started to listen to me and stop playing the game. I always feel like that, I would like to be in their shoes, and get closer with them. [...] Sometimes, when I look at their bad attitudes, I feel very sympathetic and sad as well. However, I love them, they are so lovely even though they play games and chat during the lesson. Those low ability students tend to be so naughty as well.

His student-centered teaching standpoint was consistent with his initial belief before the practicum and seemed to develop with practice. In his lessons, he seemed to use interpersonal strategies through chatting or joking to socialize more with the students. He also showed friendly attitudes to them and used polite expressions when talking with them. His practice seemed to be consistent with his interest in raising the students' self-confidence in speaking

which seemed also to be reflected in his lesson plan (see Appendix 21). He seemed to praise the students very often to encourage them to speak. He explained how he helped the students to speak out using praise:

I think praising students was a very good strategy actually. Well, I could see them becoming very attentive to the lesson, and then students started to say a lot as they have been very encouraged and happy... but when I saw them first they were not very responsive...

He continued to stress the importance of raising student motivation in speaking by making a good classroom atmosphere which makes students comfortable and attentive to speaking:

I think students' motivation is very important for speaking. The teacher should be able to support the classroom atmosphere. Well, the kind of atmosphere, where students can concentrate on the speaking activity. Then it will also help students at least have some interest in engaging in the speaking activity. [...]

He also viewed building up a rapport with students as essential in that 'as much as they trust the teacher, they will be more willing to learn and participate in the lesson.' Whilst he tried to encourage those students who were able to understand his lesson to be more participatory and motivated, he also paid attention to those students with lower cognitive ability than others. He seemed to be particularly sympathetic with those who are unable to understand his lesson and he was very keen to provide them with individual support:

The problem is those who don't really know what to do or how to do to answer my question. There are those who don't really understand, nor follow the lesson. I would really like to run supplementary teaching to support them after class because they can't follow the lesson. But sometimes I just have to give up and go ahead with the lesson by myself, and just tell them to come to the staffroom to ask any questions after class and leave the classroom.

During his practice, he seems to have become more aware of the importance of teacher support for individual students in student-centered communicative teaching. In addition to becoming more aware of the importance of lesson planning or task design for effective teaching of speaking, he offered after-class individual support to help low ability students who do not understand his lesson, hoping to narrow down the proficiency gap in the low level class, but his effort was eventually frustrated by the students' poor motivation:

I asked the students to come to the staffroom during the break. I said to them, please ask questions if you had anything that you didn't understand... However, there was only one student who came along. There was also only one who asked a question during the lesson, and there was again only one student who came to see me with a question after class...

However, he felt satisfied with the overall outcome of his student-centered communicative approach. He was particularly confident with his interaction strategy as it encouraged more students to volunteer in classroom interaction and communication. As he stated, his student-centered communicative perspectives seemed to be consistent with his practice.

Elicitation and Communication Strategy

Jinsung seems also to have developed his elicitation strategy according to his initial interest. He explained his focus on elicitation as opposed to his mentor's:

Most students are very shy so they don't like to speak before they are called. Because my mentor didn't ask the students to speak during the lesson, so I am trying to elicit English as much as possible from the students.

His mentor's traditional style seems to have given him a comparative view between GTM and CLT and made him view CLT more positively. He explained how he helped students get over the fear of speaking and develop more self-confidence in speaking according to his student-centered perspective. By using praise he tried to elicit more speech from the students:

For example, when the students say one word, then I say to them, yes, very good, well done, you made it, something like that...

He stated that encouraging the students turned out to be very effective in increasing their motivation and initiation. He explained further his view on praise:

Some teachers use a candy as a stimulus... For me, I used praise instead. Do you remember the student who spoke very actively during the lesson? He was the one who was very shy and had not spoken during the lesson, but when I started to praise, he began to speak... I think those students who were able to answer but didn't speak out to answer during the lesson, started to become very much participant and took initiative when I praised them. I was obviously able to feel and see this change enormously during my teaching. I hope they can continue to be very participant in the lesson even after I leave the school.

Jinsung seems to have been successful in modifying his elicitation strategy using praise and some students' active participation and initiation were observed in his lessons as he stated. Another noticeable strategy that he used for elicitation was open questioning. He explained how he developed his own elicitation strategy by adopting short questions frequently:

So for example, if I ask the students, what is 'I'?, what is 'I'?, they answer the meaning, and I ask them again, what is 'I wonder'? then the students answer, and I say, yes, that's right, then what about 'I wonder if'? So I ask a question more and more in this way. [...] Yes. I'm really glad that the students became very participant and took initiative more than before.

He also explained that his early elicitation strategy was nomination, but he was eventually able to encourage more voluntary initiation from the students by his own questioning strategy:

At first, I nominated everyone in the classroom, one by one, but as I was getting closer to the students, some of them used to answer voluntarily and very actively. At first, when I called them to speak, they didn't speak, but as you saw today, some of them were even interrupting the lesson by over-acting or over-responding.

His questioning strategy seemed to reflect his initial interest in helping students overcome the fear of speaking in English by extending the level of speech gradually in consideration of the low level of the students. However, he also acknowledged his lack of elicitation skills and therefore the limitations in the extent to which he was able to encourage spontaneous speech:

I think, I would think of the examples that I used as supplementary explanations because I intended to elicit students' own stories in English by providing them with those additional or further examples. I really wanted to initiate students' speech naturally, but I felt that I couldn't lead their speaking very well in the end. Well, the examples that I gave them were the stories which I created for them, so they are not their own stories, not their own thoughts, therefore I thought that students might not have felt the stories very relevant to them.

He also indicated his lack of lesson preparations as a cause of ineffective speaking practice between the students:

Actually, I should have taught each lesson after properly preparing for the lesson plan in detail to make the lesson better, and involve more students in speaking interactively but as I started teaching practice earlier than usual, usually I went to the lesson only with an overall outline in mind...

He explained further that his early teaching was merely based on grammar translations:

That's my fault as well. Actually, I couldn't prepare for my lessons very well. I think it must have been boring to them as I taught the lesson as centered on reading and translating like private teaching.

He seemed to address the difficulty of teaching speaking caused by his own lack of practical skills for CLT, but this may also have been an influence of the pressure to prepare for the midterm exam which was to take place immediately after the practicum. Though he admitted lack of practical skills in lesson planning, while gaining more understanding of the students' level and characteristics, he seems to have been able to make his lesson and his lesson plan more structured (see Appendix 21), thus eventually developing his communicative strategy to incorporate speaking in the teaching of grammar.

Oral Practice

The type of speaking practice that I mostly observed in his lessons was reading aloud while teaching grammar or listening. During the teaching of the speaking section, he again asked the students merely to repeat the dialogue as a whole class. For example, during the dialogue practice in class 9, he asked the students to read aloud between two groups. He explained his intention for this in terms of raising communicative interaction between the students. However, he felt frustrated with little natural communicative interaction between the students:

The students didn't do the practice very well at first. You saw them today. Those who were usually very participatory also didn't take part in the practice at first, but occasionally they did it, and then as I urged them to do the practice properly, everyone started to speak loudly. However, I think that wasn't any activity at all. When I ask them to practise dialogue between A and B, then they should speak as if they were A and B as if A and B were really talking together, but even though I pushed them to speak, they were not really doing the speaking practice. Again when I said to them, shall we do the practice again? But their response was the same... I noted that there was hardly any conversation going on... I think my instruction wasn't very good, I did not give them the instruction very well.

He seemed to acknowledge the fact that he was not very skillful in instructing or providing students with the opportunity to engage in more natural speaking. However, he also explained how he tried hard to raise students' poor motivation for speaking, for example, by supplying audio-visual resources to expose students to spoken English. Though these were not observed, he seems to have played animations or films after class occasionally:

There were animations in the textbook CD, and the students really liked them, so I played the animations, and apart from the textbook CD, I also used short films as a reward. [...] So I played a short film, which I found on the internet and it was quite relevant to the topic of the lesson. I felt it was quite good to raise the students' interest in spoken English and expose them to real English so I told the other classes that they will watch the film if they finish the lesson early and then I showed them the film.

While he was not teaching in English, he used internet materials as authentic input for spoken English, and another purpose of using multimedia resources was for pronunciation practice:

The title of the animation was an 'orange puppy' and it is an orange with eyes and a mouth, so it showed the movement of the mouth when it was speaking, so I played it and told them to watch the mouth and imitate the pronunciation. It was very interesting.

Another feature of his lessons was teaching of speaking integrated with listening or grammar. This seemed to reflect his initial interest in integrative teaching of speaking. He explained why he developed his integrative teaching style: When I first planned a lesson, I wanted to teach each skill in sequence, doing this, and then doing that...but when I actually taught the lesson, I realized that that way wasn't very effective as students easily lost their concentration. So I tried to teach written skills with spoken skills together or listening with speaking.

Even though he seems to have tried hard to employ CLT in his lessons as opposed to his mentor's GTM, he did not implement any speaking activity apart from reading aloud of the textbook, and as noted before, his strategy for speaking practice was largely based on the translation of vocabulary or grammar structure into English. Reading English orally was carried out as a whole class, in pairs and also between the groups but as he indicated, it did not seem to generate any real communicative practice between the students, and as the students were seated in rows in a typical Korean classroom setting, this seating arrangement also did not seem to help the students effectively interact with one another (see Appendix 29 for photos taken in the classrooms). The reason for the limitation in the teaching of speaking is discussed further below with a consideration of the challenges caused by contextual factors.

Contextual Factors

As his lessons were observed during the final week of teaching practice, Jinsung seemed to show an increased awareness of the school context and contextual constraints to the teaching of speaking, particularly in relation to the students' characteristics and the education system in Korea. The main challenge to the teaching of speaking was related to the low level of the students, in particular, the proficiency difference amongst the students. That is, while some students were more advanced, the difficulty that he encountered during speaking practice was to control the off-task naughty students, who were often de-motivated with very low ability and proficiency as compared to the others, and he felt ambiguity in how to adjust his practice:

Anyway, there is such a group of students who can follow the lesson on the one hand, and on the other hand, there are students who are not able to read when I ask them to read the textbook, that is, those who are at the bottom level... Yes, that's why they can't read any sentence. So I'm so confused about where I have to put my focus during my lesson...

Despite a number of challenges, he tried to apply his student-centered approach to classroom management:

Once I felt very difficult to control them. Yes, very very difficult...There is one student who is very often off-task and when he loses his concentration, sometimes he is totally out of control, he is a kind

of student who is on and off, on and off, all the time during the lesson...So I usually talk to him by saying a joke, did you have your lunch yet, okay, I will see you later after lunch, something like that...

While his student-centered strategy seemed to be successful to some extent, he also commented on the difficulty caused by students' reticence:

But the other problem is, I'm not pretty sure how and what I can do for those who have a lower ability to understand the lesson. [...] For example, for girls, sometimes, there are some girls who don't speak, who are not going to answer at all, and in this case, I don't know what to do really...

The students' reticence may have been caused by their low oral proficiency, but it seems also to reflect the traditional Korean culture originated from Confucianism which values teacher authority and control rather than classroom interaction. His practice was also challenged by those who benefited from private teaching, thus deepening the gap in students' proficiency in the classroom:

There was a big level gap between the students even though they were allocated in the same class, in the low level class. The students who had private teaching by attending private institutions after school, translate loudly during the lesson when I am reading the textbook. So it's very difficult to handle... I can't tell them to be quiet or not to speak...

He continued to explain their attitudinal problems and how he approached them:

For example, when I asked some students why you did not pay attention to the lesson, they said to me that they already learned the textbook in the private institution. So I told them to do what they would like to do during the lesson and did not warn them, after then surprisingly they started to be more attentive to the lesson.

However, the major constraint to his practice of teaching speaking was caused by the school exam and the demand for covering the textbook:

I intended to enhance from the bottom level but unfortunately in the week after our practicum, the students have a mid-term exam, so my mentor said to me to finish the chapter 3 by one week before the exam as during the last week teachers have to summarise the chapter and help students prepare for the exam. There are not many lessons. Some classes have eight lessons and some classes have four lessons, and it is not also easy to finish the chapter 3 quickly, because there are students who can't even read the alphabet...

He explained further how much he was under pressure by his mentor's request to speed up the progression through the textbook and prepare for the school exam:

My mentor said to me, from the next lesson, to try to speed up with the textbook. That is, he told me to check and explain key points only and skip the other parts. So he said to me, rather than explaining each

word's meaning one by one, to try to speed up. [...] Therefore, he said it is better to cover the scope of the textbook so that the students can feel that they finished the textbook before the exam.

From his account, it seemed obvious that a number of contextual challenges influenced or interfered with his perception and practice of teaching speaking during the practicum.

4.3.4 Jinsung's Beliefs and Perspectives on Teaching Speaking after the Practicum

On the basis of the post-practicum interview, Jinsung's overall views on teaching speaking after the practicum are discussed in relation to student-centered teaching speaking, CLT and TEE, theory and practice, and the education system and teacher training, to track any change or difference in his beliefs and perspectives.

Student-Centred Teaching Speaking

Jinsung's student-centered views of teaching speaking seemed to be consistent and develop further during the practicum. During the interview after the practicum, he showed an increased awareness of the importance of teaching methodology to develop student-centered communicative teaching of speaking in Korea, particularly the need for varying teaching methodology appropriately to teaching context:

To make the speaking lesson more appropriate to the context, what we could do is, maybe, varying the methodology... I think introducing different and various teaching methods will be good for students.

He expressed his critical views on GTM based on the standard textbook, perceiving it as the main barrier to teaching speaking. He indicated the need for developing more speaking-centered English lessons in Korea by using more communicative activities and authentic resources:

Not merely learning about grammar, but playing more with the spoken language, I think, we need such speaking lessons. In fact, there are lots of interesting materials and resources available outside the classroom if we really want to learn and teach speaking.

He pointed out the fact that students were usually poorly motivated in the low level class, and, moreover, as lessons had to be based only on the topics in the textbook, he felt that it was difficult to encourage speaking practice during the practicum:

Um... it was quite hard to draw or raise the students' interests as a whole class... um...I felt, speaking in English, elicitation was not so easy... Um... as you saw when you came to observe my lesson, for

example, if we say about the world cup, then it will be much more interesting to the students, and also easy for them to understand...I think, eliciting students to speak in English is quite difficult...

From his account, his practice seems to have helped him to enlarge his understanding of student-centered teaching speaking, to some extent, by knowing more about the students and exploring his own strategies even under contextual challenges.

CLT and TEE

Jinsung seems also to have increased his understanding of CLT and TEE in relation to the low level class after the practicum, but his overall reflection on his practice of CLT and TEE after the practicum were rather negative as compared to his early views during the practicum. Whilst he often mentioned during the post-observation interview that he felt satisfied with the fact that he was able to elicit the speech of lower level students further, he seemed to evaluate the extent to which he was able to teach speaking in the low level classroom rather negatively because the overall linguistic level of the students was too low with their lack of grammatical basis for speaking practice:

There was no constraint to teach speaking from the school itself, as they told me to teach the textbook including the speaking section. I think it is possible to do speaking practice with those who have basic grammatical knowledge, but I taught the low level class so it was a bit more difficult than I thought...[...]

He reflected further on the challenge that he was confronted with while trying to implement speaking practice due to the mixed level of the students within the low level class:

I think, about 30 percent had got good understanding and followed the lesson very well, and about 20 percent were willing to follow the lesson and perform what I asked them to do but lacked overall understanding, and the rest half of the class understood nothing about English and was unable to speak in English so I also gave them up in the end... for me every lesson was like that during the practicum...

As a result, he was unable to teach speaking communicatively, and also did not teach in English during the practicum:

I am mostly regretful about the fact that I wasn't teaching in English in the classroom... yeah, I wasn't using English to teach English... and I wasn't able to make students practise speaking with a variety of expressions...

He felt regretful for not employing TEE because of the low level of the students. However, he also acknowledged the fact that he was not confident in TEE as he said previously. He stressed further that the challenges to CLT lessons were caused by the low level of the students, but he

also reflected on the fact that his own lack of teaching skills, as well as the pressure to cover the textbook, made his practice of CLT more difficult:

I wasn't able to prepare for the lessons very well. I didn't make the lesson plans and speaking activities in detail, so perhaps I should have taught the lesson more skilfully and systematically in communicative ways, but I followed my own intuition in the classroom. There was also pressure from my mentor as he said to me to speed up and finish the textbook as soon as possible. Otherwise, I may fail them all in the exam.

However, as he had previously mentioned, he felt that he was able to modify his elicitation strategy to some extent during the practicum. He expressed his confidence in using it. He explained further his understanding of effective ways of teaching speaking to the low level students by making use of grammatical input and repetition. It seemed that by trying to make students speak more during the practicum, he increased his confidence in how to elicit students' speech. Therefore, his initially rather vague understanding of elicitation has been elaborated in very practical ways with practical ideas on the effective methods of instruction to teach speaking in the low level classroom:

As I said to you before, in the low level class, grammar should be taught first before speaking, otherwise, it is quite hard for them to start with speaking ... I think it must also be quite important to let them speak again and again repetitively in the low level class...[...]

Overall, he seemed to be satisfied with the outcome of his communicative strategy in the low level class to some extent, also acknowledging its limitation caused by contextual constraints. He seemed to have an increased understanding of classroom management and classroom interaction. After going through a number of challenges with a lack of practical skills for CLT, his views of CLT after the practicum became more practical and contextualized with an increased awareness of the need for and importance of employing various communicative activities and materials appropriately to the context of teaching and the level of students.

Theory and Practice

Regarding the relationship between theory and practice, Jinsung seems to have become more aware of the gap between theory and practice, particularly regarding the difficulty in applying the theory of teaching speaking to the real classroom:

Um... it was quite hard for me to teach speaking in the ways that I expected before the practicum. There seems to be a big difference between theory and practice. Moreover, the gap in the students' level in the classroom was great.

While he was quite optimistic about putting theory into practice before the practicum, after teaching experience, he perceived it to be crucial to adjust theory appropriately to the teaching context, particularly with a consideration of the student level:

There may be ideal schools where theory and practice are matched very well but in my opinion... I'm not saying that theory is too ideal, but I think it is necessary to adjust theory to the teaching context appropriately.

As he felt that the low level class was the main challenge to teach speaking during the practicum, he stressed the importance of making the theory more transferable to the teaching context and also more selective to the type of the students when implementing it in the classroom. After the practicum, he seems to have gained more realistic and practical views on teaching speaking particularly in relation to the low level class.

Education System and Teacher Training

Jinsung seems also to have enlarged his awareness of the school system and the level-based curriculum particularly in relation to the exam system in Korea. He indicated the inequality of the school exam under the level-based curriculum for the lower level students' oral proficiency development, while the standardized exam is undifferentiated to level with the same textbook, thus benefiting the higher level students more:

The main problem is the exam system. Well if we teach students between the three levels such as high level, mid-level, and low level, they should take different exams but the exam paper is the same... I think it will be better if they take different exams... I feel that to teach the lesson is easy for those who are in higher level classes but very difficult with those who are in lower level classes... for example, we can teach speaking and what the students want to do in higher level classes but we cannot teach what they really need to improve their English in lower level classes...

While he viewed the exam system as the main barrier to implement speaking practice in the low level class due to the time pressure to cover the textbook, he also commented on the downside of private teaching under the level-based curriculum:

The main problem with the level-based curriculum is a lot of private tuition boom in Korea. So students don't pay attention to the lessons. [...] Anyway I think there seems to be a big economical gap as well as the ability gap between high level class students and low level class students. So high level class students are usually rich and were able to take private tuition continuously. I think higher level class students are easily able to understand the textbook, but if they had taken school education only then they would not have had such high ability. So in my opinion, the schools try to separate classes and take extra classes for them, so in the end, the level gap will be wider and deeper.

He also mentioned the university entrance exam centered on assessing written English as a cause of the students' poor motivation for speaking practice even in lower secondary schools, and indicated the importance of developing an assessment system for speaking in the university entrance exam:

The first thing to do before introducing speaking policy is to change the university entrance exam system. As there is only reading and listening in the university entrance exam, how can we expect students to be motivated to learn to speak?

While he perceived the role of the practicum as crucial to enhance teacher learning in preservice teacher education, he felt that more practicum experience should be provided during teacher training in order to help trainees develop practical knowledge:

I hope we could have the practicum, teaching practice, more frequently, I think, every year. More practicum will make us learn and understand better how to apply theory to practice, and we will also develop the know-how.

However, regarding teacher training, he felt that there was a lack of individual support or practical training according to the trainees' individual needs for professional development, indicating little support for his oral proficiency development. Moreover, he was given little support from his mentor for his communicative approach based on teacher training as his mentor taught mainly by GTM and only in Korean. This seems to indicate the consequence of lack of collaboration between the teacher college and the secondary school in Korea, that is, with what is learned in teacher training separated from what is taught in the school context.

4.3.5 Comparisons between Pre-practicum and Post-practicum

Jinsung's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking will now be discussed in relation to before, during, and after the practicum. Jinsung's initial views of teaching speaking seemed to be to some extent consistent with his practice during the practicum of developing student-centered communicative strategies. However, he encountered a number of contextual challenges from the low level class and also from his own lack of confidence and practical skills for TEE and CLT. After the practicum, he seems to have increased his understanding of contextual factors which affected teaching speaking at the classroom level, school level, and curriculum level. Jinsung's beliefs or views of teaching speaking before, during, and after the practicum are summarised in the table below.

	Before the Practicum	During the Practicum	After the Practicum
Elicitation and participation	Perceives maximizing student elicitation and participation as important in teaching speaking Plans to do much nomination and interaction with students	Encounters difficulties in raising student elicitation and participation due to students' reticence and little motivation Develops strategies to increase elicitation using praise or open questions in addition to the nomination Develops elicitation strategies through frequent short questions or further personal examples to make students repeat grammar or vocabulary Develops interaction strategies by jokes or chats to increase student participation	Recognizes the positive effect of praise on increasing student elicitation and voluntary participation Increases confidence in elicitation strategies and interaction strategies Perceives the overall difficulties of increasing elicitation and participation in the low level class
Speaking practice	Intends to increase students' self-confidence in speaking Intends to facilitate students' self-directed learning of speaking Feels ambiguous about communicative strategies and speaking activities Intends to integrate speaking with listening	Encounters challenges due to students' poor proficiency and poor motivation in speaking in the low level class Uses chorus reading aloud frequently to practise the dialogue in the textbook as a whole class or as a group Uses pair work for speaking practice of the dialogue in the textbook Uses chorus reading aloud for repeating key	Perceives speaking practice in the low level class as very difficult due to low proficiency Recognizes difficulties in increasing self-directed learning of speaking in the low level class Recognizes chorus reading aloud as ineffective to develop speaking practice or self- confidence in speaking Becomes more aware of the importance of providing grammar input before speaking

Table 4.1. The differences between Jinsung's Views of Teaching Speaking before and after the Practicum

	[
		expressions in the textbook	practice and of repeating
		or altering similar grammar	speaking practice in the low
		examples as speaking	level class
		practice	Recognizes the importance of
		Teaches speaking with	adopting interesting topics
		listening integrally due to	relevant to students to facilitate
		time constraints for the	teaching speaking
		exam	Recognizes the lack of practical skills in developing speaking activities or natural
			speaking practice in the low level class
			Recognizes the standardized textbook as the main barrier to teaching speaking in the low level class
			Recognizes the importance of changing the exam system to facilitate teaching speaking
CLT	Views CLT positively with	Faces challenges in CLT in	Views the effect of CLT rather
	an interest in team-teaching	the low level class due to	negatively in relation to the
	or group work to support	the student level gap within	exam system in Korea
	communicative practice	the low level class	Recognizes difficulties in
	Intends to implement	Experiences difficulties in	implementing CLT due to the
	integrative CLT approaches	lesson plans and	lack of practical skills as well
	by combining informative	preparations for	as the student level gap within
	input and communicative	communicative activities	the low level class
	practice	due to a lack of practical	
	Perceives lesson plans and	skills	Becomes more aware of student-centered
	preparations for	Faces challenges in CLT	communicative teaching of
	communicative approaches	due to the mid-term exam	speaking in relation to the low
	as difficult	and the textbook to cover	level class
		according to mentor requests	Becomes more aware of the importance of effective
		Employs traditional	methodology development in
		teaching methods (GTM)	context to develop
		by asking students to	context to develop
		by asking students to	

		translate grammar structure	communicative teaching of
		in English	speaking in Korea
		Uses praise and jokes to	Becomes more aware of the
		encourage for student-	importance of interesting
		centered communicative	material development in
		approaches	consideration of student
		Perceives the supportive	motivation to develop
		teacher role as important to	communicative teaching of
		involve students in	speaking in Korea
		communicative interaction	
		Uses animations in the	
		activity book to increase	
		student motivation in	
		speaking practice	
		Uses films occasionally	
		after class for	
		pronunciation practice and	
		as authentic input for	
		spoken English	
		Tries to integrate spoken	
		and written skills in the	
		textbook	
TEE	Views TEE policy	Faces difficulties in TEE	Recognizes difficulties of TEE
	positively	due to the students' low	in the low level class
		level and also little	
	Feels pressure about TEE	confidence in teaching in	Regrets no use of TEE during
	due to lack of confidence in	English	the practicum due to lack of
	oral proficiency		oral proficiency to teach in
		Uses the mother tongue as a medium of instruction	English
		except stating expressions	
		in the textbook or giving	
		short praise to students'	
		answers	
Theory and	Acknowledges applying	Experiences difficulties in	Identifies a great difference
practice	theory to practice as	applying theory to practice	or a great gap between theory
	important regarding	with the lack of practical	and practice of teaching
	teaching speaking	skills for teaching speaking	speaking

		Tries to develop strategies to apply theory to practice through student-centered communicative approaches	Realizes the importance of adjusting theory to student level and classroom context appropriately for success in teaching speaking in Korea
Student level and motivation	Prioritizes developing communicative or interactive skills with students during the practicum but feels uncertain about how	Faces challenges in developing communicative strategies by the level gap in the low level class and students' low level and poor motivation Tries to provide less able students with individual support after class to reduce the level gap Increases student motivation and develops interactive relationships with students through jokes and chats	Perceives the level gap between the students in the low level class as making it very difficult to teach speaking or adjust the focus of the lesson Becomes more aware of the importance of developing good relationships with students by active communication and interaction with students Perceives integrative teaching of the textbook as effective to increase student motivation or concentration
Classroom context	Predicts difficulties in relation to individual support in the large classroom	Encounters difficulties in classroom control during speaking practice with off- task students due to the level gap within the low level class	Becomes more aware of the challenges of classroom management and individual support in low level class

4.4. Summary

Features of Practice

As summarised in the above table, Jinsung's practice seems to have been very constrained during the practicum. He was unable to employ classroom English as well as communicative activities and this was opposed to what he expected before the practicum since he was willing to implement curriculum policy even though he was not confident in terms of TEE or CLT. His teaching practice was mainly based on traditional methods of grammar translations

according to his consideration of the low level students' understanding. Since he taught low level classes during the practicum, he often asked the students to translate the meaning of vocabulary or grammar structure into Korean or English. However, he developed elicitation strategies using questions and nomination as well as student-centered communicative approaches using praise or jokes and eventually he succeeded in increasing the low level students' participation in speaking. He adopted frequent short questions to guide the students' answers and used personal examples to extend the students' answers even though most answers from the students were based on short words or sentences in the textbook. He also developed his own communicative approach by integrating the teaching of written and spoken English and teaching speaking and listening integrally. Though he intended to adopt a communicative approach, most practices of speaking were conducted through chorus reading aloud of the model dialogue in the textbook in pairs and groups or as a whole class.

Influences on Practice

The challenges to his practice of teaching speaking during the practicum seemed to be attributed to the contextual constraints such as the student level, the influence of the mentor, and the school system as well as his own lack of practical skills for TEE and CLT. The main difficulty in teaching speaking was related to the low level of the students particularly the mixed proficiency of the students in the low level class. The majority of the low ability naughty students made classroom management difficult. In addition to the low level of the students, his own lack of oral proficiency also prevented him from employing TEE. His mentor also had a great influence on his teaching style. The mentor's textbook-based grammar-focused teaching in Korean seemed to hinder his CLT and TEE practice, while the mentor's close student relationship stimulated his student-centered approach. Moreover, the school exam seemed to be a major constraint to his communicative approach with a shortage of time to teach speaking. He found it hard to raise elicitation and motivation for speaking from the students, particularly under the textbook-based exam-centered school system. Under the time pressure from his mentor to cover the textbook for the exam, he also felt ambiguity in adjusting his communicative approach. However, contextual constraints seemed to some extent to stimulate him to develop his own communicative approach. That is, he seemed to try to cope with the low level class and the proficiency gap amongst the students by modifying his own elicitation and interaction strategies. Though there was no support from teacher training during the practicum, there seemed to be some evidence of a positive influence of teacher training on developing his elicitation strategies. That is, he seemed to apply elicitation techniques acquired from teacher training to the low level class while struggling to overcome the challenges. Though he intended to balance his communicative approach by covering the textbook, the school exam eventually constrained his practice of CLT and also influenced his opportunity to teach during the practicum to be very limited.

Changes in Cognition and Practice

Jinsung's views and practices of teaching speaking were compared before, during, and after the practicum. Before the practicum Jinsung was interested in teaching speaking to develop students' confidence and autonomy in speaking though he was reluctant to employ TEE due to his lack of oral proficiency. His initial views of teaching speaking seemed to be consistent with his practice during the practicum to some extent by developing student-centered communicative approaches as well as elicitation and interaction strategies to overcome the students' reticence in the low level class. He seemed to enhance his awareness of teaching speaking in relation to the low level students, and increase his understanding of the teacher role in supporting classroom interaction by guiding off-task students and offering individual support. After the practicum, he seemed to have more practical and realistic views of teaching speaking than before in relation to the student level or contextual factors. However, he recognized the great gap between theory and practice of CLT in the school context and his views of TEE also became very negative especially regarding the difficulty of TEE in the low level class. Though his views on the effect of CLT were still positive he felt ambiguity in terms of the feasibility of CLT under the exam-centered school system. The practicum seems to have helped him to have more contextualized views on teaching speaking in the secondary school in Korea, for example, as regards the importance of developing communicative methodologies and materials appropriate to the school context, and also to identify the areas to further personal and professional development. His naive assumptions of CLT and TEE before the practicum seem to have been modified in relation to the student level and the exam system but his overall understanding of teaching speaking did not seem to have developed very much due to his limited chance to teach during the practicum.

Chapter 5. Findings (2): Case 2 – Eunhae in Teacher College B

5.1. Overview

This chapter presents the second case, the teacher trainee Eunhae who is from Teacher College B. Eunhae's practicum was held in May. Background information for teacher training in Teacher College B and the practicum school is presented first and then the findings on Eunhae's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking before, during, and after the practicum are discussed.

5.2. Teacher Training

Teacher College B is also a public sector teacher training institution, located in Seoul. There have also been many changes in the teacher training curriculum at the teacher college in recent years with a focus on teaching practice and spoken English in line with the government policy, and the trainees were given intensive training on microteaching and speaking with the courses running in English during the whole four years.

Teacher College B ran the practicum between April and May. The trainees were required to undertake a four week practicum either in April or in May, with half of the trainees sent to a few local secondary schools in April and the rest in May, and they were usually allocated to lower secondary schools around the teacher college, but some trainees took the practicum in their old secondary schools.

Teacher College B provided practical courses on the teaching of the four language skills in the third and fourth years. Trainer B1's course on teaching listening aimed to train the trainees in Year 4 in teaching listening skills, based on microteaching and reflection, and Trainer B2's course on teaching speaking aimed to train the trainees in Year 3 in teaching speaking skills, based on discussion and reflection. The trainers' views on their courses are briefly discussed in this section.

Trainer B1 designed his course to prepare the trainees for the teacher appointment exam:

To prepare for the teacher appointment exam, it is crucial for them to actually teach during teacher training... Yes, we focus on providing as much practical training as possible during the courses in order for them to be ready to teach in the classroom when they are in the schools...

He stressed the link between teacher training and the practicum, and valued highly the crucial role of the practicum for the trainees' learning of essential teaching skills in context:

They should be ready to become a teacher not only in oral proficiency but also in their attitudes to the students. For example, when teaching listening, they should understand how they can communicate effectively with the students to involve them in listening activities, and how to build up cooperative relationships with them... they need to learn all of these during the practicum... their personal preparations and efforts are also very important...

He was also in charge of the teaching methodology course taught during the third year, and again microteaching and reflection were central to the course to prepare for the practicum, with support from peer feedback and trainer feedback, as well as reflective writing on video-recorded microteaching. He believed that practical courses should play key roles in initial teacher training:

There are courses on basic theories of teaching methodologies between Year 2 and Year 3, while intensive training on teaching skills is provided during Year 4, according to each teaching skill... [...] In our department, courses are more based on presentations than lectures. As this is a teacher college, we try to provide trainees with more teaching opportunities, so from the first year, step by step, systematically and appropriately to their stage, we encourage them actually to teach. The more they teach, of course, the better they will be prepared and improve their teaching skills.

He also stressed the intensive training on spoken English in the teacher college provided by running all the courses in English. Regarding the government policy on teaching speaking, his views were very positive, particularly commenting on the trainees' good oral proficiency:

From my point of view, our education has changed very much now. In the lower secondary schools, there are many speaking lessons, and up to the first year in the upper secondary schools, there are no problems with teaching speaking lessons. In fact, English teachers' oral proficiency has also improved. We have 40 trainees in our department, and nowadays almost half of them are coming very well prepared for their oral proficiency. Of course, when they are to graduate, they are highly proficient and have no problem with teaching in English. I think many of them seem to have experienced studying English abroad during their teacher training or during their childhood.

The teaching listening course was briefly observed during the trainees' microteaching. As Trainer B1 explained, the course was based on each trainee's microteaching of listening and feedback as shown below:

Microteaching on Listening in Trainer B1's Teaching Listening Course (Trainee 1's Microteaching)

Trainee 1: (Play the tape) There is a lot of...[...].
Trainee 1: Did you all understand her story, and what she is describing?
Trainee 1: OK. Look at the next screen. You will see a woman, very well dressed.
Trainee 1: Could you tell me what she is wearing?
Trainees: Dress, Scarf, Hat...
Trainee 1: Yes, she is wearing a long dress. She also has a lovely hat and a scarf.
Trainee 1: Is she wearing anything else?
Trainee 2: 'Glasses.'
Trainees: (Laugh)
Trainee 1: Yes, that 's right. She is also wearing glasses.
[...]
Trainer B1: OK. Today we run out of time so we will have a feedback session next time.
We can finish our course now. Please do not forget to write down your written feedback and give them to her, thank you.

Trainees: (Write down feedback and hand it over to trainee 1)

The teacher listening course was observed as it was one of the courses which provide training on teaching spoken language skills. As both the teaching speaking course and the teaching methodology course were taught in the third year, they were not observed during the fieldwork, and therefore the teaching listening course was considered to be the most suitable to observe how the teaching of spoken language skills is instructed. Moreover, the teaching listening course was appropriate to observe how practical training in microteaching is provided in the teacher college as it was one of the practical teaching skill courses which are designed to instruct the four language skills to the trainees either in the third or fourth year through intensive microteaching. As the course was observed briefly, only one trainee's microteaching was observed. However, I was able to note that the course was run in English and that after the trainee's microteaching, peer feedback was encouraged by the trainer. The trainees gave their written comments individually to the trainee. The observation was helpful to get an idea of how microteaching was conducted for the fourth year trainees at the teacher college.

5.2.2 Trainer B2's Perspectives on the Teaching Speaking Course

Trainer B2 as a native speaker of English had worked for the teacher college for over 10 years. He indicated many changes in the teacher training curriculum in recent years to focus more on spoken skills including the teaching speaking course and commented on the high level of departmental support for the trainees' oral proficiency development by running the courses in English and providing exchange programs for studying English abroad. Trainer B2's course aimed to raise the trainees' awareness of the socio-cultural aspects of speaking. He explained further his focus on the factors inhibiting speaking in relation to the traditional culture in Korea:

For example, I can ask, and you have your opinion in the UK and in Canada, but not here, because of the culture, this is a learning model here... [...] Because I'd like to look at what factors are inhibiting people from speaking first and what those variables might be... [...] What are the variables that prevent people from speaking and communicating effectively? So that's why I introduced Brown's book, to talk about the psychological factors and affective factors standing in the way... the inhibiting factors, that make speaking difficult... that is a big, um, one of the learning models here typically in Korean culture...

He perceived the traditional Korean culture as the main barrier to developing speaking in Korea, and this was closely linked to his course aims. Apart from the cultural constraints, he also indicated the challenges in classroom management due to large class sizes, and the difficulties caused by variations in student level and motivation. He also criticized the exambased hierarchical social structure in Korea with a lack of individual support for learning to speak according to level:

In my previous institution, for example, there was a class called a Harvard class, highly proficient students. And the B level class was like that, some were proficient, and some had no idea, and the third level, they didn't care. So in that institution, they were called A, B, or C level, that's okay. But in another school, the Harvard class was a top class, and, and, the low level, they didn't even have a name. You know, they call them a Harvard class, that's a great school in America, what a litigious attitude, but the third level, they don't even have a name. How Korean society is so stereotyped. [...] So in my opinion, they are creating this mindset for these young children, very narrow views, if you are in a Harvard class, you are great, the best of the best, but if you go down here, you don't even get a name. How the Korean society is helping the young children to learn to speak? As he viewed English textbooks in secondary schools as non-authentic, he adopted English conversation books in his course to evaluate and draw implications for teaching speaking and communicative lessons. His course, like the listening course, encouraged reflective writing during the practicum to gain insight into teaching speaking in line with the emphasis on CLT by the Ministry of Education. He explained his intention for this:

But the trainees' critiques are going to be in their classroom, focusing on CLT, um, and of course, contents, materials, every aspect of the class that they can examine. [...] I ask them to reflect on that, addressing teaching speaking because we keep talking about CLT, um, here our ministry of education says that we need this approach to ask our students to speak, speak, but maybe not occurring in the classroom. [...] Because of the focus by the ministry of education, these days, the focus in English teacher education is communicative teaching, so I am interested in whether the student teachers are able to do that, and of course contents and materials... are those principles in place in a sense so effectively? Why, why not?

The teacher training programs seemed to support Eunhae to be well prepared for her practicum through the courses which used English and emphasized practice and reflection as much as theoretical input.

5.3. Teacher Trainee – Eunhae

Eunhae was aged 24 years and enrolled in the English education department in Year 4 in Teacher College B. As the preliminary questionnaire showed, she took a gap year to study English in Canada during teacher training, and apart from a little private teaching she did not have previous classroom teaching experience. Eunhae's practicum took place in her old school, Secondary School B, which was a lower secondary school that allowed only those who graduated from their school to come and take the practicum.

Eunhae's views on teaching speaking are discussed below regarding her interviews before, during, and after the practicum, and with a reflection on the observations of her lessons during the practicum. The head teacher's perspectives on the practicum and the mentor's perspectives on teaching speaking are also discussed.

5.3.1 Eunhae's School Teachers' Perspectives on the Practicum and Teaching Speaking

5.3.1.1Eunhae's Head Teacher's Perspectives on the Practicum

Eunhae's head teacher viewed the role of the practicum as a way to build up the teacher aptitude for a teaching career by gaining practical experience rather than acquiring new knowledge about teaching. He had very conservative views on initial teaching practice as he perceived the role of the practicum mainly in relation to the trainee's personal or attitudinal development:

From my point of view, during the practicum, this period will be better spent for them to re-think their thoughts and aptitudes for their teaching career while looking at and experiencing the experienced teachers' practical work, rather than learning something or gaining knowledge about teaching...

Though he acknowledged the value of learning by practice in context, he perceived the practicum period to be insufficient to develop practical knowledge, but only appropriate to explore the school system or the teacher identity:

Even though the practicum period may be slightly extended, I'm not sure whether this will make a very much difference. From the perspective of giving opportunities to teach, this will depend on each school. Of course, I value the role of the practicum, because learning by theory is different from learning by teaching in the school... and with regard to school regulations or assessment systems, schools also go through on-going changes and therefore novice teachers need to know them too... but from my point of view, they had better think about their attitudes and perspectives as a teacher during this period and gaining knowledge, I think this is too ambitious a goal...

He also commented on the value of the cooperating school system recently introduced by the education board in each city as a way to support the trainees and the schools during the practicum. The cooperating school system was introduced for the effective running of the practicum. To improve its quality, the education board in each city appointed a few secondary schools to play the role of cooperating schools and provide trainees with effective training and support. He believed that the trainees could benefit more by working with cooperating schools in that as the school system is centered on the exam preparation, the trainees' teaching practice is usually constrained. However, his attitudes to the trainee's teaching practice were very flexible, allowing her to explore new teaching methodology:

The practicum is short, but this can be an opportunity for existing teachers to learn new teaching methodologies from the trainee, so in this respect, I am happy to encourage her to try out new styles of lessons as much as she would like to do, though I think she will not have many opportunities to do so...

He viewed her implementation of communicative methodology positively as a way to contribute to the school. Though he indicated the limitation in the extent to which she could implement her own practice due to the school exam, his account seemed to show his positive perspective of transferring teacher training to the school context during the practicum.

5.3.1.2 Eunhae's Mentor's Perspectives on Teaching Speaking

As an experienced English teacher who had taught English for over 20 years, Eunhae's mentor explained her critical views on speaking policy on the basis of her recent in-service teacher training by the Ministry of Education, which she attended as a representative of the local province. During the program, however, she felt that there was little training on practice and also noticed the gap between theory and practice under the school exam system:

There was an announcement by the Ministry of Education about the emphasis on the teaching of practical English this year. That is, practical English was addressed this year, and this refers to the policy to focus on communicative ability, so there was an intensive in-service teacher training organized by the Ministry of Education. [...] Most teachers' impressions of the in-service program were, what we really need to learn here is how to make use of these theories effectively for our learners, so there was a lack of practical guidance in this respect... Moreover, there is a gap in terms of the exam system... as we assess students by written exams, the emphasis on spoken English doesn't make sense actually...

She indicated further the gap between policy and reality as the university entrance exam was based on written skills. However, she viewed speaking policy as valuable, equipping Korean teachers to teach speaking as well as enhancing students' speaking, though she also indicated the difficulty caused by the number of English lessons:

Of course, we need to endeavor to teach practical English more intentionally than before... but we don't actually have many English lessons per week, and especially from this year, the ministry of education encourages us to have the native teacher's speaking lesson once a week to intensify practical English, therefore except this lesson, we have only two lessons for Year 1 and Year 2, and three lessons for Year 3, which are not enough even to cover reading and grammar...

She also indicated the difficulty of teaching speaking particularly for the low level under the level-based curriculum, and again highlighted the difficulty of TEE with less proficient students, while her priority was involving every student in speaking:

For me, every student is important, and I always try to involve as many as possible in any activity, as I can't tolerate students who don't pay attention to my lesson, but when I teach in English, many of them don't understand. In the native teacher's lesson, I know their understanding is so poor, as they often look

at me desperately asking for help for their salvation... they need to understand the instruction so as to move to the next. So from my point of view, TEE is important but it is more important to enable less proficient students to follow...

She employed TEE in the high level class but used only basic classroom English in the low level class. In addition to her enthusiastic attitudes when teaching speaking, she highly encouraged student motivation for more participation in speaking practice. Her main strategies for student motivation and participation were individual nomination or peer competitions using a stimulus in the large mixed-level classroom. She often implemented speaking practice integrally during the teaching of other skills using various activities and devising visual materials. She valued the practicum as an essential part of initial teacher training, and her views on her role as a mentor were also very practical and supportive of Eunhae in terms of applying teacher training to the classroom context:

My role is to support her while she is doing her own lesson. I may comment on the positives or negatives of her teaching after class... Well, of course, I really think positively about her effort to employ her own ways of communicative teaching as I can also learn new teaching methodologies from her. She may also use my technique but the main purpose of the practicum is to apply what she learned from teacher training to her practice in context.

Eunhae's practicum seems to have been flexible and supported by her head teacher and her teaching practice seems also to have been very supported by her mentor.

5.3.2 Eunhae's Beliefs and Perspectives on Teaching Speaking before the Practicum

Eunhae's initial views on teaching speaking are discussed based on her experiences of schooling and teacher training, and her perspectives on curriculum policy and the practicum.

Learning Speaking from School Education

While her experience of learning speaking during the high school was mainly centered on memorizing dialogues to prepare for the performance test without any real practice of speaking, she used to do communicative activities in middle school. She looked back on her English teacher in middle school:

Her style was very active even from my old memory... She used to use picture cards and asked us to explain them with one another, and I still remember we did quite a lot of such activities during her lessons... (Laugh)

She had also been exposed to a natural English-speaking environment during her childhood by visiting her nephews in Canada, and her early childhood learning of speaking abroad seems to have influenced her personal interest in developing oral proficiency:

In my childhood, once I visited my aunt's house in Canada, and my nephews grew up there... I think, in fact, why my views of English learning have been changed may be due to this reason... at that time I had this thought in mind that I don't know grammar and vocabulary so I can't speak... but when I went there again during my teacher training I thought that English learning should be based on communication...

Again she gained a further chance to learn spoken English abroad during the gap year at the teacher college, and she explained how this experience shaped her views on learning English for communicative purposes with her perspectives changed towards learning speaking communicatively.

Teacher Training on Teaching Speaking

Eunhae also viewed her teacher training on spoken English positively. She explained that there were new changes in the English curriculum at the university and that intensive spoken English training started to be provided in a newly built English language center. She commented on the excellent English learning environment and approaches for the English language courses, and this recent change seems to have taken place in accordance with the government policy and emphasis on spoken English. In addition to the change in the English language courses, she also commented on a great emphasis on the use of spoken English in the department by running training courses only in English in line with TEE policy. She found training courses very helpful in developing her oral proficiency and expressed her confidence in speaking in English:

In this term, I take courses on teaching speaking, teaching reading, teaching writing, and teaching listening... all the courses are taught in English. So after one semester is finished, we all say that speaking and writing in English are more comfortable than using Korean, because we write essays in English, doing presentations and discussions in English all the time... [...] Therefore it is no problem for us to be able to communicate freely in English without any difficulty after the four-year teacher training here...

Regarding training on speaking, she also felt that speaking courses were very helpful and provided her with a lot of chances to practise speaking. She perceived teacher confidence in oral proficiency as crucial to be able to support students' speaking practice. She viewed the teaching methodology course on teaching speaking very positively since it raised her awareness of teaching speaking particularly about elicitation. She felt that to acquire teaching skills for speaking, in particular, elicitation was quite different from learning speaking skills:

What I've been feeling all the time during the teaching speaking course is the fact that how I can speak and how I can make the students speak are very different... [...] Actually, during the course, I keep thinking about how I can let my students speak but I can't make any sense yet...

She valued the teaching speaking course for increasing her understanding of teaching speaking by exploring theories of learner characteristics and trying to demonstrate ways of adopting speaking approaches to reflect learner styles. However, she was concerned about the difficulty of teaching speaking in the real classroom:

We discussed learners' individual characteristics or features of speaking to understand appropriate approaches to each type of learner, rather than techniques about teaching speaking. [...] So we are learning about approaches to teaching speaking based on theory, and I think this is good, but why I raised an issue regarding the need to learn how to teach is... I'm personally confident in teaching speaking in supplementary classes after school. I can make many communicative activities to make students keep speaking, or guide them individually with extra support in small classes, but in the real classroom situation where we have to teach using the textbook, it is going to be very difficult to apply all these theories to the speaking section in the textbook...

She showed her awareness of the importance of more practical training on how to teach speaking in the real classroom. She was particularly interested in learning more about the strategy for elicitation, perceiving a dilemma or a gap between theory and practice of teaching speaking in the EFL context where English is not officially spoken:

I hope we have a chance to learn more about the ways to elicit students' speech... as there is a dilemma in a sense... um, I think especially skills like speaking are more practical and productive skills, so there is a greater gap between theory and practice... because our students don't have any chance to speak English anywhere outside the classroom...

She felt that there had been many changes in the teacher college curriculum in recent years as the teacher college assessment was intensified including the assessment of microteaching. She valued the impact of the teacher college assessment on enhancing the quality of teacher training particularly on spoken English. She also explained that most courses in the department or from the education department were based on microteaching, which she found very useful in practising lesson plans or communicative activities with peer learning of teaching skills. She found microteaching during the teaching listening course very practical and reflective, and also commented on the effect of the literature course on broadening her idea of drama-based teaching speaking. The curriculum design course also gave her positive views about speaking lessons in secondary schools by engaging in the real school context. She explained how she designed a speaking lesson after surveying teachers and students there:

During the curriculum design course, I made an extra-curriculum course in relation to teaching speaking. My aim was to teach speaking to low level students... As I said before, my main theme was to set a kind of situation to speak, and as students' oral proficiency is poor, I used the same vocabulary and expressions in the textbook, so that they can actually speak by using the textbook. I also brought dolls and pictures to help my students explain the situation, and provided separate cards with vocabulary and expressions so that they can use them during speaking practice...

Though she indicated the pressure caused by microteaching-centered courses as they usually required a lot of time for preparation, she perceived practical training positively in applying theory to practice and in changing her attitudes to teacher learning as well as the trainers' and the trainees'.

Teaching Speaking in relation to Curriculum Policy

In relation to curriculum policy, her overall views on the emphasis on the teaching of speaking were very positive. However, she indicated peer pressure as one factor that constrains the extent to which students speak English in the classroom:

From my point of view, what is really problematic when speaking English in the classroom is... especially for speaking practice, most proficient students are also even reluctant to speak English because their oral proficiency is noticeable to their peers... so they worry that their friends may be jealous of them...

She also indicated the methodological gap between the city and the countryside as another barrier in developing spoken English:

So there is also a big local gap in teaching speaking... I'm taking my practicum in my old school in the small city, so I'm quite concerned about how I can make them speak, those who have little experience of speaking as compared to the students in the large city... (Laugh) [...] However, we can't ignore theory, saying that theory is useless in rural schools, so let's learn what is only useful in the real context...

Looking back on her memory of private teaching, she felt that the difficulty with elicitation would be caused by the difference in each student's ability and motivation for speaking:

From my experience of teaching my sister, I felt I could help students to speak, as far as they make an effort to speak, but the problem in the real classroom is... there are always students who don't even try it out but give up speaking from the beginning... so what to say... I mean there will be a greater gap in terms of their ability, their attitude or their desire to try out speaking... so these things make me really think a lot about how to teach speaking during the practicum in many respects...

She was concerned about the extent to which elicitation theory could be put into practice in her school in the rural context. She commented earlier that the teaching speaking course helped to enhance her awareness of elicitation in connection with learner styles and to plan how to teach speaking during the practicum. However, she seemed to perceive the theory of how to implement elicitation mainly in relation to what she had learned from the lecture and the textbook, and therefore her understanding was rather limited in terms of the practical application of theory. In this sense, what she learned through the teacher training course can be viewed as rather slightly misleading by reflecting only ideal principles acquired from the coursebook during the lecture, which is not directly related to the variety and complexity of real classroom situations. Therefore, her worries about how to put the theory of elicitation into her classroom in her old school in the countryside seemed partly to be driven by her misconceptions of the CLT approach during her course or her misunderstanding of the nature of theory in relation to elicitation due to having only gained theoretical learning of CLT without real practice in the classroom context during the teacher training course. However, from her good awareness of the education policy and school context, her expectation about the practicum seemed to be generally positive.

Expectations for Teaching Speaking before the Practicum

She continued to express her practical views on the practicum. She explained how her perspective of the practicum was shifted during the courses towards actively applying theory into practice in context:

My image of the practicum was... when I first thought about the practicum during my first year... frankly speaking, just to go and teach, or going to teach simply for experience, something like that, but my current view on the practicum is, it is an opportunity to apply what I know and what I have been learning during teacher training until now, so my thoughts have really changed [...]. I'm going to take the practicum with an intention of testing how things work, what things work well in the real context when I apply theory to practice... (Laugh)

Having gained useful information on CLT in secondary schools through carrying out a survey of teachers and students in one of the secondary schools during the coursework, her expectation of teaching speaking for the practicum was very positive, and she preferred speaking-centered lessons through communicative activities:

During the practicum, I will be interested in teaching speaking. I would like to teach speaking-centered lessons even by making an extra class at least once. [...] If I can design any extra class based on speaking,

I will try anyway to help the students to be able to actually speak through various activities, no matter whether their grammar is correct or not, and I will try to make communication-centered or meaning-focused speaking lessons. I'd really love to teach such lessons...

She was also very interested in creating a classroom situation which can encourage speaking practice or English use:

In order to teach speaking according to the 7th national curriculum, what I would really like to do is, um, I would completely change the environment, um, what I mean by this is, well, in the last term, we submitted a curriculum, and I designed a speaking lesson... [...] So by creating such a situation, I would let students actually speak in the classroom anyway...

Her desire to create a completely different classroom environment seemed, however, to sound over-ambitious and this seemed to show her naive or ideal view of the teaching of speaking as a novice teacher of English who had no real classroom teaching experience. Regarding TEE, she preferred to teach her lessons only in English or using as much English as possible though she felt rather ambiguous about judging the level of students' understanding and making a balance between English and Korean:

During the lessons, up to 80 or 90 percent, of course, we have to teach only in English... [...] Nowadays new teachers have higher oral proficiency to teach in English only so as long as students can understand, there is no problem with TEE. But the problem with me is, what I realized is, when I am conscious about speaking in English, I don't speak Korean at all even when I need to, and if I decide to use Korean, then I seldom use any English, so I think it is not easy to find the middle point, to make a balance...

This again seemed to indicate her limited practical knowledge of TEE before the practicum as a novice English teacher. Overall, her expectation of the practicum was very positive.

5.3.3 Eunhae's Views and Practices of Teaching Speaking during the Practicum

Eunhae's views and practices of teaching speaking will be discussed here by looking at her experiences during the observation week, the initial teaching week, and the final teaching week, with a reflection on her lessons. According to each stage of the practicum, key themes were derived from the interviews.

5.3.3.1 Classroom Observation

During the first week of the practicum, Eunhae observed her mentor's and other teachers' English lessons. Eunhae's views of teaching speaking during the observation week are discussed below.

Classroom Practice about CLT and TEE

During the observation week, Eunhae observed classroom practice of her school English teachers including her mentor and found limited CLT practice. Though most teachers were using their own PowerPoint materials in addition to the textbook CD, CLT was hardly implemented as teachers were busy covering the textbook:

When I observed the classroom, because students did not understand English very well, teachers had to use Korean a lot in the end. However, if we speak very slowly and little by little, it is still possible to teach only in English even those who are less proficient in English... but most of all, what I noticed was, teachers were too busy covering the textbook... so, as a result, they were not able to make much use of CLT or communicative activities in the classroom...

There was also a barrier to TEE due to the students' low level generally, especially due to the mixed level in the large classroom, which was not streamed yet. She was also disappointed by seeing after-school classes that were mainly centered on reading and writing. There was a special course for the annual speaking contest, but it was again centered on written skills rather than spoken skills. However, while observing the native English teacher's speaking lessons, she was very impressed by active student participation, which was beyond her expectation, but was again surprised by the great variations in the students' ability and motivation:

I saw a big proficiency gap between the students... why I was very surprised during observing lessons today was, while some students in the first year could say only 'I'm sorry,' some students were fluently speaking as if they were high school students. So it seems very difficult to adjust English to the students' different levels in the classroom... and with regard to the third year students, some students worked very hard, but some students were very passive and naughty, and not going to try to do anything, and they looked as if they were telling the teacher, I gave up because of my inability to follow on...

Though feeling anxious about the students' proficiency difference, she also commented on students' competitive characteristics and interests in visual materials during the native English teacher's speaking lessons, and this seemed to some extent to stimulate her desire for teaching speaking.

Teaching Speaking in School Context

Having commented on her impression of how her school English teachers' classroom practice was, that is, the general pedagogical approach used in her particular school context in relation to CLT and TEE, she now expressed her concerns more specifically regarding how to teach the speaking section in the textbook. However, regarding teaching speaking, she perceived

the textbook-based grammar focus and lack of time as a major constraint. She also felt tension when thinking about how to teach speaking in the large classroom:

Well, if I can express my real feeling, um, it's a bit sad to see that the real context was very different from what I thought before... I observed one big classroom in the first year, and there were 41 students, so in this case, it's impossible to elicit every student during the lesson, maybe up to 5 students at most... so if I can let 5 students talk in each lesson, then I have to teach that class at least 8 times to make all the students speak at least once, and it takes three weeks. So when I think about the class size or other practical matters, it's going to be, very, very, difficult to teach speaking-centered communicative lessons which I want to do, and I also have to cover the textbook at the same time...

From the above extract, it is noted that her idea of CLT was mainly related to making each student speak individually, and this must have given her much pressure. Her idea of and approach to CLT seemed, however, to be based on misconceptions caused by her naive perception of the CLT principle. While the contextual reality did not match with her expectation of teaching speaking, she tried to adjust her plan but kept her initial focus on student participation in speaking:

I'd like to teach speaking and communicative lessons, but in reality, I might not be able to teach my lessons completely like CLT, so from my point of view, it is really important to get students to participate in any activity for the sake of speaking practice, so I'm going to plan, at least, such an activity during my lessons...

Her perceptions of the textbook focus, the student level, and motivation gap, and the time constraint on teaching speaking seem to have influenced her to adjust her communicative approach to the classroom and school context.

5.3.3.2 Eunhae's Practices of Teaching Speaking

Eunhae taught 3 or 4 lessons per day for three weeks with a unit in the textbook assigned to teach during the practicum. During the two lessons that I observed, she taught listening and speaking sections in the textbook (see Appendix 22), playing the textbook CD and using her own PowerPoint materials (see Appendix 23). She usually taught speaking as integrated with listening as speaking was mainly taught by the native teacher. The observations took place in the two mixed ability classes in Year 3, which consisted of 34 students in class 5 and 36 students in class 7, all of whom were mixed with boys and girls. The discussion below is based on a reflection on her practices of teaching speaking in terms of her use of Classroom English, her elicitation and participation strategy, and her approach to oral practice or speaking activities.

Classroom English

During her lessons, I noted that Eunhae taught her lessons mostly in Korean, except when she was quoting the textbook, or occasionally when she responded to students' answers but only in short and simple English as shown below in the extract in class 7:

Eunhae: (Write on the board) <i>Running short of water</i> , this picture is about <i>running short of water</i> .			
If you look at the picture carefully, you will see that the basket is very dry, and so is the ground,			
like drought. So we use 'running short of' to describe something which is not enough.			
Eunhae: So when we say, as you know we often lack something, what is that?			
Student 2: Money.			
Students: (Laugh)			
Eunhae: So if your friend asks you about what kind of presents you are going to buy for his birthday,			
what can you say?			
Student 2: Running short of money.			
Students: (Laugh)			
Eunhae: Yes, very good.			
Eunhae: (Write on the board) <i>I'm running short of money,</i> we can say so when we don't have enough			
money.			
Eunhae: So let's read the third one altogether.			
Students: Replacing the machines.			
Eunhae: <i>Speak loudly</i> .			
Students: (Shout) Replacing the machines.			

This was opposed to her initial plan but her limited use of TEE seemed to reflect her consideration of the mixed level of the students in the traditional non-streamed classroom.

Elicitation and Participation

Her main elicitation strategy was a nomination. She also used frequent questions and further examples to elicit students' answers as a whole class during a kind of warming-up activity before the main lessons. That is, during this activity, she elicited students' answers occasionally in English using pictures though it was a word or a short phrase based on the textbook as shown below in class 5:

Eunhae: We can simply say that I don't have enough money, how can you say this in English?
Students: *Running short of money*.
Eunhae: So '*running short of*' means, something is not enough.
Eunhae: So look at this picture. Water isn't enough here, so how can you say in this situation?
Students: *Running short of water*.

Eunhae: OK. Then when we found that we don't have enough money, how can we say?

Students: Running short of money.

Eunhae: (Write on the board) Yes. Running short of money.

After the above activity, she asked the students to copy what she wrote on the blackboard in their notebooks. She often used the blackboard to make the students write down vocabulary or key expressions after reading them aloud. Though note-taking was a traditional way of learning by GTM, I could note that she often used this after speaking practice. What I also found interesting about her practice was her specific strategy of using a stimulus. She seemed to use a candy as a stimulus in order to increase student participation in speaking practice. She always gave candies to those who participated in speaking activities, and this seemed to continuously increase active student participation. She also counted a number during speaking activities and this seemed to be intended to raise a competitive atmosphere. Her competition strategy for student participation is shown below in class 5:

Extract 20. Participation - Competition

Eunhae: OK. So let's do speaking practice with the next dialogue. One, two, three.
Students: (Put hands up)
Eunhae: Who was the first?
Student 4: Dongsu.
Eunhae: Yes. You were the fastest. Everyone was really fast, I was very impressed by your speed. (Laugh)
Eunhae: This time, I will give a chance to speak to those who haven't received any candy yet.
Eunhae: This time, I will give a chance to speak to those who haven't received any candy yet. One, two, three.
One, two, three.

As shown above, she seemed also to provide teacher intervention and support for those who were less proficient. By controlling student participation, she seemed to make less proficient students participate in speaking practice and this seemed to reflect her initial belief in CLT by involving every student in speaking practice.

Oral Practice

In her lessons, however, most practices of speaking were carried out by chorus reading aloud. She often employed chorus reading aloud after listening either as a whole class or by nominating individual students and this kind of practice seemed to be considered as oral practice, not communicative practice. For example, after listening, she seemed to try to elicit students' natural speech by questioning at first, but without success, chorus reading followed immediately, and this was simply based on reading orally the key expressions related to listening as shown below in class 5:

Extract 21. Oral Practice - Chorus Reading

Eunhae: OK. We finished vocabulary so we have to do the listening text.			
Look at the first one. What does the water container look like?			
Students: (Silence)			
Eunhae: OK. Let's read aloud the expressions next to the picture.			
Students: Running short of water.			
Eunhae: So what is not enough here?			
Students: Water.			
Eunhae: Yes. We don't have much water here. So we run short of water.			

During 'Lets' Talk' in the speaking section, again she employed chorus reading aloud and occasionally there was also a focus on pronunciation as shown below in class 7:

Extract 22. Oral Practice - Chorus Reading

Eunhae: Hey, everyone, let's read this page altogether. I'm so sad there were some people who never spoke. If you do speaking practice poorly in this way, I will not give you a candy anymore. *OK*?
Eunhae: So where is the bank?
Students: *Across from the restaurant*.
Eunhae: *OK*. Third one.

Students: Where is the payphone?
Eunhae: OK. Next one.
Students: Beside the restroom.
Eunhae: OK. Next page. Let's read this word altogether, 'Environment.'
Students: Environment.
Eunhae: OK. Please try to pronounce smoothly. Don't pronounce like 'an-vironment.' OK?
Eunhae: OK. Let's read it all together, 'Environment.'
Students: Environment.

As she mentioned in the above extract, she often used a candy as an incentive for speaking practice and though this seemed to stimulate competition amongst the students, it was not clear how she perceived this to be effective to enhance the learning of speaking or communicative practice amongst the students in the secondary school. Moreover, as shown above, oral practice produced in a controlled manner did not engage students in natural speech except mechanically repeating short speech by reading the textbook orally.

Speaking Activity

The types of speaking activity that I frequently noted during her lessons were a quiz game, and also a kind of warming-up or introductory activity as a whole class as well as dialogue practice through pair work. She employed a short quiz game very frequently during the teaching of the listening section. For example, she implemented a short quiz game after listening to the tape, after the comprehension check, and also before moving to the speaking section as shown below in class7:

Extract 23. Speaking Activity – Quiz Game

Eunhae: (Write on the board) Replace A with B
Eunhae: So what is the meaning of 'replace'?
Students: Replace.
Eunhae: Yes. So <i>replacing A with B</i> means replacing what?
Students: A.
Eunhae: Yes, <i>replacing A.</i> 'B' was adopted to replace 'A.'
Eunhae: So in the picture, there was what

Students: Dog, Balloon.

Eunhae: Yes, there was a dog and a balloon.

Eunhae: (Write on the board) OK. Now we can do a quiz. I'm going to ask you a question.

So please make any sentence using the phrase *replacing A with B*.

One, two, three.

Students: (Put hands up)

Eunhae: (Point out student 3) OK. You raised your hands faster than the others. So you can tell us.

Student 3: Replace dog with balloon.

Eunhae: Yes. Replacing a dog with a balloon.

Hey, everyone, please add 'a' to the noun, or it isn't grammatically correct, OK?

Students: Yes.

Eunhae: So in this picture, we are going to replace a dog with a balloon.

Students: (Laugh)

She always put a short quiz into a competition using a stimulus and students actively participated in the activity but as shown above, students usually spoke only simple words or expressions in English using the textbook, and then a direct error correction followed immediately. Another speaking activity was a kind of warming-up or introductory activity using pictures as shown below in class 7:

Extract 24. Oral Practice - Warming-Up Introductory Activity

```
Eunhae: The next one is 'Lets' Talk'. Before we go through 'Lets' Talk', let's look at the pictures first.
Eunhae: In the pictures, what kind of situation is this?
Students: Fire.
Eunhae: Yes, fire on the mountain. To say the fire on the mountain, we can say, fire breaks out.
Eunhae: We also say, the bomb explodes.
Eunhae: (Write on the board) What is the meaning of 'fail'?
Students: Fail.
```

She implemented this activity using pictures briefly before moving to the listening or speaking sections, but the purpose seemed mainly to introduce vocabulary as a whole class rather than eliciting speaking and though students answered occasionally in English, they usually translated vocabulary in Korean. The speaking section was practised only by pair work. Pair

work was based on the reading aloud of the dialogue in the textbook. In class 5, there was short pair work at the end of the lesson after teaching listening. In class 7, the lesson was centered more on teaching the speaking section, and there was extensive pair work. For example, a few students stood up and spoke the model dialogue in pairs, and the chorus reading aloud of the model dialogue followed as a whole class. After then, speaking practice continued by a number of volunteers who stood up and took turns in pairs using the examples of dialogue in the 'Let's Talk' section. There was once again pair work between the individual students as a whole class as she asked all the students in the classroom to practise the dialogue with their partners. However, this repeated dialogue practice seemed to be similar to mechanical drilling for rote learning in the sense that this practice did not engage the students in meaningful communicative practice or communicative interaction through the negotiation of meaning. The extract below in class 7 shows intensive and extended dialogue practice through pair work:

Extract 25. Speaking Activity – Pair Work

Eunhae: OK. All of you who put your hands up will stand up and practise this dialogue with your			
partner. So let's read the first one. Speak loudly so that everyone can listen to your voice.			
Student 7: Excuse me, could you tell me where the nearest bus stop is?			
Student 8: Sure, it is just one block away.			
Student 7: Thank you.			
Eunhae: OK. Next team.			
Student 9: Excuse me, could you tell me where the bank is?			
Student 10: Sure, it is across from the restaurant.			
Student 9: Thank you.			
[]			
Eunhae: OK. All of our teams finished speaking the dialogues.			
So now let's talk to each other. Everyone, talk with your partner in pairs. Let's practise once			
again. Um, practise the second example with your partner.			
Students: (Speak in pairs)			
Eunhae: OK. Have you all talked with your partner?			
OK. Let's move to the dialogue section on the next page. Open your book, everyone.			

After pair work, she moved to the dialogue section but this section was merely based on translating grammar and vocabulary in Korean and there was no speaking practice. Overall, speaking activities that were adopted in her lessons were merely producing oral practice and though they provided students with a chance to speak English in the classroom, they did not seem to encourage natural communicative interaction amongst the students.

5.3.3.3 Eunhae's Views of Teaching Speaking and Context Factors

In comparison to Eunhae's practices during her lessons, her beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking are discussed by looking at her account of her practices and also in relation to contextual factors that may have affected her views or practices. The discussion is based on the following themes which were mostly drawn from the observations and interviews before and during the practicum.

Classroom English

As shown in her lessons, she rarely used classroom English, and she commented on her limited use of English in relation to her early experience of teaching by TEE:

In fact, in the first lesson, I used English very much, and I almost taught only in English, but students looked like they felt so difficult to follow... 'What does she say?' 'What does it mean?' I could hear what they were saying to each other. So when they speak in English, usually in their English, they didn't have any accent, but when I spoke to them, in my English, there was an accent and also intonation, so even though they already knew the expressions that I spoke, they were not able to understand what I was saying. So after that, I used simple classroom English occasionally, and only the expressions in the textbook which are familiar to them and easy to them... Sometimes I also repeated the pronunciation once again to let them hear the right sound... I used classroom English such as 'listen to the dialogue' or 'let's practise' but then I had to translate the meaning again in Korean because some students didn't understand even that basic English so I think I'm very rarely using classroom English...

From the above extract, it seems obvious that her perception of the students' mixed level and their generally poor understanding of spoken English influenced her decision not to teach in English but to rely more on Korean. This was quite opposed to her initial expectation of TEE. After her first lesson, she must have adjusted her use of TEE to her mixed ability class which was not streamed yet, as her school was going through a transition with the level-based system with only first and second year classes streamed.

Elicitation and Participation Strategy

During her early teaching week, she also struggled with the difficulty of involving students in speaking practice due to their reticence, and this seems to have made her try hard to develop her own elicitation strategy:

They don't usually respond to me. The reason why they are participatory and talk in the classroom now is basically that I guided them to be able to respond to me. (Laugh) [...] Um, I often use a quiz to raise their interests and also to elicit their speech in English as we often skip the exercises in the speaking section due to the time limit, um, and then, when teaching listening, I do a cloze test as a quiz, or just before listening, I often check key expressions and words as a whole class by asking questions so that they can at least speak in English...

She also indicated that there was a time constraint to cover the textbook, but she seems to have tried to involve as many students as possible in speaking practice. For example, as regards her lesson in class 7, she was very satisfied with her participation strategy during pair work with a consideration of the students' characteristics:

So pair work was good to give an opportunity to speak to both of them in pairs because for the participatory student, she was very happy to get my attention and speak once more, and her partner, who was less participatory and shy, was also given a chance to speak this time...

She viewed pair work as effective to encourage peer support and help less proficient students participate in speaking practice with support from their partners as stated above. From the above extract, her practice seemed to be consistent with her initial views on teaching speaking from teacher training by considering learners' styles in her approach to teaching speaking. She continued to explain how she increased the students' participation in speaking practice by using their competitive nature:

Whenever I want to make them participate, I always prepare for a candy. Because the participatory students actively engage in the activity as they usually do, but the less participatory students also try to join the activity by looking at their peers who are actively doing the activity to get a candy.

She seemed to be satisfied with her inclusive strategy of peer support to increase every student's participation in speaking practice in accordance with her initial belief in CLT. From her account, her use of a stimulus seemed to have two roles, first of all, to direct off-task students' attention to speaking practice, and to increase low ability students' concentration. During the interviews after observations, I felt that her sensitivity to attending to students' cognitive and affective needs increased with her developing understanding of the students' characteristics through her practice, and she seems to have tried to reflect students'

psychological factors in her approach to teaching speaking. She continued to explain the reason for teacher intervention during the competition in order to elicit more voluntary participation:

So if most participatory students continue to do the activity, I tell them you got a candy today, hey, put your hands down, put your hands down, and then count a number, one, two, three... so in this way, when these students put their hands down, the others can think if I raise my hands now I can get a candy... so if I count one, two, three, then many of the less confident students raise their hands... (Laugh) So somehow, I make use of their competitive nature. Because if I just tell them I'll give you a candy so please take part in the speaking activity then, even though I may consume all the candies, there will be many who never participated in any activity. But when they see their friends here over there participating in the activity, they start to think that, oh, I can do it, I will also be able to get a chance like one of them. So my main point is, to make everyone think like that, and maximize their participation in any speaking activity.

She also explained the supportive instructions that she employed during the competition to reduce students' anxiety about speaking and raise their confidence in speaking:

So I give two different instructions. That is, one is, I'll give you a candy if your answers are correct, and the other is, I'll give you a candy even though your answers are wrong only if you take part in the activity. So some answers are completely wrong, but I still give them a candy, slightly supporting their answers, telling everyone that there was no article here, so this was wrong actually, okay? So my intention is to let them participate in the speaking activity once and then start to think that they can do it, they can make it...

On the other hand, her participation strategy seemed also to reflect her own experience of learning speaking:

I would really like to help those who want to learn but don't study very well to understand as much as possible so that they can also participate in speaking activities. During my school days, I also felt uneasy, at times, when I wanted to get involved, but I couldn't, because of a lack of understanding to follow... so there are always those who don't understand, and from a teacher's point of view, I can't ignore them only to speed up the textbook. It is a bit difficult to balance and integrate both sides... [...] For me, I always keep trying to make as many students as possible understand my lesson, and make all the students participate...

She seems to some extent to have developed context-specific skills for teaching speaking during the practicum particularly in relation to her learners. Her initial belief about the importance of student participation in teaching speaking was consistently reflected in her practice, and her awareness of the students' characteristics during the observation week may also have enhanced her understanding of the ways to maximize student participation. Though

she expressed the difficulty of involving more students in speaking practice, she seemed to be satisfied with the overall outcome of her elicitation or participation strategy.

Speaking Activity

With regard to speaking activities, she explained that since the speaking section was taught by the native English teacher, most lessons taught by Korean teachers were usually centered on teaching grammar and reading to cover the textbook and that Korean teachers rarely adopted speaking activities. She also explained that she often joined the native English teacher's speaking lessons for team-teaching, but her main role was to monitor and assist students' understanding during speaking activities. Her perception of such constraints seems to have influenced her integrative approach to teaching speaking:

I usually tend to let students do speaking practice while I'm teaching listening, or when I teach other skills in the manner of doing some sort of communicative activities. I usually do speaking in this way because we have to cover the textbook, so the speaking section in the textbook is taught briefly only for the purpose of checking what they already learned with the native English teacher. However, in my case, I always do a kind of activity during listening or reading and also writing, and all of these activities are for speaking practice...

She continued to explain the reason for adopting a short quiz:

Not because teaching speaking or communicative activity design is too difficult for me... but because it may be a bit too much if I teach speaking for a long time as students learn the speaking section with the native English teacher, so I tend to implement speaking together with other language skills in the textbook. I usually do speaking activities briefly, from time to time, in the middle of each section throughout the lesson in the manner of doing a quiz or a game...

Her perception of the students' low level with poor concentration and motivation was another reason for the instant quiz. She also implemented a kind of warming-up or introductory activity using pictures before teaching listening or speaking sections as a whole class, and this activity seemed to reflect her initial plan for situation-based speaking practice to some extent but this activity did not always elicit students' speech in English as observed. She explained the role of this activity:

I can't say that that activity was exactly a warming-up activity. For example, what to say, well, there are several pictures in the listening section. So by showing the pictures, I used to ask them, what kind of situations are these, then students answer, and I ask them again, what kind of expressions are suitable for these, can you think of any?... So I often lead the activity in this way to direct and elicit students' speech as a whole class.

She also explained how she modified her lesson plan appropriately according to the students' motivation for speaking practice in each lesson. She stated that she usually made an overall outline of what to teach as a master plan and did not specify the details in order to change or apply it to different classes easily. As she explained, she did not seem to make a detailed lesson plan, but she seemed to adjust her master plan flexibly according to the level of student participation in each class (see Appendix 24 for her lesson plan). For example, she commented on her changed plan for extended pair work in class 7 to maximize student participation in speaking practice:

Particularly in class 7, the number of students who raised their hands to do the activity today was increased even 7 times more than usual. Moreover, the number of questions that I planned at first was only six, so I thought that if I could add a bit more, then I could let them speak up to 10 questions. I wanted to give them as many opportunities as possible to participate in speaking practice.

She preferred pair work to group work due to the difficulty in classroom management in the large classroom and her intensive use of pair work seems also to have been influenced by the type of the class that she taught, the mixed ability class.

Theory and Practice

Despite a number of challenges in teaching speaking in her traditional classroom, her views on the relationship between theory and practice of teaching speaking were very positive and she perceived that theory and practice were not very different. She commented on how she exactly applied the theory that she learned during teacher training to her practice in the classroom:

In my opinion, theory and practice were not very different compared to what I thought before the practicum. For example, during the microteaching at the teacher college what I usually did was matching pictures with new words and I made speaking practice naturally follow... I was always thinking that new expressions should be taught by providing many examples using graphics, and actually, I was able to apply what I knew exactly to my practice during the practicum. Regarding student participation, I'm also applying exactly what I wanted to do to my practice.

From her account, she was particularly satisfied with her approach to the use of pictures in combination with speaking practice as observed during her lessons, because photos or graphics seemed to raise students' interests, thus increasing students' motivation and participation in speaking practice. She seemed to be satisfied with the fact that she was, to some extent, able to transfer what she learned and planned when she was microteaching in the

teacher training course to her large traditional classroom during the practicum. Moreover, developing good relationships with students and raising active participation from them seem to have increased her teacher efficacy and teaching competence further, which made her interpret contextual challenges even more positively. She continued to comment on how she successfully adjusted her communicative approach to her students' mixed level and motivation:

I think I've been doing very well as students were following my lessons very well during the speaking activities and their attitudes and performances were even better than my microteaching... For example, if I put a candy into a competition, they are eager to get a chance to speak and take it, not because they have no money to buy such a candy but because they are really enjoying competing with each other, the feeling of achievement during the lesson, or being given attention from the teacher above the others. So not merely by becoming a winner, but by gaining approval by the teacher for their ability, and as a result also having a reward... so they seem to like such a feeling very much from my opinion...

In the above extract, the reason for using a stimulus is further explained. This seemed to show her increased understanding of student motivation and affect and also teacher support. As she stated above, her practice seems to have increased her understanding of the students' cognitive and affective factors and this seems to have enabled her to some extent to modify her communicative approach. Her initial views of teaching speaking seem to have been elaborated during the practicum. She commented on the shift of her CLT perspectives:

While trying to teach my lessons communicatively, what I've felt about communicative teaching is... CLT is not just making students produce a lot of speech, but it is more like understanding students' characteristics and styles first, therefore being able to make students participate in speaking as a teacher, even though they are saying not very much. When we talk about CLT, we usually think that CLT is to make students say a lot, but now from my point of view, CLT is a classroom where students are actively participating and interactively engaging in the lesson...

From her account, her practice must have challenged and modified to some extent her initial naive perception of CLT to be more practical. That is, before the practicum, she perceived CLT in terms of making individual students speak as much as possible, that is, increasing the quantity of individual speech, but after more experience of classroom practice she seemed to understand CLT in terms of helping students interact and participate in the process of language learning. Her later perspectives of CLT were more related to the role of the teacher in supporting student interaction and participation in the classroom and seemed to reflect her increased awareness of teacher support. However, it can be noted that despite all the challenges that she had, her sense of success in applying theory to practice in her CLT approach during the practicum seems to be attributed to her higher or stronger self-efficacy

beliefs built on intensive microteaching during teacher training as compared to other trainees. The teacher college that she attended provided intensive microteaching, and repeated practice of microteaching combined with theory seems to have highly increased her self-confidence in CLT before the practicum. Her strong self-confidence in CLT continued during the practicum as she often mentioned that she did not feel any difficulty in designing CLT activities during the practicum, that is, with respect to applying what she learned during microteaching exactly into her classroom in a rather technical sense, but she did not seem to realize that her understanding of CLT was mainly based on idealized practice of microteaching which needed to be further examined and developed to be practically situated and appropriately adjusted into the particular classroom context with a particular group of students. Again, her main focus or attention concerning her CLT approach seemed to be mainly given to student affect or increasing students' motivation rather than developing instructional skills or pedagogical methods to enhance students' speaking practice or the ways that students can learn speaking and develop communicative competence effectively. This was noted in her lessons in that her practice did not encourage communicative interaction amongst the students except producing oral practice by asking students merely to read aloud the model dialogue either in pairs or as a whole class, but this seems also to have been influenced by a number of contextual challenges. The influences on her practice of teaching speaking and her development of CLT during the practicum are discussed below in relation to contextual factors.

Contextual Factors

Eunhae explained a few challenges that she felt presented barriers to the teaching of speaking. First of all, the traditional classroom which was non-streamed was the biggest challenge for her TEE and CLT practice. She felt that the mixed ability large classroom caused great difficulty in implementing speaking practice as well as difficulty in providing individual support to students:

As students' level was mixed, and also the class size was too big, the main difficulty was in knowing or supporting students' individual participation in speaking practice, so this is probably the most problematic situation to teach speaking in the classroom in the secondary school... [...] While each student is different and has their own learning style, from my understanding, in order to teach each of them most effectively according to their individual style, or even to get to know their individual style, the number of the students in the classroom is too many.

She explained further the difficulty of TEE during her early teaching practice, and why she changed TEE practice by reflecting on her English teacher:

Because I learned speaking abroad, my level of oral proficiency was higher than other classmates, so I thought that I need to reduce the average level, and then I also thought that these students will be higher than the average level that I set, but when I actually went to the classroom, I realized that there was a big mismatch between their real level and my predicted level. (Laugh) [...] So after such a shock in the first lesson, what I did next was... um, to think about... what did my secondary school English teacher say, what kind of expressions and words did she use, so I tried to change my lesson plan and my teaching style.

Her preference for CLT also had to be mixed with traditional ways of teaching. In the extract below she explained the reason why she adopted note-taking:

I found students don't concentrate on the lesson very well, so I always tell them to write down after teaching speaking or reading. If I just let them read or speak and move to the next activity, they won't be able to remember anything, so if I ask them to write what they read or spoke, then they can be more attentive to what they learned, and this is also to make the less able students pay attention to the lesson while note-taking by following what their peers are doing...

She reflected on her lesson in class 5 and explained further her mixed approach in terms of integrating speaking with writing. For example, she devised a game using the PowerPoint screen and asked students to come to the front and write down the answers on the screen after speaking them orally. However, to focus on speaking, she changed her plan during the lesson and gave students more time to practise speaking without writing. On the other hand, her perception of the students' level and motivation gap may have enabled her to develop more inclusive instruction. She felt that adjusting her communicative approach to the student level was crucial for success in CLT and cooperation with students during speaking practice. She explained how she eventually adjusted her practice for her mixed level class by reflection:

To be honest, I personally feel a bit sorry for class 7. (Laugh) Always, I teach them as if I'm doing a test for the purpose of investigating my lesson plan... so I can see if my instruction is too long here... or in this part, I can let them get involved in speaking practice by doing an activity... I learn all of these from class 7...

Though she wanted to implement CLT activities, the type of communicative activity that she used was greatly influenced by her mixed level class, and her personal awareness of the importance of the school exam also constrained the extent to which she developed a communicative activity. Due to the time pressure to cover the textbook, her practice of teaching speaking was mainly based on the textbook: I used the same expressions in the textbook for speaking practice, because if I want to let them practise speaking with other expressions, I have to make my own multimedia materials for the speaking activities by myself, and I could do that without any difficulty, but why I felt a bit uncertain to do this was, in fact, the speaking section is taught by the native teacher, so students already practised the speaking section many times, as the native teacher really picks up everyone to speak all the time, with different examples about different situations. [...] Moreover, as for the expressions in the textbook, I don't have to write them down on the blackboard because they are already written in the textbook, so it saves me much time to teach speaking while I have to teach other sections in the textbook...

Though there was no pressure imposed on her by her mentor to cover the textbook, she decided to adjust her practice to her mentor's:

My mentor explained the textbook that I need to teach during the practicum, but she never gave me any pressure in terms of covering the textbook. [...] I'm a trainee teacher here, so actually I don't feel any pressure, to be honest. But occasionally I compare my lesson to the other class in order not to be too slow with the textbook, because students will have to take an exam next month anyway. [...] But after I left, it will take longer for them to get used to my mentor's teaching style and the textbook-based lesson again. So I'm trying to adjust my teaching style to my mentor's as much as I can, and also introduce my own teaching methods which I would like to do during my lesson. I discuss with my mentor very often to adjust this...

She discussed her communicative approach often with her mentor and her mentor seems to have influenced her practice as she followed her mentor's teaching style. Her frequent use of a quiz game and competition may also have been influenced by her mentor as her mentor often adopted CLT. She found her mentor's communicative teaching style to be supportive of her use of CLT as students were familiar with CLT. Overall, a number of contextual challenges seem to have influenced her perception and practice of teaching speaking during the practicum, and the main challenges came from the non-streamed large classroom, students' mixed level and poor motivation, the school exam and the need to cover the textbook by Korean teachers while speaking was taught by native English teachers.

5.3.4 Eunhae's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking after the Practicum

After the practicum, Eunhae's views on teaching speaking were explored through the followup interview in the teacher college to see if there was any change or difference in her beliefs and perspectives. Her overall views on the various aspects of teaching speaking are discussed in comparison to her early views before the practicum.

Communicative Strategy and Speaking Activity

After the practicum, her views on strategies for elicitation and participation were more practical and contextual than before in relation to student factors. She seems to have enhanced her understanding of students and developed her communicative strategy:

In order to make students participate, I usually called volunteers or sometimes I nominated students' names. However in most cases, as the same students were participating in the speaking activities, what I tried was, to ask those students to recommend the others to speak so that they do not dominate all the opportunities to take part in the activities. Then what is really interesting is, they point out the ones who rarely participate in any activity because when such students speak rather slowly like murmuring, it's fun for the others who watch them...

She explained further how she modified her communicative approach according to her understanding of students' learning styles:

It's really important to understand students' learning styles... because for some students it may be more effective to study alone while for the others it would be more effective to take part in classroom activities to facilitate their learning. However to such students who prefer individual work, if I force them to participate in activities, this is not appropriate for them... so in order to help them get involved in activities appropriately, it is important to let them participate in speaking for themselves by encouragement between the students... because what I noted was, when the teacher intervenes, from the very moment, they get even worse, and resist taking part in any activity...

According to her main interest in making individual students speak in the classroom, she seemed to perceive pair work as beneficial:

The reason why group work is not very effective is, when more of them are gathered together, they just play with one another. So pair work is rather useful, if they work together, it provides a better chance to speak in English for each of them. [...] I could nominate each one to make a pair, or I could nominate one and let the student work with his or her partner, or let the student choose the other student in the classroom.

After the practicum, she seemed to value pair work as useful to maximize each student's speaking practice. Her practice in context seems to have shaped her understanding of elicitation and participation and also her preference for a speaking activity.

TEE and CLT

While her initial views on TEE were very positive, her perspectives about TEE after the practicum were more realistic based on her consideration of the contextual challenges. She

explained the difficulty of employing TEE for the mixed level of the students in the large classroom:

That is to say, when I give one instruction, all of the students should understand this, but the point is, not just one instruction, to give them an instruction requires lots of repetitions as the level gap is too great... I think that is the main difficulty at the moment when teaching by TEE in the classroom. For example, even if some students' level is too low, if I speak in English using Korean occasionally then they are able to understand, but I can't teach like that, because if I teach at their level, then the proficient students will get bored and off-task, so I felt that the big level gap amongst the students was the most serious barrier to TEE.

However, she felt that the mixed level was not a critical problem for CLT:

When I think about CLT, the level gap is not a problem, because the less proficient students are rather more interested in communicative activities and games, and the proficient students are also not too proud of themselves over the others during the activities. So as regards communicative teaching, the level gap was not a big deal, but for TEE it caused a serious problem.

Her views of CLT after the practicum were more positive than before and this seemed to be based on the shift of her perception of CLT in context with a better understanding of students and seemed to reflect her increased confidence in her communicative approach with success in raising student participation during the practicum.

Theory and Practice

Regarding the relationship between theory and practice, despite a number of contextual constraints that she experienced, her views were very positive, and she perceived no significant difference between theory and practice:

In fact, when we are in the teacher college, we learn that there is a difference between theory and practice. So I was thinking that there will be a big difference between theory and practice, but in my case, I felt actually there was no significant difference between what I knew about the teaching of speaking in theory and how I applied it in practice.

She perceived that her practice of teaching speaking was guided by her theoretical principles from teacher training and developed further by classroom practice particularly in relation to elicitation and participation. It was however very ironic that she perceived no significant difference between theory and practice of teaching speaking after the practicum even though her practice was largely influenced by the contextual challenges especially since her class was not streamed yet. She continued to explain how her initial understanding of CLT was changed and adjusted in the classroom context:

Before I went to the practicum, my views on CLT were, well, say, rather academic, based on teacher training that I received. Before the practicum, obviously I haven't got any teaching experience in the classroom, my views about teaching speaking or CLT were very ideal, I mean, I was thinking of CLT like a few students gather and then speak, but when I actually went to the classroom, and saw the students during the communicative activity, I got to know that making them able to participate in the communicative activity was in itself actually very much effective to enable them to speak, and my perspectives on how to approach CLT or teach speaking are now quite different from before. [...] I was worried about how I could do speaking and CLT with 40 students, but during the practicum, I felt no problem with CLT even though the class was large.

She seemed to be quite confident about her communicative approach after the practicum in that she managed to some extent to implement CLT appropriately to her context by overcoming the challenges in the mixed level large class. However, she did not seem to acknowledge the fact that there was a gap between her initial expectation of teaching speaking before the practicum and what she was actually able to teach in her classroom. On the other hand, she must have gained more contextualized views on communicative teaching of speaking in relation to student factors as she stated that her practice was valuable in learning how to teach speaking in the classroom and enhancing her knowledge of the ways to understand and communicate with the students. Though her practice increased her practical understanding of the teaching of speaking in the classroom, to some extent, this seemed to be mainly in terms of the teaching of oral practice based on the textbook rather than communicative practice guided from teacher training. However, after the practicum, she seemed to be more aware of contextual constraints to effective teaching of speaking in relation to class size, student level, and the need for material development.

Teacher Training and School Context

Regarding the effect of her teacher training course, she commented that microteaching and feedback during teacher training were very useful and gave an insight for her communicative approach during the practicum:

I think microteaching actually provided a lot of help for my teaching practice during the practicum. What I mean by this is, rather than microteaching itself was a help, I mean, after microteaching we always had time for feedback. So even when I was giving feedback to my colleagues, if I see their lessons with the intention of providing critical feedback, I could always note both positive and negative sides. With such

feedback that I received, I could reflect on what I couldn't feel or see during microteaching, and all the feedback that I received from my colleagues or gave to my colleagues was very useful later when I was teaching in the classroom during the practicum... so I love to have more such courses during teacher training.

She also felt that her mentor was very supportive of her communicative approach and helped her teaching of speaking:

Basically my mentor was already teaching in this way, so she helped me with my communicative approach. I sense that as she was encouraging a lot of participation in communicative practice, when I suddenly came and told them to do activities for themselves and actually speak in the classroom, they were maybe ready to follow my instruction comfortably without any resistance.

Overall, she seemed to view her school context very positively in terms of much support which enabled her to experience a lot of teaching practice, and she also perceived her teacher training positively in preparation for the practicum. She valued the practicum and stressed the need for more practicum experience during teacher training.

5.3.5 Comparisons between Pre-Practicum and Post-Practicum

Eunhae's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking will now be discussed in relation to before, during, and after the practicum. Eunhae's initial views of teaching speaking were consistent with her practice during the practicum to some extent as regards elicitation and participation of the students. However, contextual factors generated great challenges to her communicative approach, and her awareness of contextual constraints in relation to preparing for the exam and covering the textbook and possible challenges to her communicative approach influenced her practice to be mixed with GTM. Though her communicative approach was significantly adjusted to her classroom context, her views of CLT were more positive after the practicum as her confidence in CLT grew with practice. The table below summarises her beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking by comparing each stage: before, during, and after the practicum.

	Before the Practicum	During the Practicum	After the Practicum
Elicitation and participation	Views understanding student elicitation and participation in relation to learning styles as important Shows concerns about student elicitation and participation during the practicum regarding the regional gap in teaching speaking in Korea Feels uncertain about skills to increase student elicitation and participation regarding students' psychological factors (peer pressure and reticence) and individual differences in level and motivation in Korea	Faces challenges due to the mixed level and motivation difference and student reticence in the non-streamed large classroom Uses nomination and questioning, or calls out volunteers and asks students to refer to peers to increase elicitation and participation Uses stimuli and competitions to increase elicitation and participation Uses teacher intervention and peer support to help elicitation and participation of the less proficient	Becomes more aware of the importance of understanding students' learning styles to enable students to participate Recognizes peer support as effective to increase student autonomy and voluntary involvement Views teacher support or teacher attention as important to increase student elicitation and participation
Speaking practice	Intends to teach speaking-centered lessons for the practicum Shows an interest in implementing meaning- centered and situation- based speaking practice Feels confident with CLT but ambiguous about how to teach the speaking section in the textbook in a large classroom	Uses a kind of warm-up activity using pictures to give students a chance to speak English as a whole class Implements a short instant quiz game frequently during the lesson for speaking practice Uses pair work frequently for speaking practice of the model dialogue in the textbook Uses chorus reading aloud as a whole class for the oral	Perceives pair work as effective for speaking practice to maximize the chance for each student to speak Perceives group work as ineffective due to difficulties in classroom management with off-task students in the large classroom Recognizes the need for material development for teaching speaking in the school context

Table 5.1. The Differences between Eunhae's Views of Teaching Speaking before and after the Practicum

		practice of the key	[]
		expressions in the textbook	
		Teaches speaking briefly	
		integrally with listening due to	
		having the textbook to cover	
		and as the native English	
		teacher was in charge of	
		teaching speaking	
CLT	Intends to teach CLT	Faces challenges with CLT due	Perceives CLT more positively
	based lessons for the	to the limited time to do	than before the practicum
	practicum	communicative activities	Perceives no difficulty in CLT
	Intends to adopt	under the textbook-based	even in the mixed level large
	integrative	exam-centered school system	classroom
	communicative	Tries to mix CLT with GTM	Recognizes changed
	approaches	Tries to adjust CLT to the	perspectives of CLT after the
	Intends to provide	mentor's style	practicum in terms of teacher
	students with maximum	Tries to introduce textbook-	support for student
	opportunities to do	based communicative	participation in communicative
	communicative activities	activities partly during the	interaction
	Intends to change the	teaching of other language	Recognizes the integrative
	whole classroom	skills	communicative approach as
	environment for effective	Employs reflective practice to	effective to teach speaking in
	communicative activities	change lesson plans and	the school context
		communicative approaches	Recognizes the importance and
		according to different classes	effect of encouraging student
		Tries to maximize the chance	participation for success in
		for speaking practice	CLT
		according to the level of	Perceives the difficulties of
		student motivation in the	CLT under the exam-centered
		lesson	and textbook-focused
		Implements frequent short	education system
		communicative activities	
		throughout the lesson to	
		support students' poor	
		motivation	
		Uses note-taking after	
		communicative activities due	
		100	

TEE	Views TEE as essential Plans to teach by TEE only or almost fully Feels confident in TEE	to students' poor attention and memories Uses visual materials for whole-class communicative activities before listening or speaking Recognizes a shift of CLT perspectives regarding the teacher role not just to make students speak a lot but make students interact and participate in speaking practice Faces difficulties in employing TEE in the mixed level large class due to students' limited understanding	Perceives TEE as difficult in the mixed level large class due to the limited time to repeat instruction according to the different student levels
	but ambiguous about how to balance between English and Korean	Teaches mostly in Korean except for simple classroom English when acknowledging students' answers	Identifies the mixed level large class as a serious barrier to TEE in the school context
Theory and practice	Predicts a gap or a dilemma between theory and practice especially regarding teaching speaking in the EFL context	Views the theory and practice connection positively Perceives success in applying theory to practice regarding elicitation and participation strategies	Perceives no difference or a connection between theory and practice of teaching speaking by developing personal strategies to adopt CLT in the teaching context
Student level and motivation	Predicts or worries about individual differences in level and motivation for speaking Intends to reflect students' learning styles in teaching speaking	Faces challenges in student involvement in speaking practice due to students' mixed level, poor motivation, low concentration, and reticence in the non-streamed large classroom Develops personal strategies using competitions and	Recognizes the importance of understanding students' cognitive and affective factors and learning styles to increase student motivation and concentration Becomes more aware of how to understand or communicate with students

		rewards to motivate every student to get involved and create an enjoyable classroom atmosphere Encourages volunteers and peer recommendations to consider different learning styles and support the less proficient	
Classroom context	Predicts difficulties in communicative interaction and individual support for learning styles in the large classroom	Faces challenges in classroom control during group work and encounters difficulties in monitoring individual participation in communicative activities in the large classroom Develops personal strategies for peer learning through peer support	Increases awareness of contextual constraints to teaching speaking in the large classroom Recognizes the difficulties of giving individual support during communicative activities in the large classroom Becomes more aware of the effect of and the need for developing context-specific strategies for teaching speaking

5.6. Summary

Features of Practice

As summarised in the table above, Eunhae's communicative approach to teaching speaking was adjusted during the early week of teaching practice because she noted the contextual demand for textbook-based and exam-focused lessons. She tried to implement CLT and speaking practice by devising a short quiz game frequently during her lessons and also integrated speaking with listening. Using pictures and developing elicitation or participation strategies such as competition and stimulus as well as encouraging peer support, she tried to increase the opportunities for the students to participate in speaking while teaching other skills in the textbook but her effort was not always successful due to the generally poor oral

proficiency of the mixed level students in the large classroom since her class was not streamed. Her main type of speaking practice was reading aloud of the model dialogue in the textbook and she employed pair work intensively as in this way she intended to give more individual students an opportunity to speak. Such speaking practice, however, did not encourage natural communicative interaction amongst the students except very controlled oral practice or rather a mechanical drilling of the well-formed grammatical structure in the textbook.

Influences on Practice

Her perspectives and practices of the teaching of speaking in communicative ways seem to have been challenged in many ways by contextual constraints caused by the focus of the education system in Korea on preparing for the exam and covering the textbook. Moreover, since the level-based system was partially running in her school except for her class, she was confronted with mixed proficiency and an ability gap amongst the students in the large classroom. Her personal consideration of the exam preparation constrained her to adjust her communicative approach to her mentor's, implementing speaking practice only based on the textbook, and her perception of the native English teacher who was in charge of teaching speaking also caused her to reduce the time for the speaking activity. However, she was given support from her mentor in her communicative approach as her mentor was often employing CLT. She was able to implement her communicative approach to some extent integrally in the teaching of other skills though constrained by covering the textbook and managed to adjust the speaking activity to each class by making use of reflection. She also felt that teacher training helped her in applying the theory of CLT to practice and increased her personal confidence in communicative teaching of speaking in terms of making lesson plans or designing communicative tasks even though she was unable to take advantage of all the skills acquired from teacher training during the practicum. Her personal preparation or preparedness for teaching of speaking from teacher training or from childhood language learning and study abroad experience, as well as the amount of support available in her school context during the practicum seem to have all positively influenced her practice of teaching speaking and her positive views of challenges during the practicum by interpreting contextual challenges to her practice rather positively. That is, her sense of support from her mentor and her head teacher for her communicative approach as well as from her teacher training, seems to have enabled her to be resilient in learning to teach speaking to some extent during the practicum.

Changes in Cognition and Practice

Eunhae's beliefs and practices of teaching speaking were explored by comparing before, during, and after the practicum. From personal experience in learning speaking during childhood as well as teacher training on teaching speaking, her initial views on teaching speaking before the practicum were very positive with regard to applying curriculum policy for CLT and TEE to her practice in context, and she also showed a good understanding of the school context to some extent through her practical coursework, with an awareness of the importance of individual support for elicitation and participation according to student level and motivation. During the practicum, she enlarged her practical views and strategies for elicitation and participation in relation to CLT and TEE by gaining more understanding of the students' characteristics and classroom contexts through reflective practice though in a limited way. Her general views of teaching speaking after the practicum were more realistic and contextualized. That is, she seems to have increased her awareness of student factors in relation to CLT and TEE and developed context-specific strategies to some extent to overcome contextual challenges by her mixed use of CLT within the traditional lesson. Her idealized and naive views of CLT changed during the practicum, and her understanding of the connection between theory and practice of CLT became more positive even under contextual constraints. That is, her experience of intensive teaching practice over three weeks during the practicum seems to have contributed to her learning of teaching speaking in relation to student factors and also elaborated her understanding of how to apply CLT or TEE appropriately according to the student level and motivation. Her self-confidence or teacher efficacy in terms of CLT seems also to have been increased after the practicum. However, there seemed to be a limitation in the extent to which her perspectives and practices of communicative teaching of speaking were developed during the practicum due to a number of contextual challenges that constrained her communicative approach and practice of teaching speaking. Nevertheless, she seems to have made the most sense of the practicum by actively coping with challenges and developing her own communicative lessons.

Chapter 6. Findings (3): Case 3 – Haewon in Teacher College C

6.1. Overview

This chapter presents the third case, the teacher trainee Haewon who is from Teacher College C. Haewon's practicum was held in May. Background information for teacher training in Teacher College C and the practicum school is presented first and then the findings on Haewon's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking before, during, and after the practicum are discussed.

6.2. Teacher Training

Teacher College C is a public sector teacher training institution, located in Pusan. The curriculum of the English education department has been changed in line with the government policy to cope with the new demands for the teacher appointment exam. The teacher training curriculum was structured to develop English language skills during the early years and provide training on teaching methodology during the third year in preparation for the practicum in the fourth year. The trainees were given intensive training on microteaching during the third year and training courses were partly running in English in the fourth year. Teacher College C ran the practicum in May for 4 weeks. The trainees were usually allocated to lower secondary schools around the teacher college by the department, but some trainees took the practicum in their old secondary schools.

Teacher College C provided some courses in English for the fourth year trainees, and Trainer C1's teaching English and American culture course was one of the courses running in English. This course was mainly based on discussions in groups and aimed to train and improve the trainees' spoken English skills before the practicum and in preparation for the teacher appointment exam. Trainer C2's course on teaching methodology was, as a core-course, centered on intensive microteaching for the third year trainees. The trainers' views on their courses are briefly discussed in this section.

6.2.1 Trainer C1's Perspectives on the Teaching English and American Culture Course

Trainer C1's teaching English and American culture course was run in English, involving trainees in active discussion using worksheets. She explained the aims of her course in relation to trainees' oral proficiency development for the teacher appointment exam:

In my opinion, by using worksheets, I seem to manage to run the course by discussions and give trainees more opportunities to communicate with each other in English. As speaking is now important in the teacher appointment exam, usually I let them talk with their partners or in their groups on the basis of what they prepared as homework. [...] In fact as the teacher appointment exam was intensified recently, English teachers' oral proficiency is now very important, so it is my aim to develop such a teacher quality during this course, but I am often concerned about how to make a good balance between exploring theory and putting it into practical discussions...

She emphasized the importance of developing the trainees' ability to apply teacher training to the school context through training on practical skills:

I believe that what they learned here will enable them to develop the ability to teach and reconstruct their knowledge in the real context. They will be able to apply what they learned as long as they follow the course with an intention to apply their skills to their real school context where they will teach, by continuously thinking of what they are learning here in connection with their real classroom. So in my opinion, for example, English literature should be taught to help trainees make practical applications to the real context. In the same way, the way English culture is taught should also enable trainees to develop critical views on English culture by exchanging their own ideas through discussions, and therefore bearing this in mind in my course I aim to develop and expand their professional knowledge by communications amongst them through group discussions on specific topics.

Trainer C1 valued teaching practice during the practicum, but given the short period, in order to benefit from the practicum, she stressed trainees' individual preparations for teaching skills and spoken English as important. However, she also indicated the limitations in providing practical training at the teacher college because of the nature of teacher training being centered on the teacher appointment exam, and therefore despite the policy change, teacher training seemed to be still very much based on theoretical learning rather than practical learning. Trainer C1's course was observed before the practicum. As shown in the extract below, the course was based on group discussion and whole class feedback:

Group Discussion and Class Feedback in Trainer C1's Teaching English and American Culture Course

The trainer asked trainees who had lived abroad to come to the front and there were questions and answers as a whole class between the trainees and the Korean American trainees. After this, the trainees moved to each table and started to discuss in groups. The trainees discussed, using the worksheets, cultural differences between religious events in Korea and English speaking countries. The trainer was moving around each table, listening to or discussing with the trainees. Trainer C1: *Shall we go back to each table for discussion?* Trainees: (Move to each table) Trainer C1: *During your group discussion, please use your question sheets and pre-reading articles.* Trainees: (Discuss in each group in English) Trainer C1: (Move around each table and discuss with them) Trainer C1: *OK. Let's discuss altogether. I prepared some questions for you. There are some differences between religious beliefs. What are they?*

During group discussion, trainees were very interactive and the whole class discussion with trainer feedback followed. The course was run in English. The observation was helpful to see one of the courses running in English for the fourth year trainees at the teacher college and understand how the course helped trainees' practice of speaking before the practicum as it was based on a discussion in English.

6.1.2 Trainer C2's Perspectives on the Teaching Methodology Course

As a head of the department, Trainer C2 valued the system of the teacher college curriculum in terms of balancing the development of the trainees' spoken English and teaching skills to support the practicum. Trainer C2's views on the teaching methodology courses were very practical, exploring theory and also placing emphasis on intensive microteaching. There were two teaching methodology courses taught in the third year, with a particular focus on teaching speaking in line with the emphasis of the teacher appointment exam:

During the second term, both teaching methodology courses are centered on teaching practice. We do microteaching and then there is a discussion as a whole class... We spend five hours per course entirely on microteaching. That is, the full time allocated to the course every week is devoted only to microteaching because classroom practice is getting more important and the teacher appointment exam is also changing nowadays towards this direction by assessing the quality of teaching practice. One methodology course is based on team preparations for microteaching and the other course is done by microteaching individually. We let each trainee teach a 45-minute lesson to make it similar to the real lesson. The former is basically to train both receptive and productive skills during microteaching, but when they practise individually, the focus is on teaching speaking since speaking lessons are getting more important.

Regarding teaching speaking, she expressed her positive views on spoken English policy as an ideal direction of English education in Korea. However, she viewed the number of English lessons in schools (as the native English teacher teaches a speaking lesson once a week) as a barrier to teaching speaking, with little time to practise speaking, and she viewed teachers' commitment to cope with such challenges in the classroom as key for success in implementing curriculum policy. Her views on the practicum were also very practical, stressing the value of teacher learning in context:

First of all, trainees need to build up their own ability in English since they don't know how to teach when they first enter the teacher college... and in the third year, they just start to take an initial step, but teaching itself is not an easy job even after they successfully completed the practicum. By more teaching practice, they will learn better about teaching. However, we run the practicum only for four weeks as in reality it affects school systems and lessons... Actually, it has been argued that the practicum period should be extended, but due to contextual circumstances, it is still four weeks. From my point of view if the practicum period can be extended a bit more, if teacher colleges can decide on the period then this would be better... nowadays actually the policy of the Ministry of Education is also moving towards such a direction... so, for example, some teacher colleges run the practicum up to six weeks and some teacher colleges even send trainees to primary schools for a week initially before the practicum. The Ministry of Education also emphasizes the practicum and is pursuing such a policy because of the importance of contextual experience... What I am trying to do during my course is to apply theory with a reflection on the real context but it is still not the real context... therefore it is really necessary to let them have a real experience of the context...

She explained that in recent years more training for the practicum was provided to the trainees in the department by involving school teachers:

With regard to the practicum, our programs are running very systematically. Before the practicum, there is orientation by inviting school teachers, and last year we also invited principals. After the practicum, there is usually an evaluation to share the trainees' experiences, but in our case, from last year, we even invited teachers after the practicum as we saw it as valuable... as the Ministry of Education emphasizes this and directs us to do so, the practicum programs have been intensified especially in our department to prepare for the teacher appointment exam.

This involvement of school teachers, therefore, indicated a significant change in line with the Ministry of Education's emphasis, although she acknowledged that there was still a lack of a real connection between teacher colleges and schools in Korea, with trainers rarely being involved in the practicum.

6.3. Teacher Trainee - Haewon

Haewon is aged 27 years, and enrolled in the English education department in Year 4 in Teacher College C. As the preliminary questionnaire showed, she took a gap year to study English in Australia during teacher training, and had some private teaching experience, as well as undertaking the after-school teaching programme run by the teacher college as a supplementary course but did not have previous classroom teaching experience. Haewon took the practicum in Secondary School C, as arranged by the teacher college. It was a lower secondary school with a reputation of high academic achievement, and a cooperating school appointed by the education board to support the practicum.

Haewon's views about teaching speaking are discussed below based on her interviews conducted before, during, and after the practicum, with a reflection on the observations of her lessons during the practicum. The head teacher's perspectives on the practicum and the mentor's perspectives on teaching speaking are also discussed.

6.3.1 Haewon's School Teachers' Perspectives on the Practicum and Teaching Speaking

6.3.1.1 Haewon's Head Teacher's Perspectives on the Practicum

Haewon's head teacher stressed the importance of trainees' learning by teaching and perceived that to engage in much teaching practice during the practicum is essential for teacher learning. She valued the role of the practicum in terms of applying theory to practice, viewing the difference between knowledge about the practice and actual practice in the classroom due to the nature of teaching, which is changing and unpredictable:

In my opinion, it is very important to have as much teaching experiences as possible during the practicum, because teaching is different each time. No matter how well the lesson is prepared, it is very difficult to teach as it is planned. Teaching skills also improve by gaining more teaching experiences. Through more teaching we can know more about the students, and how to teach and manage the classroom situation as well as how to become more flexible. The theory, what the trainees know only in their head in principle, needs to be applied to actual practice, as knowledge and actual teaching of students are different. It is important to experience more the real context.

As a teacher of English, her views on spoken English policy were also very positive. She explained further her practical views on learning during the practicum by adjusting teaching methodology to the students' level of understanding:

I feel that the trainees' lessons are getting more organized and structured in terms of the style or frame, and they seem also to gain more confidence in teaching. So to speak, the nature of learning during the practicum is learning to teach a lesson in ways that it can become appropriate to the students' level... this is what it means by learning in context. In other words, this is to teach by adjusting our thinking and our language, as well as our behaviors to the level of the students, by finding out the ways that students can understand.

She said that the practicum program is well organized in the school as one of the cooperating schools appointed by the education board for the practicum. However, while schools went through rapid changes recently, she also indicated that the practicum was not always viewed positively regarding the impact on student achievement, and as a result this increased the workload of the teachers after the practicum ended in order to cover the textbook to make sure that the students are prepared for the exam. She also indicated the difficulty that the trainees would experience during teaching practice under the streamed system, which was newly introduced in schools along with the revised national curricula (2007) and (2009).

6.3.1.2 Haewon's Mentor's Perspectives on Teaching Speaking

Haewon's mentor's lesson was based on the textbook CD, and though she occasionally adopted the activity book for group work, she viewed its role mainly with regard to grammar practice based on the textbook. She commented on the emphasis on TEE in the school due to the students' generally high oral proficiency and good academic achievement. Her perspectives of TEE were very positive, viewing the role of classroom English as an effective medium of classroom interaction for the high level. Regarding the low level, however, she expressed her critical views, particularly about the equity and validity of the standardized exam system under the level-based curriculum. Her views on the role of the practicum were, like the head teacher, very practical, stressing the importance of learning of the trainees by applying theory to practice and gaining practical knowledge by practice:

Of course, they should be able to apply their own ideas into their lessons, because they are not here to learn my lesson styles during the practicum, but they bring their own approaches into their classrooms to see if those teaching methods are suitable to the real context... Actually, some of the methods may not work as theory and context are different... So to speak, when they tried to apply what they learned in the teacher college, they may have found some techniques worked appropriately but the others didn't, and in this process, their teaching styles are adjusted... they get to know what they can keep implementing and what they have to develop further so they can learn this kind of thing here... otherwise, there will be no need to take the practicum. So they have to try out various teaching methods here, don't you think so?

She explained further her practical views on the role of teaching practice in developing effective teaching methodology in the context in relation to student level:

There are many models of teaching. We cannot say one is always better than the other because teaching styles should be appropriate to the students and their level... For example, for students in the poor areas, we cannot insist on teaching in English only or speaking-centered lessons, as in this case, we need to use the blackboard to let them be focused and frame the structure of English so that they can understand... So to speak, students are full of life, so one method which works here may not work there... Teaching methods should be always changed to be appropriate to the level of the students. We shouldn't insist on one methodology. You can think in this way, for example, while we teach lessons to live students under the streamed classes... we have to teach each level differently because nowadays our lessons are student-centered... so even the same content should be taught differently in another class and we cannot teach what we did in this class there, or students won't be able to understand.

As an experienced teacher of English, her views of TEE were very practical and realistic, reflecting the students' real needs of learning and level of understanding. Whilst she commented earlier on TEE as a very effective tool for the high level students' oral proficiency development, she again stressed the importance of adjusting the amount of TEE appropriately to the level of students, particularly to the low level students, instead of insisting on TEE only policy. She showed her sensitivity to how TEE should be implemented under the streamed system, even considering the students' contextual background (as educational situations differ according to economical situations between urban and rural areas). Her practical standpoint of TEE would have positively influenced Haewon's approach to TEE. Overall, Haewon's practicum seemed to be very supportive of her practice of communicative teaching of speaking, with much emphasis on, and practice of, the use of spoken English in her school, and with a strong focus from her head teacher and her mentor on the value of the practicum on teacher learning.

6.3.2 Haewon's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking before the Practicum

Haewon's initial views on teaching speaking are discussed, based on her experiences of schooling and teacher training, and her perspectives on curriculum policy and the practicum.

Learning Speaking from School Education

Haewon had a negative experience of learning speaking during her school days. She often felt anxiety and pressure from being pushed to memorize dialogue and in order not to be punished by failing:

We skipped the speaking part though after listening we read aloud at least once... We usually read aloud A and B in pairs, and then we were required to memorize the dialogue and come out to the front and present it, and when we did not do it very well, we were punished.

From her point of view, the purpose of such an activity was only to pass the exam and did not involve any real learning of speaking. The speaking practice was usually based on reading aloud of the textbook in pairs and she expressed further her lack of confidence in speaking in English:

To be honest, as for me, I didn't have any early English learning in my childhood, and in fact, I never studied English speaking until I went abroad during teacher training. So whenever I thought of speaking during my school days, I felt very afraid of it and I didn't have any confidence in speaking...

Though she improved her oral proficiency during her gap year at the teacher college while studying English in Australia, her negative experience of learning of speaking during schooling seems to have increased her emotional tension and may have shaped her understanding of teaching speaking.

Teacher Training on Teaching Speaking

As regards teacher training, Haewon commented very positively on the practical nature of the teaching methodology course. She found the course very helpful to enhance her understanding of communicative teaching through intensive microteaching with a focus on the teaching of speaking. She explained her experience of microteaching of a speaking lesson:

We usually prepare for two activities per lesson... um, so regarding speaking activities, um... I did pair work about making an appointment and then at the end of the lesson I introduced a survey. I let students make a list of classmates' names and then move around talking with one another.

She found microteaching during the course very useful and practical while other courses were based on theory, but she also felt that occasionally microteaching was rather repetitive by involving an exchange of similar communicative activities amongst the trainees due to the difficulty of creative task design. She also commented on the interactive nature of the teaching English and American culture course by being discussion-centered and it was one of the few courses running in English for Year 4. She found the course very helpful in developing her oral proficiency while discussing only in English:

The course is based on discussions, and we are usually given pre-reading materials in advance to think about the topics and during the course, we discuss in groups and integrate our ideas as a whole class... I think running a course in this way is very useful, but in fact, we often have a chat, or sometimes it is also quite uncertain to know whether our discussion is developing in the right direction or not... but as compared to the other courses, we are actively participating in this course, and it is also running only in English, so this is good as we keep trying to speak in English because speaking improves by speaking ...

She also found speaking courses based on role-plays and communicative activities during the early years of teacher training very useful. However, she felt uneasy about preparing for the spoken exam, since she was familiar with a theory-based assessment based on lecturing. On the other hand, she was quite critical about education courses taught in the education department during the early years of teacher training, as they lacked theoretical depth while being based on presentations and discussions but only focusing on passing the exam rather than developing the essential skills of teaching.

Teaching Speaking in relation to Curriculum Policy

Regarding spoken English policy, her views were rather negative, indicating the reality of the education system based on the university entrance exam, which is centered on written English. She also indicated the difficulty caused by the students' passive attitudes toward learning speaking under exam-centered school education. From her own childhood experience and also from her after-school teaching experience, she stressed the importance of helping students lower their psychological barriers to speaking:

I think speaking should be included in the university entrance exam. (Laugh) To be honest, I don't know very much about educational policy, but the most serious problem is... as English is a foreign language in Korea, I assume students will feel a great deal of emotional pressure as it was the case for me... [...] Of course, students from rich families learned speaking by private teaching... but as I taught the after school program with students from low-income family backgrounds, I felt that the students in that school never learned English before, and they didn't even know the alphabet... So in my opinion, we need to help students get over the psychological barrier to speaking. In other words, it is going to be really important to let them know that learning English is not difficult and anyone can learn English very well.

However, she perceived TEE policy very positively as she viewed classroom English as spoken input:

As for me, I would usually use classroom English as it shouldn't be very difficult for students to understand. To teach in English as much as possible during the practicum would help students to be exposed to spoken English and it would also benefit my teaching career as I will have to teach in English anyway when I become a teacher, so I had better train myself in TEE from the beginning.

She perceived that the use of classroom English would not cause any difficulty for students to understand and would also improve her practice of TEE.

Expectations for Teaching Speaking before the Practicum

Regarding teaching speaking, her main interest before the practicum was in helping students to get over the fear of speaking by making a speaking-friendly environment through interesting and motivating input materials:

It is very important to create a flexible classroom atmosphere in the school, where students can speak English without any pressure or fear of speaking... though I am not very knowledgeable theoretically, in my opinion, it is very important to provide much spoken input in order to reduce emotional tension about speaking, and based on rich input, I think I can introduce speaking activities in a way to increase output step by step.

She was very interested in applying CLT to her practice by linking speaking practice with students' real life experiences and by designing interactive communicative activities:

During the teaching methodology course, um, though I still have not fully made sense of what it is really to do CLT lessons, I think on the basis of what I learned here from the trainer, I would like to teach my lesson in a way to combine students' real life, in another word, by making students talk about their real life in English. So not like the existing or traditional ways of teaching, I will show them many pictures, and let them speak loudly as much as they can... and regarding the communicative activity, I will implement communicative activities in which they can work together interactively...

Her expectation of teaching speaking before the practicum seemed to some extent to reflect her own experience of learning speaking in relation to her interest in student affect. She seemed to be confident in applying CLT to her practice using communicative activities and materials though she also expressed her nervous emotion as a novice teacher of English.

6.3.3 Haewon's Views and Practices of Teaching Speaking during the Practicum

Haewon's views and practices of teaching speaking will be discussed here in relation to the observation week, the initial teaching week, and the final teaching week, with a reflection on

her lessons. According to each stage of the practicum, key themes were derived from the interviews.

6.3.3.1 Classroom Observation

During the first two weeks of the practicum, Haewon observed her mentor's and other teachers' English lessons. Haewon's views of teaching speaking during the observation weeks are discussed below.

Classroom Practice about CLT and TEE

During the observation weeks, she found that most lessons were taught in traditional ways by GTM because of the university entrance exam, and her mentor's lessons were mainly based on the textbook using the textbook CD. She found that the teachers were overloaded with administrative work and felt this to be a constraining factor for their lesson or task preparations. She also found that the activity books were used not for communicative practice but gap-filling or pattern-drilling:

Nowadays, there is an activity book at each level in addition to the textbook, but teachers don't make use of creative communicative tasks during the lessons. They use the activities shown in the activity book but such an activity is far from CLT. For example, they are usually filling in a gap or writing a short grammar pattern and that's all. You cannot expect to teach any communicative activities or speaking practice based on pair work using that book. So in my opinion, the activity in the book isn't any real communicative activity at all.

She commented critically on the features of the activity books being designed inappropriately for speaking practice but only to be useful for grammar exercises though the activity books were meant to play a role in supporting speaking activities when they were introduced as a supplementary resource to the main textbook. Regarding TEE, however, she was very impressed by the extensive practice of TEE by the teachers in the school though the degree of TEE was differentiated at each level. On the other hand, regarding the native English teacher's speaking lesson, she was surprised by observing speaking practice mainly centered on vocabulary games for fun rather than communicative activities linked with learning goals. She also noticed that there was a difference in terms of student concentration or motivation across each level, that is, with usually better performances of high level students, but she felt that

students were in general highly participatory in the lessons while there was much emphasis on student participation in spoken English in the school.

Teaching Speaking in School Context

She found her mentor and her head teacher very encouraging in employing her communicative methodology but due to perceiving the difficulty in teaching speaking due to the examcentered school system, she changed her plan to mix her communicative approach with her mentor's existing style as a way to balance her initial views on teaching speaking with her concerns for covering the textbook:

Um, well, it seems quite difficult to balance... from next week we teach for two weeks and we are assigned a unit to finish as students will have to take an exam, so I cannot ignore the teachers' existing teaching styles completely. So I would like to try to mix my CLT approaches with the teachers' existing lessons. [...] However, the head teacher and also my mentor said to me, since I'm a trainee teacher here, to teach in my own ways using various teaching methodologies.

She also planned instruction strategies for the level-based system by changing the number of her input materials according to level. She found observing teachers useful in developing her communicative perspectives with emerging new ideas on teaching speaking and in adjusting her initial plan to her context.

6.3.3.2 Haewon's Practices of Teaching Speaking

Haewon taught 2 or 3 lessons per day for two weeks and was assigned to teach a unit in the textbook. During the observations, Haewon taught a class of students in Year 2, which was about 26 students, all of whom were boys in the high level, and the class was first observed during Week 3 and again during Week 4. She implemented speaking activities as an integral part of her lessons. She mainly taught grammar in the first lesson and reading in the second lesson but with speaking practice integrated into each lesson (see Appendix 28 for her lesson plan in lesson 2). Though her lessons were usually centered on reading in the textbook (see Appendix 25) playing the textbook CD, she employed her communicative approach occasionally to teach speaking using her own PowerPoint materials (see Appendix 26) as well as using task sheets or handouts distributed to the students (see Appendix 27). The two lessons which I observed are discussed below with reflection on her practices of teaching speaking in

terms of her use of classroom English, her strategy for elicitation and instruction, and her approach to oral practice or speaking activities.

Classroom English

In her first lesson I noted her use of classroom English at the beginning of the lesson as shown in the extract below:

Extract 27. Classroom English in lesson 1

Haewon: Hello. Everyone.
Students: Hello.
Haewon: Did you bring the worksheet that I gave you last time?
Students: Yes.
Haewon: <i>Don't worry if you didn't bring it. Wasn't it difficult?</i>
Haewon: Wasn't it difficult?
Haewon: Hey, everyone, what did we learn last time?
Look at the blackboard, everyone.

Students: Yes.

However, once the lesson started she directed students' attention in Korean and grammar was mainly explained in Korean though she frequently used classroom English during the lesson. On the other hand, her second lesson was taught only in English. I also noted that students often responded to her in English and some students were quite fluent as shown below:

Extract 28. Classroom English in lesson 2

Haewon: (Write on the board) OK. When you use a sentence, if I write like this, is this right?
Students: No.
Haewon: Why not?
Student 2: After the verb, 'feel', we need an adjective.
Haewon: Yes. We need an adjective here. Is this an adjective?
Students: No.
Haewon: That's why we need 'like' here. Do you understand?
Students: Yes.

Haewon: All right.

Her use of classroom English seemed to be consistent with her initial emphasis on much practice of TEE as spoken input and given that TEE was preferably practised in the school and also with a consideration of the high level class, she seemed to employ TEE fully during teaching reading.

Elicitation and Instruction

Her first lesson was centered on teaching grammar and grammar structure was explained on the blackboard explicitly. However, she seemed to elicit students' speech using frequent questions and further examples. The extract below shows her elicitation strategy during the grammar review:

Extract 29. Elicitation using examples in lesson 1

Haewon: Now let's look at one more example on the blackboard.
Haewon: (Write on the board) I am a dog. What does this mean?
Students: (Laugh)
Haewon: (Write on the board) I'm running.
Haewon: So what is a noun here?
Students: <i>Dog</i> .
Haewon: Yes. So what can we use here?
Students: Which.
Haewon: Yes. Can we use 'whom' instead?
Students: No.
Haewon: No, we cannot use 'whom', of course.
Haewon: So how can we make one sentence here?
Haewon: (Write on the board) <i>I have a dog</i>
Students: Which is running away

At the end of the lesson, she seemed to try to explore the topic further using the pictures and elicit more speech from the students:

Extract 30. Elicitation using pictures in lesson 1

Haewon: Look at the first picture. What is this?Students: River.Haewon: What about the next one then?Students: Rainfall.Haewon: So let's read the first sentence together.Students: What a beautiful river...Haewon: What is this picture?Students: Whates.Haewon: Yes.Haewon: Can you tell me the names of the rivers in Korea you can remember?Students: Han River ... Aprok River ... Nakdong River... Dooman River...Haewon: (Write on the board) Yes. There are a few long rivers in Korea.

As shown above, during the activity she may have tried to elicit more natural speech from the students as she intended before the practicum, but students were merely repeating short vocabulary related to the pictures. In her second lesson, she seemed to employ brainstorming as her elicitation strategy using a lot of audio-visual resources throughout the lesson as shown in her lesson plan (see Appendix 28). She introduced a short film before reading, and then during the reading, she directed students' attention to the pictures relevant to each text (see Appendix 26 for her PPT). In this time, she seemed to be able to elicit more natural speech from the students:

Extract 31. Elicitation using pictures in lesson 2

Haewon: OK. Look at the map. Cape Town and National Park are here.
Haewon: OK. Zoo and Safari.
Haewon: Don't pronounce like 'Saparee'.
Students: Safari Safari
Haewon: So what is the difference between zoo and safari?
Students: (Put hands up and shout) Me, please.
Student 7: Safari isum
Students: Safari is Safari is

Haewon: Safari is what?
Students: In a park.
Haewon: In a park?
Student 7: It is wild.
Haewon: How about the zoo then?
Students: Very many... many animals...
Student 2: Their moving is different than...
Haewon: I don't understand what you mean.
Students: (Laugh)
Haewon: Anything else?
Student 4: There are many animals there...
Haewon: OK. OK... Look at this picture. Which is a safari? Is this a safari?
Students: Zoo...
Haewon: OK. Now you would have some image or some pictures about Zoo and Safari in your mind, right?
Students: Yes.

From the above extract, it is also noted that Haewon is giving attention briefly to the students' pronunciation. Overall, through her elicitation strategy, Haewon seemed to try not only to elicit more extended speech from the students but also to engage more students in speaking in English during teaching reading.

Oral Practice

Since her first lesson was based on grammar, while reviewing grammar, she seemed to try to involve students in speaking by reading aloud either individually or as a whole class. She seemed to set reading aloud in order to give the students an opportunity to speak English in the classroom, but its role was simply reading orally the answers in the worksheet (see Appendix 27). The extract below shows that while checking the worksheet she asks each of the volunteered students to read aloud the model answers:

Extract 32. Reading aloud using the worksheet in lesson 1

Haewon: Let's check the worksheet now. Let's read the answers together. Look at Number 1.

Students: (Put hands up and shout) Me, please.

Haewon: OK. Hansuck. Please read your answer for us.
Student 1: *The man who teaches English is my father*.
[...]
Haewon: And next?
Students: (Put hands up and shout) Me, please.
Haewon: Junhyung.
Student 2: *He has a house which is very expensive*.
Haewon: Is the answer right?
Students: Yes.

As shown above, the students were very enthusiastic about taking part in reading aloud and they voluntarily and actively participated in oral practice. While teaching the activity book, again she encouraged students to read aloud as a whole class:

Extract 33. Chorus reading aloud using the activity book in lesson 1

Haewon: OK, everyone, look at the activity book now.
Students: (Open the activity book)
Haewon: Let's look at A. Can you do A?
Students: (Work on A)
Haewon: OK. Can we answer A all together?
This is the supermarket
Students: Which opens 24 hours a day.
Haewon: Yes, which opens 24 hours a day.
Haewon: Next one, please.
Students: Which is famous for its long history.

The role of the activity book was mainly to do grammar exercises as she said earlier. The activity book seemed to help grammatical pattern drilling as it consisted of sentences containing a few gaps to fill in with either accurate grammatical words or phrases, but as she mentioned and as also noted in other trainees' lessons, the activity book did not seem to contain examples or activities which can guide meaning-focused communicative practice between the students except gap-filling of grammar structure or merely altering the model dialogues for repeated oral practice. She seemed to try to make use of the activity book for the

practice of speaking during grammar practice. However, as shown in the above extract, though she intended to let the students have a chance to speak during grammar practice and despite the fact that the students were very participatory in such practice, reading aloud of the model dialogues or grammatical sentences based on correct answers in the activity book simply produced oral practice and did not seem to encourage or engage students in natural communicative practice.

Speaking Activity

Her second lesson was centered on teaching reading, but she briefly introduced and reviewed the dialogue in the speaking section at the beginning of the lesson and a few speaking activities were also implemented throughout the lesson. As the lesson started, dialogue practice was introduced on the PowerPoint screen (see Appendix 26) and based on the model dialogue in the speaking section (see Appendix 25) she implemented dialogue practice in the manner of a quiz as a speaking activity. A few volunteers were selected, and the dialogue was practised in pairs:

Extract 34. Dialogue practice in lesson 2

Haewon: Today we are going to do reading and some group work as I said to you in the last lesson.
Haewon: So before we look at the reading text, we are going to do a quiz to review what we learned last time when we did speaking. Let's look at the screen.
Haewon: OK. First question.
Student: (Put hands up and shout) Me, please.
Haewon: OK. We need two volunteers for this speaking activity.
Haewon: (Point out two students) Yunsik. Jinwoo.
Student 1: Can I ask you something about your home town?
Student 2: Sure, what would you like to know?
Student 1: I'd like to go to Paris, your hometown. What can I do there?
Student 1: What else can I do there?
Student 2: You can also go to the Louvre Museum.
Student 1: That sounds like a good idea. Thanks.

Haewon: OK. It's from the dialogue in the textbook.

Haewon: Congratulations. Well done. You are so clever.

In this activity, the students had to guess a few empty phrases within the dialogue on the screen and speak complete sentences when practising speaking in pairs (see Appendix 26). Though the students spoke fluently, this activity seemed to have a limited effect on encouraging natural communicative interaction between the students as it was mainly based on re-producing the model dialogue in the textbook. Throughout her second lesson, she frequently adopted a quiz after teaching each part of the reading text for speaking practice. The role of the quiz seemed also to raise competition amongst the boys, and as shown below the students were getting more excited and asked for more quizzes when each reading passage was finished:

Extract 35. Quiz in lesson 2

Students: (Put hands up and shout) Quiz... Quiz...
Haewon: OK... OK... We will do one more quiz now. What is kloofing? What is kloofing?
Student 4: Kloofing is for the waterfall...
Haewon: What?
Student 4: Kloofing is climbing the rock and the waterfall.
Students: No... No...
Haewon: OK... OK...

While competing with one another to speak the answer first, the students were actively participating in the quiz and some students' English was quite fluent. During the quiz, she seemed to elicit more extended speech from the students, though their speech was based on the textbook. For the last half of the lesson, she implemented a jigsaw activity using an extrareading material. The students again actively participated in the activity, but group work was mainly based on completing the handout and there was no communicative interaction amongst the students while working in groups. At the end of the jigsaw activity, there were presentations from a few groups and one student in each group stood up and spoke the answers which he found in their groups in relation to the questions provided in the handout:

Extract 36. Presentation after the jigsaw activity in lesson 2

Haewon: One more team. Please let me have one more team present your answers to us.

Students: (Chat in groups)

Student 10: (Put hands up)

Haewon: OK.

Student 10: (Point out one student in the group) He will do for our team.

Haewon: OK.

Student 11: If I have a chance to travel to South Africa, I would like to go to Cape Town.

Because there are beautiful waterfalls and um, climbing...

Students: (Clap)

Haewon: OK. Say a little more about what you mean.

Student 11: I will go... go to Cape Town...

Haewon: Why?

Student 11: Cape Town is, um, the most popular place in South Africa for tourism.

Haewon: OK. Good.

Student: (Clap)

During the presentations, she seemed to initiate more extended speech from the students by using follow-up questions appropriately. While some students were merely reading their answers written on the handouts, some students presented their expressions quite fluently. Though the presentations provided some students with an opportunity to produce extended speech, also with modification of their speech with the assistance of her questioning, this type of speaking activity seemed to have a limitation in promoting oral proficiency in that it was teacher-controlled speaking practice rather than communicative practice amongst students.

6.3.3.3 Haewon's Views of Teaching Speaking and Context Factors

In comparison to Haewon's practices, Haewon's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking are discussed based on her account of her practices and contextual factors which may have affected her views or practices. The discussion is based on the following themes which were mostly drawn from the observations and interviews before and during the practicum.

Classroom English

As noted during her lessons, she made much use of classroom English. She commented positively on her nearly full use of TEE in her high level class. However, while she taught her

second lesson only in English, during her first lesson, she often used Korean due to considering students' understanding of grammatical terminology:

I am trying to use classroom English as much as I can, but this section was grammar, and because the terminology of the relative pronouns was very difficult for students to understand, I also used Korean during this lesson. However, for other sections in the textbook, I always teach them completely in English.

During her early teaching week, she saw a big proficiency difference between the high level and the low level, and also noted that while high level students were not really learning very much from the lesson with high oral proficiency and with what is covered in the lesson already learned by private teaching, low level students were having difficulty even following basic classroom English. Therefore, she seemed to adjust TEE by using less English in the low level class while employing TEE fully in the high level class. However, her perception of the high level students' lack of understanding of grammar terminology seems also to have influenced her to adopt code-switching during grammar teaching.

Elicitation and Instruction Strategy

Her first lesson was centered on explicit grammar instruction on the blackboard. She felt that the lesson was mainly based on lecturing because of the grammar-centered and textbookbased exam system and the shortage of time to prepare for speaking activities. She explained why she had to adjust her communicative approach to GTM during her early teaching practice:

When I taught grammar at first, I tried to guide communications in CLT ways by showing various materials... in fact last time in my first lesson I completely lost my confidence. I intended to let students brainstorm by using the PowerPoint materials, showing different situations... I truly felt that consciousness-raising was not possible for them, as they were just looking at the PowerPoint screen without saying anything and I couldn't do any communicative lesson with them. So today I wrote grammar points on the blackboard to guide key points about the relative pronouns. I think, regarding grammar, students are still familiar with teacher-directed input so if I try to give input in communicative ways using materials, they just miss the point.

At first, she seems to have made an effort to elicit natural speech from the students by using brainstorming with input materials but due to lack of communication amongst the students, she could not continue this and employed traditional teaching styles. On the other hand, she was also impressed by her mentor's explicit grammar instruction in preparation for the exam, and she preferred to mix her communicative approach with explicit grammar instruction:

I think we need to make a balance between CLT and GTM with half-and-half maybe. So at first, we could provide the lesson aims and key grammar points in deductive ways which students are familiar with and then we could show further materials to help them speak and in this way, CLT lessons can be more effective for students from my point of view.

Since she was unsuccessful with brainstorming during her early teaching practice, she made use of questioning as her elicitation strategy:

So when I teach my lesson... I usually show students pictures and also films or relevant photographs in the beginning when I introduce vocabulary, and then I ask questions to elicit students' speech, for example, what does this picture show to you? Also when teaching listening, what kind of situation is this? Actually, during my observation week, I found lessons in the school usually proceeded in this way by warming up briefly about the topic... [...] In my opinion, brainstorming is very useful, as it can activate students' background knowledge and elicit their speech further, so I still very much prefer brainstorming.

From the above extract, she seems to have noticed questioning to be effective in elicitation during her observation week and made use of this along with brainstorming. She valued the role of brainstorming very much in eliciting students' speech and her preference for brainstorming as her main elicitation method was also reflected in her lesson plan (see Appendix 28). In her first lesson I noted her frequent questions and she seemed to try to elicit students' answers in English during the grammar review but regarding her questioning, she viewed that her elicitation strategy was not skillful to involve more students in speaking:

I used questions in order to make students speak and participate in the lesson... also if I just write things on the blackboard, and let them make notes, I will not be able to know whether they understand my lesson or not, so I ask questions either as a whole class or individually... To be honest, I would like to go round by asking questions individually but as I'm a novice teacher... I'm afraid I'm always asking questions only to those who are most actively participating...

She also commented that her elicitation strategy was not effective to elicit natural speech from the students. However, while trying to teach communicative lessons, she seems to have enlarged her understanding of the supportive teacher role in developing speaking by more guided questioning and attention to students:

During my teaching, what I first felt was, the fact that students are familiar with lecturing. However, when the teacher keeps asking them to come out and speak, and if they feel that the teacher is paying attention to them and showing interest in their opinions, they are getting more and more active and participatory in the activities, and this was so surprising to me. So from my understanding, even low ability students can develop their potential to learn to speak fully if the teacher listens to their opinions and talks to them individually. Her efforts to use more strategic questioning seemed also to be noted in her second lesson during students' presentations, eliciting more extended answers from the students. From her account, her practice seems to have gradually helped her increase her understanding of effective elicitation and instruction strategies according to the students' level.

Speaking Activity

She commented on her emphasis on the teaching of speaking during her early teaching week by frequently implementing speaking activities during the teaching of other skills, and her main speaking practice was carried out usually by pair work or presentations following group work. She explained her motive and effort for situation-based speaking activities to elicit natural communication through brainstorming and with extra-materials during her early teaching week:

For example, for the speaking section like 'Look and Talk,' teachers usually let students read aloud the dialogue, but in my case, I tried to brainstorm about their city and made a list of famous places in the city by asking them questions, and then I let them practise two or three times to be familiar with this speech pattern, and then I also got them to work in pairs using this pattern by themselves. [...] The dialogue section is usually taught in the school by reading aloud A and B in pairs, but in my case apart from reading aloud I also adopted more supplementary materials. For example, I showed pictures about famous places for tourists as well as playing films, and then I displayed more detailed information on the PowerPoint screen and let students stand up in pairs and talk about the information using the pattern of the dialogue.

However, she was frustrated by the students' passivity and lack of autonomy during speaking activities:

So what I found during my teaching of speaking was, even though I tried to brainstorm the topic and make the students naturally communicate with one another without using the textbook, they just tended to keep looking at the textbook and reading aloud exactly what is written in the textbook... (Laugh) Because they are pretty much accustomed to reading aloud between A and B, and such kind of oral practice, they continuously read aloud during communicative practice even though I encourage them not to do so...

As her mentor was flexible with her teaching practice, she was able to apply communicative approaches guided from teacher training in her class, but with lack of time for task design and also under pressure to prepare for the inspected lesson by the education board at the end of the practicum, she decided, in the end, to employ speaking activities occasionally while focusing more on reading and grammar:

Because the inspected lesson is important, I try to spend my lesson preparation time on this, while teaching the other lessons on the basis of the existing lessons occasionally by adding extra-communicative activities

or extra-materials. For speaking activities or materials, I usually try to apply what I learned in the teacher college, as my mentor also said to me to teach what I want to teach in my own ways.

In her first lesson, while teaching grammar, she employed reading aloud frequently. Regarding this activity, however, she felt uncertain about its impact on spoken English development and adopted it as a way to make students speak during grammar teaching. On the other hand, she also explained the difficulty of implementing speaking activities during teaching grammar. She continued to comment on how she felt it difficult to guide speaking practice integrally with grammar instruction:

So I always implement speaking practice from time to time during grammar lessons... But usually, I felt so nervous during speaking practice in my lessons and my mentor also said to me to be more relaxed when I'm making students participate in communicative activities... However today I am quite satisfied with my lesson, as students were very actively participating in most speaking practice. (Laugh)

She seems to have felt an emotional tension due to her lack of practical skills in implementing speaking practice during grammar teaching. She explained further the difficulty of involving students equally in speaking practice due to a few highly proficient students who often dominated most opportunities to speak or participate in speaking practice. Therefore, she designed a jigsaw activity to encourage more natural communicative interaction during group work amongst students and integrate speaking with extra-reading. She explained that the jigsaw activity was motivated by teacher training:

During the jigsaw activity, the extra-reading materials were intended to provide students with more authentic materials which I found on the travel guide website. I extracted an article and then changed only the vocabulary to make it easier for my students. Actually during the teaching methodology course, the trainer told us that it is very important to give students a lot of authentic input during reading in communicative lessons. She told us that students can think better by reading whatever rich supplementary materials, so bearing the importance of authentic input in mind, I implemented the materials as I was told to do.

She employed communicative methodology to teaching reading by using authentic materials and group work as she learned during teacher training but the jigsaw activity ended up without much success:

For today's lesson, I planned activities a bit too much. My initial plan was, at first, after showing materials and doing listening to the reading text so that they can understand what it is about, to do a comprehension quiz, a vocabulary activity, and then finally a jigsaw as an extensive reading activity involving speaking practice... I thought the reading text was too easy for their level, and actually I learned extensive reading is very important and we should provide much input during reading, so I tried to give them more detailed information about each part of the reading text using extra-reading materials in advance as homework,

and then during the jigsaw activity, I wanted them to discuss in groups by thinking about the answers together. However, I'm not satisfied with the jigsaw activity as students didn't do very well for communicative practice as I intended.

While she perceived that her students were usually highly participant in speaking activities due to the extra-credit system in the school, which rewards each student's participation with an extra-mark, she seemed to attribute little communicative interaction amongst the students during the jigsaw activity today to her lack of skill in communicative task design:

It was completely my mistake... I didn't think carefully about the activity design. I regret that I gave them the handout instead of a communicative task... If I had given them a kind of task in which they can interact or communicate as a group, they would have very much enjoyed the communicative activity, but it was the first time for me to implement the jigsaw activity, and I also didn't have much time to prepare for it. The handout was really my mistake because the purpose of the jigsaw activity was to let the students discuss and communicate with one another about what they learned in each group.

The design of the jigsaw activity seems also to have been stimulated by the native English teacher's speaking lesson to some extent as she mentioned that she was very impressed by the effect of competitive group work on student participation. However, she must have experienced that it was not easy to design a communicative task effectively. She acknowledged that at least she learned the fact that the use of the handout during the jigsaw activity was ineffective to encourage speaking practice and that more structured communicative task design was necessary to encourage communicative interaction amongst the students working in groups.

Theory and Practice

Regarding theory and practice of teaching speaking, she seems to have increased her understanding of CLT by continuously applying what she learned from her teacher training to her practice, and seems to have gained more realistic views on CLT:

Students are usually very interested in activities and they really want to get involved in activities. Even low ability students really like speaking practice in pair work and love to take part in presentations. During my teaching practice, I felt that it was very important to vary the pattern of the lesson as I found students easily lost their interests. So if I vary the type of communicative activities, I can see their motivation highly elaborated.

She commented on the importance of varying communicative activities to improve students' motivation. As noted during her lessons, she seemed to try to implement different

communicative activities which tended to involve competition amongst the students. Whilst communicative activities can be defined as speaking activities where students engage in meaningful communication through negotiation of meaning by interchanging opinions and ideas in English through communicative interaction with one another in the form of pair work or group work (also see section 2.8.2 to review what I mean by 'a communicative classroom'), Haewon seemed to view a communicative activity in the CLT lesson as a kind of a task which has a certain goal to achieve mainly through competition as a group. As reviewed in the example of the jigsaw, her communicative activity did not always involve or achieve communicative interaction between the students. This could be due to her lack of practical skills in communicative activity or CLT. She viewed the streamed system very positively in terms of teaching speaking in that it provides students with more opportunities for speaking practice by competing within the same level, thus increasing their confidence and achievement during speaking practice. However, she still felt ambiguity about defining CLT or the relationship between theory and practice of CLT:

I think there is really know-how, which can be learned by having teaching experiences practically in the real context. By teaching more and more, I got to learn more about teaching. However, in fact, it is quite a sensitive and also ambiguous issue to apply theory to practice in relation to the teaching of speaking... To be honest, we keep saying about CLT lessons or emphasize CLT... but I'm not sure what is really CLT, and how we should teach it if it is going to be truly like CLT or CLT-like lessons in the schools... (Laugh)

While she seems to have become more aware of the importance of acquiring contextual knowledge of CLT through her practice in context, she still felt uncertain about how to conceptualize CLT. Her uncertainty with CLT practice may have been caused by her prior misperception of what CLT practice means by viewing it rather in terms of a specific method or technique with a structured framework. That is, she seems to have misconceived CLT, based on theoretical learning in teacher education, and she may not have had a clear understanding of CLT when she started the practicum as noted in her early interview. Moreover, she may have had an expectation of ideal or model CLT practice before the practicum. It can be inferred further from her account that her idealized view of model CLT practice informed by teacher training was challenged in the classroom context. This was due to difficulties caused by unexpected student dynamics or various factors influencing teaching and learning, and she would have encountered confusion or ambiguity about how CLT should be taught. However, she seems to have not made sense of her experience fully during her practicum period especially regarding the application of CLT to a school context where

different factors including students' characteristics need to be taken into account when planning CLT. Even after experiencing the teaching of speaking with relatively more opportunities to implement communicative activities in her classroom than other trainees because she taught a high level class (which is classified as the top level in terms of students' oral proficiency under the streamed system) and was supported by a cooperating school working with the local education board, she still did not seem to have changed her naive view of CLT, nor have developed CLT lessons to be more appropriate and suitable for her students. She became more aware of the need for teacher support or teacher feedback to develop students' speech during classroom interaction as she commented earlier, but she still did not seem to have developed more context-sensitive pedagogical perspectives on CLT instruction in her classroom, and the reason for this can be due to the limited time to plan and implement CLT lessons during the practicum. She stressed the importance of having more teaching experience to learn teaching better, and as implied by her account, not enough teaching experience during the short practicum may have influenced her to encounter difficulty in making sense of CLT in her classroom and school context, that is, making a more effective application of what she learned about CLT in theory into the socio-cultural education context of Korea. After having gained only some experience of how to apply CLT in the classroom, she seems to have had a little conceptualization of what communicative teaching of speaking means in context. Her experience of teaching speaking is discussed further below in relation to challenges and contextual factors that influenced her practice during the practicum.

Contextual Factors

She talked about a few challenges and difficulties which interfered with her practice. First of all, she explained the difficulties caused by her lack of practical skills in teaching speaking. During her early teaching week, she felt uneasy with her communicative approach as she faced a challenge in classroom management during speaking activities, and her effort to involve more students in speaking practice increased her emotional tension. She talked about her lack of elicitation skills:

I think I should have given low ability students a chance to participate in speaking but because I'm quite unskilful as a novice teacher... I also realized that my response to students' answers was merely telling them whether their answer was correct or not. If I had given them more feedback apart from saying okay, by attending to their answers once again like naturally communicating when they answered in English, it would have been great in developing and eliciting their speech more...

She also felt difficulty in communicative task design and was very disappointed by the ineffective use of the handout for communicative practice during the jigsaw activity:

There were a lot of difficulties actually while trying to teach communicative lessons. First of all, in CLT lessons, students should communicate a lot... but the fact that I used a worksheet today instead of assigning a communicative task was very problematic indeed as they were only writing the answers there without any communication... If it had been a proper communicative task, then they could have been more communicative with each other and have done more speaking practice...

From her account, she must have struggled during her practice due to her lack of practical skills for CLT lessons. Her lack of confidence in communicative lessons seems also to have influenced her decision to defer her teaching practice. While she was allowed to teach from the second week with much support from her mentor and her head teacher for her communicative approach, her perception of the pressure for the preparation of communicative lessons even made her decide to teach from the third week. However, there seemed also to be difficulties caused by the limited time to implement communicative tasks during the lessons. For example, in her second lesson, she tried to teach reading communicatively by integrating it with speaking, and as she learned from teacher training, she intended to teach reading through a lot of supplementary materials in exploratory ways with communicative practice, but her plan was adjusted according to her mentor's advice to simplify the task or the material due to the limited time:

During the teaching methodology course, we learned that we have to let the students guess the title first and then provide materials that can strengthen their background knowledge and raise their motivation. For difficult vocabulary, we can help them guess the meaning by showing films and pictures with contextual information and then let them read the reading text again, so my lesson plan was initially based on this. However, when I showed my lesson plan to my mentor, she advised me to skip the reading process due to the limited time to do activities during the lesson and implement only one main activity, so my lesson today was a little bit adjusted.

Moreover, in addition to the time constraint, she also felt struggled with classroom management during group work with over 25 students in the classroom:

Due to the large classroom situation, managing classroom control was not possible. (Laugh) I used both interaction and competition during the jigsaw activity, as group work is based on interaction, and as I also made students compete between groups. I think I didn't do it very well in providing them with a chance to participate in speaking practice, and while everyone was shouting and raising their hands, it was very difficult to know who should be given a chance, even though I wanted to involve everyone equally.

While she tried hard to implement speaking activities in her lessons and develop her own communicative strategies, there were again challenges to her communicative approach because of the students' expectations of traditional lessons for exam preparation. Though her head teacher and her mentor encouraged her to explore and implement her own communicative methodology, her perception of the importance of covering the textbook to prepare for the exam according to the students' expectation seems to have constrained her practice of teaching speaking:

In my case, my mentor told me to teach in ways that I would like to teach, but as for me, as there was a time constraint as I had to cover the textbook, it was problematic to do communicative lessons. As students are accustomed to such a lesson style as listening, translating, and explaining grammar, I can see them feeling very anxious if I want to teach completely communicative lessons based on CLT, and as they are getting anxious about how these lessons can help their exam, I'm also getting worried about how they can sit an exam while it is so difficult to proceed my lesson in this way...

Her perception of the importance of the exam preparation also made her lesson more traditional based on the textbook. She explained further her consideration of the school exam:

When I was thinking about the secondary school context in Korea, I had to address vocabulary and explain grammatical points during my lesson because these elements cannot be omitted. I didn't want to teach them but I couldn't skip them because students have to sit an exam in the end, and they have to go to university too.

From her account, in addition to her lack of practical skills, her own perception of the general emphasis on grammar and vocabulary in secondary schools in Korea to prepare for the school exam, the goal of which is success in the university entrance exam, seems to have significantly constrained the extent to which she was able to implement and develop her communicative approach during the practicum.

6.3.4 Haewon's Beliefs and Perspectives of Teaching Speaking after the Practicum

Haewon's views on teaching speaking were explored through the follow-up interview in the teacher college after the practicum to see if there was any change or difference in her beliefs and perspectives. Her overall views on the aspects of teaching speaking are discussed in comparison to her early views before the practicum.

Elicitation and Participation

After the practicum, her views about teaching speaking were very practical regarding the methods which could improve elicitation and participation from the students. Though the students were usually highly motivated and participative in speaking practice, she felt that it had been quite difficult to elicit natural communication due to the students' passive and nervous attitudes during speaking practice. She showed her increased understanding of teaching speaking in terms of student affect:

What I felt most about teaching speaking during the practicum is, students even in the high level class feel afraid of speaking in English and show very passive attitudes during communicative practice. So in my opinion, it is very important to help them try to speak even a little bit of English first and build up such a speaking habit in the classroom.

As stated above, in order to elicit more natural speech from the students, she stressed that it is particularly important to make speaking a kind of habit in the classroom. She also viewed a teacher's guided question in English as crucial to elicit more speech from the students:

What I also noted about teaching speaking is, if the teacher asks a question in Korean, students answer in Korean, but if the teacher asks a question in English, they may hesitate at first but they try to answer it in English in the end by using the expressions which they already know.

She seemed to perceive that teacher support is important to enable students to overcome emotional barriers to speaking and speak more gradually. Her later views on elicitation and participation seemed to be consistent with and reflected in her practice.

CLT and TEE

Regarding TEE policy, she found that TEE was practised by most of the teachers in the school because of the students' generally good oral proficiency, and therefore the students' familiarity with TEE. Her views of TEE were consistent with her initial views before the practicum and seem to have become more practical and positive after her extensive experience of TEE in her school:

From my point of view, TEE is really necessary. Even if it is basic classroom English, it is still spoken input. I think nowadays most teachers' oral proficiency is quite good so it shouldn't be a problem for them to teach in English. In fact, TEE is not difficult for the teachers as it is usually used at the level of simple instruction, but it is crucial for the students as spoken input, so I think TEE is really essential in schools. Moreover, what I felt during the practicum was, even for the low level, if the level of TEE is a little bit

adjusted to the students, by using very basic classroom English, also supporting each one individually, maybe if possible, even by team teaching, then there won't be any problem with TEE.

After the practicum, her views about applying CLT to context were again very positive particularly regarding the impact on her students' active participation during her communicative lessons:

This can be my practical application of theory, but I think students are very participatory in my lesson. When I heard them saying to me that they really liked my lesson and it was fun and interesting to them, I felt that they really enjoy CLT lessons and they are relaxed in that learning environment, so I think CLT lessons are really good. I value the benefits of CLT lessons very much now. This school has a reputation for high achieving students, and they are also very enthusiastic during the native teacher's speaking lesson, so I think students here are very open-minded to CLT lessons.

However, as she mentioned before, she indicated again the difficulty of engaging students in more natural speaking practice apart from reading aloud of the textbook due to their familiarity with the traditional methods of learning English based on grammatical accuracy:

What I found during their speaking practice was, whenever I asked them to have a conversation, they couldn't easily express their opinions. Actually, they are very reluctant to speak in English as even highly proficient students are also anxious about whether this expression is right or wrong... If I ask them to read aloud, they are excellent in doing so, but the most proficient students also feel a kind of pressure when they are called to speak... so I think it is very important as a teacher to be able to help them be aware that speaking or expressing their opinions in English is nothing difficult because they have a psychological barrier inside, and this is the main problem to speaking...

She argued for the importance of helping students overcome the fear of speaking and change their perspectives of spoken English through teacher support in order to develop their oral proficiency further in the classroom, and this view was consistent with her initial belief before the practicum. However, it seemed that in a reality where the exam preparation is given a higher priority, her argument would be less feasible. She also indicated the need for teaching more speaking-based lessons in order to develop students' oral proficiency in the secondary school and perceived group work as effective to practise speaking and also to maximize the impact of CLT on student learning by establishing a communicative atmosphere and by putting students in a competition.

Theory and Practice

In terms of the connection between theory and practice of teaching speaking, her views were very positive after the practicum. She was positive about the effectiveness of communicative teaching of speaking in increasing the students' motivation and participation during her lessons. However, she also acknowledged that contextual variables in the classroom were unpredictable and that these were causing a discrepancy between her lesson plan and actual practice. For example, she mentioned IT facilities that she often adopted to play audio-visual materials as one cause which could affect the effect of her lessons. She found that one day those facilities worked well as they were intended to support her lessons, but on the other day, they did not work properly or effectively as much as she planned. Her critical point on student variables in the classroom context seemed also to indicate the fact that the class size was still too large even though the streamed system made the number of students in the classroom smaller than before, and therefore student factors made a significant influence on her choice of or decision about classroom practice:

While actually teaching in the school, sometimes I found more effects of my teaching on the students even when I didn't make enough lesson preparations and this was beyond my expectation, but on the other day, I couldn't get what I wanted to achieve even though I spent much time in lesson preparations. So what I felt is, there are a significant amount of different variables which interfere with teaching in the real context, therefore it is unpredictable, and uncertain to know what to do...

She explained further how students' psychological factors influenced her practice as she mentioned earlier:

Well, as students are a living being, their mood and emotion change all the time. What I notice is that they are very different in the morning, and again in the afternoon, and when I see them later they are also different in the evening... I always feel that the students' psychological factors are very important as they are changing all the time even during the day...

Her views on the importance of considering students' emotional or psychological conditions in teaching speaking were consistent during and after the practicum. After having experienced teaching practice over the practicum, she seems to have further increased her understanding of students' characteristics and psychological factors in more practical ways, so her views on student factors after the practicum were more realistic based on her experience in her teaching context. She seemed to view student variables as an important cause which creates a gap between classroom practice and the theory of communicative teaching of speaking.

School Context and Education System

She commented very positively on her school, which provided much support for students' spoken English development. In addition to the good facilities in the English-speaking

classroom, she was impressed by the amount of support and attention given by the principal and the head teacher to spoken English development:

The principal and the head teacher are also very supportive of students' oral proficiency development. They said once they put the low level class in intensive speaking practice about giving a direction for a month, and after this, all of them improved their speaking. So I felt that the type and intensity of spoken input are very important according to the student level.

She seems to have enlarged her understanding of teaching speaking with support for her communicative practice in her school. However, she stressed again the exam system as a key barrier to embedding the speaking policy in the secondary school context in Korea, in addition to a lack of teachers' resources to help communicative task design.

6.3.5 Comparisons between Pre-Practicum and Post-Practicum

Haewon's beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking will now be discussed in relation to before, during, and after the practicum. Her initial views of teaching speaking seemed to be consistent with her practice during the practicum in many respects. She seemed to increase her awareness of CLT in relation to student factors and gain practical knowledge of elicitation and participation under the streamed system. Her initial views of TEE were practically modified in ways to familiarise students with speaking in the classroom. However, she was confronted with difficulties while trying to apply theory to practice under contextual constraints in addition to her lack of practical skills. The major barrier was the exam system, and her own perception of the focus on the textbook for the exam in the secondary school constrained her practice of teaching speaking. Her beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking before, during, and after the practicum are summarised in the chart below.

 Table 6.1. The Differences between Haewon's views of Teaching Speaking before and after

 the Practicum

	Before the Practicum	During the Practicum	After the Practicum
Elicitation and participation	Expects difficulties in raising student elicitation and participation due to students' fear of speaking	Notices generally good oral proficiency and participation of the students in the school Experiences difficulties in developing elicitation and	Recognizes the importance of guided questions for further elicitation of students' English Recognizes the important role of teacher attention and support in

Г			· · · · · · · · ·
	Views increasing	participation due to lack of	increasing elicitation and
	students' motivation	practical skills	participation from students
	as important to enhance	Uses questions and pictures	Recognizes lack of elicitation
	elicitation and	for elicitation before	skills and the difficulty of
	participation	listening or introducing the	eliciting natural communication
		topic as observed in the	between the students
		school	
		Experiences difficulties in	
		eliciting speech from more	
		students except the dominant during communicative	
		activities	
		activities	
		Experiences difficulties in	
		eliciting natural speech or	
		providing feedback due to	
		lack of skills	
		Develops personal strategies	
		for elicitation and	
		participation through guided	
		questions and competitions	
		Becomes aware of the effect	
		of teacher attention and	
		support on increasing elicitation and participation	
		in each level	
Speaking	Views speaking policy	Encounters difficulties	Views the streamed system as
practice	negatively in terms of	during speaking-centered	effective in teaching speaking
	the exam focus in the	lessons with extra-materials	for both high and low level
	school	for brainstorming due to no	students
	Perceives difficulties in	communication between the	Views group work as effective
	teaching speaking from	students but reading aloud of	for speaking practice through
	students' passive	the textbook	competition and interaction in a
	attitudes due to the	Tries to implement warm-up	communicative environment and
	exam focus in the	activities with extra-	for a maximum impact of CLT
	school	materials for brainstorming	on student learning
	Diana ta hala ta 1 t	and speaking practice but	_
	Plans to help students	without success due to	Identifies students' passivity and
	overcome the fear of		non-autonomy due to concern

	speaking by making a flexible classroom environment Plans to provide rich spoken input to reduce emotional tension and guide speaking step by step Plans to design interactive speaking activities and maximize speaking	students' passive and non- autonomous attitudes Adopts reading aloud for speaking practice during grammar teaching in the activity book but feels uncertain of its effect on speaking Experiences emotional tension in student involvement when implementing speaking activities during grammar teaching due to a lack of practical skills for teaching speaking	about grammar accuracy and fear of speaking as a barrier to effective speaking practice or communicative interaction between the students Recognizes the importance of making students familiar with speaking or making a speaking habit in the classroom to overcome students' psychological barrier to speaking Recognizes the importance of varying speaking activities to improve student motivation and the need for more speaking
		Uses a quiz and pair work to practise the dialogue in the speaking section in the textbook Uses group work for interactive speaking practice Devises a quiz, a jigsaw, and a presentation for the integrative practice of speaking with reading Implements speaking integrally with reading and grammar	lessons in the school to develop speaking Recognizes a lack of teacher resources for communicative task design Recognizes the exam system as a barrier to teaching speaking
CLT	Expects difficulties in CLT due to the exam- centered education system in Korea Views the aims of CLT positively Intends to make much use of visual materials	Acknowledges students' concentration and motivation differences across levels and adjusts input materials and develops new ideas on how to teach CLT in each level Faces difficulties in implementing input materials	Perceives the impact of CLT on increasing student motivation and participation very positively with an enjoyable and relaxing classroom environment Recognizes ambiguity in terms of ideal CLT practice in the school context

	• • •		
	as communicative input for communicative	for brainstorming and communicative activities for	Recognizes difficulties in
	activities	CLT lessons due to student	implementing the
	Prefers CLT lessons to	passivity and non-autonomy	communicative approach under the exam-centered education
		Experiences difficulties in	
	traditional lessons and	Experiences difficulties in	system
	intends to connect	assisting student	
	speaking to students' real life to maximize	participation in communicative activities in	
	natural communication		
	in the classroom	the large classroom	
	In the classroom	Perceives difficulties in CLT	
		lessons due to the textbook	
		and exam focus and students'	
		expectation for GTM in the	
		school context in Korea	
		Tries to mix CLT with GTM	
		and adopts the mentor's	
		explicit grammar instruction	
		for the exam	
		Tries to focus on reading and	
		grammar in the textbook	
		while implementing CLT	
		occasionally	
		Tries to use visual materials	
		or films for brainstorming	
		and speaking during reading	
		Feels lack of confidence in	
		CLT lesson preparations and	
		communicative task design	
		due to a lack of practical	
		skills and time constraints	
		Perceives developing the	
		know-how for CLT as	
		important through much	
		practice in the context	
TEE	View TEE it's 1		Viene TEE man idea to d
TEE	Views TEE positively	Perceives intensive practice	Views TEE more positively than
	as spoken input and considers classroom	of TEE in the school	before the practicum
	considers classroom		

	English not to be difficult for students even in the low level Shows an interest in maximizing the use of TEE as spoken input and for training as a teacher during the practicum	Employs a different amount of TEE in each level in consideration of students' understanding Uses basic classroom English for the low level Uses TEE fully for the high level except for occasionally code-switching during teaching grammar	Recognizes the effectiveness of TEE on students' spoken English development for both spoken input and output even in the low level
Theory and practice	Intends to apply theory to practice in terms of teaching speaking	Uses personal strategies to apply theory to practice during teaching speaking but acknowledges ambiguity about CLT regarding the extent to which CLT can be applied in the classroom	Views the connection between theory and practice of CLT positively in terms of the impact on student motivation and participation Recognizes student variables and psychological factors as an important influence on the difference between lesson plans and actual practice Recognizes ambiguity about perceiving the relationship between theory and practice of CLT in the school context
Student level and motivation	Predicts a lack of student motivation for speaking due to the exam-centered education system Predicts students' psychological barrier to speaking in the school context from personal experience of schooling and after school teaching	Acknowledges students' generally good oral proficiency with high motivation and participation in speaking in the school Perceives students' psychological barrier to speaking and unfamiliarity with communicative interaction as a challenge in communicative teaching of speaking	Becomes more aware of students' psychological factors Becomes more aware of the importance of lowering students' psychological barrier to speaking to develop speaking in the classroom

Classroom	Perceives the traditional	Faces difficulties in	Perceives the practicum school
context	school context centered	classroom control and	context very positively with
	on the university	individual support during	much support for students'
	entrance exam in Korea	speaking activities due to the	speaking development
	as a barrier to teaching	large classroom	Becomes more aware of the
	speaking		importance of developing
			context-specific communicative
			strategies and approaches

6.4. Summary

Features of Practice

As summarised in the table above, Haewon seemed to try to employ communicative activities and supportive materials as she was guided during teacher training. Her communicative approach to teaching speaking was mainly based on integrated teaching of speaking with reading or grammar, arising from her consideration of the exam-centered and textbook-based school education. She used a quiz or a jigsaw activity during teaching reading with an intention to implement an interactive communicative activity and adopted supplementary materials including multimedia resources to encourage student motivation and provide communicative input through exploratory learning by brainstorming. She also used guided questioning to elicit extended speech from individual students. However, she was confronted with difficulties in classroom management during communicative activities and also in increasing more real communicative interaction. On the other hand, during teaching grammar, she often adopted reading aloud as a whole class or individually as a way to practise speaking but it was controlled oral practice and did not encourage communicative practice between the students. The speaking section was briefly practised by reading aloud of the model dialogue in pairs. Though she implemented communicative activities, most practices of speaking seemed to be based on teacher-led oral practice with little communicative interaction amongst the students.

Influences on Practice

Her practice seems to have been shaped by various influences during the practicum which affected her practice positively or negatively. First of all, there was a lot of support for her communicative approach in her school because of the strong emphasis on the development of speaking in her school with extensive practice of TEE. Her supportive school context enabled her to implement TEE and CLT as she intended before the practicum. Her teacher training also influenced her communicative approach to focus more on inductive input and interactive communicative activities. However, her practice of CLT was challenged by the students' passivity or reticence, and lack of autonomy for communicative practice or exploratory learning by brainstorming. Moreover, she also experienced challenges due to her lack of practical skills in communicative task design, and her lack of elicitation and participation skills increased her emotional tension during communicative activities even though the students in her school were generally very motivated and participatory. Her communicative approach was constrained further because of the students' expectations for the traditional lessons for exam preparation, and her own perception of the importance of covering the textbook and limited time for speaking practice eventually constrained her practice to be based on her mentor's.

Changes in Cognition and Practice

Haewon's beliefs and practices of teaching speaking were explored by comparing before, during, and after the practicum. Her initial views on teaching speaking before the practicum were rather negative due to her own experience of lack of meaningful or communicative learning of speaking during schooling, and her perception of students' passive learning and fear of speaking under the exam-centered education system. However, she perceived the role of TEE to be important as spoken input, and she also preferred to apply theory to practice in relation to CLT. During the practicum, her perspectives of CLT seemed to be consistent but became more practical and contextualized in relation to the importance of elicitation and participation as well as the role of teacher support according to the level of the students under the streamed system. She seemed also to modify her initial views of TEE through extensive practice of TEE during the practicum, perceiving it as an effective tool for spoken input and output at each level. Her theoretical or ideal perspectives of communicative approaches to teaching speaking became more realistic and positive after the practicum by acknowledging

the impact on student motivation and learning. However, she seemed to view the relationship between theory and practice of CLT in context as rather ambiguous, while various variables in the classroom context influenced her practice.

Overall, her experience of schooling and teacher training seemed to shape her initial beliefs and practices, but her initial views were modified throughout her practice, and the reason for the change seemed to be mostly contextual. That is, she gained more contextualized views and practical skills for communicative teaching of speaking by interacting with students, and there were clearly elaborations in her early views and practices of teaching speaking by learning from classroom practice during the practicum, but there seemed to be a limitation in the extent to which her cognition and practice could develop during the short practicum.

In the next discussion chapter, the central themes which were derived from the findings will be discussed in detail with reference to the key findings and also the literature.

Chapter 7. Discussion

7.1. Overview

This chapter will discuss the major findings from the study with reference to previous or current research. First, I will focus on the effect of the practicum on the change in the trainees' initial beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking by an assessment of their level of understanding before and after the practicum. Then I will discuss the nature of the trainees' actual practice of teaching speaking in their classrooms and assess the influences of the teacher colleges and placement schools on their practice, and finally, the overall impact of the practicum on their teacher learning will be discussed.

The purpose of the study was to understand the student teachers' learning during the practicum in relation to their practice of teaching speaking by comparing their views before, during and after the practicum. The research questions are repeated below as a reminder of the overall aims of the study.

Main Question:

To what extent does the pre-service teachers' experience during the practicum affect their understanding of teaching speaking?

Sub-Questions:

- What is the pre-service teachers' understanding of teaching speaking gained from teacher training before the practicum?
- What is the pre-service teachers' understanding of teaching speaking after the practicum?
- What challenges to learning to teach speaking in the manner expected by the national curriculum do the pre-service teachers confront during the practicum?

The study aimed to investigate the student teachers' understanding of teaching speaking in secondary schools and detect any change in their cognition during the practicum. The study adopted a mixed methodology. Through participant observations and in-depth field interviews, context-driven qualitative data were generated in order to ensure the validity and

trustworthiness of the study. On the basis of the overall findings and according to the research questions, the discussion is divided into the five sections and I will compare the principal findings of the study with those of the literature. The headings were structured according to the key themes identified across the cases, firstly, to evaluate the extent of cognition change and how effective the practicum has been on a deeper understanding of teaching speaking (in section 7.2), and secondly to present a clear picture of the practicum in terms of the trainees' TEE and CLT practice at the level of implementing the national curriculum policies and to highlight personal or contextual factors which have influenced the trainees' practice in relation to teacher training and school contexts (in section 7.3), and thirdly I will briefly compare and summarise the three cases highlighting the similarities and differences of the trainees' teacher colleges, context of the practicum, and personal attributes (in section 7.4), and after then I will draw a conclusion on the overall impact of the practicum on teacher learning that the trainees attained as a result of the practicum (in section 7.5). Finally, lessons learned from the study will be discussed to draw an implication on naturalistic generalization (in section 7.6).

7.2. The extent of the Practicum effect on the Trainees' Cognition Change and Deeper Understanding of Teaching Speaking: Based on Comparisons of the Trainees' Level of Understanding of Teaching Speaking before and after the Practicum

In this section, according to the two main research questions (research questions 1 and 2), I will discuss how the practicum has been effective to the trainees in promoting their deeper understanding of the teaching of speaking and if there has been any cognition change as a result. The following discussion will be based on an assessment of the level of understanding before the practicum with the level of understanding after the practicum. I will first discuss the trainees' prior cognition and theoretical knowledge regarding to what extent they were transferred to their practice, and to what extent they changed after the practicum. Then I will discuss the trainees' practical knowledge development regarding to what extent the trainees were able to develop practical knowledge and if there has been any cognition change with further understanding of teaching speaking as a consequence of practical knowledge.

7.2.1 Nature of Prior Cognition and Theoretical Knowledge Transfer

This section will discuss to what extent the trainees' initial beliefs and perspectives of teaching speaking before the practicum changed after undertaking the practicum, in particular, with a focus on prior cognition and theoretical knowledge transfer to their practice of teaching speaking during the practicum.

Research reports that the apprenticeship of observation noticed by Lortie (1975) has a powerful influence on initial teacher training (Bailey et al., 1996; Richardson, 1996) and that prior cognition often remains unchanged (Peacock, 2001; Weinstein, 1990; Zeichner and Tabachnik, 1981). From the findings, there was little evidence of the influence of prior cognition from schooling on teaching practice. Though there was one trainee who mentioned that she recalled the memory of her English teachers during early teaching practice, this was not clear for the other cases. However, the trainees' experience of learning English seemed, to some extent, to affect their self-efficacy in teaching English or their expectation for teaching speaking before the practicum, and their early expectation of teaching speaking was gradually modified as their personal pedagogical views were developing during the practicum as discussed in the studies of Ng et al. (2010) or Borg (2005).

The trainees' initial pedagogical beliefs were formulated not only by learning from schooling but also by teacher training including studying abroad or private tutoring as noted by Polat (2010). As teacher knowledge and belief integrally influence practice (Golombek, 1998; Pajares, 1992), there is an important role of teacher training to formulate the trainees' initial theoretical knowledge through reflection on prior cognition. However, attention should be given to the fact that prior cognition is hard to change during teacher training as reported in the studies by Peacock (2001) or Tatto (1998). The findings showed that the trainees' initial views of teaching speaking based on theoretical knowledge were very positive in terms of applying theory to practice from communicative perspectives and this is in line with previous research (e.g. Richardson 1996; Weinstein, 1989). However, under contextual challenges, the trainees' practice was constrained and merged with traditional methods. This also confirms other studies which suggest that the impact of teacher training on initial pedagogical knowledge is often washed out during the practicum as student teachers lose their initial pedagogical vision from teacher training due to the incongruence between their belief and

practice in the real context (e.g. Hascher et al., 2004; Shkedi and Laron, 2004; Tillema, 2000). Though some trainees tended to be more successful than others in transferring theoretical knowledge to practice, most trainees encountered a kind of dilemma caused by the mismatch between their initial belief and actual practice. To integrate theory and practice during the practicum, there should be more support for student teachers in theorizing practice as indicated by Leinhart et al. (1995). Caspersen (2013) also suggested to provide support for practical reasoning during teacher training courses and throughout the practicum.

The trainees' initial theoretical knowledge of CLT and TEE before the practicum was found to be rather idealized as most trainees perceived the application of theory into practice very positively before the practicum as stated above. However, their initial theoretical conceptualizations of CLT and TEE were very simplified and idealized views mainly informed from the coursebook during lecturing, and this idealism, similar to what was previously reported by Weinstein (1989) seemed to lead to misconceptions or ambiguity in understanding how to apply CLT and TEE in context particularly during the early period of teaching practice as shown in cases 2 and 3. Similarly, student teachers' mistaken views on language learning were mentioned by Peacock (2001) and Holt-Reynolds (2000). For example, Holt-Reynolds (2000) reported student teachers' misunderstanding of constructivist practice due to theory-based teacher training. The findings showed that the trainees felt difficulty in applying CLT or TEE appropriately in their classrooms and experienced their own struggles. One example of an inaccurate or insufficient understanding of CLT can be found in case 2. The trainee commented on her naïve views of CLT in terms of increasing the quantity of speech before the practicum. She explained that her initial theoretical knowledge of CLT was to produce as much speech as possible from individual students but was modified later towards ways to encourage more student interaction and participation. However, as previous research indicated trainees' teaching concerns focusing only on affective rather than professional issues (e.g. Thomson et al., 2012; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Weinstein, 1989), even after the practicum, Eunhae's theoretically driven views of teaching speaking remained still naïve and did not seem to have developed further with more professional perspectives on teaching speaking. This again suggests the importance of theoretical training being reflective of the reality of classroom teaching, thus helping trainees develop a more sophisticated knowledge of teaching in the classroom during the practicum (Cheng et al., 2009).

7.2.2 Nature of Practical Knowledge Development during the Practicum

In this section, the nature of practical knowledge which the trainees developed during the practicum will be discussed. I will discuss the emergence of practical knowledge and its effect on changing the trainees' cognition and practice of teaching speaking during the practicum, and to what extent the trainees' practical knowledge has developed during the practicum.

The trainees' experience of teaching speaking in the classroom seemed to stimulate practical knowledge development by providing them with a chance to deepen theoretical understanding and test personal pedagogical beliefs behind the practice in relation to CLT and TEE. For example, the trainees seemed to gain more contextual knowledge of CLT and TEE as regards the school curriculum, the exam system, students' characteristics, theory and practice relationships, and teaching methodologies and materials. Experiential knowledge drawn from the classroom and school context also seemed to enable them, to some extent, to be more strategic with their communicative approaches to their students, for example, by employing speaking activities that 'fitted' the students' competitive nature (as shown in cases 2 and 3) or by using elicitation strategies appropriately to the students' level (as shown in case 1). Their practice seemed to enable them to better understand their students and motivate them to be more reflective about their practice to enhance their teaching styles and better support their students. Case 2 showed how the trainee made use of self-reflection to adjust her lesson plan and improve her practice for each of her classes. In doing so, she gained more experience of teaching and more understanding of her students.

The trainees' practical knowledge of teaching speaking, however, seems to have been shaped either positively or negatively according to their experience in their practicum context. Other studies also indicate the influence of teaching context on practical knowledge growth (e.g. Johnston, 1992; Elbaz, 1983). More positive contextual experience of CLT or TEE seemed to develop the trainees' practice in more practical ways and move their initial focus on implementing their own teaching skills towards attending to their students' affective and cognitive characteristics and needs in their classrooms as shown in cases 2 and 3 (see Seban, 2013 for similar examples). However, the findings showed that there seemed to be a limitation in the extent to which the trainees were able to develop practical knowledge of teaching speaking further during the practicum to be able to provide effective support for students' learning of speaking because of contextual constraints and also due to their own difficulties with communicative lessons in addition to the very limited time available for teaching practice, in particular, for teaching speaking. As other studies have pointed out (e.g. Thomson et al., 2012; Haritos, 2004), an important role of initial teacher training is to raise trainees' contextual understanding of the social, cultural and political school context so that trainees can prepare themselves for the real context and continue to develop their own strategies through reflective practice during the practicum.

7.2.3 The Extent of Overall Cognition Change after the Practicum through Conflicts and Challenges in Practicum Contexts

Now I will discuss the extent of the overall change in the trainees' cognition after the practicum, based on the evidence drawn from the findings. Overall, the cases seemed to show that the trainees' previous cognition changed, to some extent, either positively or negatively by gaining contextual knowledge about CLT and TEE. Each trainee had different interpretations of their pedagogical applications as a result of the different amount of teaching practice undertaken and according to student factors and classroom situations. For example, in case 1, Jinsung's perception of the effect of CLT changed slightly in a negative direction due to the limited practice of teaching and the challenges that he had in teaching speaking. On the other hand, in case 2, Eunhae's understanding of CLT was enhanced significantly in a positive way after intensive teaching practice. However, generally speaking, there seemed to be not much change nor development in their cognition except some elaboration of their pedagogical belief and knowledge, and this is similar to the results of the study by Borg (2005). Case 2 as well as case 3 showed the trainees' enhanced confidence and understanding in practice of CLT or TEE after having gained more teaching practice. They seemed to gain practical knowledge of how CLT or TEE worked or did not work by teaching experience in the real classrooms, whilst before the practicum they were simply informed about the theory of CLT and TEE in principle during the teacher training courses. By experiencing the reality of the classroom, they seemed to some extent to enhance their initial, theory-based, understanding of CLT and TEE. They seemed to better understand what factors influenced CLT and TEE in practice when those principles were implemented to real students in the classroom. Thus, their previous views of teaching speaking were challenged and enriched after the practicum. However, their learning of CLT or TEE seemed to remain still insufficient or

rather ambiguous even after the practicum. Although there was some increase in their understanding of the practical aspects of CLT and TEE, their cognition did not seem to have developed further by re-constructing new perspectives on the teaching of speaking. That is, the trainees did not seem to have made effective applications of CLT and TEE principles with context-sensitive pedagogical methods which could be adopted in culturally and linguistically appropriate ways to better support students' learning to speak in their classroom and school contexts. This may be attributed to the short practicum and the difficulty of re-conceptualizing their belief and practice within such a short period with little experience of teaching, or as indicated by Borg (2005) this may also reflect their awareness of CLT and TEE during teacher training before the practicum.

The trainees' initial expectations and actual practice of teaching speaking were incongruent, and therefore their cognition was found to go through some conflicts when encountering the complexity of teaching and classroom reality. However, their idealistic views of teaching speaking seemed to gradually change during teaching practice by incorporating classroom practicalities in relation to student factors as shown in Furlong and Maynard (1995). That is, there seemed to be some impact of teaching practice on turning theoretical knowledge into practical knowledge in terms of classroom activities and management or student characteristics and level, and with emerging practical knowledge their practice became more situated in their context. However, according to Mattheoudakis (2007), student teachers' cognition change is viewed as transitional as they strive to balance their belief and practice while reconstructing them, and this nature of teacher cognition change is also mentioned by Raider-Roth (2012) and Cheng et al. (2009).

The trainees' cognition seemed to some extent to change from being teacher-centered to be more student-centered, that is, from focusing on technical applications of teacher training to becoming more concerned about constructing cheerful classroom environments and interactive relationships with students to support communicative lessons. Research reports student teachers' naïve views of teaching which are mainly interested in knowledge transfer (Richardson, 1996) and which grow eventually to be more supportive of student learning (Furlong and Maynard, 1995; Weinstein, 1990; Fuller, 1969), but the trainees in the study showed more concerns for their students from the beginning of the practicum and developed their personal strategies of teaching speaking in relation to their students since the streamed system was introduced to the school context with emphasis on student support. However, despite their good awareness of the students, there seemed to be a limitation in the extent to which their understanding of student-centered communicative teaching of speaking fully developed to support students' learning of speaking effectively during the practicum. The reason for this can be traced to contextual challenges as well as individual factors and in particular the short practicum to develop teacher competency. This finding is similar to the study of Leavy et al (2007) which reported that there was a limitation in the extent to which student teachers' constructivist views were modified during the practicum.

On the other hand, the trainces' strong self-efficacy seemed to some extent to enable them to move beyond the reality shock and continue to modify their cognition and practice through positive socialization in their teaching context (Freeman and Johnson, 1998). However, the practicum was too short for them to develop their pedagogical conceptualizations of teaching speaking according to their classroom realities through reflective practice. Leavy et al. (2007) also indicated the limitation in student teachers' reflective practice during the practicum.

Overall, the findings seemed to suggest that the trainees' personal experience of learning speaking during schooling, teacher training on teaching speaking, and practice of teaching speaking during the practicum had a holistic influence on formulating or shaping their cognition and this is in line with previous research on teacher cognition (e.g. Borg, 2006; Horwitz, 1985). Their initial pedagogical views were elaborated by their own practice and also by observing mentors and school teachers as experts in classroom management or instruction as mentioned by Richards and Rodgers (2001). That is, their simplified ideas about teaching seemed to develop towards more sophisticated conceptualizations of teaching through contextual knowledge of teaching as shown in the study of Cheng et al. (2009). The trainees' initial perspectives of teaching which they had gained as a learner through the apprenticeship of observation (Lortie, 1975) seemed also to be transformed towards the standpoints of a teacher with increased teacher efficacy as noted by previous research, thus starting to construct their personal professional teacher knowledge base. Their cognition seemed to change to some extent but seemed also to be stable during the practicum. The nature of cognition changes or development that student teachers experience during the practicum is well addressed by Mattheoudakis (2007) and Johnston (1992). The trainees' cognition changes over the practicum seemed to occur at the surface level of pedagogy, but their more

traditional values in teaching and learning, at a deeper level of cognition, that is, regarding the importance of discipline, instruction or control in the classroom seemed still to remain unchanged reflecting the homogeneous socio-cultural context of Korea. Similar concerns were also raised by Powell (2000). As previously indicated (Fajet et al., 2005; Tigchelaar and Korthagen, 2004; Mok, 1994), an important role of pre-service teacher education seems to be to develop trainees' prior cognition through reflection as cognition change is interconnected with practice change (Kagan, 1992).

7.3. Challenges of Teaching Speaking in the National Curriculum Mandated Manner upon Consideration of Influences of Teacher Colleges and School Contexts

In this section, the challenges for the trainees' practice of teaching speaking during the practicum will be discussed starting with a brief review of their practice of TEE and CLT in comparison to the guidelines of the national curriculum (see section 1.2 in Chapter 1), and then the factors which influenced such challenges will be discussed with a consideration of the trainees' teacher training and school contexts.

7.3.1 Challenges for Implementing TEE by the National Curriculum Recommendations

In order to discuss what challenges the trainees faced in terms of TEE, I will first review the main features of their actual practice of TEE between the trainees and then evaluate them in comparison with the national curriculum. The trainees' TEE practice and challenges are discussed below regarding the nature of classroom English used in the trainees' classrooms and the role of the mother tongue.

7.3.1.1 Basic Classroom English and Differentiation of TEE according to Level

Concerning the trainees' TEE practice, the findings identified the difficulty of TEE practice in the non-streamed classroom which was a large mixed ability traditional classroom. However, the trainees' TEE practice in the streamed classroom was also greatly influenced by the students' level. TEE policy recommends to employ classroom English as a medium of instruction without using the mother tongue, but what was observed from the trainees' lessons

was that even in the streamed classrooms a different amount of classroom English was used by the trainees according to the students' level. TEE seemed to be rarely used in the low level classroom while TEE was mostly adopted in the high level classroom. For example, Case 1 showed that TEE was hardly used in the low level classroom as the trainee taught mostly in Korean except when simply acknowledging the students' answers using very basic Classroom English. On the other hand, TEE was almost fully employed in the high level classroom as shown in Case 3. However, it was again noted that when explaining grammatical usage or terminology, the trainee adopted code-switching to Korean to help the students' understanding. The trainee who taught the low level classroom only spoke in English when reading aloud the exact expressions in the textbook to the students. It was also noted that there was limited use of English by the students in the low level classroom except when reading the textbook aloud in response to the trainee's request, but more proficient students in the high level classroom seemed to be able to respond in English without hesitations. The findings also showed that when the trainees used classroom English, this seemed to some extent to facilitate more English answers from the students, and similar results were reported in the study by Liu et al. (2004). However, TEE was, in general, more applicable to the high level students as a medium of instruction. In case 2, there was found more difficulty with TEE in adjusting English to the large mixed ability (non-streamed) classroom as shown by Kang (2008) in the study of TEE in the primary school. Therefore, the streamed system which placed students into smaller classes according to their academic ability and oral proficiency in English seemed to have an advantage for TEE. Overall, the trainees' practice of TEE was not congruent with their initial expectations before the practicum as there was clearly a limitation to the extent to which TEE was employed in the classroom because of the students' generally poor oral proficiency and as in case 1 the trainee's lack of confidence in his own oral proficiency. Despite the challenges with TEE, the trainees viewed TEE policy as a positive way to develop teachers' and students' oral proficiency and support communicative teaching of English as an international language. However, the findings clearly showed that TEE only policy may need to be re-examined. Similar to the study of Hall and Cook (2013), the study suggested that when classroom English was appropriately used at an appropriate level with a differentiated amount of TEE, it provided a better chance to develop spoken English in the EFL classroom.

7.3.1.2 Reconsideration of the Mother Tongue to Support TEE

In addition to the challenges of TEE, the findings showed that the mother tongue could play a supportive role to prevent misunderstanding of grammar instruction but to guide students to initiate in English particularly in the low level class. This is in line with other research findings on L1 use (e.g. Ahmad, 2009; Carless, 2008). For example, the study by Carless (2008) indicates the benefits of L1 in the low level class to improve students' poor motivation caused by low oral proficiency and little confidence in speaking, thus suggesting L1 as a humanistic strategy for awareness-raising in English use. According to Harbord (1992), L1 is useful to provoke critical thinking about L2 learning. Similarly, Swain and Lapkin (2000) also argue for the effective role of L1 in facilitating interaction and negotiation of meaning in task-based communicative teaching. L1 is also reported as useful to brainstorm grammar usage or terminology in the high level class from its social and meta-cognitive functions (e.g. Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003; Lucas and Katz, 1994; Auerbach, 1993).

One trainee commented that one disadvantage of the native-speaking English teachers was their lack of L1 understanding, leading to problems in giving instructions and feedback, particularly for the low level classes. This seems to suggest that appropriate use of L1 is important since appropriate code-switching is not viewed as hindering the use of English (Eldridge, 1996). McMillan and Rivers (2011) argue that appropriately employed L1 according to level can enhance more student learning than English only policy. Sampson (2012) also indicates that appropriate code-switching through strategic L1 use has communicative functions and supports L2 communication. Similarly, the study of Kim and Choe (2011) shows positive code-switching effects in supporting L2 communication. Lee (2001) also reports that L1 was effective to lead more discussions in English during group work in the university English course in Korea. Overall, as Littlewood and Yu (2011) indicate, the strategic use of L1 seems to enhance classroom management and also support understanding and communication in L2, thus helping gradual L2 use in the classroom.

While L1 use seems to be useful, however, the findings showed that the trainees who taught the low level class, as well as the traditional class, were heavily reliant on L1 because of students' poor understanding of the lessons to cover, and also difficult in overcoming the difference in proficiency within the class. This seems to suggest that it is important not only to differentiate the amount of TEE according to level but also to make a good balance in the degree of TEE by strategic L1 use.

7.3.2 Challenges for Implementing CLT by the National Curriculum Recommendations

In this section, the challenges for the trainees' CLT approaches will be discussed. In order to examine what challenges the trainees faced with regard to CLT, first of all, the trainees' actual practice of CLT approaches will be briefly reviewed with regard to their approaches towards student-centered communicative teaching (in section 7.3.2.1), and their particular strategies and activities for CLT which were adopted according to the national curriculum recommendations (in section 7.3.2.2), and then I will discuss further the nature of challenges and difficulties of CLT that the trainees encountered during the practicum in relation to the incongruence between theory and practice of CLT in the practicum context (in section 7.3.2.3).

7.3.2.1 Learner-Centred Communication-Oriented Approaches under Level-Based Curricula

The findings showed that the trainees were employing humanistic and interpersonal approaches to increase students' motivation and participation in each level. All the trainees seemed to place an emphasis on creating a cheerful classroom atmosphere and developing a good relationship with the students. This seemed to be congruent with the national curriculum recommendations and the aims of the streamed system in the secondary school. The trainees seemed to value building rapport with the students by socializing with them and felt satisfied with increased interaction and participation amongst the students. Their interactive and communicative approaches reflected their good awareness of learner-centered pedagogy which they mentioned was guided by teacher training which helped them become more aware of the importance of learner-centered communicative teaching as opposed to traditional methodology. As Dunn and Rakes (2010) indicate, it is important to develop trainees' views of learner-centered pedagogy during teacher training in order to move their pedagogical concerns more onto the impact on student learning during the practicum. According to Bauml (2009), it is also crucial for trainees to develop effective interpersonal relationships with students during the practicum, as they start to re-construct their theories of learnercentered pedagogy by building on positive interpersonal relationships with students. However, according to Fajet et al. (2005), trainees are only concerned with interpersonal relationships with students while they often hold naïve or immature pedagogical views of

teaching methodologies. The trainees in the study reflect this view to some extent as their learner-centered approaches were rather limited to classroom interaction or management and were not fully reflected in their instruction. Their learner-centered approaches had an impact on their students, thus encouraging more participation in classroom interaction as shown in cases 1 and 2, but there was still a lack of collaboration on the part of the students mainly due to teacher-led instruction in the classroom activities. These instructional decisions seem to have been influenced by the school system being centered on exam preparation and the pressure to cover the entire content of the textbook in a set amount of time.

The trainees often praised students, but this was often based on accuracy, and evaluative use of praise centered on accuracy may reduce learner autonomy (see Crespo, 2002). There was little evidence of effective strategies for corrective feedback. Praise is also viewed to be useful for classroom management as positive reinforcement according to O'Neill and Stephenson (2012a) and the trainees seemed to deal with off-task students favorably. Classroom management was still challenging both in streamed classes and in the traditional class and this caused difficulty when trying to introduce new classroom activities as shown in cases 2 and 3. Similar reports are found in the studies by Shin (2012) and Farrell (2008). Learner-centered communicative lessons seem to require great skill on the part of the teacher. While students are free to engage in conversations during communicative activities, as noted in Fajet et al. (2005), it is important for trainees to be prepared skilfully and professionally to manage such activities for the practicum.

7.3.2.2 Communicative Strategies and Activities according to National Curriculum Reforms

The trainees seemed to develop their communicative strategies or activities for their students to some extent in line with the guidelines of the national curriculum. Their approaches to CLT seemed to reflect their students' level and characteristics but all of them seemed to make a significant effort to increase elicitation by using questioning strategies as this was emphasized during their teacher training. They found difficulty in student involvement at first but through their efforts to encourage student participation, their overall evaluations of student participation after the practicum were very positive. However, their conceptualization and practice of CLT were manifested to different degrees and there was clearly a difference in the extent to which they were able to implement CLT. Their overall practice of CLT appeared to be a mixture of traditional, exploratory and interactive ways of teaching but was also

individualized practice, reflecting their understanding of CLT and the specific conditions of their teaching context. Their approaches to CLT are illustrated below from each case.

Case 2 was based on the large mixed ability class which was not streamed but Eunhae seems to have implemented her own CLT in her traditional classroom. For example, she employed pair work in ways to maximize student participation in speaking practice by encouraging peer support. D ö rnyei (2002) reports the positive impact of the more proficient student's motivation on the weaker student's during pair work as do Cao and Philp (2006). Though there should be a caution to its drawback such as error fossilization (James 1994; Prabu, 1987), pair work is viewed to be effective for communicative interaction (McDonough, 2004; Long and Porter, 1985). In addition to pair work, Eunhae also adopted a short quiz game through a stimulus and competition and her strategy was successful in increasing student motivation. She tried to adjust CLT beyond the student proficiency gap according to her context so her CLT practice seemed to some extent to support the study by Iwashita (2001) which reported that learner proficiency variation did not have a significant influence on the quality of communicative interaction.

On the other hand, case 3 showed challenges involved in task-based communicative teaching in the context of the high level class. While trying to implement communicative tasks according to how she was taught from teacher training, Haewon found classroom control very difficult with emotional tension during task-based group work. This finding supports other studies which report student teachers' struggles with communicative lessons during the practicum due to lack of instruction skills with classroom activities or classroom management (e.g. Hsu, 2005; Moor, 2003). She encountered a dilemma when a jigsaw activity had little impact on communicative practice and this indicates the importance of skillful task design. Research reports the influence of the task type on communicative interaction and language use (e.g. Kim, 2014; Peng, 2012; Courtney, 1996; Tong-Fredericks, 1984) but the drawback of TBL was also indicated in that it focuses too much on the task completion whilst making little use of English (Seedhouse, 1999, cited in Carless, 2008). Haewon tried to make much use of CLT according to her students' high level by teaching speaking integrated with reading, but she also felt uneasy with the lack of learner autonomy and reticence during communicative practice. Similar results are reported from studies on EFL contexts (e.g. Jin and Cortazzi, 1996; Tsui, 1996). There is much research about cultural influences indicating Asian students'

passive or quiet attitudes due to their group face value or preference to listening (e.g. Peng, 2012; Littlewood, 2010; Wen and Clement, 2003; Liu and Littlewood, 1997) and fear of negative peer evaluation (e.g. Hwang et al., 2010; Aida, 1994; Allwright and Bailey, 1991; Horwitz et al., 1986) or negative self-evaluation (Mak, 2011) from the Confucian tradition. The finding suggests the importance of helping students overcome negative perceptions of speaking and increase positive self-confidence in speaking.

Case 1 also showed the difficulties involved in teaching speaking in the low level class and the importance of developing students' motivation and self-confidence in speaking. Lack of self-confidence in speaking can be caused by little linguistic competence and speaking anxiety (MacIntyre et al., 2003, 1998), leading to poor participation (Cao and Philp, 2006; Liu and Littlewood, 1997; Tsui, 1996), but appropriate pair or group work may decrease speaking anxiety (Liu, 2006). Jinsung seemed to devise his own communicative strategy in consideration of his low level class through repeated short questions, and, though he elicited students' speech mainly by repeating vocabulary and grammar, student participation was greatly improved by meaningful repetitions based on personalized examples. Speech repetitions are reported as useful to enhance accuracy and fluency in the low level class (Saito, 2008; Taguchi, 2007; Nation, 1989). Research also suggests that communicative drilling through natural repetitions can develop fluency as opposed to grammatical drilling (Gatbonton and Segalowitz, 1988) and that repeated formulaic speech can increase self-confidence during early language learning (Krashen and Terrell, 1983; WongFillmore, 1979). Overall, most trainees seemed to apply CLT in a personalized manner according to their teaching context and they preferred pair or group work but the speaking practice was under teacher control and did not encourage natural communicative interaction. This may be caused by the insufficient time to develop strategies or activities for teaching speaking under the school system but most trainees also felt challenges due to lack of practical skills for implementing communicative lessons.

7.3.2.3 Incongruence between Theory and Practice of CLT under Contextual Challenges

Having reviewed the trainees' actual practice of CLT with respect to the ways in which the trainees implemented their own communicative approaches in order to reflect the national curriculum guidelines in their lessons, I will now discuss how contextual challenges influenced the theory and practice of the trainees' communicative teaching of speaking (which

were found to be incongruent with those guidelines), and how the trainees' practice of CLT was constrained to be partially included in the teaching of listening or reading and based on oral practice of the textbook.

7.3.2.3.1 Teaching Speaking as Integrated with Listening and Reading

The findings showed that overall the trainees' teaching of speaking was practised in a very limited way by integrating speaking with either listening or reading due to the limited time given to teaching speaking according to the exam-centered school curriculum. The reason for integrating speaking was attributed to the fact that the school exam was based on written practice rather than spoken practice, and moreover as a consequence of reduced English lessons per week (from 4 to 3 in Year 3 and 3 to 2 for Year 1 and 2), by having a native English teacher's speaking lesson once a week, there was even a less opportunity to teach speaking. Because the native English teacher was in charge of speaking, the trainees did not seem to focus on speaking, except some practice of speaking during pair work. The time constraints and insufficient timetabled English class hours to enable learners to develop communicative competence have been noted in other studies as a fundamental problem of speaking policy in Korea (Kang, 2012; Lee et al., 2010). The trainees employed a mixed teaching methodology by partly implementing CLT within the traditionally familiar GTM. Prior research suggests that their approaches were an appropriate attempt to introduce integrated communicative approaches in traditional contexts (e.g. Carless, 2007; Carless, 2004b; Mitchell and Lee, 2003; Zheng and Adamson, 2003; Fotos, 1994; White, 1989). For example, Carless (2004b) and Mitchell and Lee (2003) report how CLT activities were partly implemented within teacherled or form-focused instruction based on accuracy-based or textbook-based practice by devising more student-centered and interaction-based communicative practice. Similarly, the study by Zheng and Adamson (2003) also shows that CLT was partly adopted in China by importing supplementary materials or communicative activities in the classroom based on GTM.

However, in this study, the trainees usually implemented very short speaking activities as part of their lessons, and their role seemed to be to increase students' motivation and attention to the lessons rather than developing communicative skills. Though they highly preferred CLT, their lessons were largely centered on grammar translations due to their lack of practical skills for CLT or students' poor understanding of the lesson contents. Moreover, they seemed still to value the role of grammar and vocabulary by which they were educated in the socio-cultural context of school education as also found in Peacock (2001). The findings suggest that the role of L1 based grammar-translation classes may need to be reassessed, as they can support student understanding in EFL contexts when appropriately used during communicative lessons. Research elsewhere also reports their positive role in supporting L2 meaning-making, particularly in preparing for communicative activities (e.g. Illés, 2012; Tudor, 1987; Atkinson, 1987).

7.3.2.3.2 Teaching Speaking as Textbook-Based Oral Practice

The trainees intended to teach speaking communicatively using their own strategies to some extent but the most commonly found speaking practice was reading aloud based on the textbook. They had little time to develop their own communicative activities as they were required to cover the textbook in preparation for the exam. They therefore mainly just checked the dialogue in the textbook by reading aloud, and this produced controlled speech or oral practice rather than meaning-focused communicative practice. Jeon (2009) pointed out the difficulty of CLT practice in Korea caused by the inflexible textbook system with a central focus on exam preparation. Similar problems were also raised in the study of Livanage and Bartlett (2008) during Chinese, Taiwanese and Korean teachers' post-training reflections. Oral practice based on merely repeating the model dialogue or grammatical structure may result in de-motivation (Green et al., 1997b) though reading authentic text aloud has also been viewed as beneficial for pronunciation practice or awareness-raising of the natural discourse features (Gibson, 2008) or for training speech patterns (Chun, 2002). However, as critical comments were raised by the trainees, the textbook, as well as the activity book, were not found to include authentic or natural spoken discourse features. Neither did they appear to be suitable to encourage meaning-focused speaking practice through the negotiation of meaning between the students. Their suggestions were merely to repeat the model dialogues altering vocabulary or grammar structure with a central focus on grammatical pattern drilling or gapfilling exercises (see examples of the textbook and the activity book in Appendices 20 and 22). The structure of the textbook or the activity book which were not presenting various authentic communicative topics and tasks in ways that can motivate communicative interaction between the students seemed to be one of the factors that influenced how the trainees practised teaching speaking for their students mainly based on oral practice. The

trainees struggled with the discrepancy between the theory that they learned from teacher training and what they found in the school context but they seemed to interpret such challenges to different degrees according to their personal experience in their school context. The next section will focus on contextual factors that influenced or interfered with their practice.

7.3.3 Influences of School Contexts on Teaching Speaking

Based on discussions above on the trainees' actual practice of TEE and CLT and what contextual challenges the trainees experienced in their TEE and CLT practice during the practicum, in this section I will discuss the factors which influenced the trainees' teaching of speaking in the practicum context in more detail with particular attention to the influences of the school contexts on the trainees' teaching speaking. As the school context plays a key role in supporting or hindering teaching practice during the practicum, the characteristics of the trainees' placement schools will be discussed in relation to the factors which positively or negatively influenced the trainees' teaching of speaking, and the overall impact of the education system on the practicum will also be discussed.

7.3.3.1 Influences of School Policies, Head Teachers, Mentors, and Students

The findings showed the critical influence of the school context on the trainees' survival and success with their approaches to teaching speaking during the practicum as previous research indicated (e.g. Hagevik et al., 2012; Huang and Waxman, 2009; Claires and Almeida, 2005; Zeichner and Gore, 1990; Calderhead, 1988). The findings showed that in addition to language proficiency, the trainees' self-efficacy was influenced by the school context. Similar to studies by Siwatu (2011), Ng et al. (2010), and Wertheim and Leyser (2002), support from the school seemed to enhance the trainees' positive self-efficacy, which in turn seemed to facilitate active innovation during the practicum, despite contextual challenges. Conversely, and again in line with previous research (e.g. Allen, 2009; Huang and Waxman, 2009; Zeichner and Gore, 1990), when there was a lack of support from the school this led to a more unsuccessful transfer of teacher training to the practicum as shown in case 1.

Whilst the head teacher was not directly involved in the observing or mentoring of the trainees' teaching practice, the head teacher seemed to affect how much freedom and flexibility the

trainees had in planning their teaching. As shown in cases 2 and 3 when the head teachers were supporting teaching speaking and also when the school teachers actively practised TEE or CLT, thus supporting trainees' teaching practice during the practicum, trainees seemed to make more use of their TEE or CLT approaches in their classrooms. The support from the head teacher and the school context were apparently better when the placement school was a cooperating school organized by the local education board as shown in case 3. The importance and effectiveness of having formal links between teacher training institutions and cooperating schools which are dedicated to cooperate during the practicum have also been noted elsewhere (e.g. Grossman et al., 2011; Furlong et al, 2000; Winitzky et al., 1992).

In this study as in many others (e.g. Ronfeldt and Reininger, 2012; Cook, 2007; McNamara, 1995), the most powerful and direct source of support or influence for the trainees' teaching practice in the classroom was the mentor. The mentors seemed to have a direct influence on the trainees' instructional approaches as well as on their relationships with the students (e.g. Ronfeldt and Reininger, 2012; Rozelle and Wilson, 2012). According to Ronfeldt and Reininger (2012), mentors also have a strong influence on trainees' perception of self-efficacy or preparedness for teaching. Case 1 showed the struggle and tension caused by the mentor's traditional teaching methods and lack of skills and support for the trainee's teaching of speaking, and how the trainee's practice of CLT was eventually constrained. Similar results about trainees' difficulties because of unskilful mentors have also been reported by Yayli (2008), Mallette et al. (2000) and Winitzky et al. (1992). However, the trainee's interaction with the students was encouraged by the mentor's close relationship with the students as in cases 2 and 3. Overall, the mentors' generally supportive attitudes to the trainees' teaching practice, though at a different degree, seemed to enable them to explore further their own approaches and develop more confidence in teaching (see Chalies et al., 2010 for similar examples). For example, when the mentors were more supportive of and frequently engaged in discussions of lesson plans with the trainees prior to teaching, also providing feedback on communicative teaching in terms of classroom instruction or activities after observing the trainees' lessons as in cases 2 and 3, the trainees seemed to be more successful in exploring and implementing their own communicative approaches which were informed by teacher training and seemed to develop strong teacher efficacy. However, no matter how the mentors were supportive of the trainees' practice, the trainees seemed, to some extent, to conform to the mentors' teaching styles. This was previously indicated by other research (Brouwer and Korthagen, 2005; Moor, 2003) and seemed to be caused not only by the contextual constraints under the exam-centered and textbook-based school system (Leavy et al., 2007; Lamb, 1995) but also by the hierarchical social culture in Korea, or as reported elsewhere by the asymmetrical power relations (Ong'ondo and Borg, 2011; Tang and Chow, 2007). This can also be explained in terms of teacher socialization during the practicum by conforming to the practice of the school community as a socio-cultural context (Warford, 2011; Brouwer and Korthagen, 2005; Freeman and Johnson, 1998).

The trainees' practice and self-efficacy were also significantly influenced by the type of class and the characteristics of the students. Similar results were found by Seban (2013) in the study of service-learning, and Tang (2003) reported the powerful influence of students' characteristics and classroom dynamics on teacher learning and teacher competence. In Smylie (1988), a positive correlation between student achievement and teacher efficacy was also found. The findings showed that the traditional class was more challenging than the streamed class for TEE or classroom management, but the low level class also generated similar problems due to the mixed proficiency of the students. The difficulty of control or discipline during communicative instruction because of the mixed ability of the students was also indicated by Garton (2014). However, the trainees seemed to develop more confidence in teaching and classroom management by developing interactive relationships with the students and improving student participation, which also increased their self-efficacy. Overall, the findings suggest that supportive school contexts and policies for the practicum are important to maximize trainees' learning opportunities.

7.3.3.2 Influences of Education Systems and Socio-Cultural Contexts

The findings showed that while school policies and systems for the practicum influenced the trainees' approaches to TEE and CLT, the standardized exam system in Korea seemed to be the main barrier to the trainees' opportunities to develop their practice of teaching speaking. Since the school curriculum was controlled by the education system, it was mainly based on preparing for the school exam, the ultimate goal of which was to prepare for the university entrance exam. Moreover, as students were required to attend a native English teacher's lesson once a week, the number of English lessons with non-native English teachers was reduced, and therefore there was little time for communicative activities except covering the textbook

to prepare for the school exam. Since the streamed system was newly introduced, the low level class had even less time to devote to speaking than the high level class as it fell short of time even to cover the textbook since the standardized exam took no notice of learners' level. In a context where passing the university entrance exam is highly valued, students seemed very reticent and passive during communication-oriented lessons. However, this was more as a result of little experience and lack of self-confidence in speaking rather than by the oriental tradition from any 'Confucian heritage tradition' (e.g. Littlewood, 2010; Shi, 2006; Graves 2005; Littlewood, 2000; Liu, 1998).

The trainees faced different challenges either to learn to teach in the streamed context or the traditional non-streamed context. However, whether streamed or traditional, the trainees felt pressured by the school exam and found little time for task development or communicative lessons. Case 1 showed how the trainee's teaching practice was constrained to prepare for the mid-term exam to be held after the practicum, while case 3 showed the trainee's tension in preparation for the practicum inspection. There seem to be sociocultural barriers to English curriculum reforms in Korea similar to those reported elsewhere in the region; teachers who have little sense of autonomy and power in a still 'traditional educational and social context', incoherence between education policy and assessment, and little funding for material development and resources (e.g. Garton, 2014; Butler, 2011; Liyanage and Bartlett, 2008; Zeichner and Gore, 1990).

7.3.4 Influences of Teacher College Systems on Teaching Speaking

Whilst the school context at micro and macro levels had an influence on the trainees' practicum experience, according to the findings, the trainees' practice of TEE and CLT was also informed or shaped by their teacher training contexts. As an essential role of initial teacher training is to equip trainees for the practicum, it would be important to look into what influences the teacher colleges had on the trainees' teaching of speaking. Therefore, in this section, I will discuss the trainees' teacher training contexts and the influences on the trainees' teaching of speaking. The teacher college systems and teacher training courses across the cases will be discussed in relation to the ways that they impacted on the trainees' level of preparedness and professional development for the practicum.

7.3.4.1 Influences of Teacher Training Courses and Institutional Changes

The trainees found practical courses such as teaching methodology or practice teaching which involved microteaching very useful, and those practical courses seemed to have an influence on their learner-centered communicative approaches particularly in using elicitation techniques or multimedia resources which were most commonly found in their practice. For example, in case 2, Eunhae was more concerned with learner styles in selecting the type of speaking activities and her methodology course on teaching speaking which provided input on elicitation in relation to learner styles seems to have influenced her initial pedagogical considerations during the practicum. Most teaching methodology courses across the teacher colleges were based on microteaching of communicative lessons centered on teaching speaking and were run by discussion amongst the trainees with peer or trainer feedback, also providing self-reflection through coursework based on video-recording or reflective writing on microteaching. It was also noted during the practicum that the trainees seemed to evaluate and adjust their practice to some extent by self-reflection and their effort for self-reflection, though in a very limited way, seems to have also been influenced by the practical courses which they received. Chiang (2008) also reported that student teachers became more reflective of their practice during the practicum and stressed the important role of initial teacher training in providing guided reflection as well as developing more critical reflection.

Though teacher training courses have changed in recent years to focus more on practical training through microteaching based on reflection and discussion, there was still much emphasis on theoretical training mainly by lecturing during the early years of teacher training, which did not seem to deepen the trainees' theoretical understanding of teaching. This emphasis on knowledge can be attributed to the nature of the teacher appointment system which until the recent change examined only student teachers' theoretical knowledge. The nature of teacher training based on the assessment of knowledge seems to have caused an imbalance between theory and practice. There was still generally lack of practical training on practical skills or how to apply theory to practice in the real classroom, and even though there was change toward providing more practical training in recent years, most practical training that the trainees received was still not closely linked with the real context because microteaching seemed to be based on rather idealized practice in the teacher training context as separated from the real classroom. This gap in microteaching between the ideal and real practice is also indicated by Segall (2001).

The findings showed that there was a varying impact of teacher training courses on the trainees' personal preparedness or self-efficacy for the practicum and this is also reported by previous research (e.g. Siwatu, 2011; Ng et al., 2010; Polat, 2010). The nature of teacher training courses in the teacher colleges influenced the trainees' knowledge of pedagogy and so their teacher efficacy. The more practical training they received, the more they seemed to be confident and remain positive during the practicum, and practical courses seemed to be a direct source of influence on their practice. Most trainees mentioned that microteaching was useful to practise to design lesson plans and practise to teach speaking based on CLT and TEE, and also commented that the trainers' feedback, as well as peer feedback after microteaching, were helpful to reflect further on their microteaching in search for weaknesses and strengths and to develop their lesson plans further based on critical feedback. Therefore, the more the trainees practised microteaching and received reflective feedback during the teacher training courses, the higher their self-efficacy or competence in teaching practice seemed to develop. The study by Cheng et al (2009) reports that when there was a positive impact of teacher training on equipping trainees, they were more able to transfer teacher training to a different context. Leavy et al. (2007) also indicate the positive influence of teacher training on trainees' further modification of constructivist approaches instead of conforming to traditional methods. However, it should also be given attention that the trainers in the teacher colleges were not involved in visiting the trainees' practicum, nor providing feedback on the trainees' teaching practice during the practicum. None of the trainees had a visit from their trainers in their teacher colleges. It was found that some trainers seemed to give reflective journal writing assignments for the trainees to carry on while observing or teaching during the practicum in order to assist the trainees' reflective practice, and that the trainees would be given written feedback from the trainers on their experiences of teaching practice through assessment of their assignments after the practicum, but the trainers' roles for or influences on the trainees' teaching practice during the practicum were found to be very limited as they did not have direct access to or involvement in the practicum context.

Another important finding of the study was the fact that the trainees' confidence in their oral proficiency either positively or negatively affected their self-efficacy during the practicum. This finding is in line with previous research which reports that there is a positive correlation between language teacher oral proficiency and their self-efficacy (e.g. Eslami and Fatahi, 2008;

Chacón, 2005). As shown in case 1, studies indicate teachers' poor oral proficiency is one cause why there is little practice of TEE (Carless, 2004b; Kim, 2002). Overall, it seems that teacher training courses in Korea have changed to provide more support for trainees' spoken English and communicative teaching in recent years. However, as stated above, there is still a limitation in the extent to which the amount of practical training that the trainees received can practically prepare them for the practicum with a realistic sense of teaching in the classroom.

The findings also showed how the teacher college systems were going through changes and transitions to cope with the new direction of education policy for teacher education, therefore placing an increased emphasis on practical training through microteaching. Though the traditional core-systems (see section 2.1 in chapter 1) were not very much changed, teacher college curricula seemed to begin to change in order to run more practical courses on teaching methodology, and also teach training courses in practical ways by interacting with the trainees. Though there was a different degree of changes amongst the teacher colleges, the main changes in relation to the preparation of the practicum seem to include the involvement of school teachers in preparation courses or debriefing sessions before or after the practicum, and engaging trainees in more practice and context experience through school-based coursework or after-school teaching programmes. There was also much emphasis on trainees' spoken English development for TEE by running courses in English and providing intensive fluency development courses or study abroad programs. It was found that trainees with studyabroad experience as shown in cases 2 and 3 seemed to have more confidence in oral proficiency as noted in the study of Lee (2009). Teacher colleges seemed to try to make a transition towards more inquiry-based and trainee-centered teacher training from traditionally valued lecturing and knowledge transmission by encouraging trainees to actively engage in practical coursework. Trainees seemed also to prefer such a practical change though they were not always positive about the demands of participating in practical courses because they were used to traditional ways of teacher training. The findings suggest that changes at the institutional level are essential to support trainees' personal and professional development further and that institutional support is necessary also to improve the quality of teacher training. Therefore, institutional changes are necessary to provide trainees with more practical training and to support the practicum in more practical ways.

7.3.4.2 Lack of Coherent Curriculura to Link Teacher Training and the Practicum

As the nature of changes at the teacher colleges either at the level of the courses or at the level of institutions was found to be transitional, there seemed still to be a lack of a systematic support system that links teacher training with the practicum. That is, it was found that there was no coherent teacher training curriculum developed to connect the teacher training courses to the practicum programs as indicated in the study of Winitzky et al. (1992) or other studies as the practicum seemed to run as a rather separate component beyond the regular teacher education. There was still a dichotomy between theory and practice as trainees were taught mainly theoretical courses during the early years before they gain practical training on teaching methodology through microteaching in the third or final year. Moreover, as practical training was conducted as separated from the real context, trainees developed little sense of the real classroom. A strand of research also indicates the gap between theory and practice and the difficulty that student teachers go through in connecting teacher training to teaching experience in context during the practicum (e.g. Jabeen, 2014; Yavuz, 2011; Yayli, 2008; Korthagen et al., 2006; Schulz and Mandzuk, 2005; Volante and Earl, 2002; Elliott and Calderhead, 1994). Though there was an institutional difference in the extent to which theoretical courses were organized in practical ways by involving trainees in practical coursework through discussions and presentations from the early years of teacher training, there still seemed to be a limitation in terms of practical preparation of trainees for the real context. This seemed also to show a transitional process of changes which the teacher colleges were going through to incorporate the new policy of teacher education. Overall, the findings indicate the importance of developing more systematic support systems for the practicum in pre-service teacher education in Korea with a good balance of theoretical and practical courses which can really prepare trainees for the practicum context.

7.3.4.3 Lack of Collaboration between Teacher Colleges and Secondary Schools

Overall, there was a lack of collaboration between the teacher colleges and the placement schools during the practicum though this would be a consequence of no collaborative infrastructure established between teacher colleges and secondary schools in Korea. This seemed to cause the trainees' practicum to be more challenging because of the gap between teacher training and school context. In recent years there has been some change in the teacher

colleges in Korea to be more collaborative with the secondary schools by involving teachers in the teaching of practical courses before the practicum or inviting principals and head teachers to induction or debriefing sessions before or after the practicum along with expert teachers or representative mentors. However, the findings showed that there was still no collaboration between the trainer and the mentor during the practicum with no trainer intervention or involvement in supervision of the trainees (see Yayli, 2008 for similar reports), while only the mentor was in charge of the assessment of the practicum (also see Yan and He, 2010 and Winitzky et al., 1992 for similar reports). This seemed to make the trainees left alone without any support provided by the trainer during the practicum. On the other hand, there was still much inspection pressure as observation from the inspector or occasionally also by the trainer at the end of the practicum was often viewed as an assessment rather than constructive feedback for professional development as previously reported (e.g. George et al., 2002). There was also no regular arrangement of mentoring during the practicum and though mentors tended to provide feedback after observing the trainees, this was only during the early teaching week but the nature or amount of mentoring support was usually dependent on individual mentors and the relationship between mentors and trainees. In recent years, mentors in cooperating schools are rewarded with an incentive but there seems still to be no professional mentor training on how to provide student teachers with effective support for teaching practice. This lack of mentor training or mentoring support during the practicum has already been referred to in previous research (e.g. Farrell, 2008; Sundli, 2007; Tomlinson, 1996; Ballantyne et al., 1995). As studies report inquiry-based teacher education in collaboration with school partnerships is effective for trainees' reflective practice development during the practicum (Hagevik et al., 2012; Schulz and Mandzuk, 2005), the findings suggest that it is necessary to develop collaborative partnerships between teacher colleges and secondary schools in Korea in order to connect theory with reality in context and provide more systematic training for the practicum with more effective trainer and mentor support. The problems caused by this lack of partnership in Korea were also indicated by Min and Park (2013) and Lee at all. (2010) and this is in line with previous research that indicates the importance of partnership support to better equip trainees during the practicum (e.g. Chalies et al., 2010; Wilson, 2006; Long, 2004; Zeichner, 1999).

7.4. Comparisons of Similarities and Differences between the Cases

In the above sections, I have discussed the nature of challenges that the trainees encountered when implementing TEE and CLT in their classrooms in the manner suggested by the national curriculum, and the factors which influenced their practice with regard to their teacher training or school contexts. Having discussed the major challenges which the trainees experienced in common during the practicum, and the influences on them as a whole, in this section I will draw attention to comparisons between the three cases regarding what specific circumstances each case presented to make each trainee's practicum experience unique or distinct, and I will summarise similarities and differences of teacher colleges and secondary schools between the three cases based on cross-case comparisons.

As stated by Yin (2014), multiple case studies form a replication of each case, so each case in the study made a good replication to another either literally or theoretically. During cross-case comparisons and analyses, the findings of each case supported one another to better understand each case with its uniqueness in its own context (Miles et al., 2014). Whilst case 1 (Jinsung) showed a rather counter-example, cases 2 (Eunhae) and 3 (Haewon) were very similar in terms of the nature of teacher training or the support from the placement school during the practicum. Both Eunhae and Haewon received very practical teacher training which provided intensive microteaching practice and much input on teaching methodology during the courses. Both trainees also had study English abroad experience and were trained in the CLT-based spoken English practice courses during teacher training which enabled them to develop confidence in oral proficiency. Training on oral proficiency and much practice of microteaching helped Eunhae and Haewon develop practical perspectives on teaching speaking through the application of communicative activities and contributed to increasing their positive self-efficacy when starting the practicum. Concerning school policies and mentor relationships within the practicum schools of cases 2 and 3, these were found to be very supportive and flexible, enabling the trainees to apply CLT and TEE to their classrooms. This further aided teacher efficacy and personal professional development, even during the short practicum. Eunhae and Haewon frequently discussed their CLT approaches with their mentors and often had students who were keen to participate in their classrooms. On the other hand, case 1 seemed to show that Jinsung had not received much training in spoken English or CLT lessons during teacher training. Consequently, due to the lack of oral proficiency and

little practical skills, he struggled with teaching speaking and did not implement TEE during the practicum. Furthermore, Jinsung's practicum school seemed to be conservative and less supportive of the trainee's practice in terms of the mentor's traditional teaching style and the school policy that was very centered on exam preparation in addition to the fact that the practicum partly overlapped with the school exam period. Accordingly, Jinsung was given very little chance to engage in teaching practice as compared to cases 2 and 3.

The cases showed variation in the practicum context in terms of the type of practicum schools and the level of students whom the trainees taught. Jinsung's school was one of the local schools selected by the teacher college, Eunhae's school was her old school and Haewon's school was one of the cooperating schools appointed by the education board. Whilst Eunhae taught a mixed level of class in the non-streamed system, Jinsung and Haewon taught a low level class and a high level class respectively under the level-based system. There was a difference in the amount of support that the trainees received according to the difference in the practicum context but all the cases showed contextual challenges in their classroom context. Although Eunhae had better English language skills in comparison to the other cases, her non-streamed, large, mixed level class significantly constrained her implementation of TEE. Haewon did not have any difficulty with TEE in her high level class but students' reticence to CLT and expectation for exam preparation constrained her CLT. Jinsung's low level class with the students' mixed ability caused difficulty with TEE and CLT. No matter how much practical training they received, their lessons were very much centered on grammar, vocabulary and written skills, and speaking was taught only during part of the lessons. This seemed to be a result of the school's focus on exam preparation which is based on written skills. The cases also varied geographically in terms of the location of the teacher college and placement school. The teacher college and placement school for case 1 was in the capital city while the teacher college for case 2 was in the capital city and the placement school was in a small city. The teacher college and placement school for case 3 was in a large city in the very south of Korea. As presented in the findings chapters, differences in teacher training or practicum contexts influenced the trainees' learning during the practicum. Nonetheless, each trainee's personal qualities or attributes in terms of teaching speaking was also a significant influence on their experience of teaching training and the practicum. For example, case 2 showed how Eunhae was well aware of and prepared herself for possible difficulties in teaching speaking regarding student variables before the practicum, and her preparation seemed to be reflected in her practice. While teaching the mixed ability large classroom, she did not view this as a cause of frustration but adjusted her lesson plan and developed her own strategy to integrate speaking in the traditional teaching context, and this seemed to be attributed to her positive personal characteristics aligned with strong self-efficacy beliefs, which seem to have been formed during teacher training. Similarly, case 3 also showed that Haewon's approach to teaching speaking during the practicum seemed to reflect how much she had planned or had been aware of practical aspects of teaching speaking before the practicum during the teacher training courses. Also, in case 1, Jinsung's personal beliefs on teaching speaking were consistent during the practicum and were also reflected in his lesson plan and his practice as opposed to his mentor's traditional teaching style. Therefore, each trainee's personal motive for and commitment to teaching speaking seemed also to be as important as practical preparedness. Overall, there was variation regarding the trainees' learning in relation to the influences of teacher colleges or secondary schools. However, all the cases demonstrated the limited effect of teacher training on the practicum context and lack of support from the teacher colleges for the practicum, in addition to limitations of the trainees' learning or cognition change during the practicum as the practicum was very short whilst contextual interferences on their learning at both national and institutional level were significantly high. Now, in the next section, I will move to in-depth discussions on the overall impact of the practicum on teacher learning in the EFL context in Korea.

7.5. Overall Impact of the Practicum on Learning to Teach Speaking

Overall, the findings showed challenges as well as the benefits of the practicum for teacher learning. The intensive practicum provided the trainees with real experience of teaching in the classroom and school context but it should be noted that the four week practicum period in Korea was too short to learn to teach, and particularly under the education system with a central focus on exam preparation, there was a lack of opportunities to teach speaking except covering the textbook, thus resulting in limited learning of the communicative approach or the use of classroom English. Since the streamed system was introduced but not yet settled in the school context all over the country, the trainees had different experiences according to the streamed or non-streamed system in their schools. Therefore, there was a different impact of the practicum on each trainee according to their experience in their school context. There was also found a general lack of support for or feedback on teaching practice, and this may be

attributed to the fact that supervision and mentoring were not formally organized during the practicum. As a consequence of this the trainees' success or satisfaction with their practice mainly depended on their personal strategies or abilities in their classrooms, and the decisions they made regarding whether to cover the textbook for survival purposes or to implement CLT and TEE to pursue personal and professional teacher development. The study has shown that there is a need to promote contextual conditions that can make the practicum more successful and supportive of teacher learning.

Despite the limitations and constraints, the practicum was found to have a positive impact on the trainees' cognition change and teacher efficacy development as well as practice development as previously reported (e.g. Debreli, 2016; Serdar et al., 2016; Liaw, 2012; Chiang, 2008; Tang, 2004; Urmston, 2003; Tillema, 2000). In order for trainees to benefit more from the practicum and to provide them with sufficient teaching experience, however, there seems to be a need for extending the practicum with more mentor support and trainer intervention as indicated in the studies by Darling-Hammond (2010), Yan and He (2010), Zhan (2008) and Haritos (2004) so that trainees can examine and modify their prior cognition and develop their own teaching strategies and skills. Zhan (2008) indicated that theory-based teacher training with a short practicum in China did not prepare trainees adequately for the reality of the school context, and it seems evident that student teachers can benefit more by actual practice rather than merely observing expert teachers or lecture-based teacher training. The extended practicum experience may also help trainees develop more critical reflective practice as Liou (2001) suggested in the study of reflective practice over the practicum in Taiwan. However, caution should be taken to prevent substituting quantity for quality in the practicum as the quality of the practicum is more important even for the short practicum (Ronfeldt and Reininger, 2012; Boyd et al., 2009). It should also be noted that Lin and Gorrell (2001) reported that if (as in Korea) the practicum was not integrated with teacher training but placed separately at the end of teacher education it had little influence on teacher efficacy or cognition development. According to Hascher et al. (2004) and McIntyre and Byrd (1996), the practicum can have a better effect on teacher learning when there is an initial practicum conducted before the main practicum in sequence.

Teacher learning is facilitated by reflection on practice in context, but the findings showed that there was not enough time to develop reflection during the practicum under the conservative school system. Therefore, it seems necessary to provide more systematic teacher training on critical reflection before the practicum in order to encourage trainees to make the most use of reflective practice during the practicum. It seems also necessary to change the focus of pre-service teacher education in the EFL context to be more school-based rather than course-based by incorporating more field-experience and discussion on the relationship between theory and practice as suggested by Korthagen et al. (2006). For example, Chiang (2008) reported a positive role of integrating field-experience within the teaching methodology course in pre-service teacher education in Taiwan, in that the practicum component was valuable to help trainees learn to reflect on their practice and assess their weaknesses and strengths as well as developing teacher efficacy. There may also need to be a change of perspectives to focus more on teaching to learn than learning to teach as argued by Segall (2001) for teacher learning to be more situated in context with theory and practice integrated (see Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999; Lave and Wenger, 1991).

The study has confirmed that it is important to support trainees' personal preparedness in relation to the teaching of speaking such as a good command of spoken English and practical skills and personal strategies for communicative teaching or classroom interaction during teacher training before the practicum as it is positively correlated with their self-efficacy. Similar reports are found in the study by Oneill and Stephenson (2012b) which indicates that trainees' self-efficacy in terms of classroom management was highly correlated to the amount of practice and external experience which they personally gained during teacher training. However, the study has also revealed that contextual constraints from a number of factors at the micro or macro level influenced the trainees' practice of TEE and CLT during the practicum as well as their self-efficacy. In addition to challenges caused by student variables and exam systems at the classroom or school level, at the macro level, there was a gap between curriculum policy and classroom practice. The lack of coherence between curriculum recommendations and realities in the context of schooling caused a challenge because while the new policy had created a demand for TEE and CLT to be implemented in schools, there was still lack of systematic support for teacher training in relation to context not only at preservice level but also at in-service level, as well as lack of guidance for teachers in terms of materials or activities necessary for communicative teaching and teaching in English according to the streamed system. According to Suh (2004), English teachers in Korea were found to practise GTM not because of their belief in traditional grammar instruction but

because of their experience of schooling. Similarly, Choi (2000) also indicated that lack of oral proficiency, a lack of skills for CLT, and a lack of available materials, as well as pressure to cover the textbook, caused English teachers in Korea to teach by GTM. Moreover, the traditional system of exam-centered school education seemed still to generate a lack of classroom interaction or communication between teachers and students, prioritizing knowledge transmission based on GTM in preparation for the school exam instead of encouraging student-centered communicative practice or classroom activities. Therefore, based on the fixed structure of the textbook, English teaching and learning processes seemed to remain passive and less communicative. The lack of speaking skills and communicative strategies or natural spoken discourse features in the content of the secondary school English textbook in Korea was already indicated in previous studies (Kim, 2010; Chang, 2003; Yu, 1999). The study has also shown the difficulty of implementing CLT and TEE practice under the streamed system particularly in relation to the low level, that is, regarding the mixed proficiency amongst the students and problems with classroom management or individual support during communicative activities. This seemed to reflect one of the continuous challenges raised in the study of Garton (2014) about English policy in Asia. There was also found to be a local gap in running the streamed system as the cities seemed to be more advanced than the rural area. It is important to consider the urban and rural division in curriculum innovation as recent studies have reported the imbalance of English policy in Asia between urban and rural contexts in terms of funding and support or resources for spoken English (Garton, 2014; Draper, 2012; Nunan, 2003).

Overall, the study has shown the transitional nature of change in pre-service teacher education and the practicum system in Korea since the new policy was introduced in recent years in the ELT and English teacher education (see section 2.2 in chapter 1). The study has identified that the hierarchical innovation structure acted as a barrier and made the implementation of the new policy inefficient. The hierarchical innovation means that the education innovation proceeded as a top-down process at the level of policy, not at the level of the school, without involving or reflecting the voices of teachers and teacher educators in decision-making processes, and therefore without fully considering the specific conditions and requirements of the school context in Korea. It seems important to note that in addition to the standardized exam and the inflexible textbook, insufficient teacher training support for CLT and TEE in relation to the local context of practice leads to unsuccessful innovation or a lack of change in practice. It seems necessary to develop more context-sensitive innovation not only at methodology and material level or at policy and curriculum level, but also with a consideration of the specific conditions of social and cultural contexts of school education in Korea. The study has indicated the need to build up more collaboration and communication for such a culture amongst all the parties involved in innovation processes to achieve further changes or feasible reforms (see Wedell, 2003). It seems necessary to develop a coherent infrastructure inter-connecting between national curriculum policy, teacher education, and school education (see Figure 7.1). Figure 7.1 suggests a move towards more inter-communication amongst the parties involved in curriculum policy, teacher education, and school education, and also directs a change from top-down driven innovation towards a collaborative approach in particular through a mediating role of teacher education between education policy and classroom practice.

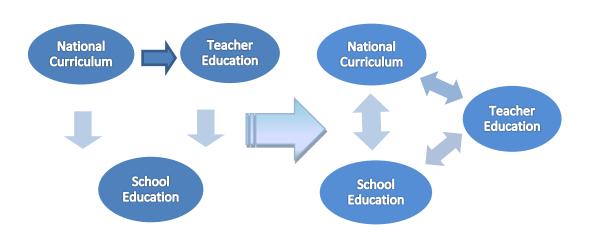


Figure 7.1 < Interactive Dimension from Hierarchical Innovation to Collaborative Relationship >

Based on the findings, the nature of teacher learning during the practicum can be summarised in relation to the influences of personal or contextual factors (see Figure 7.2). Figure 7.2 shows that trainees' initial teacher training and teacher efficacy are influenced by English learning experience and English teaching policy, and in addition to trainees' preparedness from teacher education, how school curricula and exam systems, school policy and support, and classroom contexts and student level, all together interact with or contribute to trainees' learning to teach speaking in the practicum context.

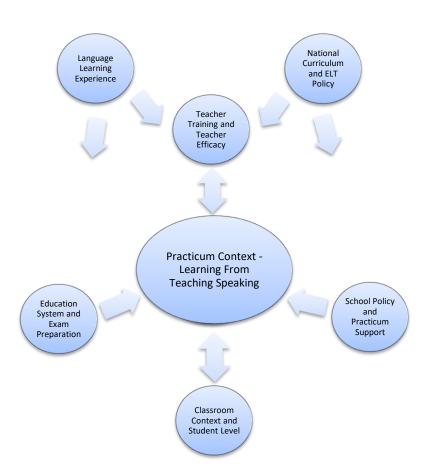


Figure 7.2 < Influencing Factors on Learning to Teach Speaking in Practicum Context >

Though a number of challenges and limitations of the practicum system to support teacher learning were identified, the study has also shown an increasing awareness between the trainees, trainers, and teachers who were involved in the study, of the changing nature of our educational context and the need for further changes for improvement, and therefore this seems to suggest future change in a positive direction by means of more collaborative efforts amongst the educationalists and policymakers.

In the next section, I will discuss what generalizations would be drawn, if any can be drawn based on the evidence found with regard to positive or negative aspects of the impact of the practicum on the trainees.

7.6. Implications for Naturalistic Generalization based on Lessons from the Case Studies

The study has provided an in-depth analysis of the three trainees and the rationale behind or the significance of the in-depth and holistic account of each case is found in the nature of the study as a naturalistic inquiry which searches for and elucidates the particular and the specific instead of generalizations (Pinnegar Daynes, 2007, cited in Creswell and Poth, 2018:157). It should be noted that the complexities and unique qualities of each case call into question superficial generalizations from a nomothetic perspective. Whilst generalizations are not the main aims of the case study, as Yin (2014) stated, case studies draw an analytic generalization, going beyond the specific setting of the case study and applied to a variety of situations. Therefore, it would be useful to think of how the findings of the study can be applicable to the readers based on the lessons of the three cases, which are not incompatible with 'naturalistic generalization' as described by Stake and Trumbull (1982). According to Melrose (2010), naturalistic generalization is a process where readers gain insight by reflecting on the details of in-depth case studies and apply the ideas into personal situations. To enable readers to make a naturalistic generalization, it is essential to provide a substantial understanding of each case by documenting the comprehensive and comparable features of the case (Stake, 1995; Tripp, 1985). This study took into account 'variation of features within cases' as well as 'variation within features across cases' (Tripp, 1985:36), helping readers judge whether this case study is generalizable to their own situations. Based on the comparisons of the three cases, the different impact that the teacher college or practicum context had on the trainees in terms of comparable variations can be applicable to English teachers or English teacher trainers in other contexts of TESOL, for example, highlighting effective teaching methods to support students' learning of speaking at a level appropriate to the classroom, or highlighting important characteristics of teacher colleges and methods of preparing the trainees for the practicum. As shown in cases 2 and 3, teacher trainers in other contexts of TESOL can introduce more microteaching and school-based coursework during the methodology courses with an emphasis on training of spoken English, or provide more focused training on teaching of each language skill over the interconnected methodology courses where theory and practice support the trainees' learning. Case 1 also demonstrated that involving an experienced school teacher in the course before the practicum is a way of linking the course to the school context, and helped the trainees consider the reality of the classroom by reflecting on the expertise and experience of the school teacher. From case 2, as spoken English learning abroad during childhood and teacher training influenced the trainee's confidence and motivation for spoken English, this can inform teacher college programs or childhood language programs of the importance of encouraging more English study abroad experience or developing natural English learning environments. Case 3 is a good example of the importance of participation of the secondary schools in Korea and collaborative work with the education board to support trainees during the practicum. As discussed above, lessons drawn from the study can be applied to comparable situations within a wide range of readers (e.g. policymakers, researchers, and practitioners) as naturalistic generalization creates possibilities to transfer knowledge more personally (Melrose, 2010) enlightening the readers' own vicarious experience (Stake, 2006). However, there should also be precautions in over-generalizations from a small number of case studies as alerted by Hammersley et al. (2000).

7.7. Summary

In this chapter, I discussed the central issues derived from the study in comparison with previous and recent research in relation to the extent of the practicum effect on cognition change after the practicum, and the challenges of teaching speaking during the practicum and the influences of teacher training and school contexts. Then I compared the three cases regarding similarities and differences and drew a conclusion on the overall impact of the practicum, and finally, I discussed how the lessons of the study can be transferred to the readers.

In the next conclusion chapter, I will draw implications for pre-service teacher education and teaching speaking in EFL contexts.

Chapter 8. Conclusion

8.1. Overview

This chapter will first reflect on the study briefly, and on the basis of the major issues addressed and identified in the discussion chapter, implications will be drawn from the findings. Implications will focus on the ways to enhance pre-service English teacher education and teaching of speaking in EFL contexts and make suggestions for practical changes for further improvement in the areas where there were constraints or limitations. After this, I will evaluate the extent to which the research questions have been satisfactorily answered with a reflection on the findings of the study, and the contributions and limitations of the study will be discussed. There will also be suggestions for areas of further research with final remarks at the end of this chapter.

8.2. Overview of the Study

The study was conducted when there was a rapid change in English policy for secondary school education and teacher education in Korea and when there was much emphasis on improving the new teacher recruitment system and the quality of teacher education. The literature review identified a paucity of research on teaching speaking in relation to teacher cognition, and though pre-service teacher education was widely researched regarding the impact on teacher learning, there was relatively little research on the teaching practicum particularly in relation to the teaching of speaking by student teachers. Therefore, the study aimed to explore further the nature of teaching speaking and teacher learning during the practicum and to identify the factors which influence the practicum context under the new English policy and curriculum revision.

The study was based on the case study and qualitative research methodology was employed to gather context-based rich data particularly during the short period of the practicum in Korea. Participant observations and in-depth interviews were effective tools for the researcher to deepen an understanding of the research context and reflect on the participants' views when interpreting data. The data were gathered from three teacher colleges and three placement schools over five months including the practicum period. For the study, once three cases were

selected, data analysis proceeded thematically based on the grounded theory approach. There was an on-going process of interpreting and re-interpreting the data set to refine the crucial themes from the data, and the process of reflexivity followed, including member-checking, intending to minimize the researcher's influence whilst increasing accuracy in the interpretation of the findings. The findings were presented case by case and there was crosscase analysis to identify and theorize the major findings. The findings also showed the significant influence of practical training and training on oral proficiency on the trainees' teacher efficacy for teaching speaking during the practicum, and the need for teacher training to be re-considered to meet such needs. The findings showed that there was a lack of effective support provided to the trainees during the practicum from the teacher colleges. Also, while the quality of practical teacher training influenced teacher efficacy during the practicum, the policies that the placement schools adopted towards implementing CLT and TEE and towards the trainees during the practicum influenced the trainees' self-efficacy and confidence in the practice of teaching speaking in the practicum context. The findings identified a lack of collaboration between the teacher colleges and the secondary schools and no coherent connection between the teacher training curriculum and the practicum context as causes of a gap between theory and practice during the practicum. That is, there was a need for pre-service teacher education to prepare the trainees for the practicum. Therefore, based on the findings, the following sections will discuss implications for developing EFL teacher education and teaching of speaking.

8.3. Implications for EFL Teacher Training and the Practicum

In this section, implications are drawn for the development of EFL pre-service teacher education in Korea. In the first sub-section, suggestions are made for the development of the teacher college curriculum by integrating teacher training with the practicum and building collaborative partnerships with cooperating schools. In the second and third sub-sections, there will be further discussion on ways to strengthen teacher training courses and practicum systems.

8.3.1 Developing Collaborative School Partnerships and Coherent Teacher Training Curricula to Connect to Practicum Contexts

The findings indicated no coherent teacher training curriculum in the teacher colleges, which can link teacher training courses to the practicum and reflect the reality of the school context, and as a result, there was a gap between theory and practice during the practicum. This was caused by the absence or lack of collaborative partnerships between teacher colleges and secondary schools. Therefore, there is a need to establish collaborative school partnerships and develop coherent teacher training curricula in pre-service teacher education in Korea. It seems important to structure theoretical courses to be integrated with practical courses with more emphasis on practical courses to support the practicum. As teacher learning is situated learning (Lave and Wenger, 1991), theory and practice need to be integrated by shifting the traditional focus on knowledge transmission (Korthagen, 2010). The quality of theory should be re-considered in ways to reflect the real context so that trainees can build up a realistic idea of the classroom before the practicum (Caspersen, 2013; Segall, 2001) and prevent misconceptions about pedagogical principles as a result of de-contextualized textbook-based theory (Holt-Reynolds, 2000). The nature of microteaching may also be less idealized by providing more opportunities to implement and acquire practical skills and strategies of teaching related to the real classroom including classroom management (e.g. O'Neill and Stephenson, 2012a; Akyol and Ulusoy, 2010; Reupert and Woodcock, 2010).

Since field experience during the practicum was found to have a significant impact on teacher learning even for the short practicum, there is a need to consider the duration of the practicum or the sequence of teaching practice. Due to the short period with limited opportunities to teach under the exam system, there was little learning from classroom practice with no critical reflection (Liou, 2001), and therefore it seems necessary to re-structure the practicum as an integral part of teacher training in terms of the length as well as the assessment (Yan and He, 2010). As there is debate regarding the quality versus quantity of the practicum, there should also be a caution, but it will be essential to provide trainees with more context-based experience by means of an extended practicum rather than in the manner of informal field experience (Shkedi and Laron, 2004) as teacher learning will be facilitated when teacher training is authentic (Ryan and Healy, 2009). Given that the trainees' personal preparedness or teacher efficacy during teacher training had a different impact on the trainees' practicum

experience with regard to their perception and practice of teaching speaking as well as their overall learning during the practicum, there is an essential role of initial teacher training in preparing trainees for the practicum and in improving the practicum system through continuous monitoring of the practicum impact on trainees (Calderhead, 1988). However, for this to take place, it will be necessary to develop cooperating schools which can effectively collaborate during the practicum. As the findings showed that the amount of support from the school context influenced teaching practice with generally better support from the cooperating school assigned by the education board, the cooperating school system can be strengthened to provide more systematic support for teaching practice as suggested by research on professional development schools (e.g. Velzen et al., 2012; Grossman et al., 2011; Mule, 2006; Beck and Kosnik, 2000, 2001; Furlong et al., 2000).

8.3.2 Designing Constructive and Reflective Teacher Training Courses to Develop Teacher Competency

Teacher training courses seemed to be changing to encourage more cooperation and discussion amongst the trainees through collaborative coursework and the trainees seemed to be positive about such a change, though they also indicated that the increased demands on practical training were difficult to cope with while they were familiar with lecturing. However, there was still much emphasis on theoretical training which was traditionally valued and as teacher training was still theory-based, this seemed to create an insufficient practical understanding of pedagogy during the practicum. For example, though the trainees were well aware of curriculum policy, their understanding of learner-centered communicative pedagogy was still limited in practice. Therefore, teacher training to promote trainees' conceptualization of constructivist views and methods of teacher learning to promote trainees' conceptualization of constructivist learning and teaching in the real classroom (Holt-Reynolds, 2000). Ideally, encouraging more inquiry-based and context-based coursework which engages trainees in the real context instead of lecture-based teacher training would develop autonomy and ownership for personal and professional teacher development.

There was also found to be a need to provide more practical training on critical reflection during teacher training by encouraging active exchanges of ideas amongst trainees since it was found that reflective practice was not effectively employed by the trainees. As there is an important role of reflection in changing and developing prior cognition in positive ways during the practicum (Farrell, 2007; Powell, 2000; Tillema, 2000), providing more support to guide critical reflection will promote teacher learning through a continuous reconstruction of prior cognition and teacher knowledge (Warford, 2011). Therefore, constructive and reflective teacher training will enhance the trainees' practical reasoning and equip them to be better prepared for the practicum context (Thomson et al., 2012; Haritos, 2004).

Since the trainees' oral proficiency was found to be closely linked to teacher efficacy during the practicum, there is also a need to provide continuous support for oral proficiency development through study abroad programs or running courses in English as introduced in most teacher colleges in Korea. Strong and positive teacher competency will enable trainees to be more resilient and competent under the influence of the dominant school culture during the practicum (Niemi, 2002).

8.3.3 Developing Support Systems through Trainer Mentor Collaboration to Maximise Field-Experience in School Contexts

During the practicum, the trainees encountered a number of challenges in the school context due to the absence of systematic support for the practicum. In addition to the lack of communication between the trainer and the mentor, there was no systematic mentoring or supervision support. There was no trainer intervention during the practicum except debriefing after the practicum as a whole class in the teacher college. Since trainers seldom visit the trainees except for inspection at the end of the practicum, trainees struggle alone in context without support from teacher training (e.g. Long, 2004). Therefore, there is a need to organise supervision from the trainers during the practicum by appointing a suitable supervisor amongst the trainers, who can be on duty for visiting trainees' schools regularly during the practicum to provide support and feedback for trainees' teaching practice in order to facilitate trainees' personal professional development further during the practicum (Meijer et al, 2009). For example, post-observation supervision can be arranged on a regular basis with a trainer who is on duty for the practicum visit to help trainees to develop a critical reflection on teaching practice through scaffolding support and a different degree of intervention (Engin, 2012). There is also a need to provide professional mentoring from mentors in schools with constructive feedback on teaching practice as mentors have direct contact with trainees during

the practicum and it seems also necessary to provide professional mentor training through inservice teacher education which can support mentors to be equipped for reflective practice (Stanley, 1998). Development of effective trainer and mentor collaboration would maximize the practicum impact on trainees as suggested in professional development school models (e.g. Graham, 2006). On the other hand, encouraging trainees' collaboration by peer observation or peer teaching may also contribute to turning the practicum context into a collaborative community of practice (e.g. Cornu and Ewing, 2008). It seems important to develop support systems to enhance the school context as the school context influences the degree of autonomy and innovation during the practicum. There is a need to reform the school context through collaborative school partnerships to promote teacher learning and positive socialization.

8.4. Implications for Teaching Speaking in EFL Contexts through Communicative Pedagogy and Methodology and Material Development

In this section, the implications are drawn for teaching speaking in EFL contexts in relation to developing context-sensitive communicative approaches and resources which support teachers to develop more localized or situated teaching of speaking in secondary schools. Suggestions will be made on ways to develop more learner-centered or learner-friendly communicative tasks and materials with a consideration of learning culture in EFL contexts.

8.4.1 Developing Context-Sensitive Communicative Approaches and Communicative Tasks

The study showed the need for developing more culture-sensitive communicative approaches and classroom activities for teaching speaking in Korea. The trainees employed individual strategies to adopt communicative activities but most of them were conscious of a lack of practical skills for designing communicative tasks appropriately to teaching contexts. In the same way, the trainees seemed to struggle to employ TEE effectively under contextual challenges. Therefore, it seems important to develop context-sensitive TEE and CLT by reflecting the socio-cultural context of Korea as indicated by Carless (2007) and McKay (2003) in order for teaching speaking to be more appropriately situated in secondary schools. A differentiated degree of TEE according to students' level would be recommendable, and appropriately used L1 would also enhance students' understanding. Since student reticence and speaking anxiety were still found to be a hindering factor for communicative interaction, speaking activities can be developed in ways to overcome the fear of speaking and enhance student autonomy or self-confidence in speaking by structuring the type of communicative tasks from less anxiety-provoking to more fluency-based activities with a different degree of cognitive complexity. Speaking activities should also reflect students' interests and needs and provide cultural information between English and Korean, as textbook-based speaking practice was found to be de-motivating but appropriate topics and communicative contexts would increase student motivation during speaking practice (Kang, 2008; Cao and Philp, 2006). Though the activity book was used in addition to the textbook, it was mainly centered on grammar exercises and did not provide an authentic communicative activity according to level. Therefore, communicative tasks would need to be developed further for each level by re-considering the quality of textbook-based classroom activities (Batstone, 2012). There seems to be a need to develop a communicative pedagogy of appropriation for our social and cultural context (Kramsch and Sullivan, 1996 cited in Gebhard, 1998), which means that we need to develop a context-sensitive communicative pedagogy that is considered to be appropriate and feasible to be implemented flexibly into our classrooms and schools and to be better fitted into our own social and cultural context by adjusting the principles of CLT with reflection on our education system.

8.4.2 Providing Learner-Centred Natural Spoken Materials and Resources

Teaching speaking was mainly based on the textbook under the exam-centered education system, and as the textbook was briefly reviewed and referred to in the findings and discussion chapters, the textbook, as well as the activity book, were not providing a range of spoken English or authentic examples of spoken English. There is a need for textbook development by introducing spoken grammar which can illustrate natural discourse or pragmatic language use, so that classroom language learning can be more authentic with awareness-raising of spoken English (McCarthy and Carter, 2001; Widdowson, 1998). The textbook can be modified by adding more context-sensitive authentic texts to teach speaking skills with a consideration of student level and motivation and developing more supplementary authentic materials can also assist textbook-based but meaning-focused communicative practice (e.g. Liyanage and Bartlett, 2008). There seems to be a need to develop more spoken English resources for both teachers and students and also in ways to minimise the local gap across the country, since criticisms were raised regarding inequity in the amount or quality of available

resources for teaching speaking between the urban and rural contexts (Draper, 2012; Nunan, 2003). However, as regards spoken English material development, there should also be caution with the commercial purpose of English policy in Asian countries (Auerbach, 1993) and there would need a continuous re-evaluation of learning purposes for effective material development.

8.4.3 Promoting Learning Culture and Support for Spoken English Policies

There seems to be a need to re-consider spoken English policy in relation to learner support and learning culture. The streamed system has an advantage for TEE, but communicative practice was still not very effective due to lack of learner autonomy or lack of individual support particularly in the low level class. To enhance learner autonomy and support, it seems important to build a learner-centered classroom environment that is less teacher-controlled but encourages more classroom interaction amongst the students. As lack of autonomy is caused not only by the conservative culture but also by the limited experience of speaking (Xie, 2010), more learner-friendly classroom interaction would provoke ownership of learning in speaking. There is a need to provide more learner support to facilitate CLT. It seems also necessary to develop learner-centered communicative lessons with supportive instruction and assessment (Baeten et al., 2010). To provide more teacher support and training on the new teacher role in terms of learner support and classroom management also seems to be important to facilitate constructivist teaching and communicative interaction (Niemi, 2002; Yang, 1998). While topdown education innovation generated a gap between policy and reality, it seems important to consider education context and education culture with context-sensitive teacher education (Prapaisit de Segovia and Hardison, 2009; Zappa-Hollman, 2007). To situate CLT and TEE policy in secondary schools, the exam-centred education system including teacher education would need to be reformed (Johnson, 2006) and further changes would also be necessary for teachers' attitudes to traditional methodologies (Li and Baldauf, 2011), as well as the perspectives of policymakers, educationists, administrators and institutions (Syed, 2003).

8.5. Research Questions and Results of the Research

In the previous sections, implications were discussed, and in this section, I will explain how the study answered the research questions. The answers to the research questions will be briefly summarized below under the headings of each sub-question and the main question.

8.5.1 Understanding of Teaching Speaking from Teacher Training before the Practicum

The first sub-question explored the trainees' initial understanding of teaching speaking as regards TEE and CLT perspectives which were formed during the teacher training courses. The trainees' theoretical understanding of teaching speaking from teacher training before the practicum was idealized as previously discussed, and it was a simplified view with an emphasis on technical skill, and an optimistic and positive view in terms of the application of theory to practice. For example, all the trainees showed great interest in teaching speaking but in ways using or testing particular skills which they learned during teacher training such as elicitation techniques (for case 1), communicative situations and activities (for case 2) or authentic materials and tasks (for case 3). Though they seemed to be aware of what CLT and TEE meant principally according to how they perceived them during teacher training, they could not seem to think of them in connection with the diversity or variability involved in the process of learning speaking or on the part of the students, and in this sense their initial views of teaching speaking were naïve and seemed to remain at the level of transferring knowledge of speaking or how to teach speaking technically, while ignoring the complex nature of teaching speaking in reality. Their theoretical knowledge of teaching speaking also resulted in rather vague ideas on communicative strategies in terms of how to interact or communicate with students, with little practical understanding of how to teach speaking communicatively, while perceiving teaching speaking in terms of speech performance. Their experience of microteaching of communicative lessons seemed to influence their pedagogic confidence based on the theory of CLT or TEE which suggested rather ideal recommendations for teaching speaking, but lack of experience of the real context seemed to result in overoptimistic views on applying theory to practice. Their memory of learning speaking seemed also to influence them to focus more on student affect such as speaking anxiety and language learning motivation. Though the trainees had some awareness of the contextual constraints to teaching speaking, their views of the general picture of the practicum context were uncertain

and limited as they were based on learning from schooling. Overall, there was found to be a difference in the extent to which the trainees were equipped with pedagogical knowledge and teacher efficacy before the practicum according to the nature of their teacher training, and particularly the amount of practical training provided by their teacher colleges.

8.5.2 Understanding of Teaching Speaking after the Practicum

The second sub-question addressed the trainees' practical understanding shaped from the practice of teaching speaking after the practicum. The trainees' later views on teaching speaking were clearly more contextualized and were largely related to or centered on the students. That is, as they became more knowledgeable about their students' characteristics through their practice during the practicum, they seemed to link or interpret their practice of TEE or CLT in relation to their students with regard to the best ways to support their students. They have become more attentive and sensitive to their students' needs and motives in their lessons since experiencing teaching practice over the practicum. As noted in their lessons, they became more flexible in changing their lesson plans according to their students' level and motivation than their early teaching period. With continuous efforts to structure their TEE or CLT approaches more appropriately for their classroom context, their lessons became adjusted to best support their students with emerging practical knowledge about them. However, there was a limitation in the extent to which they were actually able to teach speaking under the school system during the practicum. Therefore, their practical views of CLT and TEE were closely linked to their understanding and consideration of the students' affective and cognitive characteristics. In this sense, their practical knowledge of teaching speaking seemed to be situated in and driven by the context of teaching through the exploration and reconstruction of personal experience of teaching. Their classroom practice changed and modified their naïve views of CLT and TEE, to some extent, and increased their awareness of the diverse factors interacting and interfering with the teaching of speaking in the classroom and school context. However, there were differences between the trainees in the extent to which their practical knowledge of CLT or TEE was developed, due to the different amounts and experiences of teaching speaking in their contexts. The trainees who were more able to apply CLT or TEE in their classrooms presented more positive and elaborated perspectives than those who were not. The trainees seemed also to present more personalized views of teaching speaking according to their experience of teaching in their

context, that is, by interpreting the role or effect of CLT or TEE with regard to the students' motivation, participation, level, interests, and needs. However, even after the practicum, most trainees still felt a sense of ambiguity about the relationship between theory and practice of CLT or how to apply theory to practice effectively in context, and this seemed to be attributed to their limited practical experience and little practical knowledge of teaching.

8.5.3 Challenges to Learning to Teach Speaking according to the National Curriculum during the Practicum

The third sub-question investigated the challenges which the trainees experienced during the practicum and the factors which caused such challenges. The findings presented evidence of how contextual factors either supported trainees or made them struggle with their practice of TEE and CLT following the guidelines of the national curriculum. It should be noted that the trainees' practice was influenced by both micro and macro level contextual factors, for example, the type of the classroom, the school system, the education system, and the structure of the teacher education system. The direct source of influence on their practice was the students and the mentors in their classrooms, but other factors such as the amount of support which was available to them in the school context and the nature of teacher training which they received also influenced them. The findings also showed that the personal preparedness of each trainee had a great influence on their self-efficacy during the practicum. That is, a lack of teaching skills or little confidence in spoken English caused more difficulties in teaching speaking in addition to the limited chance to teach speaking under contextual constraints. However, the trainees' more positive self-efficacy and teacher competence supported by the quality of teacher training and personal professional development seemed to make them more competent and resilient to the diverse contextual challenges raised in the practicum context and to enable them to continue to take risks and be successful in implementing CLT and TEE in their classrooms to some extent as guided in teacher training.

8.5.4 The Extent of the Practicum impact on Understanding of Teaching Speaking

The main question intended to measure the impact of the practicum on teacher learning according to the aims of the study. Overall the practicum had an impact on trainees by increasing understanding of the practicalities and realities of teaching in the classroom and

school context during the intensive practicum. However, the extent to which the practicum had an impact on changing the trainees' understanding of teaching speaking was found to be limited due to a number of contextual influences and barriers or personal factors, and in particular because of the short practicum. Therefore, the practicum experience resulted in little cognition change or development. Contextual challenges resulted in either a slight negative change in the trainees' CLT and TEE perspectives or more resilience and positive cognition change in some cases, as the trainees interpreted their experience of challenges to a different extent according to their teacher efficacy belief, or their personal qualities, and different contextual conditions may have also influenced them.

8.6. Contributions of the Research

In this section, the contributions of the study will be discussed with a reflection on the main findings discussed above. First of all, it should be noted that teaching speaking has been a neglected area of research, with few studies addressing what teachers do and why, and studies of how student teachers learn to teach speaking are also very limited. Therefore, this study identified this gap in the literature. The study investigated the teaching of speaking by student teachers during the practicum in Korea in the EFL context through a multiple case study design. The study has merits in that it attempted to unpack the complex nature of teacher learning and the inter-related factors and influences which affect teacher cognition change during the practicum in the EFL context, where there has been a paucity of research in relation to teacher learning or the practicum. It was an inquiry into student teacher learning in the area of teaching of spoken English by tracing the transferability of theoretical knowledge and revealing the emergence of practical knowledge in terms of the teaching of speaking during the practicum, and therefore this study contributes to the field of TESOL teacher education particularly in relation to teaching of speaking during the practicum.

The trainees were not skilfully prepared to teach speaking effectively in the real classroom, especially under the recently introduced streamed system. However, their theoretical views of CLT seemed to be consistent to some extent during the practicum and transferred to their practice by devising their own versions of CLT according to their learners' level, and their strategies for elicitation and participation seemed to provide students with more opportunities to speak in English. Despite their efforts in implementing CLT, most practices of speaking

were found to be textbook-based mechanical oral practice under teacher control, thus not encouraging meaning-focused communicative interaction amongst the students. Most trainees experienced ambiguity in deciding on the extent to which they can apply the principles of CLT as learned from teacher training to their classrooms due to their perceptions of ideal CLT, and especially under contextual constraints from the school exam in addition to lack of teaching experience and support for teaching. In the same way, their theoretical applications of TEE turned out to be unemployable either in the large mixed ability classroom (which was non-streamed) or in the low level classroom due to little understanding of the students, and though TEE seemed to be almost fully applicable in the high level classroom, L1 was still used occasionally for grammar instruction. As the trainees lacked skill in effective code-switching, most of them except the high level classroom ended up teaching in Korean using very little classroom English. TEE was also challenging for the trainee who had a lack of confidence in spoken English. This finding seems to indicate the importance of developing trainees' oral proficiency and also the need for systematic teacher training on TEE by defining an appropriate standard for EFL teacher oral proficiency in Korea as indicated by Butler (2004) in the study of primary school teachers' English proficiency in Korea, Taiwan, and Japan.

There seemed to be an elaboration of trainees' previous views on learner-centered communicative teaching of speaking shaped from teacher training or schooling, as trainees' practical views after the practicum were more contextualized views which were situated in their own classrooms and modified to meet their students' interests and needs. However, because of the short practicum, their CLT could not fully develop and their cognition change or development was also very limited due to the very limited chance to teach speaking. The trainees seemed to lack the necessary skills for communicative task design according to the students' cognitive and linguistic level and struggled to define and link speaking activities with learning purposes. According to Butler (2005), it is important to define communicative competence in EFL contexts and guide EFL teachers to set learning goals for communicative activities in order to avoid confusion or ambiguity in CLT. Similarly, Lee and Lee (2002) and Butler (2004) also stressed the need to re-define the concept of communicative competence in EFL contexts. This is important as there are a number of reports of misconceptions of CLT amongst EFL teachers. The most common misunderstandings are related to viewing CLT as a focus on speaking without teaching grammar (Butler, 2011; Li, 1998; Thompson, 1996) or as a communicative activity (Ho, 2004). According to Butler (2011), this uncertainty with CLT is caused by the conflict between CLT and traditional socio-cultural values in EFL countries. Carless (2007) and Ahn (2008) reported that teachers' beliefs in favor of traditional teaching methods had a powerful influence on how CLT was implemented in their classrooms, and this indicates the importance of raising EFL teachers' awareness of CLT in relation to contextual factors. There is an importance of developing a more context-sensitive CLT approach in EFL contexts as Littlewood (2013) indicated. For example, Choe (1998) addressed the need to find a way to implement CLT appropriately within the exam-centered and grammar-based context of Korea. Similarly, Butler (2011) and Carless (2007) argued for context-sensitive task approaches in Asia in order to fit into the context under the high-stake exam system.

Whereas there seems to be a need to develop a new concept of, and approach to, communication-oriented teaching of speaking in pre-service or in-service teacher education in Korea, the finding seems also to stress the importance of initial teacher training to prepare trainees to develop procedural knowledge of how to put theory into practice for teaching of speaking under the streamed system, instead of putting too much emphasis on theoretical knowledge as indicated by Bronkhorst et al. (2011). That is, it seems important to provide more authentic and context-sensitive teacher training on communicative pedagogy and methodology, not only supported by theory but also based on practice by making sense of theory in context, or teacher learning of theory in action through practical reasoning (see Ryan and Healy, 2009; Johnson, 1996b; Ur, 1992).

Overall, the study identified the need for and importance of providing coherence between teacher training and the practicum. This is reinforcement of a previously identified need. As previously discussed, the impact of teacher training is often washed out when the trainees encounter the challenging reality of classroom teaching without support in the conservative school culture. However, more practically oriented teacher training would better equip an individual trainee to be more competent and resilient in the conservative context. Moreover, especially the quality of teacher training for oral proficiency would make a significant influence on teacher efficacy for teaching speaking, and an example of this was found in case 2 as compared to case 1.

Furthermore, the study also identified the limited effect of the short practicum. There was evidence of teacher learning from teaching practice during the practicum, but in a limited way as due to the short period, the practicum effect was limited. The powerful influence of the traditional school context and the exam-centered education system as a whole were seen to be a major hindering barrier to the practicum impact as previously reported. However, the study has also shown that the amount of support and flexibility in the school policy for teaching practice and teacher learning played an essential role for the trainees to implement teaching speaking and develop personal strategies beyond contextual constraints, though most trainees were found to have conformed to the practice of the mentor to some extent, especially under the hierarchical social and cultural influence. The study also indicated how individual preparation of the trainees with pedagogical knowledge and oral proficiency as well as practical skills was important to make the practicum more effective, and how their level of motivation or attainment during teacher training and ownership of teacher learning influenced their personal and professional teacher development. The practicum as rather disintegrated and incoherent from teacher training generated different or inconsistent field experience, and the trainees' practice or their perception of their practice and their context at micro and macro levels were all interacting or interfering with one another. There is a need to re-structure the teacher training curriculum to provide more systematic practicum support.

The study should be given attention as there was relatively little research on the impact of the practicum on teacher learning in pre-service English teacher education in Korea through an empirical study using mixed methodology, particularly in the area of teaching of speaking. The study identified the significant need for pre-service English teacher education in Korea to prepare the trainees for teaching of speaking in the school context through teacher training more situated in context, and the study will contribute to the development of English teacher education programs and teaching speaking methodologies in EFL contexts in Asian countries including Korea, and also more broadly to the field of TESOL teacher education and practicum research.

8.7. Limitations of the Research

In this section, the limitations of the study will be discussed following the above discussion. The study revealed insights and further understanding of the nature of teacher learning during the practicum and shed light on the area of teaching speaking. However, a few limitations should also be acknowledged as regards the nature of the qualitative study or the design of the study. The study was based on a small number of participants, that is, three cases, and the practicum took place in different contexts in urban and rural regions, that is, the capital city, a large city, and a small city (the countryside). However, unlike a large scale survey, it should be noted that there is a different advantage of a qualitative study in gathering in-depth contextdriven data through mixed methodology and triangulation. There is also a drawback of a qualitative study from the subjective researcher stance, but through the reflexive process and member-checking as well as efforts to increase trustworthiness, the quality and validity of the study were improved. There was another danger of gathering a small amount of data with limited available resources due to the short period of the practicum as the practicum was held only for one month in Korea. However, the total data was collected from both of the practicum periods in April and in May, since only half of the trainees were usually sent to the practicum either in April or in May and three cases were selected for the study from the total data. The only difficulty that should be mentioned with data collection is the fact that there was a limited chance to observe teaching speaking under the education system in Korea and therefore observation data gathered was only two lessons in each school, but this was arranged in consideration of the purpose of the study, given the logistics or the busy schedules of the trainees and as a consequence the limitation on the part of the researcher to be able to access each school during the practicum. Finally, there should not be over-generalization of the findings of the study to other studies from different disciplines or different contexts as the study was based on the particular context of the English teaching practicum with a small number of participants. However, the participants' experiences will be applicable to similar situations in EFL contexts and also to wider educational contexts of ELT. Upon consideration of the limited time and resources which were available for the study, in the next section, I will suggest ways that can improve such a limitation and facilitate further opportunities for future research.

8.8. Suggestions for Further Research

The study investigated student teachers' teaching of speaking during the practicum and shed light on the area of teacher learning during initial teacher training, increasing our understanding of contextual factors that hinder or support the practice of teaching and learning from teaching in the EFL context. In line with previous research, the influence of initial teacher training and school support on teacher learning was found during the study, and therefore more similar research can be conducted in the EFL context. Firstly, both theories applied to the study and methods used in the study can be replicated in future studies with a view to achieving analytic generalization (Yin, 2014). That is, more qualitative case studies can be conducted by increasing the number of cases either in one teacher college or in a few teacher colleges for an in-depth understanding and synthesis of institutional factors across teacher colleges in Korea. More qualitative studies can also explore further socio-cultural contexts of the practicum in relation to the mentor influence on teaching speaking, considering students' views and teachers' teaching methods and materials, based on more cases in urban and rural schools in Korea or EFL countries.

Also, alternative or complementary research designs can be used through quantitative methods or mixed methods. Whilst this study did not make use of the questionnaire for statistical data analysis but only used the information obtained from the questionnaire as supplementary and documentary data, further research can be designed with a mixed research method of a large survey of a few teacher colleges followed by a few qualitative case studies in Korea. As Corbin and Strauss (2015) indicated that grounded theory research provides a strong foundation for further studies using statistical measurements, based on the findings of the study, a large scale survey of teacher colleges or secondary schools across the various regions of Korea can also be designed to further investigate initial teacher training courses or classroom practices under the level-based curriculum. There is also the potential to employ different research instruments that were not used in the study, for example, using other documents such as diaries and journals or using videos and stimulated recall interviews in qualitative research. Though the diaries or journals were not used in the study, their usefulness or effectiveness to facilitate student teachers' reflection during the practicum is noted in the literature (e.g. Al-hassan et al., 2014; Kim and Yi, 2010). The use of stimulated recall interviews based on videoed lessons after observations to enhance teachers' reflection of teaching is also well reported (Yuan and Lee, 2014; Calderhead, 1981). Since grounded theory approaches are useful to provide further insight into both existing educational problems and under-researched educational issues (Corbin and Strauss, 2015), more longitudinal studies based on grounded theory approaches would be recommendable using mixed methodologies or multiple instruments and including more participants in other EFL contexts or diverse educational contexts in TESOL.

8.6. Concluding Remarks

When I reflect on my study, I believe that pursuing a PhD was a valuable experience for my professional development. First of all, to conduct qualitative research was an advantage in It was a meaningful process of learning by engaging in interactive many respects. conversations with practitioners and educators who have been involved in secondary education and teacher education for many years. The dynamic process of my study enabled me to gain a better understanding of the educational context in Korea and develop further insight into the inquiry of theory and practice of English policy and curriculum innovation in the public secondary school in the EFL context. I acknowledge that there were also periods of challenging circumstances in each phase of my study. However, after all, I now fully understand the importance of our educational context and educational support to promote the quality of our education. Moreover, I am convinced that all my research experience during my study, including intensive training gained from my fieldwork, was a whole process of learning to become a professional researcher and of building up my own confidence as a researcher in order to carry on more independent research in any field of educational study in the future.

References

Abdelhafez, A. (2014). Experienced EFL teachers' professional practical knowledge, reasoning and classroom decision making in Egypt: views from the inside out. *Teacher Development*, 18(2), 229-245.

Adler, P.A., & Adler, P. (1994). Observational techniques. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 377-392). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.

Agor, J. T. (2014). Language-Learner Strategy Instruction and English Achievement: Voices from Ghana. *English Language Teaching*, 7(6), 175-191.

Ahn, K. (2008). Teaching as one has been taught: The impact of teacher socialization on the implementation of English curricular reform. *English Teaching*, *63*(3), 91-117.

Ahn, K. (2011). Learning to teach under curricular reform: The practicum experience in South Korea. In Johnson, K. E. & Golombek, P. R. (Eds.), *Research on second language teacher education: A sociocultural perspective on professional development* (pp. 239–253). New York, NY: Routledge.

Ahour, T., & Maleki, S. E. (2014). The effect of Metadiscourse instruction on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. *English Language Teaching*, 7(10), 69.

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *Modern Language Journal*, 78(2), 155-168.

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.

Akyol, H., & Ulusoy, M. (2010). Pre-service teachers' use of reading strategies in their own readings and future classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(4), 878-884.

Al-Hassan, O., Al-Barakat, A., & Al-Hassan, Y. (2012). Pre-service teachers' reflections during field experience. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *38*(4), 419-434.

Al-Yateem, N. (2012). The effect of interview recording on quality of data obtained: a methodological reflection. *Nurse Researcher*, 19(4), 31-35.

Allen, L. (2000). Form-meaning connections and the French causative: an experiment in processing instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22(1), 69–84.

Allen, J. M. (2009). Valuing practice over theory: How beginning teachers re-orient their practice in the transition from the university to the workplace. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(5), 647-654.

Allwright, D., & Bailey, K.M. (1991). Focus on the Language Classroom: An Introduction to Classroom Research for Language Teachers. Cambridge: CUP.

Altheide, D.L., & Johnson, J.M. (1994). Criteria for assessing interpretive validity in qualitative research. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 485-499). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Amengual-Pizarro, M. (2007). How to respond to the demands set by the communicative approach? New challenges second-language (L2) teachers face in the classroom. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 30(1), 63-73.

Arnold, E. (2006). Assessing the Quality of Mentoring: Sinking or Learning to Swim. *ELT Journal*, 60(2), 117-124.

Andrews, S. (1983). Communicative language teaching: Some implications for teacher education. In Johnson, K. & Porter, D. (Eds.), *Perspectives in Communicative Language Teaching* (pp. 127-43). London: Academic Press.

Anderson, J. (1993). Is a communicative approach practical for teaching English in China? Pros and cons. *System*, 21(4), 471–480.

Angers, J., & Machtmes, K. (2005). An ethnographic-case study of beliefs, context factors, and practices of teachers integrating technology. *The Qualitative Report*, *10*(4), 771-794.

Applegate, J.H. (1989). Readiness for teaching. In Holly, M.L. & McLoughlin, C.S. (Eds.), *Perspectives on Teacher Professional Development* (pp. 79-91). London: Falmer.

Armaline, W.D., & Hoover, R.L. (1989). Field experience as a vehicle for transformation: Ideology, education, and reflective practice. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(2), 42-48.

Atkinson, D. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: a neglected resource? *ELT Journal*, *41* (4), 241-247.

Auerbach, E.R. (1993). Reexamining English Only in the ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 27(1), 9-32.

Baek, S. G., & Ham, E.H. (2009). An evaluation study on the educational value of teaching practicum in secondary schools. Asia Pacific Education Review, 10(2), 271-280.

Baeten, M., Kyndt, E., Struyven, K., & Dochy, Filip. (2010). Using student-centred learning environments to stimulate deep approaches to learning: Factors encouraging or discouraging their effectiveness. *Educational Research Review*, *5*(3), 243-260.

Bailey, K. M., Bergthold, B., Braunstein, B., Fleischman, J. N., Holbrook, M. P, Tuman, J., Waissbluth, X., & Zambo, L. J. (1996). The language learner's autobiography: Examining the apprenticeship of observation. In Freeman, D. and Richards, J.C. (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 11-29). New York: CUP.

Ballantyne, R., Hansford, B., & Packer, J. (1995). Mentoring beginning teachers: a qualitative analysis of process and outcomes. *Educational Review*, 47(3), 297-307.

Balli, S. J. (2011). Pre-service teachers' episodic memories of classroom management. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(2), 245-251.

Barahona, M. (2014). Preservice teachers' beliefs in the activity of learning to teach English in the Chilean context. *Cultural-Historical Psychology*, *10*(2), 116–122.

Barnes, D. (1976). From Communication to Curriculum. Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Barnes, D.A. (1998). Foreword: Looking forward: The concluding remarks at the castle conference. In Hamilton, M.L., Pinnegar, S., Russell, T., Loughran, J. & LaBoskey, V. (Eds.), *Reconceptualising Teaching Practice: Self-study in Teacher Education* (pp. 9-14). London: Falmer.

Bandura, A. (1992). Social cognitive theory. In Vasta, R. (Ed.), Six Theories of Child Development: Revised Formulations and Current Issues (pp. 175-208). London: Jessica Kingsley.

Basit, T. (2003). Manual or electronic? The role of coding in qualitative data analysis. *Educational research*, 45(2), 143-154.

Bateson, G. (1972). Steps to an Ecology of Mind. London: Intertext Books.

Batstone, R. (1994). Grammar. Oxford: OUP.

Batstone, R. (1996). Noticing. *ELT Journal*, 50(3), 273.

Batstone, R. (2012). Language form, task-based language teaching, and the classroom context. *ELT Journal*, *66*(4), 459-467.

Bauml, M. (2009). Examining the unexpected sophistication of pre-service teachers' beliefs about the relational dimensions of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(6), 902-908.

Beck, C., & Clare, K. (2000). Associate Teachers in Pre-service Education: Clarifying and enhancing their role. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *26*(3), 207-224.

Beck, C., & Clare, K. (2002). Professors and the practicum: Involvement of university faculty in preservice practicum supervision. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(1), 6-19.

Beck, C., & Kosnik, C. (2000). Associate teachers in pre-service education: Clarifying and enhancing their role. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *26*(3), 207-224.

Beck, C., & Kosnik, C. (2001). From cohort to community in a preservice teacher education program. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *17*(8), 925-948.

Beck, C., & Kosnik, C. (2002). Professors and the practicum: Involvement of university faculty in preservice practicum supervision. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *53*(1), 6-19.

Bei, G. X. (2013). Effects of Immediate Repetition in L2 Speaking Tasks: A Focused Study. *English Language Teaching*, 6(1), 11-19.

Bell, J. (1987). Doing Your Research Project: A Guide for First-time Researchers in Education and Social Science. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bellack, A.A., Kliebard, H.M., Hyman, R.T., & Smith, F.L. (1966). *The Language of the Classroom*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Berliner, D.C. (1987). Ways of thinking about students and classrooms by more and less experienced teachers. In Calderhead, J. (Ed.), *Exploring Teachers' Thinking* (pp. 60-83). London: Cassell.

Berns, M. (1990). Contexts of Competence: Social and Cultural Considerations in Communicative Language Teaching. New York: Plenum Press.

Bialystok, E. (1990). Communication Strategies: A Psychological Analysis of Second Language Use. Oxford: Blackwell.

Bickmore, S.T, Smagorinsky, P., & O'Donnell-Allen, C. (2005). Tensions between traditions: the role of contexts in learning to teach. *English Education*, *38*(1), 23-52.

Blatchford, P., P. Kutnick, E. Baines, & M. Galton. (2003). Toward a social pedagogy of classroom group work. *International Journal of Educational Research*, *39*(8), 153–172.

Borg, M. (2005). A case study of the development in pedagogic thinking of a pre-service teacher. *TESL-EJ*, 9(2), 1-30.

Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(1), 9–38.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in language teaching: a review of research on what language teachers think, know, believe, and do. *Language Teaching*, *36*(2), 81-109.

Borg, S. (2006). Teacher Cognition and Language Education. London: Continuum.

Borg, S. (2009). "English Language Teachers' Conceptions of Research." *Applied Linguistics* 35(1), 358–388.

Borko, H., & Mayfield, V. (1995). The roles of the cooperating teacher and university supervisor in learning to teach. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11(5), 501–18.

Boyd, D., Grossman, P., Lankford, H., Loeb, S., & Wyckoff, J. (2009). Teacher preparation and student achievement. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, *31*(4), 416-440.

Boz, Y. (2008). Turkish student teachers' concerns about teaching. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 31(4), 367–377.

Brandt, C. (2008). Integrating feedback and reflection in teacher preparation. *ELT journal*, 62(1), 37-46.

Bransford, J. D., Brown, A. L., & Cocking, R. R. (2000). *How People Learn: Brain, Mind Experience and School.* Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Breen, M.P., & Candlin, C.N. (1980). The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(2), 89-112.

Breen, M.P. (1985). Authenticity in the language classroom. Applied Linguistics, 6(1), 60-70.

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.

Briman, A., & Burgess, R.G. (1995). Reflections on qualitative data analysis. In Briman, A. and Burgess, R.G. (Eds.), *Analysing Qualitative Data* (pp. 216-226). London: Routledge.

Brookhart, S.M., & Freeman, D.J. (1992). Characteristics of entering teacher candidates. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(1), 37-60.

Brooks, L. (2009). Interacting in Paris in a test of oral proficiency: Co-constructing a better performance. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 341-366.

Bronkhorst, L.H., Meijer, P.C., Koster, B., & Vermunt, J.D. (2011). Fostering meaningoriented learning and deliberate practice in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(7), 1120-1130.

Brouwer, N., & Korthagen, F. (2005). Can teacher education make a difference? *American Educational Research Journal*, 42(1), 153-224.

Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy* (3rd edition). New York, USA: Pearson Education Ltd.

Brumfit, C.J. (1984). *Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching: The Roles of Fluency and Accuracy*. Cambridge: CUP.

Bryman, A. (2008). Social Research Methods (3rd edition). Oxford: OUP.

Buckle, J. L., Dwyer, S. C., & Jackson, M. (2010). Qualitative bereavement research: incongruity between the perspectives of participants and research ethics boards. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, *13*(2), 111-125.

Buitink, J. (2009). What and how do student teachers learn during school-based teacher education. *Teaching and teacher education*, 25(1), 118-127.

Burant, T.J., & Kirby, D. (2002). Beyond classroom-based early field experiences: understanding an "educative practicum" in an urban school and community. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*(5), 561-575.

Burnaby, B., & Sun, Y. (1989). Chinese teachers' views of Western language teaching: Context informs paradigm. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(2), 219–238.

Burns, A., & Seidlhofer, B. (2002). Speaking and pronunciation. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics* (pp. 197-214). London: Arnold.

Burri, M., Chen, H., & Baker, A. (2017). Joint Development of Teacher Cognition and Identity Through Learning to Teach L2 Pronunciation. *The Modern Language Journal*, *101*(1), 128-142.

Butler, Y.G. (2004). What level of English proficiency do elementary teachers need to attain to teach EFL? Case studies from Korea, Taiwan, and Japan. *TESOL Quarterly*, *38*(2), 245-278.

Butler, Y. G. (2005). Comparative perspectives towards communicative activities among elementary school teachers in South Korea, Japan and Taiwan. *Language Teaching Research*, *9*(4), 423-446.

Butler, Y. G. (2011). The implementation of communicative and task-based language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *31*, 36-57.

Bygate, M. (1987). Speaking. Oxford: OUP.

Bygate, M. (1996). Effects of task repetition: appraising the developing language of learners. In Willis, J. and Willis, D. (Eds.), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching* (pp. 136-146). Oxford: Heinemann.

Bygate, M. (1999). Quality of language and purpose of task: Patterns of learners' language on two oral communication tasks. *Language Teaching Research*, *3*(3), 185-214.

Bygate, M. (2001). Effects of task repetition on the structure and control of oral language. In Bygate, M., Skehan, P. & Swain, M. (Eds.), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing* (pp. 23-48). Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.

Bygate, M., Skehan, P., & Swain, M. (2001). Introduction. In Bygate, M., Skehan, P. & Swain, M. (Eds.), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching, and Testing* (pp. 1-20). Harlow: Longman Pearson Education Ltd.

Bygate, M. (2006). Areas of research that influence L2 speaking instruction. In Usó-Juan, E. and Martinez-Flor, A. (Eds.), *Current Trends in the Development of Teaching of the Four Skills* (pp. 159-186). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Byrne, D. (1986). Teaching Oral English. Harlow: Longman.

Calderhead, J. (1981). Stimulated recall: A method for research on teaching. *British journal of educational psychology*, *51*(2), 211-217.

Calderhead, J. (1987). The quality of reflection in student teachers' professional learning. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 10(3), 269-78.

Calderhead, J. (1988). Learning from introductory school experience. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *14*(1), 75-83.

Calderhead, J., & Robson, M. (1991). Images of teaching: student teachers' early conceptions of classroom practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 7(1), 1-8.

Campbell, C. & Kryszewska, H. (1992). Learner-based Teaching. Oxford: OUP.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1–47.

Canh, L. V. (2014). Great Expectations: The TESOL Practicum as a Professional Learning. Experience. *TESOL Journal*, *5*(2), 199–224.

Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behavior in whole class, group and dyadic interaction. *System*, *34* (4), 480-493.

Carless, D.R. (2004a). Issues in teachers' reinterpretation of a task-based innovation in primary schools. *TESOL Quarterly*, *38*(4), 639-662.

Carless, D.R., (2004b). A contextualised examination of target language use in the primary school foreign language classroom. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 27(1), 104–119.

Carless, D. (2007). The suitability of task-based approaches for secondary schools: Perspectives from Hong Kong. *System*, *35*(4), 595-608.

Carless, D. R. (2008). Student use of the mother tongue in the task-based classroom. *ELT Journal*, 62(4), 331-338.

Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (1995). Grammar and spoken language. Applied Linguistics, 16(2), 141-158.

Carter, K., & Doyle, W. (1996). Personal narrative and life history in learning to teach. In Sikula, J., Buttery, T.J., & Guyton, E. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (2nd edition), (pp. 120–142). London: Prentice Hall International.

Caspersen, J. (2013). The valuation of knowledge and normative reflection in teacher qualification. A comparison of teacher educators, novice and experienced teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 30, 109-119.

Cazden, C.B. (2001). *Classroom Discourse: The Language of Teaching and Learning*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1997). Direct approaches in L2 instruction: A turning point in communicative language teaching? *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(1), 141-153.

Cha, S. H. (2003). Myth and reality in the discourse of Confucian capitalism in Korea. *Asian Survey*, 43(3), 485-506.

Chacón, C.T. (2005). Teachers' perceived efficacy among English as a foreign language teachers in middle schools in Venezuela. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(3), 257-272.

Chaliès, S., Bruno-Méard, F., Méard, J., & Bertone, S. (2010). Training preservice teachers rapidly: The need to articulate the training given by university supervisors and cooperating teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(4), 767-774.

Chang, B.M. (2001). An analytic study on syllabus design for the 7th national curriculum. *English Language and Literature Teaching*, 7(2), 1-15.

Chang, B.M. (2003). English textbook analysis for developing the 8th national curriculum: Focused on discourse study using discourse completion tasks. *English Language and Literature Teaching*, 9(1) (Special Edition), 1-20.

Chang, B.M., & Lee, J. (2003). Korean curriculum reforms and the progressivism. *Proceedings* of the 9th Conference of PAAL.

Charmaz, K. (1990). Discovering chronic illness: Using grounded theory. Soc. Sci. Med., 30(11), 1161-1172.

Chaudron, C. (1988). Teacher talk in second language classrooms. In Chaudron, C. (Ed.), *Second Language Classrooms* (pp. 50-89). Cambridge: CUP.

Chen, J.F., Warden, C.A., & Chang, H. (2005). Motivators that do not motivate: The case of Chinese EFL learners and the influence of culture on motivation. *TESOL Quarterly*, *39*(4), 609-633.

Cheng, M.M.H., Chan, K., Tang, S.Y.F., & Cheng, A.Y.N. (2009). Pre-service teacher education students' epistemological beliefs and their conceptions of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(2), 319-327.

Cheng, M.M.H., Tang, S.Y.F., & Cheng, A.Y.N. (2012). Practicalising practical knowledge in student teachers' professional learning in initial teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(6), 781-790.

Cherubini, L. (2009). Exploring prospective teachers' critical thinking: Case-based pedagogy and the standards of professional practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(2), 228-234.

Chitpin, S., Simon, M., & Galipeau, J. (2008). Pre-service teachers' use of the objective knowledge framework for reflection during practicum. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(8), 2049-2058.

Chiang, M. (2008). Effects of fieldwork experience on empowering prospective foreign language teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(5), 1270-1287.

Choe, Y.J. (1998). How to improve the level of communicative competence. *English Language and Literature Teaching*, 4(1), 39-51.

Choi, S. (2000). Teachers' beliefs about communicative language teaching and their classroom teaching practices. *English Teaching*, 55(4), 3-32.

Choi, S. J. (2013). The Realities of TEE Classrooms in Korea: The Stories of Middle School English Teachers. *The Journal of Modern British & American Language & Literature*, 31(3), 107-135.

Chomsky, N. (1957). Syntactic Structures. The Hague: Mouton.

Chun, D. (2002). *Discourse Intonation in L2: From Theory to Practice*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Chung, J., & Choi, T. (2016). English education policies in South Korea: Planned and enacted. In *English language education policy in Asia* (pp. 281-299). Springer, Cham.

Claires, S., & Almeida, L. S. (2005). Teaching practice in initial teacher education: its impact on student teachers' professional skills and development. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *31*(2), 111–120

Clandinin, D.J., & Connelly, F.M. (1986). Rhythms in teaching: The narrative study of teachers' personal practical knowledge of classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 2(4), 377-387.

Clandinin, D.J., & Connelly, F.M. (1987). Teachers' personal knowledge: What counts as personal in studies of the personal. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 19(6), 487-500.

Clark, C.M., & Peterson, P.L. (1986). Teachers' thought processes. In Wittrock, M.C. (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (3rd edition), (pp. 225-296). New York: Macmillan.

Clift, R T. (2008). Rethinking the study of learning to teach. In Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman-Nemser, S., McIntyre, J. & Demers, K.D. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: Enduring Questions in Changing Contexts* (3rd edition), (pp. 827-834). London: Routledge.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Lytle, S. (1999). The teacher research movement: A decade later. *Educational Researcher*, 28(7), 15–25.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Fries, K. (2008). Research on teacher education: Changing times and changing paradigms. In Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman-Nemser, S., McIntyre, J. & Demers, K.D. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: Enduring Questions in Changing Contexts* (3rd edition), (pp. 1050-1093). London: Routledge.

Cohen, A. (1996). Developing the ability to perform speech acts. SSLA, 18(2), 253-267.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2004). *A Guide to Teaching Practice* (5th edition). London: Routledge Falmer.

Cole, A. L., & Knowles, J. G. (1993). Shattered images: Understanding expectations and realities of field experiences. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *9*(5-6), 457–471.

Conway, P.F. (2001). Anticipatory reflection while learning to teach: From a temporally truncated to a temporally distributed model of reflection in teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 17(1), 89-106.

Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33(2), 185-209.

Cook, L. (2007). When in Rome: influences on special education student teachers' teaching. *International Journal of Special Education*, 22(3), 119-130.

Corbin, J.M., & Strauss, A. (2015). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory* (4th edition). London: Sage.

Cordella, A., & Shaikh, M. (2006). From epistemology to ontology: Challenging the constructed 'truth' of ANT. *Working Paper Series, 143,* 1-22. Department of Information Systems, London School of Economics and Political Science.

Cornu, R. L. (2005). Peer mentoring: Engaging pre-service teachers in mentoring one another. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, *13*(3), 355–366.

Cornu, R L., & Ewing, R. (2008). Reconceptualising professional experiences in pre-service teacher education ...reconstructing the past to embrace the future. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(7), 1799-1812.

Courtney, M. (1996). Talking to learn: selecting and using peer group oral tasks. *ELT Journal*, *50*(4), 318-326.

Craig, C.J. (2007). Story constellations: A narrative approach to contextualizing teachers' knowledge of school reform. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(2), 173–188.

Crespo, S. (2002). Praising and correcting: prospective teachers investigate their teacherly talk. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*(6), 739-758.

Creswell, J.W., & Poth, C.N. (2018). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design: Choosing Among Five Traditions* (4th edition). London: Sage.

Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice*, *39*(3), 124-130.

Crookes, G. (2003). A Practicum in TESOL: Professional Development through Teaching Practice. New York: CUP.

Da Silva, M. (2005). Constructing the teaching process from inside out: How pre-service teachers make sense of their perceptions of the teaching of the four skills. *TESL-EJ*, 9(2), 1-19.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st-Century Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(3), 300-314.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2010). Teacher education and the American future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *61*(1-2), 35-47.

Day, R. R. (1990). Teacher observation in second language teacher education. In Richards, J. C. & Nunan, D. (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education* (pp.43-61). Cambridge: CUP.

Day, C. (1999). Developing Teachers: The Challenges of Lifelong Learning. London: Falmer.

Debreli, E. (2016). Pre-Service Teachers' Belief Change and Practical Knowledge Development during the Course of Practicum. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 4(7), 37-46.

Degago, A. T. (2007). Using reflective journals to enhance impoverished practicum placements: A case in teacher education in Ethiopia. *Teaching Education*, 18(4), 343-356.

Denzin, N.K., & Lincoln, Y.S. (2000). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd edition), (pp. 1-20). London: Sage.

Dewey, J. (1904). The relation of theory to practice in education. In J. Boydston (Ed.), *Essays* on the New Empiricism 1903-1906: Vol. 3. The Middle Works of John Dewey 1899-1924 (pp.249-272). Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.

Dewey, J., (1933). *How We Think: A Restatement of the Relation of Reflective Thinking to the Educative Process.* Heath and Company, Lexington, MA: D.C.

Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and Education. New York: The Macmillan Company.

Dinçer, A., & Yeşilyurt, S. (2013). Pre-service English teachers' beliefs on speaking skill based on motivational orientations. *English Language Teaching*, 6(7), 88-95.

Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1994). Teaching conversational skills intensively: Course content and rationale. *ELT Journal*, 48(1), 40-49.

Dörnyei, Z. (1995). On the teachability of communication strategies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 55-58.

Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 275-300.

Dörnyei, Z. (2002). The motivational basis of language learning tasks. In Robinson, P. (Ed.), *Individual Differences and Instructed Language Learning* (pp.137–158). John Benjamins Publishing Company, Philadelphia.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Research Methods in Applied Linguistics. Oxford: OUP.

Doughty, C., & Pica, T. (1986). "Information gap" tasks: Do they facilitate second language acquisition? *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(2), 305-325.

Draper, J. (2012). Reconsidering compulsory English in developing countries in Asia: English in a community of Northeast Thailand. *TESOL Quarterly*, 46(4), 777-811.

Duff, P., & Roberts, C. (1997). The Politics of transcription, transcribing talk: Issues of representation. *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(1), 167-172.

Duffield, S. (2006) Safety net or free fall: the impact of cooperating teachers, *Teacher Development*, 10(2), 167-178.

Dunn, K.E., & Rakes, G.C. (2000). Producing caring qualified teachers: An exploration of the influence of pre-service teacher concerns on learner-centredness. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(4), 516-521.

Dwyer, S., & Buckle, J. (2009). The space between: On being an insider-outsider in qualitative research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(1), 54-63.

Edge, J. (1992). Co-operative development. ELT Journal, 46(1), 62-70.

Edge, J. (1989). Mistakes and Correction. London: Longman.

Ehrman, M., & Dörnyei, Z. 1998. Interpersonal Dynamics in Second Language Education: The Visible and Invisible Classroom. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Elbaz, F. (1981). The teacher's practical knowledge: A report of a case study. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 11(1), 43-71.

Elbaz, F. (1983). Teacher Thinking: A Study of Practical Knowledge. London: Croom Helm.

Elbaz, F. (1993). The development of knowledge in teaching: what we can learn from the expert, the novice, and the 'experienced' teacher? In Kremer-Haton, L., Vonk, H.C., & Fessler, R. (Eds.), *Teacher Professional Development: A Multiple Perspective Approach* (pp.119-132). Amsterdam/ Lisse: Swets and Zeitlinger B.V.

Eldridge, J. (1996). Code-switching in a Turkish secondary school. *ELT Journal*, 50(4), 303-311.

Elliott, B., & Calderhead, J. (1994). Mentoring for teacher development: Possibilities and caveats. In D. McIntyre, H. Hagger, & M. Wilkin (Eds.), *Mentoring: Perspectives on schoolbased teacher education* (pp.166–189). London: Kogan Page.

Ellis, G. (1996). How culturally appropriate is the communicative approach? *ELT Journal*, *50*(3), 213–218.

Ellis, R. (2001a). Investigating form-focused instruction. Language Learning, 51(1), 1-46.

Ellis, R. (2001b). Non-reciprocal tasks, comprehension and second language acquisition. In Bygate, M., Skehan, P., & Swain, M. (Eds.), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing*, (pp. 49-74). London: Pearson Education Ltd.

Ellis, R. (2003). Task-based Language Learning and Teaching. Oxford: OUP.

Ellis, R. (2014, December). Taking the critics to task: The case for task-based teaching. In *Proceedings of the Sixth CLS International Conference Clasic 2014, Singapore* (pp. 103-117).

Ellis, R., Heimbach, R., Tanaka, Y., & Yamazaki, A. (1999). Modified input and the acquisition of word meanings by children and adults. In Ellis, R. (Ed.), *Learning a Second Language through Interaction* (pp.63-114). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Engin, M. (2012). Trainer talk: Levels of intervention. ELT Journal, 67(1), 11-19.

Eraut, M. (1994). Developing Professional Knowledge and Competence. London: Falmer.

Erlam, R. (2003). Evaluating the relative effectiveness of structured input and output-based instruction in foreign language learning: results from an experimental study. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 25(4), 559–82.

Eslami, Z. R., & Fatahi, A. (2008). Teachers' sense of self-efficacy, English proficiency and instructional strategies: A study of nonnative EFL teachers in Iran. *TESL-EJ*, *11*(4), 1–19.

Fajet, W., Bello, M., Leftwich, S.A., Mesler, J.L., & Shaver, A.N. (2005). Pre-service teachers' perceptions in beginning education classes. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(6),717-727.

Farrell, T.S. (1999). The reflective assignment: Unlocking pre-service teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. *RELC Journal*, *30*(2), 1–17.

Farrell, T.S. (2001). English language teacher socialisation during the practicum. *Prospect*, *16*(1), 49–62.

Farrell, T.S. (2003). Learning to teach English language during the first year: Personal influences and challenges. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 19(1), 95-111.

Farrell, T.S. (2007). Failing the Practicum: Narrowing the Gap between Expectations and Reality with Reflective Practice. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(1), 193-201.

Farrell, T.S. (2008). 'Here's the book, go teach the class': ELT practicum support. *RELC*, 39(20), 226-241.

Faucette, P. (2001). A pedagogical perspective on communication strategies: Benefits of training and an analysis of English language teaching materials. *Second Language Studies*, *19*(2), 1-40.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Buchmann, M. (1986). The first year of teacher preparation: Transition to pedagogical thinking. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, *18*(3), 239-56.

Feiman-Nemser, S., & Beasley, K. (1997). Mentoring as assisted performance: A case of coplanning. In Richardson, V. (Ed.), *Constructivist Teacher Education: Building a World of New Understandings* (pp.108-126). London: Falmer.

Feng, R., & Chen, H. (2009). An analysis on the importance of motivation and strategy in postgraduates English acquisition. *English Language Teaching*, 2(3), 93.

Feryok, A. (2008). An Armenian English language teacher's practical theory of communicative language teaching. *System*, *36*(2), 227-40.

Field, J. (2000). Not waiting but drowning, do we measure the depth of the water or throw him a lifebelt? A reply to Tony Ridgeway. *ELT Journal*, *54*(2), 186-195.

Fielding, N. (1993). Qualitative interviewing. In Gilbert, N. (Ed.), *Researching Social Life* (pp.135-53). London: Sage.

Finch, J., & Mason, J. (1990). Decision taking in the fieldwork process: Theoretical sampling and collaborative working. In Burgess, R.G. (Ed.), *Studies in Qualitative Methodology* (pp. 25-50). London: JAI Press Inc.

Fish, D. (1989). Learning through Practice in Initial Teacher Training: A Challenge for the Partners. London: Kogan Page.

Fives, H., Hamman, D., & Olivarez, A. (2006). Does burnout begin with student-teaching? Analyzing efficacy, burnout, and support during the student-teaching semester. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(6), 916-934.

Flanders, N. A. (1970). Analyzing Teaching Behavior. Reading, Mass.: London: Addison-Wesley.

Flowerdew, J., & Lewis, J. (2007). Failing the practicum: Narrowing the gap between expectations and reality with reflective practice. *TESOL Quarterly*, *41*(1), 193-201.

Forbes, C. T. (2004). Peer mentoring in the development of beginning science teachers: Three case studies. *Mentoring and Tutoring*, *12*(2), 219–239.

Foss, D.H., & Kleinsasser, R.C. (1996). Preservice elementary teachers' views of pedagogical and mathematical content knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *12*(4), 429–442.

Foster, P., & Skehan, P. (1996). The influence of planning and task type on second language performance. *SSLA*, *18*(3), 299-323.

Fotos, S., & Ellis, R. (1991). Communicating about grammar: A task-based approach. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(4), 605-628.

Fotos, S.S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar-consciousness tasks. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 323-351.

Fowler, F.J. (1995). Improving Survey Questions. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

Freeman, D. (1992). Collaboration: Constructing shared understandings in a second language classroom. In Nunan, D. (Ed.), *Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching* (pp.56-80). Cambridge: CUP.

Freeman, D., & Johnson, K.E. (1998). Reconceptualizing the Knowledge-Base of Language Teacher Education. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(3), 397-417.

Freeman, D. (2002). The hidden side of the work: Teacher knowledge and learning to teach. *Language Teaching*, *35*(1), 1-13.

Freeman, D. (2004). Language, sociocultural theory, and L2 teacher education: Examining the technology of subject matter and the architecture of instruction. In Hawkins, M.R. (Ed.), *Language Learning and Teacher Education: A Sociocultural Approach* (pp.169-197). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Fuller, F. (1969). Concerns of teachers: A developmental conceptualization. *American Educational Research Journal*, 6(2), 207-226.

Furlong, J., & Maynard, T. (1995). *Mentoring Student Teachers: The Growth of Professional Knowledge*. London: Routledge.

Furlong, J., Barton, L., Miles, S., Whiting, C., & Whitty, G. (2000). *Teacher Education in Transition*. Buckingham: OUP.

Gage, N. L. (2008). Applying what we know: The field of teacher education. In Cochran-Smith (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (pp.1139-1151). London: Routledge.

Galante, A., & Thomson, R. I. (2017). The effectiveness of drama as an instructional approach for the development of second language oral fluency, comprehensibility, and accentedness. *TESOL Quarterly*, *51*(1), 115-142.

Gardner, R.C. (1985). Social Psychology and Second Language Learning. London: Edward Arnold.

Garton, S. (2014). Unresolved issues and new challenges in teaching English to young learners: The case of South Korea. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, *15*(2), 201-219.

Gass, S.M., & Varonis, M. (1985). Task variation and non-native/non-native negotiation of meaning. In Gass, S. & Madden, C. (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 149-61). Boston, Mass.: Heinle and Heinle.

Gass, S.M. (1997). *Input Interaction and the Second Language Learner*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Gatbonton, E., & Segalowitz, N. (1988). Creative automatization: Principles for promoting fluency within a communicative framework. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(3), 473–492.

Gebhard, M. (1998). A case for professional development schools. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(3), 501-510.

Gee, J. P. (2004). Learning language as a matter of learning social languages within discourses. In M.R. Hawkins (Ed.), *Language Learning and Teacher Education: A Sociocultural Approach* (pp. 13-31). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

George, J., Worrell, P., & Rampersad, J. (2002). Messages about good teaching: Primary teacher trainees' experiences of the practicum in Trinidad and Togago. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 22(3-4), 291-304.

Ghaye, A., & Ghaye, K. (1998). *Teaching and Learning through Critical Reflective Practice*. London: David Fulton.

Gholami, K., & Husu, J. (2010). How do teachers reason about their practice? Representing the epistemic nature of teachers' practical knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(8), 1520-1529.

Gholami, R., Rahman, S.Z.A., & Mustapha, G. (2012). Social Context as an Indirect Trigger in EFL Contexts: *Issues and Solutions. English Language Teaching*, 5(3), 73-82.

Gibson, S. (2008). Reading aloud: A useful learning tool? ELT Journal, 62(1), 29-36.

Gimbert, B. (2002). Mastery of teaching in a school-university partnership: a model of context-appropriation theory. *Teacher Development*, *6*(3), 391-416.

Glaser, B.G., & Strauss, A.L. (1967). *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*. New York: Aldine de Gruyter.

Glesne, C., & Peshkin, A. (1992). *Becoming Qualitative Researchers: An Introduction*. New York: Longman.

Golombek, P.R. (1998). A study of language teachers' personal practical knowledge. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(3), 447-64.

Gore, J.M., & Zeichner, K.M. (1991). Action research and reflective teaching in preservice teacher education: A case study from the United States. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 7(2), 119-136.

Gorsuch, G. (2000). EFL educational policies and educational cultures: Influences on teachers' approval of communicative activities. *TESOL Quarterly*, *34*(4), 675-710.

Graham, B. (2006). Conditions for successful field experiences: Perceptions of cooperating teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 1118-1129.

Green, J., Franquiz, M., & Dixon, C. (1997a). The myth of the objective transcript: Transcribing as a situated act. *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*(1), 172-176.

Green, C.F., Christopher, E.R., & Lam, J. (1997b). Developing discussion skills in the ESL classroom. *ELT Journal*, *51*(2),135-143.

Grimmett, P.P., & MacKinnon, A.M. (1992). The roles of reflective practice and foundational disciplines in teacher education. In Russell, T.L. & Munby, H. (Eds.), *Teachers and Teaching: From Classroom to Reflection* (pp.192-210). London: Falmer.

Grinberg, J. (2002). Relationship between pre-service teachers' beliefs and second language learning and prior experiences with non-English speakers. In Minaya-Rowe, L. (Ed.), *Teacher Training and Effective Pedagogy in the Context of Student Diversity* (pp.39-64). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Grossman, P.L. (1990). *The Making of A Teacher: Teacher Knowledge and Teacher Education*. London: Teachers College Press.

Grossman, P., & Thompson, C. (2004). District policy and beginning teachers: A lens on teacher learning. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 26(4), 281-301.

Grossman, P., Hammerness, K., & McDonald, M. (2009). Redefining teaching, re-imagining teacher education. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *15*(2), 237-289.

Grossman, P., Ronfeldt, M., & Cohen, J. (2011). The power of setting: the role of field experience in learning to teach. In K. Harris, S. Graham, T. Urdan, A. Bus, S. Major, & H. L. Swanson (Eds.) *Applications to Teaching and Learning. American Psychological Association (APA) Educational Psychology Handbook 3* (pp. 311-334).

Guariento, W., & Morley, J. (2001). Text and task authenticity in the EFL classroom. *ELT Journal*, *55*(4), 347-353.

Guilloteaux, M.J. (2004). Korean Teachers' Practical Understandings of CLT. *English Teaching-Anseonggun*, 59(1), 53-76.

Guyton, E., & McIntyre, D.J. (1990). Student teaching and school experiences. In Houston, W.R. (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (pp.514-534). New York: Macmillan.

Hagevik, R., Aydeniz, M., & Rowell, C.G. (2012). Using action research in middle level teacher education to evaluate and deepen reflective practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(5), 675-684.

Hahn, J.W. (2001). Analysis and evaluation of the middle school English textbooks. *English Teaching*, 56(4), 329-347.

Hall, G., & Cook, G. (2013). Own-language Use in ELT: exploring global practices and attitudes. *ELT Research Papers*, 13(1), 1-49.

Halliday, M. (1973). Explorations in the Functions of Language. London: Edward Arnold.

Hamel, J. (1993). Case Study Methods. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Hamiloğlu, K. (2013). Turkish student teachers' reflections on their professional identity construction and reconstruction process during the practicum. Doctoral dissertation. University of Leicester.

Hammersley, M. (2008). Troubles with triangulation. In Bergman, M. M. (Ed.), Advances in Mixed Methods Research (pp. 22-36). London: Sage.

Hammersley, M., Foster, P., & Gomm, R. (2000). Case study and generalisation. In Gomm, R., Hammersley, M., & Foster, P. (Eds.), *Case Study Method: Key Issues, Key Texts* (pp. 98–115). London: Sage.

Hammond, L. (2006). Constructing 21st Century Teacher Education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(3), 300-314.

Handal, G., & Lauvås, P. (1987). *Promoting Reflective Teaching: Supervision in Action*. Philadelphia, PA: The Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Hannah, D. R., & Lautsch, B. A. (2011). Counting in qualitative research: Why to conduct it, when to avoid it, and when to closet it. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 20(1), 14-22.

Harbord. J. (1992). The of the mother tongue in the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 46(4), 350-355.

Harford, J., & MacRuairc, G. (2008). Engaging student teachers in meaningful reflective practice. *Teaching and teacher education*, 24(7), 1884-1892.

Haritos, C. (2004). Understanding teaching through the minds of teacher candidates: a curious blend of realism and idealism. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(7), 637-654.

Harper, D. (2002). Talking about pictures: A case for photo elicitation. *Visual studies*, 17(1), 13-26.

Hascher, T., Cocard, Y., & Moser, P. (2004). Forget about theory-practice is all? Student teachers' learning in practicum. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *10*(6), 623-637.

Hawkins, B. (1985). Is an 'appropriate response' always so appropriate? In Gass, S. & Madden, C. (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp.162-178). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Hawkins, M.R. (2004). Social apprenticeships through mediated learning in language teacher education. In Hawkins, M.R. (Ed.) *Language Learning and Teacher Education: A Sociocultural Approach* (pp.89-109). New York: Multilingual Matters.

Heilenman, L. K., & Kaplan, I. M. (1985). Proficiency in practice: The foreign language curriculum. In C. J. James (Ed.) *Foreign Language Proficiency in the Classroom and Beyond* (pp. 55-78). Lincolnwood, Ill., USA: National Textbook Co.

Henry, N., Culman, H., & VanPatten, B. (2009). More on the effects of explicit information in instructed SLA: A partial replication and a response to Fernández (2008). *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *31*(4), 559-575.

Hiep, P. H. (2007). Communicative language teaching: Unity within diversity. *ELT Journal*, *61*(3), 193-201.

Ho, W. K. (2004). English language teaching in East Asia today: An overview. In Ho, W.K. & Wong, R.Y.L. (Eds.), *English Language Teaching in East Asia Today* (pp. 1–32). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.

Hodkinson, P., & Hodkinson, H. (2003). Individuals, communities of practice and the policy context: School-teachers' learning in their workplace. *Studies in Continuing Education*, 25(1), 3–21

Holstein, J.A., & Gubrium, J. F. (1997). Active interviewing. In Silverman, D. (Ed.), *Qualitative Research: Theory Method and Practice* (pp.113-129). London: Sage.

Holliday, A., Hyde, M., & Kullman, J. (2004). *Intercultural Communication: An Advanced Resource Book for Students*. London: Routledge.

Holt-Reynolds, D. (1992). Personal history-based beliefs as relevant prior knowledge in course work. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(2), 325–349.

Holt-Reynolds, D. (2000). What does the teacher do? Constructivist pedagogies and prospective teachers' beliefs about the role of a teacher. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 16(1), 21-32.

Hong, J. Y. (2010). Pre-service and beginning teachers' professional identity and its relation to dropping out of the profession. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(8), 1530-1543.

Honigmann, J.J. (1982). Sampling in ethnographic fieldwork. In Burgess, R.G. (Ed.) *Field Research: A Sourcebook and Field Manual* (pp.79-90). London: Allen and Unwin.

Horwitz, E.K. (1985). Using student beliefs about language learning and teaching in the foreign language methods course. *Foreign Language Annals*, *18*(4), 333-340

Horwitz, E.K., Horwitz, M.B., & Cope, J.A. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125–132.

Horwitz, E.K. (1996). Even teachers get the blues: Recognizing and alleviating language teachers' feelings of foreign language anxiety. *Foreign Language Annals*, 29(3), 365-372.

Howard, J.A. (1994). A social cognitive conception of social structure. *Social Psychology*, 57(3), 210-227.

Hsieh, H.C. (2016). High School Students' Topic Preferences and Oral Development in an English-only Short-term Intensive Language Program. *English Language Teaching*, 9(9), 116.

Hsu, S. (2005). Help-seeking behavior of student teachers. *Educational Research*, 47(3), 307-318.

Hu, G. (2005). Contextual influences on instructional practices: A Chinese case for an ecological approach to ELT. *TESOL Quarterly*, *39*(4), 635-660.

Huang, S.L., & Waxman, H.C. (2009). The association of school environment to student teachers' satisfaction and teaching commitment. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(2), 235-243.

Hughes, A. (1983). Second language and communicative language teaching. In Johnson, K. & Porter, D. (Eds.), *Perspectives in Communicative Language Teaching* (pp.1-21). London: Academic Press.

Hughes, R. (2002). Teaching and Researching Speaking. London: Pearson Education Ltd.

Husu, J., Toom, A., & Patrikainen, S. (2008). Guided reflection as a means to demonstrate and develop student teachers' reflective competencies. *Reflective Practice*, 9(1), 37-51.

Hwang, J. (2010). Negotiation about form across L2 proficiency levels and its role in second language learning. *English Teaching*, 65(2), 47-73.

Hwang, S.S., Seo, H.S., & Kim, T.Y. (2010). Korean English teacher's disempowerment in English-only classes: A case study focusing on Korea-specific cultural aspects. *The Sociolinguistic Journal of Korea, 18*(1), 105–135

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In Pride, J.B. & Holmes, J. (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp.269–293). Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin.

Illés, É. (2012). Learner autonomy revisited. ELT Journal, 66(4), 505-513.

Im, B.B. (2007). A proposal for a developmental paradigm of teaching English through a reflection of Korean English education. *Modern English Education*, 8(1), 171-190.

Im, B.B. (2008). The curriculum design and management for educating excellent English teachers. *English Language and Literature Teaching*, *14*(4), 323-346.

Im, B.B., & Jeon, Y.J. (2009). A survey of the English teachers' perception on teaching English in English (TEE). *English Language and Literature Teaching*, *15*(1), 299-325.

International Review of Curriculum and Assessment Frameworks Internet Archive (INCA). 2008. Korea: Curricula. Retrieved on 08/01/2010 from http://www.inca.org.uk/korea-curricula-mainstream.html.

Intrator, S.M. (2006). Beginning teachers and the emotional drama of the classroom. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 57(3), 232-239.

Iwashita, N. (2001). The effect of learner proficiency on international moves and modified output in nonnative-nonnative interaction in Japanese as a foreign language. *System*, 29(2), 267-287.

Jabeen, S.S. (2014). Implementation of Communicative Approach. *English Language Teaching*, 7(8), 68-74.

Jacobs, G.M., & McCafferty, S.G. (2006). Connections between cooperative learning and second language learning and teaching. In McCafferty, S.G., Jacobs, G.M. & DaSilva Iddings, A.C. (Eds.), *Cooperative Learning and Second Language Teaching* (pp. 18-29). Cambridge: CUP.

Jeon, B.M., & Song, H.S. (2014). Current Issues and Future Directions of English Education in Korea. *Studies in English Education*, 19(2), 97-125.

Jeon, I. (2008). Korean EFL teachers' beliefs of English-only instruction. *English Teaching*, 63(3), 205-229.

Jeon, J. (2009). Key issues in applying the communicative approach in Korea: Follow up after 12 years of implementation. *English Teaching*, 64(4), 123-150.

Jung, J., & Ko, J. (2015). The effect of a short-term TEE-focused training program for secondary teachers in terms of pair/group work management skills. *Foreign Language Education*, 22(3), 157-182.

Jeon, J. H. (2009). Key issues in applying the communicative approach in Korea: Follow up after 12 years of implementation. *English Teaching*, 64(4), 123-150.

Jeon, J.H., Lee, W.K., & Kim, J.R. (2011). Investigating the English speaking proficiency level Korean people want to achieve. English Teaching, *66*(2), 273-305.

Jeon, J.S. (2004). Chapter 8. The analysis of the teacher performance assessment system and the teacher perspective. *Korea Education (Pyungron), 2004*, 163-209. Seoul: KEDI.

Jung, M.H. (2015). The effects of storytelling-based English classes on elementary school students' English speaking skills. *Teacher Education Study*, 54(2), 221-240.

Jung, Y.H., & Kim, H.O. (2012). The Effect of Storytelling-Enhanced English Lessons on Primary School Students' Oral Skills and Learning Attitudes. *Educational Science Study*, *43*(1), 63-89.

Jenkins, J. (2007). English as a Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity. Oxford: OUP.

Jin, L., & Cortazzi, M. (2006). Changing practices in Chinese cultures of learning. Language, *Culture and Curriculum*, *19*(1), 5–20.

Jo, S. (2008). English education and teacher education in South Korea. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *34*(4), 371–381.

Jo, M.W. (2013) "A Study on English Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching English in English." *The Journal of Modern British & American Language & Literature*, *31*(2), 115-151.

Johnson, K.E. (1983). Syllabus design: Possible future trends. In Johnson, K.E. & Porter, D. (Eds.), *Perspective in Communicative Language Teaching* (pp. 47-68). London: Academic Press.

Johnson, K.E. (1992). Learning to teach: Instructional actions and decisions of preservice ESL teachers. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(3), 507-35.

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.

Johnson, K.E. (1995). Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms. Cambridge: CUP.

Johnson, K.E. (1996a). The vision versus the reality: The tensions of the TESOL practicum. In Freeman, D. & Richards, J.C. (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp. 30-49). Cambridge: CUP.

Johnson, K.E. (1996b). The role of theory in L2 teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 765-771.

Johnson, K.E. (2009). *Second Language Teacher Education: A Sociocultural Perspective*. New York: Routledge.

Johnson, D.W., & Johnson, R.T. (1998). *Learning Together and Alone: Cooperative, Competitive, and Individualistic Learning*. Prentice-Hall: Prentice-Hall International.

Johnson, G.C. (2002). Using visual narrative and poststructualism to (re)read a student teacher's professional practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18(4), 387-404.

Johnson, K.E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 235-257.

Johnston, B., & Goettsch, K. (2000). In search of the knowledge base of language teaching: Explanations by experienced teachers. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *56*(3), 437–468.

Johnston, S. (1992). Images: A way of understanding the practical knowledge of student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 8(2), 123-36.

Johnstone, R. (1989). *Communicative Interaction: A Guide for Language Teachers*. London: CILT.

Jones, K. (1982). Simulations in Language Teaching. Cambridge: CUP.

Jones, J.F. (1995). Self-access and culture: retreating from autonomy. *ELT Journal*, 49(3), 228-34.

Jorgensen, D.L. (1989). Participant Observation: A Methodology for Human Studies. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kabilan, M.K. (2007). English language teachers reflecting on reflections: A Malaysian experience. *TESOL Quarterly*, *41*(4), 681-702.

Kabilan, M. K., & Izzaham, R. I. R. (2008). Challenges faced and the strategies adopted by a Malaysian English Language teacher during teaching practice. *English Language Teaching*, *1*(1), 87-95.

Kachru, B.B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: The English language in the outer circle. In Quirk, R. & Widdowson, H.G. (Eds.), *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures* (pp.11-30). London: CUP.

Kagan, D. M. (1992). Professional growth among pre-service and beginning teachers. *Review* of Educational Research, 62(2), 129-169.

Kagan, D.M., Freeman, L.E., Horton, C.E., & Rountree, B.S. (1993). Personal perspectives on a school-university partnership. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *9*(5-6), 499-509.

Kang, D. M. (2008). The classroom language use of a Korean elementary school EFL teacher: Another look at TETE. *System*, *36*(2), 214–226.

Kang, H. D. (2012). Primary school English education in Korea. In B. Spolsky & Y.I. Moon (Eds.), Primary School English-Language Education in Asia (pp. 59-82). New York, NY: Routledge.

Karimi, M. N., & Nazari, M. (2017). The congruity/incongruity of EFL teachers' beliefs about listening instruction and their listening instructional practices. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education (Online)*, 42(2), 62.

Kelly, G.A. (1955). The Psychology of Personal Constructs. New York: Norton.

Kessels, J.P.A.M., & Korthagen, J.A.J. (1996). The relationship between theory and practice: Back to the classics. *Educational Researcher* 25(3), 17-22.

Kiljoo Woo. (2012). Teachers' Perception of the Elementary English Teacher Training Program. *Journal of Language Sciences*, 19(3), 67-85.

Kim, D., & Lee, D. (2015). Pre-service elementary school teachers' self-evaluation on their English proficiency and teaching skills and suggestions for better English education in elementary schools. *Secondary English Education*, 8(1), 51-77.

Kim, E., & Choe, S.H. (2011). Code-Switching of English Learners in the EFL Program. *English Language and Literature Teaching* 17(3), 99-118.

Kim, H.J. (2004). National identity in Korean curriculum. *Canadian Social Studies - Special Issue: Graduate Work in Social Studies Education*, 38(3), 1-11.

Kim, J.H. (2016). The effects of different types of oral corrective feedback on the development of explicit/implicit L2 knowledge of English articles. *English Teaching*, *71*(3), 53-77.

Kim, J.R., & Hahn, H.J. (2009). The influence of the native speaker assistant on the proficiency-based English learning. *The Journal of Curriculum and Evaluation 12*(2), 125-144.

Kim, J.S., & Kim, H.L. (2013). Effects of Story-Based Reader's Theater on Primary English Learners' Communicative Competence, Creativity and Personality. *Studies in English Education*, *18*(2), 231-257.

Kim, M.H. (2014). Korean EFL learners' perspectives on speaking tasks: Discussion, Summary, and information-exchange tasks. *English Language Teaching*, 7(11), 1-14.

Kim, M.S. (2009). Discussion on the change of the teacher education system. *Educational Development*, *36*(1), 16-21.

Kim, S.H. (2008b). Types and Characteristics of Classroom Exchanges in Korean Middle School TETE Classes: A Discourse Analysis and Its Pedagogical Implication. *The SNU Journal of Education Research*, *17*, 71-94.

Kim, S.K. (2000). Towards achieving high quality pre-service teacher training in Korea. *APJTED*, *3*(1), 55-77.

Kim, S.Y. (2008a) Five years of teaching English through English: Responses from teachers and prospects for learners. *English Teaching*, 63(1), 51-70.

Kim, S.Y. (2002). Teachers' perceptions about teaching English through English. *English Teaching*, 57(1), 131-148.

Kim, T.Y. (2017). EFL learning motivation and influence of private education: Cross-grade survey results. *English Teaching*, 72(3), 25-46.

Kim, Y. (2010). Communication strategies in seventh grade English textbooks. *English Teaching*, 65(1),113-136.

Kim, Y.S., & Yi, J. Y. (2010). Efficacy of pre-service English teachers' reflective teaching through keeping teaching journals: *Analysis of critical incidents. English Teaching*, 65(4), 373-402.

Kirkpatrick, T. A. (1984). The role of communicative language teaching in secondary schools: With special reference to teaching in Singapore. In Das, B.K. (Ed.) *Communicative Language Teaching* (pp. 171-191). Singapore: Singapore University Press.

Ko, J.M. (2016). Amount and function of L1 in a middle school TEE Class. *Educational Culture Study*, 22(2), 183-205.

Kohonen, V. (1992). Experiential language learning: second language learning as cooperative learner education. In Nunan, D. (Ed.) *Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching* (pp.14-39). Cambridge: CUP.

Kolb, D. A., & Fry, R. (1975). Towards an applied theory of experiential learning. In Cooper, C.L. (Ed.), *Theories of Group Processes* (pp.33-58). New York: Wiley.

Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Koo, H. (2007). The changing faces of inequality in South Korea in the age of globalisation. *Korean Studies*, *31*, 1-18.

Korthagen, F. (2001). A reflection on reflection. In Korthagen, F.A.J., Kessels, J., Koster, B., Lagerwerf, B., & Wubbels, T. (Eds.), *Linking Practice and Theory: The Pedagogy of Realistic Teacher Education* (pp.51-68). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Korthagen, F.A.J., & Wubbels, T. (2001). Learning from practice. In Korthagen, F.A.J., Kessels, J. Koster, B., Lagerwerf, B., & Wubbels, T. (Eds.), *Linking Practice and Theory: The Pedagogy of Realistic Teacher Education* (pp.32-50). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Korthagen, F., Loughran, J., & Russell, T. (2006). Developing fundamental principles for teacher education programs and practices. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(8), 1020-1041.

Korthagen, F. (2010). Situated learning theory and the pedagogy of teacher education: Towards an integrative view of teacher behaviour and teacher learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(1), 98-106.

Kramsch, C., & Sullivan, P. (1996). Appropriate pedagogy. ELT Journal, 50(3), 199–212.

Krashen, S. (1981). Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning. Oxford: Pergamon.

Krueger, R. A., & Casey, M.A. (2000). *Focus groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research* (3rd edition). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.

Kuzmanić, M. (2009). Validity in qualitative research: Interview and the appearance of truth through dialogue. *Horizons of Psychology*, 18(2), 39-50.

Kwon, O. (2008). Classroom Instruction and Assessment in an EFL Context: Compromising the Theory and Practice. *Paper Presented at the International Conference on English Instruction and Assessment*.

Kynäslahti, H., Kansanen, P., Jyrhämä, R., Krokfors, L., Maaranen, K., & Toom, A. (2006). The multimode programme as a variation of research-based teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(2), 246-256.

Lam, W., & Wong, J. (2000). The effects of strategy training on developing discussion skills in an ESL classroom. *ELT Journal*, *54*(3), 245-255.

Lamb, M. (1995). The consequences of INSET. ELT Journal, 49(1), 72-80.

Lantolf. J. P. (2000). Introducing sociocultural theory. In Lantolf, J. P. (Ed.), *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning* (pp.1-26). Oxford: OUP.

Lave, J. (1988). Cognition in Practice. New York: CUP.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leavy, A.M., McSorley, F.A., & Boté, L.A. (2007). An examination of what metaphor construction reveals about the evolution of preservice teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(7), 1217-1233.

LeCompte, M.D. (2000). Analysing qualitative data. Theory into Practice, 39(3), 146-154.

LeCompte, M.D., & Preissle, J. (1992). Toward an ethology of student life in classrooms: Synthesizing the qualitative research tradition. In LeCompte, M.D., Millroy, W. & Preissle, J. (Eds.), *The Handbook of Qualitative Research in Education* (pp. 815-861). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lee, B.M. (2014). Introduction of the criterion-based assessment of English – To reduce the cost of private tuition and increase the quality of school education. *Issue Paper 2014 No.6 (Current Policy Report CP 2014-08-6).* Seoul: KEDI.

Lee, B.M. (2016). Suggestions for strengthening speaking and writing according to the criterion-based assessment of English in the NSAT from 2018. *Issue Paper 2016 No.7 (Current Policy Report CP 2016-02-7)*. Seoul: KEDI.

Lee, E. J., & Yoon, H. (2014). The Effect of Formulaic Language Learning on Korean Middle School Students' English Speaking Fluency. *Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 30(1), 139-159.

Lee, E. P. (2001). The positive role of mother tongue as written form in English Class. *English Language and Literature Teaching*, 7(1), 21-34.

Lee, G.S. (2009). A proposal for reflecting on teachers' expertise in teaching. *Educational Development*, *36*(4), 22-25. Seoul: KEDI.

Lee, H.W., Kim, M.K., Ju, H.M., & Lee, D.J. (2010). A Comparative Study on the English Education and the English Teacher Education between Korea and Finland (PRO 2010-3). Seoul: KICE.

Lee, J.F.K. (2009). ESL student teachers' perceptions of a short-term overseas immersion programme. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(8), 1095-1104.

Lee, J.K. (2006). Educational fever and South Korean higher education. *REDIE. Revista Electrónica de Investigación Educativa*, 8(1), 1-14.

Lee, J.K., & Lee, H.K. (2002). Revising communicative competence in Korean EFL education. *English Language and Literature Teaching*, 8(2), 71-90.

Lee, J.W., & Park, H.S. (2010). Suggestions on effective ways of Korean English teachers' teaching English in English. *Secondary English Education*, *3*(2), 3-23.

Lee, M., & Fortune, A. E. (2013). Do we need more "doing" activities or "thinking" activities in the field practicum?. *Journal of Social Work Education*, *49*(4), 646-660.

Lee, S. (2007). Preservice EFL teachers' perceptions of their student-teaching experiences. *English Teaching*, 62(4), 355-371.

Lee, S.H., & Jung, H.Y. (2012). A Study of Changes in Elementary School Teachers' Perception of the English Teaching Profession during an In-Depth EFL Staff Development Program. *Educational Science Study*, *43*(3), 85-104.

Leinhardt, G., Young, K.M., & Merriman, J. (1995). Integrating professional knowledge: The theory of practice and the practice of theory. *Learning and Instruction*, *5*(4), 401-408.

Levin, B., & He, Y. (2008). Investigating the content and sources of teacher candidates' personal practical theories (PPTs). *Journal of Teacher Education*, 59(1), 55-68.

Lewis, A. (1992). Group child interviews as a research tool. British Educational Research Journal, 18(4), 413-421.

Li, D. (1998). "It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine": Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(4), 677-703.

Li, D. (2009). Activating Strategies to Fossilization for English Learners in China. *English Language Teaching*, 2(4), 75-77.

Li, L. (2013). The complexity of language teachers' beliefs and practice: One EFL teacher's theories. *The Language Learning Journal*, 41(2), 175-191.

Li, M., & Baldauf, R. (2011). Beyond the curriculum: A Chinese example of issues constraining effective English language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(4), 793-803.

Li, X. (2012). Effects of negotiated interaction on Mongolian-nationality EFL learners' spoken output. *English Language Teaching*, *5*(6), 119-134.

Liaw, E. C. (2012). Learning to teach: A descriptive study of student language teachers in Taiwan. *English Language Teaching*, 5(12), 152-162.

Lightbown, P.M., & Spada, N. (1999). How Languages are Learned. Oxford: OUP.

Likitrattanaporn, W. (2014). Teaching phonological accuracy and communicative fluency at Thai secondary schools. *English Language Teaching*, 7(2), 1-10.

Lim, M.O. (2007). Exploring Social Practices in English Classes: A Qualitative Investigation of Classroom Talk in a Korean Secondary School. PhD Thesis. University of Adelaide. Australia.

Lin, H., & Gorrell, J. (2001). Exploratory analysis of pre-service teacher efficacy in Taiwan. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *17*(5), 623–635.

Lincoln, Y.S., & Guba, E. G. (1985). Naturalistic Inquiry. London: Sage.

Liou, H. C. (2001). Reflective practice in a pre-service teacher education program for high school English teachers in Taiwan, ROC. *System*, 29(2), 197-208.

Liston, D., Whitcomb, J., & Borko, H. (2006). Too little or too much: Teacher preparation and the first years of teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *57*(4), 351-358.

Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction*. Cambridge: CUP.

Littlewood, W. (1992). *Teaching Oral Communication: A Methodological Framework*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Littlewood, W. (1999). Defining and developing autonomy in East Asian contexts. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(1), 71-94.

Littlewood, W. (2000). 'Do Asian students really want to listen and obey?' *ELT Journal*, 54(1), 31-5.

Littlewood, B. (2004). The task-based approach: Some questions and suggestions. *ELT Journal*, *58*(4), 319–326.

Littlewood, W. (2010). Chinese and Japanese students' conceptions of 'the ideal English lesson'. *RELC Journal*, 41(1), 46-58.

Littlewood, W., & Yu, B. (2011). First language and target language in the foreign language classroom. *Language Teaching*, 44(1), 64-77.

Littlewood, W. (2013). Developing a context-sensitive pedagogy for communicationoriented language teaching. *English Teaching*, 68(3), 3-25.

Liu, D. (1998). 'Ethnocentrism in TESOL: Teacher education and the neglected needs of international TESOL students'. *ELT Journal*, 52(1), 3–10

Liu, D. (2013). The role of oral output in noticing and promoting the acquisition of linguistic forms. *English Language Teaching*, 6(11), 111.

Liu, D., Ahn, G., Baek, K., & Han, N. (2004). T. (2004). South Korean high school English teachers' code switching: Questions and challenges in the drive for maximal use of English in teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, *38*(4), 605-38.

Liu, H. J., & Chen, C. W. (2015). A comparative study of foreign language anxiety and motivation of academic-and vocational-track high school students. *English Language Teaching*, 8(3), 193-204.

Liu, M. (2006). Anxiety in Chinese EFL students at different proficiency levels. System, *34*(3), 301-316.

Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *Modern Language Journal*, 92(1), 71-86.

Liu, N.F., & Littlewood, W. (1997). Why do many students appear reluctant to participate in classroom learning discourse? *System*, *25*(3), 371–384.

Liyanage, I., & Bartlett, B.J. (2008). Contextually responsive transfer: Perceptions of NNES on an ESL/EFL teacher training programme. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(7), 1827-1836.

Long, M.H. (1985). Input and second language acquisition theory. In Gass, S. & Madden, C. (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 377-393). Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.

Long, M.H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In Ritchie, W. and Bhatia, T. (Eds.), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 413-68). San Diego: Academic Press.

Long, M.H. (2015). Second language acquisition and task-based language teaching. West Sussex, U.K.: John Wiley and Sons, Inc

Long, M.H., & Porter, P. (1985). Group work, interlanguage talk and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 207-228.

Long, M.H., & Crookes, G. (1992). Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(1), 27–56.

Long, S. (2004). Separating rhetoric from reality. Supporting teachers in negotiating beyond the status quo. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *55*(2), 141–153.

Lortie, D.C. (1975). *Schoolteacher: A Sociological Study*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Lucas, T., & Katz, A. (1994). Reframing the Debate: The Roles of Native Languages in English-Only Programs for Language Minority Students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(3), 537-561.

Luk, J.C.M., & Lin, A.M.Y. (2007). *Classroom Interactions as Cross-cultural Encounters: Native Speakers in EFL Lessons.* Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Luk, J. (2008). Assessing teaching practicum reflections: Distinguishing discourse features of the "high" and "low" grade reports. *System*, *36*(4), 624-641.

Lynch, T. (1991). Questioning roles in the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 45(3), 201-210.

Lynch, T., & Maclean, J. (2000). Exploring the benefits of task repetition and recycling for classroom language learning. *Language Teaching Research. Special Issue: Tasks in Language Pedagogy*, 4(3), 221-250.

Lyster, R. (2001). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning*, *51*(1), 265-301.

MacDonald, M., Badger, R., & White, G. (2001). Changing values: what use are theories of language learning and teaching? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *17*(8), 949-963.

MacIntyre, P.D., & Gardner, R.C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning*, 44(2), 283-305.

MacIntyre, P.D., Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., and Noels, K.A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: a situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(4), 545–562.

Mackey, A. (1999). Input, interaction and second language development: An empirical study of question formation in ESL. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21(4), 557-587.

MacKinnon, A., & Scarff-Seatter, C. (1997). Constructivism: Contradictions and confusions in teacher education. In Richardson, V. (Ed.), *Constructivist Teacher Education: Building New Understandings* (pp. 38-55). London: Falmer.

MacNeil, L. (1988). Contradictions of Control. New York: Routledge.

Magolda, P. (2000). Being at the wrong place, wrong time: Rethinking trust in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice*, *39*(3), 138-145.

Mak, B. (2011). An exploration of speaking-in-class anxiety with Chinese ESL learners. System, *39*(2), 202-214.

Malderez, A., & Wedell, M. (2007). *Teaching Teachers: Processes and Practices*. London: Continuum.

Maley, A. (1981). Games and problem solving. In Johnson, K. & Morrow, K. (Eds.), *Communication in the Classroom: Applications and Methods for the Communicative Approach* (pp. 137-48). Harlow: Longman.

Mallette, M. H., Kile, R. S., Smith, M. M., McKinney, M., & Readence, J. E. (2000). Constructing meaning about literacy difficulties: Preservice teachers beginning to think about pedagogy. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *16*(5–6), 593–612.

Martinez-Flor, A., Usó-Juan, E., & Alcón Soler, E. (2006). Towards acquiring communicative competence through speaking. In Usó-Juan, E. & Martínez-Flor, A. (Eds.), *Current Trends in the Development and Teaching of the Four Language Skills* (pp. 139-58). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative Researching* (2nd edition). London: Sage.

Mattheoudakis, M. (2007). Tracking changes in pre-service teacher beliefs in Greece: A longitudinal study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(8), 1272-1288.

Mayer-Smith, J.A., & Mitchell, I.J. (1976). Teaching about constructivism: Using approaches informed by constructivism. In Richardson, V. (Ed.) *Constructivist Teacher Education: Building a World of New Understandings* (pp. 129-153). London: Falmer.

Maynard, T. (1996). Chapter 8 The limits of mentoring: The contribution of the higher education tutor to primary student teachers' school-based learning. In Furlong, J. & Smith, R. (Eds.), *The Role of Higher Education in Initial Teacher Training* (pp.101-118). London: Kogan Page.

Melrose, S. (2010). Naturalistic generalisation. In A. J. Mills, G. Durepos, G., & E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Case Study Research*: Vol. 2 (pp. 599-600). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Mercer, J. (2007). The challenges of insider research in educational institutions: Wielding a double-edged sword and resolving delicate dilemmas. *Oxford Review of Education*, 33(1), 1-17.

McCabe, J.L., & Holmes, D. (2009). Reflexivity, critical qualitative research and emancipation: A Foucauldian perspective. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 65(7), 1518-1526.

McCarthy, M. (1991). Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers. Cambridge: CUP.

McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (1994). Language as Discourse: Perspectives for Language Teaching. London: Longman.

McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (1995) Spoken grammar: What is it and how can we teach it? *ELT Journal*, 49(3), 207-218.

McCarthy, M., & Carter, R. (2001). Size isn't everything: Spoken English, corpus, and the classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, *35*(2), 337-340.

McDonough, K. (2004). Learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *System*, *32*(2), 207-224.

McGarr, O., & McCormack, O. (2016). Counterfactual mutation of critical classroom incidents: implications for reflective practice in initial teacher education. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *39*(1), 36-52.

McIntyre, D. (1994). Classrooms as learning environments for beginning teachers. In Wilkin, M. & Sankey, D. (Eds.), *Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training* (pp.81-93). London: Kogan Page.

McIntyre, D. J., Byrd, D. M., & Foxx, S. M. (1996). Field and laboratory experiences. In Sikula, J., Buttery, T., & Guyton, E. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (pp.171–193). New York: Macmillan.

McKay, S. (2003). Teaching English as an international language: The Chilean context. ELT *Journal*, 57(2), 139-148.

McMillan, J.H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in Education: Evidence-Based Inquiry* (7th edition). London: Pearson Education Ltd.

McNamara, D. (1994). The influence of tutors and mentors upon primary student teachers' classroom practice. In Wilkin, M. & Sankey, D. (Eds.), *Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training* (pp.107-122). London: Kogan Page.

McNamara, D. (1995). The influence of student teachers' tutors and mentors upon their classroom practice: an exploratory study. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 11(1), 51–61

McLaughlin, T.H. (1994). Mentoring and the demands of reflection. In Wilkin, M. and Sankey, D. (Eds.), *Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training* (pp.151-160). London: Kogan Page.

McMillan, B.A., & Rivers, D.J. (2011). The practice of policy: Teacher attitudes toward "English only". *System*, 39(2), 251-263.

Mena, J., Hennissen, P., & Loughran, J. (2017). Developing pre-service teachers' professional knowledge of teaching: The influence of mentoring. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *66*, 47-59.

Meijer, P.C., Korthagen, F.A.J., & Vasalos, A. (2009). Supporting presence in teacher education: The connection between the personal and professional aspects of teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(2), 297-308.

Meristo, M., Ljalikova, A., & Löfström, E. (2013). Looking back on experienced teachers' reflections: how did pre-service school practice support the development of self-efficacy? *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *36*(4), 428-444.

Merriam, S.B. (1998). *Qualitative Research and Case Study Applications in Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Merriam, S.B., & Simpson, E.L. (2000). A Guide to Research for Educators and Trainers of Adults (2nd edition updated). Malabar, Fla.: Krieger Pub. Co.

Mewborn. D.S. (1999). Reflective thinking among preservice elementary mathematics teachers. *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*, *30*(3), 316–341.

Miles, M.B., Huberman, M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: a methods sourcebook* (3rd edition). London: Sage.

Min, C.K., & Park, S.G. (2013). English teacher education in Korea: Retrospect and Prospect. *English Teaching*, 68(2), 153-177.

Min, Ji-ah, & Cho, Yunkyoung. (2014). Perceptions on level-differentiated English classes in high schools: Focusing on lower-level students and English teachers. *Secondary English Education*, 7(3), 75-98.

Min, W. Y., Mansor, R., & Samsudin, S. (2017). Facilitating Reflective Practice in Teacher Education: An Analysis of Student Teachers' Level of Reflection during Teacher Clinical Experience. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 7(3), 599-612.

Ministry of Education (MOE). (2015). 2015 Revised National Curriculum. Proclamation of the Ministry of Education: 2015 – 74.

Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD). (2007). 2007 Revised National Curriculum (English). Proclamation of the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development: 2007 – 79 (Separate Vol. 14).

Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development (MEHRD). (2007b). *Education in Korea*. Retrieved on 06/01/2010 from http://english.keris.or.kr/ICSFiles/afieldfile/2005/12/12/part22004.pdf.

Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). (2011). *Study on English National Curriculum Revision*. Seoul: MEST.

Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). (2009). 2009 Revised National Curriculum. Proclamation of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology: 2009 – 41.

Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). (2008a). *Middle School National Curriculum Reference (V): English.* Seoul: MEST.

Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). (2008b). *Study on the Development of English National Curriculum and English Textbook*. Seoul: MEST.

Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). (2008c). *Practical Suggestions to Quality English Education in Public Schooling*. Seoul: MEST.

Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MEST). (2008d). *Report on Major English Policies*. Seoul: MEST.

Mitchell, R., & Lee, J.H.-W. (2003). Sameness and difference in classroom learning cultures: Interpretations of communicative pedagogy in the UK and Korea. *Language Teaching Research*, *7*(1), 35–63.

Mohan, B. A., & Smith, S.M. (1992). Context and cooperation in academic tasks. In Nunan, D. (Ed.), *Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching* (pp.81-99). Cambridge: CUP.

Moodie, I., & Nam, H.J. (2016). English language teaching research in South Korea: A review of recent studies (2009–2014). *Language Teaching*, 49(1), 63-98.

Moor, R. (2003). Reexamining the field experiences of preservice teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 54(1), 31-42.

Moradkhani, S., Raygan, A., & Moein, M. S. (2017). Iranian EFL teachers' reflective practices and self-efficacy: Exploring possible relationships. *System*, 65(1), 1-14.

Morine-Dershimer, G. (1993). Tracing conceptual change in preservice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 9(1), 15-26.

Morrow, K. (1981). Principles of communicative methodology. In Johnson, K. & Morrow, M. *Communication in the Classroom* (pp.59-69). London: Longman.

Morse, J. M., & Richards, L. (2002). *Readme First for a User's Guide to Qualitative Methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mosaddaq, Y. B. (2016). A Study of Sources of EFL student teachers' anxiety during their practicum experience. European Journal of *Research and Reflection in Educational Sciences*, 4(1), 16-25.

Muijs, D. (2004). Doing Qualitative Research in Education with SPSS. London: Sage.

Mule, L. (2006). Preservice teachers' inquiry in a professional development school context: Implications for the practicum. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(2), 205-218.

Munby, H. (1982). The place of teachers' beliefs in research on teacher thinking and decision making, and an alternative methodology. *Instructional Science*, *11*(3), 201-225.

Munby, H., Russell, T., & Martin, A.K. (2001). Teachers' knowledge and how it develops. In Richardson, V. (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (4th edition), (pp. 877-904). Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

Murray, D.E. (1992). Collaborative writing as a literary event: implications for ESL instruction. In Nunan, D. (Ed.), *Collaborative Language Learning and Teaching* (pp. 100-117). Cambridge: CUP.

Murray, L., & Lawrence B. (2000). The basis of critique of practitioner-based enquiry. In Murray, L. & Lawrence, B. (Eds.), *Practitioner-based Enquiry: Principles for Postgraduate Research* (pp.18-41). London: Falmer.

Myers, M. D. (1997). Qualitative research in information systems. *MIS Quarterly*, 21(2), 241-242. *MISQ Discovery* (archival version) http://www.misq.org/discovery/MISQD_isworld/

Myers, C., & Simpson, D. (1998). *Re-creating Schools: Places Where Everyone Learns and Likes It.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press, Inc.

Nakata, Y. (2015). Insider–outsider perspective: revisiting the conceptual framework of research methodology in language teacher education. *International Journal of Research & Method in Education*, *38*(2), 166-183.

Nakatani, Y. (2005). The effects of awareness-raising training on oral communication strategy use. *Modern Language Journal*, 89(1), 76-91.

Natasi, B.K., & Schensul, S.L. (2005). Contributions of qualitative research to the validity of intervention research. *Journal of School Psychology*, 43(3),177–195.

Nation, P. (1989). Improving speaking fluency. System, 17(3), 377-384.

Nation, I.S.P., & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL Listening and Speaking*. New York: Routledge.

Nastasi, B.K., & Schensul, S.L. (2005). Contributions of qualitative research to the validity of intervention research. *Journal of School Psychology*, *43*(3), 177-195.

Neuman, W.L. (2011). *Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (7th edition). London: Allyn and Bacon.

Ng, W., Nicholas, & Williams, A. (2010). School experience influences on pre-service teachers' evolving beliefs about effective teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *26*(2), 278-289.

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.

Nguyen, M. H. (2013). EFL Students' Reflections on Peer Scaffolding in Making a Collaborative Oral Presentation. *English Language Teaching*, 6(4), 64-73.

Niemi, H. (2002). Active learning – a cultural change needed in teacher education and schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *18*(7), 763-780.

Nilssen, V. (2010) Encouraging the habit of seeing in student teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education* 26(3), 591-598.

Nokes, J.D., Bullough, R.V., Egan, W.M., Birrell, J.R., & Hansen, J.M. (2008). The pairedplacement of student teachers: An alternative to traditional placements in secondary schools. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(8), 2168–2177.

Nolasco, R., & Arthur, L. (1987). Conversation. Oxford: OUP.

Numrich, C. (1996). On becoming a language teacher: Insights from diary studies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(1), 131–153.

Nunan, D. (1988a). The Learner-Centred Curriculum. Cambridge: CUP.

Nunan, D. (1988b). Syllabus Design. Oxford: OUP.

Nunan, D. (1989a). A client-centred approach to teacher development. *ELT Journal*, 43(2), 111-118.

Nunan, D. (1989b). Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom. Cambridge, UK: CUP.

Nunan, D. (1991). Communicative tasks and the language curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(2), 279–295.

Nunan, D. (1992). Research Methods in Language Learning. Cambridge: CUP.

Nunan, D. (1999). Second Language Teaching and Learning. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly*, *37*(4), 589–613.

Nunan, D. (2004). Task-Based Language Teaching. Cambridge: CUP.

Olaitan, S.O., & Agusiobo, O.N. (1981). *Principles of Practice Teaching*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.

Orland-Barak, L., & Yinon, H. (2007). When theory meets practice: What student teachers learn from guided reflection on their own classroom discourse. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(6), 957-969.

Olk, H. (2003). Cultural knowledge in translation. ELT Journal, 57(2), 167-174.

Olsen, W. (2004). "Triangulation in Social Research: Qualitative and Quantitative Methods Can Really Be Mixed." In M. Holborn (Ed.), *Developments in Sociology* (pp. 1-30). Ormskirk: Causeway Press.

O'Malley, J.M., & Chamot, A.U. 1990. *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: CUP.

O'Neill, S., & Stephenson, J. (2012a). Does classroom management coursework influence preservice teachers' perceived preparedness or confidence? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(8), 1131-1143.

O'Neill, S., & Stephenson, J. (2012b). Exploring Australian pre-service teachers' sense of efficacy, its sources, and some possible influences. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(4), 535-545.

Ong'ondo, C., & Borg, S. (2011). 'We teacher 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.

Oosterheert, I. E., & Vermunt, J. D. (2001). Individual differences in learning to teach: Relating cognition, regulation and affect. *Learning and Instruction*, *11*(2), 133–156.

Orafi, S.M.S., & Borg, S. (2009). Intentions and realities in implementing communicative curriculum reform. *System*, 37(2), 243-253.

Onwuegbuzie, A.J., & Leech, N.L. (2005). On Becoming a Pragmatic Researcher: The Importance of Combining Quantitative and Qualitative Research Methodologies. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(5), 375-387.

Oxford, R. (1990). Language Learning Strategies. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.

Pajares, M.F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307-332.

Pajares, M.F. (2002). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research*, 62(3), 307-332.

Park, C.W. (2000). Peer pressure and learning to speak English: Voices from the selected learners. *English Teaching* 55(4), 231-268.

Park, K. J. (2005, July). Policies and strategies to meet the challenges of internationalization of higher education. In *Government Speech at Third Session of Regional Follow-up Committee* for 1998 World Conference on Higher Education in Asia and the Pacific, Seoul (Vol. 5).

Park, S. Y., & Cho, Y. S. (2012). The effect of PBL on real life listening and speaking ability development in Primary school English lessons. *Journal of Research in Curriculum Instruction*, *16*(3), 689-708

Parkison, P.T. (2009). Field-based preservice teacher research: Facilitating reflective professional practice. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(6), 798-804.

Patton, M.Q. (1980). *Qualitative Evaluation Methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Pattison, P. (1987). Developing Communication Skills. Cambridge: CUP.

Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods* (2nd edition). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.

Peacock, M. (2001). Pre-service ESL teachers' beliefs about second language learning: A longitudinal study. *System*, 29(2), 177-95.

Peng, J. (2012). Towards an ecological understanding of willingness to communicate in EFL classrooms in China. *System*, 40(2), 203-213.

Philpott, C. (2016). Narratives as a vehicle for mentor and tutor knowledge during feedback in initial teacher education. *Teacher Development*, 20(1), 57-75.

Pica, T., & Doughty, C. (1985). The role of group work in classroom second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 7(2), 233-248.

Pica, T., Young, R., & Doughty, C. (1987). The impact of interaction on comprehension. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(4), 737-58.

Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N., & Morgentahaler, L. (1989). Comprehensible output as an outcome of linguistic demands on the learner. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 11(1), 63-90.

Pica, T., Holliday, L., Lewis, N., Berducci, D., & Newman, J. (1991). Second language learning through interaction: what role does gender play? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*(3), 343-376.

Pica, T., Kanagy, R., & Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communication tasks for second language instruction. In Crookes, G. & Gass, S. (Eds.), *Tasks and Learning: Integrating Theory and Practice* (pp.9-34). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Pica, T., Lincoln-Porter, F., Paninos, D., & Linnell, J. (1996). Language learners' interaction: How does it address the input, output, and feedback needs of L2 learners? *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*(1), 59-84.

Pinnegar, S., & Daynes, J.G. (2007). Locating narrative inquiry historically: Thematics in the turn to narrative. In D.J. Clandinin (Ed.), *Handbook of Narrative Inquiry: Mapping a Methodology* (pp 3-34). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Polanyi, M. (1967). The Tacit Dimension. London: Routledge.

Polat, N. (2010). A comparative analysis of pre- and in-service teacher beliefs about readiness and self-competency: Revisiting teacher education for ELLs. *System*, *38*(2), 228-244.

Polit, D.F., & Beck, C.T. (2010). *Essentials of Nursing Research: Appraising Evidence for Nursing Practice*. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins.

Postholm, M. B. (2008). Teachers developing practice: Reflection as key activity. *Teaching and teacher education*, 24(7), 1717-1728.

Powell, R. (2000). Case-based teaching in homogeneous teacher education contexts: a study of preservice teachers' situative cognition. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *16*(3), 389-410.

Prabhu, N.S. (1987). Second Language Pedagogy. Oxford: OUP.

Prapaisit de Segovia, L., & Hardision, D.M. (2009). Implementing education reform: EFL teachers' perspectives. *ELT Journal*, *63*(2), 154-162.

Proctor, A. (1994). Supervision strategies and their application in the school context. In Wilkin, M. & Sankey, D. (Eds.), *Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training* (pp.136-150). London: Kogan Page Lit.

Punch, M. (1998). Politics and ethics in qualitative research. In Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), *The Landscape of Qualitative Research* (pp.156–184). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Punch, K.F. (2005). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. London: Sage.

Quirk, R. (1985). The English language in a global context. In Quirk, R. & Widdowson, H.G. (Eds.), *English in the World: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures* (pp. 1-6). London: CUP.

Rahayuningsih, D. (2016). Student teachers' challenges in developing teaching materials during teaching practicum in vocational school. *Journal of English and Education*, 4(2), 24-34.

Rahimian, M. (2013). Negotiation of Meaning and Modified Output Elicitation across Two Tasks. *English Language Teaching*, 6(12), 114-128.

Raider-Roth, M., Stieha, V., & Hensley, B. (2012). Rupture and repair: Episodes of resistance and resilience in teachers' learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(4), 493-502.

Rehm, M. L., & Allison, B. (2006). Positionality in teaching culturally diverse students: Implications for family and consumer sciences teacher education programs. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal*, *34*(3), 260-275.

Reves, T., & Medgyes, P. (1994). The non-native English speaking EFL/ESL teacher's self-image: An international survey. *System*, 22(3), 353-367.

Reynolds, D. (1980). The naturalistic method of educational and social research. *Interchange*, *11*(4), 77-89.

Richards, J., & Rodgers., T. (2014). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (3rd edition). Cambridge: CUP.

Richards, J.C., & Crookes, G. (1988). The practicum in TESOL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(1), 9-27.

Richards, J.C., & Lockhart, C. (1994). *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: CUP.

Richards, J.C., & Farrell, T.S.C. (2005). *Professional Development for Language Teachers*. New York: CUP.

Richards, J.C., Ho, B., & Giblin, K. (1996). Learning how to teach in the RSA Cert. In Freeman, D. and Richards, J.C. (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp.242-259). Cambridge: CUP.

Richardson, V., & Placier, P. (2001). Teacher Change. in Richardson, V. (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teaching* (4th edition), (pp. 905-947). Washington, D.C.: American Educational Research Association.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 102–119). New York: Macmillan

Rivera, P. M., & Gomez, F. P. (2017). Understanding Student-Teachers' Performances within an Inquiry-Based Practicum. *English Language Teaching*, *10*(4), 127.

Rivers. W. M. (1987). Interaction as the key to teaching language for communication. In Rivers, W.M. (Ed.), *Interactive Language Teaching* (pp.1-16). Cambridge: CUP.

Roberts, J. (1998). Language Teacher Education. London: Arnold.

Robinson. P. (1987). ESP, communicative language teaching and the future. In Johnson, K. & Porter, D. (Eds.), *Perspectives in Communicative Language Teaching* (pp.159-170). London: Academic Press.

Robinson, P. (2005). Cognitive complexity and task sequencing: Studies in a componential framework for second language task design. *IRAL*, 43(1), 1-32.

Robson, C., & McCartan, K. (2016). *Real World Research: A Resource for Users of Social Research Methods in Applied Settings* (4th edition). Chichester: Wiley.

Rosaen, C., & Florio-Ruane, S. (2008). The metaphors by which we teach: Experience, metaphor, and culture in teacher education. In Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman-Nemser, S., McIntyre, J. & Demers, K.D. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: Enduring Questions in Changing Contexts* (3rd edition), (pp.706-731). London: Routledge.

Ronfeldt, M., & Reininger, M. (2012). More or better student teaching? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(8), 1091-1106.

Ross, J. A., & Bruce, C. D. (2007). Teacher self-assessment: A mechanism for facilitating professional growth. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(2), 146–159.

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.

Rupert, A., & Woodcock, S. (2010). Success and near misses: Pre-service teachers' use, confidence and success in various classroom management strategies. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 26(6), 1261-1268.

Russell, T. (1995). Reconstructing educational theory from the authority of personal experience: How can I best help people learning to teach. *Studies in Continuing Education*, *17*(1-2), 6-17. Ryan, M., & Healy, A. (2009). It's not all about school: Ways of disrupting pre-service teachers' perceptions of pedagogy and communication. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(3), 424-429.

Saito, H. (2008). A framework for goal-driven pair drills. ELT Journal, 62(1), 56-65.

Sampson, A. (2012). Learner code-switching versus English only. *ELT Journal*, 66(3), 293-303.

Samuda, G., & Bygate, M. (2008). *Tasks in second language learning*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Savignon, S.J. (1983). Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice. Texts and Contexts in Second Language Learning. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley.

Schepens A., Aelterman A., & Van Keer, H. (2007). Studying learning processes of student teachers with stimulated recall interviews through changes in interactive cognitions. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(4), 457–474.

Scherff, L., & Singer, N. R. (2012). The preservice teachers are watching: Framing and reframing the field experience. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(2), 263-272.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, *11*(2), 129-158.

Schön, D.A. (1983). *The Reflective Practitioner: How Professionals Think in Action*. New York: Basic Books.

Schön, D.A. (1987). Educating the Reflective Practitioner. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schostak, J. (2010). Understanding, designing and conducting qualitative research in education: Framing the project. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Schulz, R., & Mandzuk, D. (2005). Learning to teach, learning to inquire: A 3-year study of teacher candidates' experiences. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(3), 315-331.

Schutz, A. (1967). *The Phenomenology of the Social World*. Evanston, IL: Northwestern University Press.

Scollon, R., & Wong-Scollon, S. (1991). Topic confusion in English-Asian discourse. *World Englishes*, *10*(2), 113-125.

Scovel, T. (1998). *Psycholinguistics. Chapter 3: On the Process of Speech Production* (pp.26-49). Oxford: OUP.

Seban, D. (2013). The impact of the type of projects on preservice teachers' conceptualization of service learning. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 32(1), 87-97.

Seedhouse, P. (1999). Task-based interaction. *ELT Journal*, 53(3), 149–156.

Segall, A. (2001). Re-thinking theory and practice in the preservice teacher education classroom: teaching to learn from learning to teach. *Teaching Education*, *12*(2), 225-242.

Serdar Tülüce, H., & Çeçen, S. (2016). Scrutinizing practicum for a more powerful teacher education: A longitudinal study with pre-service teachers. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, *16*(1), 127-151.

Shavelson, R.J., & Stern, P. (1981). Research on teachers' pedagogical thoughts, judgements and behaviours. *Review of Educational Research*, 51(4), 455-98.

Sheridan, L. (2016). Examining changes in pre-service teachers' beliefs of pedagogy. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 41(3), 1-20.

Shkedi, A., & Laron, D. (2004). Between idealism and pragmatism: a case study of student teachers' pedagogical development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(7), 693-711.

Shin, S. (2012). "It Cannot Be Done Alone": The Socialization of Novice English Teachers in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly*, *46*(3), 542-567.

Shulman, L. (2002). Truth and consequences? Inquiry and policy in research on teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 53(3), 248-253.

Sikes, P. (2004). Methodology, procedures and ethical concerns. In Opie, C. (Ed.), *Doing educational research: A guide to first-time researchers* (pp. 15-33). London: Sage.

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing Qualitative Research: A Practical Handbook* (4th edition). London: Sage.

Sim, C. (2006). Preparing for professional experiences – incorporating pre-service teachers as 'communities of practice'. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(1), 77-83.

Simons, H. (2009). Case Study Research in Practice. London: Sage.

Sinclair, J. McH., & Coulthard, R.M. (1975). *Towards an Analysis of Discourse: The English Used by Teachers and Pupils*. London: OUP.

Siwatu, K.O. (2011). Preservice teachers' sense of preparedness and self-efficacy to teach in America's urban and suburban schools: Does context matter? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(2), 357-365.

Skehan P. (1998). A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning. Oxford: OUP.

Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (1999). The influence of task structure and processing conditions on narrative retellings. *Language Learning*, 49(1), 93-120.

Skehan, P. (2003). Task-based instruction. Language Teaching, 36(1), 1-14.

Skehan, P., Xiaoyue, B., Qian, L., & Wang, Z. (2012). The task is not enough: Processing approaches to task-based performance. *Language Teaching Research*, *16*(2), 170-187.

Skinner, B.F. (1957). Verbal Behavior. London: Methuen.

Skuse, G. (2014). Opportunities for learning: Teacher-student and student-student interaction in an information gap task. *Modern English Education*, 15(1), 49-70.

Slavin, R.E. (1990). *Cooperative Learning: Theory, Research, and Practice*. London: Allyn and Bacon.

Smith, L.M. (1978). An evolving logic of participant observation, educational ethnography and other case studies. In Schulman, L. (Ed.), *Review of Research in Education* (pp.316-377). Itasca, Ill.: Peacock.

Smith, B.D. (1996). Teacher decision making in the adult ESL classroom. In Freeman, D. & Richards, J.C. (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Learning* (pp.197-216). New York: CUP.

Smith, J. D. N. (2004). Developing paired teaching placements. *Educational Action Research*, *12*(1), 99–125.

Smylie, M. A. (1988). The enhancement function of staff development: Organizational and psychological antecedents to individual teacher change. *American Educational Research Journal* 25(1), 1–30.

Spezzini, S., & Oxford, R. (1998). Perspectives of preservice foreign language teachers. *System*, 26(1), 65-76.

Spooner-Lane, R., Tangen, D., & Campbell, M. (2009). The complexities of supporting Asian international pre-service teachers as they undertake practicum. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, *37*(1), 79-94.

Stake, R.E. (1995). The Art of Case Study Research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stake, R.E. (2006). Multiple Case Study Analysis. London: The Guilford Press.

Stake, R.E., & Trumbull, D. (1982). Naturalistic generalizations. *Review Journal of Philosophy* and Social Science, 7(1), 1-12.

Stanley, C. (1998). A framework for teacher reflectivity. TESOL Quarterly, 32(3), 584-591.

Stenberg, K., Karlsson, L., Pitkaniemi, H., & Maaranen, K. (2014). Beginning student teachers' teacher identities based on their practical theories. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *37*(2), 204-219.

Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Grounded Theory Procedures and Techniques* (2nd edition). London: Sage.

Stanulis, R.N., & Russell, D. (2000). Jumping in: trust and communication in mentoring student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *16*(1), 65–80.

Steinberg, F.S., & Horwitz, E.K. (1986). The effect of induced anxiety on the denotative and interpretive content of second language speech. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(1), 131–136.

Stones, E. (1984). *Supervision in Teacher Education: A Counselling and Pedagogical Approach*. London: Methuen and Co. Ltd.

Storch, N., & Wigglesworth. (2003). Is there a Role for the Use of the L1in an L2 Setting? *TESOL Quarterly*, *37*(4), 760-770.

Stubbs, M. (1976). Language, Schools, and Classrooms. London: Methuen.

Sturtridge, G. (1981). Role-play and simulations. In Johnson, K. & Morrow, K. (Eds.), *Communication in the Classroom: Applications and Methods for the Communicative Approach* (pp.126-30). Harlow: Longman.

Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In Gass, S. & Madden, C. (Eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition* (pp.234-253). Rowley, MA.: Newbury House.

Sundli, L. (2007). Mentoring – A new mantra for education? *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(2), 201-214.

Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and Practice in Applied Linguistics: Studies in Honour of H.G.Widdowson* (pp.125-144). Oxford: OUP.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2000). Task-based second language learning: The uses of the first language. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 251-274.

Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2005). The evolving sociopolitical context of immersion education in Canada: Some implications for program development. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 169–186.

Syed, Z. (2003). TESOL in the Gulf: The sociocultural context of English language teaching in the Gulf. *TESOL Quarterly*, *37*(2), 337-341.

Stynes, M., Murphy, T., McNamara, G., & O'Hara, J. (2018). Reflection-on-action in qualitative research: A critical self-appraisal rubric for deconstructing research. *Issues in Educational Research*, 28(2), 153.

Taguchi, N. (2007). Development of speed and accuracy in pragmatic comprehension in English as a foreign language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(2), 313-338.

Tajzad, M., & Ostovar-Namaghi, S. A. (2014). Exploring EFL Learners' Perceptions of Integrated Skills Approach: A Grounded Theory. *English Language Teaching*, 7(11), 92-98.

Takahashi, S. (2005). Noticing in task performance and learning outcomes: A qualitative analysis of instructional effects in interlanguage pragmatics. *System*, *33*(3), 437-461.

Takimoto, M. (2006). The effects of explicit feedback on the development of pragmatic proficiency. *Language Teaching Research*, *10*(4), 393–417.

Tan, B. T. (2006). Looking at teaching through multiple lenses. *ELT Journal*, 60(3), 253-261.

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.

Tang, S. Y. F. (2004). The dynamics of school-based learning in initial teacher education. *Research Papers in Education*, 19(2), 185-205.

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.

Tann, S. (1994). Supporting the student teacher in the classroom. In Wilkin, M. & Sankey, D. (Eds.), *Collaboration and Transition in Initial Teacher Training* (pp.94-106). London: Kogan Page Lit.

Tarone, E. (1980). Communication strategies, foreigner talk, and repair in interlanguage. *Language Learning*, *30*(2), 417-431.

Tarone, E. (1981). Some thoughts on the notion of communication strategy. *TESOL Quarterly*, *15*(3), 285-295.

Tatto, M.T. (1998). The influence of teacher education on teachers' beliefs about purposes of education, roles, and practice. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 49(1), 66-77.

Tercanlioglu, L. (2001). Pre-service teachers as readers and future teachers of EFL reading. *TESL-EJ*, 5(3), 1-17.

Temple, B., & Young, A. (2004). Qualitative research and translation dilemmas. *Qualitative Research*, *4*(2), 161-178.

Thanh-Pham, T.H. (2008). The roles of teachers in implementing educational innovation: The case of implementing cooperative learning in Vietnam. *Journal of Asian Social Science*, *4*(1), 3-10.

Thomas, G. (2010). How to do your case study: A guide to students and researchers. London: Sage.

Thompson, G. (1996). Some misconceptions about communicative language teaching. *ELT Journal*, *50*(1), 9-15.

Thomson, M. M., Turner, J. E., & Nietfeld, J. L. (2012). A typological approach to investigate the teaching career decision: Motivations and beliefs about teaching of prospective teacher candidates. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(3), 324-335.

Thornbury, S. (1997). About Language: Tasks for Teachers of English. Cambridge: CUP.

Thornbury. S. (2000). Accuracy, Fluency and Complexity. *Readings in Methodology, 16*, 139-143.

Tickle, L. (1989). New teachers and the development of professionalism. In Holly, M.L. & McLoughlin, C.S. (Eds.), *Perspectives on Teacher Professional Development* (pp.93-115). London: Falmer.

Tigchelaar, A., & Korthagen, F. (2004). Deepening the exchange of student teaching experiences: implications for the pedagogy of teacher education of recent insights into teacher behaviour. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(7), 665-679.

Tillema, H.H. (2000). Belief change towards self-directed learning in student teachers: immersion in practice or reflection on action. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, *16*(5-6), 575-591.

Tomlinson, P. (1995). Understanding Mentoring: Reflective Strategies for School-Based Teacher Preparation. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Tong-Fredericks, C. (1984). Types of oral communication activities and the language they generate: A comparison. *System*, *12*(2), 133-146.

Tripp, D.H. (1985) Case Study Generalisation: an agenda for action. *British Educational Research Journal*, 11(1), 33-43.

Tsang, W. K. (2004). Teachers' personal practical knowledge and interactive decisions. *Language Teaching Research*, 8(2), 163-198.

Tsui, A.B.M. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In Bailey, K.M. & Nunan, D. (Eds.), *Voices from the Classroom* (pp.145-67). Cambridge: CUP.

Tsui, A.B.M. (2001). Classroom interaction. In Carter, R. & Nunan, D. (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (pp.120-125). Cambridge: CUP.

Tudor, I. (1987). Guidelines for the communicative use of translation. *System*, 15(3), 365-371.

Tyagi, P.K. (1989). The Effects of Appeals, Anonymity, and Feedback on Mail Survey Response Patterns from Salespeople. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science Volume*, (17)3, 235-241.

Ulichny, P. (1996). What's in a methodology? In Freeman, D. & Richards, J.C. (Eds.), *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching* (pp.178-96). Cambridge: CUP.

Underwood, P.R. (2012). Teacher beliefs and intentions regarding the instruction of English grammar under national curriculum reforms: A theory of planned behaviour perspective. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(6), 911-925.

Ur, P. (1992). Teacher learning. *ELT Journal*, 46(1), 56-61.

Urmston, A. (2003). Learning to teach English in Hong Kong: The opinions of teachers in training. *Language and Education*, *17*(2), 112-137.

Valdes, A. I., & Jhones, A. C. (1991). Introduction of communicative language teaching in tourism in Cuba. *TESL Canada Journal*, 8(2), 57–63.

Van Patten, B. (1990). Attending to form and content in the input. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *12*(3), 287-301.

VanPatten, B. (2015). Input processing in adult SLA. In B. VanPatten, & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (2nd edition), (pp. 113-134). New York: Routledge.

Van Teijlingen, E.R., & Hundley. (2001). Social Research Update. Issue 35. Department of Sociology, University of Surrey.

Vasiljevic, Z. (2011). The predictive evaluation of language learning tasks. *English Language Teaching*, *4*(1), 3.

Vacilotto, S., & Cummings, R. (2007). Peer coaching in TEFL/TESL programmes. *ELT Journal*, *61*(2), 153-160.

Velzen, C.V., Volman, M., Brekelmans, M., & White, S. (2012). Guided work-based learning: Sharing practical teaching knowledge with student teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 28(3), 229-239.

Verloop, N. (1989). Interactive Cognitions of Student-Teachers: An Intervention Study. Arnhem: CITO.

Vogel, G., & Avissar, G. (2009). It enables me to realise my fantasies regarding the practicum: A preliminary study of an academia-school partnership in Israel. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 25(1), 134-140.

Volante, L., & Earl, L. (2002). Teacher candidates' perceptions of conceptual orientations in their preservice program. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 27(4), 419-438.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1981). The genesis of higher mental functions. In Wertsch, J.V. (Ed.), *The Concept of Activity in Soviet Psychology* (pp.144-188). Armonk, NY: M.E.Sharpe.

Wallace, M. (1991). *Training Foreign Language Teachers: A Reflective Approach*. Cambridge: CUP.

Wang, J., & Park, C. (2008). The national curriculum reform and system reorganization in Korea. *Paper Presented at the Conference of APERA*.

Ward, J.R., & McCotter, S.S. (2004). Reflection as a visible outcome for preservice teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20(3), 243-257.

Warford, M.K. (2011). The zone of proximal teacher development. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 27(3), 252-258.

Wedell, M. (2003). Giving TESOL change a chance: supporting key players in the curriculum change process. *System*, *31*(4), 439-456.

Weinstein, C.S. (1989). Teacher education students' preconceptions of teaching. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 40(2), 53–60.

Weinstein, C. S. (1990). Prospective elementary teachers' beliefs about teaching: Implications for teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 6(3), 279–290.

Wen, W.P., & Clément, R. (2003). A Chinese conceptualisation of willingness to communicate in ESL. *Language, Culture and Curriculum, 16*(1), 18-38.

Wenger, E. (1998). *Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning and Identity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Westbrook, L. (1994). Qualitative research methods: A review of major stages, data analysis techniques, and quality controls. *Library and Information Science Research*, *16*(3), 241-254.

Westheimer, J. (2008). Learning among colleagues: Teacher community and the shared enterprise of education. In Cochran-Smith, M., Feiman-Nemser, S. & McIntyre, J. (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: Enduring Questions in Changing Contexts* (3rd edition), (pp. 756-783). London: Routledge.

White, C. J. (1989). Negotiating communicative language learning in a traditional setting. *ELT Journal*, 43(3), 213-220.

White, G. (2006). Teaching listening. In Usó-Juan, E. & Martinez-Flor, A. (Eds.), *Current Trends in the Development of Teaching of the Four Skills* (pp.111-36). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

White, S. (2009). Articulation and re-articulation: Development of a model for providing quality feedback to pre-service teachers on practicum. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, *35*(2), 123-132.

Whitehead, J. (1995). Educative relationships with the writing of others. In Russell, T. & Korthagen, F. (Eds.), *Teachers Who Teach Teachers: Reflections on Teacher Education* (pp.113-129). London: Falmer.

Widdowson, H. G. (1978). Teaching Language as Communication. Oxford: OUP.

Widdowson, H. G. (1996). Authenticity and autonomy in ELT. ELT Journal, 50(1), 67-68.

Widdowson, H.G. (1998). Context, community, and authentic language. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32(4), 705-716.

Wideen, M., Mayer-Smith, J., & Moon, B. (1998) A critical analysis of the research on learning to teach: Making the case for an ecological perspective on inquiry. *Review of Educational Research*, 68(2), 130–178.

Wigglesworth, G. (2003). Bilingual initiatives in the ESL classroom. In Wigglesworth, G. (Ed.), *The Kaleidoscope of Adult Second Language Learning: Learner, Teacher and Researcher Perspectives* (pp.221-247). Sydney: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, Macquarie University.

Wilkins, D. (1983). Some issues in communicative language teaching and their relevance to teaching of language in secondary schools. In Johnson, K. & Porter, D. (Eds.), *Perspectives in Communicative Language Teaching* (pp.23-46). London: Academic Press.

Willis, J. (1996). A Framework for Task-Based Learning. Harlow: Longman.

Willis, J. (2004). Perspectives on task-based instruction: Understanding our practices, acknowledging our different practitioners. In Leaver, B.L. & Willis, J. (Eds.), *Task-based Instruction in Foreign Language Education* (pp.3-44). Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

Wilson, E.K. (2006). The impact of an alternative model of student teacher supervision: Views of the participants. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 22(1), 22-31.

Winitzky, N. (1992). Structure and process in thinking about classroom management: an exploratory study of prospective teachers. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 8(1), 1-14.

Winitzky, N., T. Stoddart, & P. O'Keefe. (1992). Great expectations: Emergent professional development schools. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 43(1), 3–18.

Winitzky, N., & Kauchak, C. (1997). Constructivism in teacher education: applying cognitive theory to teacher learning. In Richardson, V. (Ed.), *Constructivist Teacher Education: Building New Understandings* (pp.59-83). London: Falmer.

Wolcott, H. F. (1994). *Transforming Qualitative Data: Description, Analysis and Interpretation*. London: Sage.

Woods, D. (1996). Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching. Cambridge: CUP.

Woods, D., & Çakır, H. (2011). Two dimensions of teacher knowledge: The case of communicative language teaching. *System*, *37*(3), 371-390

Wu, S. H., & Alrabah, S. (2014). Tapping the Potential of Skill Integration as a Conduit for Communicative Language Teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 7(11), 119-129.

Wyatt, M. (2009). Practical knowledge growth in communicative language teaching. *TESL-EJ*, *13*(2), 1-23.

Xie, X. (2010). Why are students quiet? Looking at the Chinese context and beyond. *ELT Journal*, 64(1), 10-20.

Yan, J.X., & Horwitz, E.K. (2008). Learners' perceptions of how anxiety interacts with personal and instructional factors to influence their achievement in English: qualitative analysis of EFL learners in China. *Language Learning*, 58(1), 151-183.

Yan, C., & 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.

Yang, N. (1998). Exploring a new role for teachers: Promoting learner autonomy. *System*, 26(1), 127-135.

Yang, P. (2014). One Stone, Two Birds: Maximizing Service Learning Outcomes through TESOL Practicum. *English Language Teaching*, 7(5), 120-127.

Yazan, B. (2016). Early Career EFL Teachers' Instructional Challenges. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education*, 12(1), 194–220.

Yazan, B. (2015). "You Learn Best When You're in There": ESOL Teacher Learning in the Practicum. *CATESOL Journal*, 27(2), 171-199.

Yavuz, A. (2011). The problematic context of mentoring: Evidence from an English language teaching department at a Turkish university. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, *34*(1), 43–59.

Yayli, D. (2008). Theory-practice dichotomy in inquiry: Meanings and preservice teachermentor tension in Turkish literacy classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 24(4), 889-900.

Ye, W. (2016). When rural meets urban: the transfer problem Chinese pre-service teachers face in teaching practice. *Journal of Education for Teaching*, 42(1), 28-49.

Yim, S. H. (2009). South Korean teachers' perceptions of TBLT. TESOL Review 1, 29-50.

Yin, R.K. (2014). Case Study Research: Design and Methods (5th edition). London: Sage.

Yin, R.K. (2009). Case Study Research: Design and Methods (4th edition). London: Sage.

Yook, C. (2011). Interactions Between Beliefs, Practices, and Perceptions of Korean EFL Teachers. *English Teaching*, 66(4), 3-26.

Yook, C., & Lee, Y. H. (2016). Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of the impact of EFL teacher education upon their classroom teaching practices. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 44(5), 522-536.

Yoon, K.E. (2004). CLT theories and practices in EFL curricula: A case study of Korea. *Asian EFL Journal*, *6*(3), 1-16.

Young, D. (1990). An investigation of students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking. *Foreign Language Annals*, 23(6), 539-553.

Yousef, R., Jamil, H., & Razak, N. (2013). Willingness to communicate in English: A study of Malaysian pre-service English teachers. *English Language Teaching*, 6(9), 205.

Yu, L. (2001). Communicative language teaching in China: Progress and resistance. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(1), 194-198.

Yuan, R., & Lee, I. (2014). Pre-service teachers' changing beliefs in the teaching practicum: Three cases in an EFL context. *System*, *44*, 1-12.

Zanting, A., Verloop, N., Vermunt, J.D., & Van Driel, J.H. (1998) Explicating Practical Knowledge: an extension of mentor teachers' roles. *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 21(1), 11-28.

Zappa-Hollman, S. (2007). EFL in Argentina's schools: Teachers' perspectives on policy changes and instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(3), 618-625.

Zeichner, K., & Tabachnick, R. (1981). Are the elects of university teacher education washed out by school experience? *Journal of Teacher Education*, 32(3), 7-11.

Zeichner, K. M. (1983). Alternative paradigms of teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 34(3), 3-9.

Zeichner, K., & Liston, D. (1987). Teaching student teachers to reflect. *Harvard Educational Review*, *57*(1), 23-48.

Zeichner, K.M., & Gore, J.M. (1990). Teacher socialization. In Houston, W.R.(Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education* (pp.329-348). New York: Macmillan.

Zeichner, K. (1999). The new scholarship in teacher education. *Educational Researcher*, 28(9), 4–15.

Zhang, S. (2009). The role of input, interaction and output in the development of oral fluency. *English Language Teaching*, 2(4), 91-100.

Zheng, X., & Adamson, B. (2003). The pedagogy of a secondary school teacher of English in the people's republic of China: Challenging the stereotypes. *RELC Journal*, *34*(3), 323-337.

Appendices

Appendix 1. Teacher College Curricula

		Ţ	
Year 4	Term 1	English Curriculum and Textbook Study	Major-Core
	(from	English Testing Practice	Major-Core
	March	Classroom English Practice	Major-Core
	to June)	English Material Design Practice	Major-Supplement
	Julie)	English Professional Development	Major-Supplement
		Seminar	
		English Academic Writing	Major-Core
		Teaching Practice	Education-Core
		Self-leadership	Basic-Core
Year 4	Term 2	Lecture on English Education	Major-Supplement
	(from	English Classroom Research	Major-Core
	September	English Communication Instruction	Major-Core
	to December)	Lecture on English Literature	Major-Supplement
	Determoer)	Lecture on English Linguistics	Major-Supplement

	~		
Tanahar Collago A	Curricula for Pre-servic	a English Toophar	Education in Karaa
I CACHEL COHESE A	Curricula for Fig-Scivic		Euucation in Noica

Teacher College B Curricula for Pre-service English Teacher Education in Korea

Year 4	Term 1	Educational Sociology	Education-Core
		Methodology on Teaching Listening	Major-Supplement
		Methodology on Teaching Reading	Major-Supplement
		Methodology on Teaching Writing	Major-Supplement
		Teaching Practice	Education-Core
Year 4	Term 2	Educational Administration and	Education-Core
		Management	
		English Academic Writing	Major-Core
		Methodology of Teaching Grammar	Major-Supplement
		Methodology of Teaching Vocabulary	Major-Supplement
		Lecture on English Linguistics	Major-Supplement

*Methodology on Teaching Speaking is taught in Year 3.

Teacher College C Curriculum for Pre-service English Teacher Education in Korea

Year 4	Term 1	English Lecture 1	Major-Supplement
		Understanding and Teaching of	Major-Core
		English and American Culture Teaching English through English and American Literature	Major-Supplement
		English Academic Writing	Major-Supplement
		Teaching Practice	Education-Core
Year 4	Term 2	English Lecture 2	Major-Supplement
		Graduation Examination	Major-Core

*Teaching Methodology is taught in Year 3.

Appendix 2 Preliminary Questionnaire:

Pre-service English Teachers' Understanding and Experience of Teaching and Learning of Speaking

- Pre-service English Teacher Education in Korea

안녕하세요. 한양대학교 영어교육과 예비선생님! 리서치과정 학생입니다. 연구주제가 예비교사의 경험과 성장에 관한 연구라서 이번에 새로운 교육과정과 함께 영어교육제도가 변화하는 시점에서 우리나라 영어교육에 대해 예비교사 선생님들이 어떻게 생각하시는지 궁금해서 이렇게 설문지 보내드리게 되었습니다. 연구주제가 예비교사의 교사훈련동안 교실에서 의사소통활동지도 적용과 실제에 관한것이라서 그러므로 설문지는 특히 말하기지도에 관해 초점 맞추었습니다. 설문지는 한국어로 작성해주세요. 만약 설문지에 관해 혹은 연구에 관해 의문점이 있으시거나 좀더 자세하게 묻고 싶으시면 연락해주세요. 또한 영국교육에 관해 정보가 필요하시거나 궁금하신 것이 있으시면 언제든지 저한테 연락해주시면 안내해드리겠습니다. 바쁘신데 설문지 작성해주시는 모든 예비교사선생님들께 진심으로 감사드립니다. 설문지 작성후 인터뷰에 참여하고싶으신분이계시면 꼭 말씀해주시면 더욱 감사드리겠습니다.

Name _____

Gender: Male __ Female__

Email _____

A. What age range are you in?

21to 25___

26 to 30___

31 to 35___

36 to 40___

B. Do you have previous teaching experience? Yes __ No __ If Yes how long and what age group did you teach?

C. Have you ever been abroad to study English? Yes __ No __ If Yes how long have you been abroad?

D. What do you remember about learning English speaking skills in an English classroom when you were in secondary school? (중학교때 영어수업시간에 영어말하기관해 어떤 학습경험을 갖고계시고 기억하세요)

E. What do you think about training courses concerned with teaching English speaking skills in the teacher college? (사대수업중 영어회화에관한 수업들에대해 어떻게 생각하세요)

- F. What do you think is most important for effective teaching of speaking skills in English? (효과적으로 영어회화 지도위해 무엇이 가장 중요하다고 생각하세요)
- G. What do you think is most difficult in the teaching of speaking skills in English? (영어회화 지도할때 가장 힘든점이 무엇이라고 생각하세요)

H. What kind of teaching skills or strategies would you like to acquire or improve during your teaching practice? (교생실습동안 습득하고싶으시고 향상하고자하시는 교수지도방법과 기술이었다면 무엇입니까)

I. What kind of support do you think you need or you hope to get during your teaching practice? (교생실습동안 어떤 보조가 주어지길 바라시고 필요하다고 생각하세요)

J. What do you think about the balance between theory and practice in training courses in the teacher college? (사대수업중 이론과 실제의 반영비율에대해 어떻게 생각하세요)

Thank You for Participation and Contribution to the Questionnaire!!!

The next stage of my research involves an interview. Would you be willing to participate?

YES __NO__ (Please select one)

Initial Trainee Interview Topic Example

	Learning Speaking
0	How did you learn speaking skills in English during your schooldays?
	Speaking activities or communicative tasks of interest
	Useful strategies to improve speaking
	Teacher Training
0	What did you learn during your training courses on teaching speaking in English?
	From training course on English communication
	From training course on classroom English
	From training course on English national curriculums and textbooks
	Speaking activities that were taught during training courses
	Useful communicative strategies that you could take away from training courses
	Teaching Speaking
0	What do you think about teaching speaking skills in secondary schools in Korea?
	Possible challenges or difficulties in teaching speaking
	Use of the target language through teaching English in English
	Speaking activities that are effective for communicative teaching
	Useful communicative strategies that make students speak in English
	Teaching Practice
0	What do you expect about or plan for your teaching practice in terms of speaking
	skills?
	Speaking activities that you plan to use
	Communicative strategies that you plan to use
	Teaching skills for English speaking that you hope to acquire
	Support that you hope to get to support your teaching practice

Trainer Interview Topic Example

С	Trainer role in the teacher college in general
С	The curriculum of the teacher college
	The focus of the teacher college curriculum
	The balance between theory and practice in the teacher college curriculum
С	Trainer views on training courses
	The aim of the training course on national curriculums and textbooks
	The aim of the training course on classroom English
С	Trainer views on training courses on teaching speaking
	The aim of the training course on English communication
С	Practicum and teacher training
	The system of the practicum and the overall practicum period
	The role of the practicum as regards student teacher learning and development
	The role of teacher training as regards student teacher learning and development
С	Trainer comments on teaching English speaking in secondary schools in Korea
	Teaching English in English according to government policy
	Teaching skills and strategies for effective teaching of speaking

Pre-observation Trainee Interview Topic Example

Observation about Teaching Speaking What are the most interesting things you noticed as you observed the classroom 0 teacher during the first week in your placement school? Things you noticed about the teacher's instruction... Things you noticed about the teacher's use of classroom English... Things you noticed about the teacher's speaking activities or task design... Level of students in English in general... Use of the target language in the classroom... Motivation and interaction of students in speaking activities... Learning from Observation What do you think you have learned from observing the classroom teacher? 0 Useful strategies to make students speak in English... Useful strategies to make students interact during speaking activities... Difficulties the classroom teacher had in terms of teaching speaking... Differences from what you expected when you were in the teacher college... Do you think the observation experience has led you think of any changes in your 0 plan or strategy for teaching speaking during your teaching practice?

	School:
	Class:
Level:	
	Time:
	Level:

A. Field-Notes

Time	Interaction	Description	Interpretation	Stage

B. Overall Comments

Post-observation Trainee Interview Topic Example

	Teaching Speaking
0	What did you plan to do in terms of teaching speaking?
	Main aims or emphasis in terms of teaching speaking in each lesson
	Any differences between your lesson plans or preparations and what actually
	happened in your practice of teaching speaking
	Possible reasons if any differences
0	What kind of speaking activities have you used?
	Speaking activities or communicative tasks according to each level of students
	Any activities or strategies that you learned from your course in the teacher
	college
	Any activities or strategies that you learned from your mentor or English teacher
	in your placement school
	Classroom Context
0	What kind of challenges have you experienced in terms of teaching speaking?
	General challenges in your classrooms
	Challenges in your approaches to teaching speaking
	Challenges in teaching English in English in relation to each level of students
	Any strategies to overcome challenges in relation to mixed levels or large
	classes

Follow-Up Trainee Interview Topic Example

	Reflection on the Practicum
0	If you think about your experience during the practicum, especially as regards the
	opportunities you had to teach speaking, how do you feel about it?
	The idea of teaching English through English
	The opportunities you had to teach speaking in lessons
	How these teaching speaking opportunities vary according to the kind of lessons or the level of students
	Students' ability to use spoken English
	Students' attitudes toward being expected to use spoken English
	The materials and resources which were available for speaking activities
	Challenges or difficulties in teaching speaking
	Strategies for teaching speaking at mixed levels or large classes
	Learning from the Practicum
0	If you think about your experience during the practicum, especially as regards the
	opportunities you had to teach speaking, what do you think you have learned about?
	Understanding of the comparison between theories of teaching speaking and its
	actual practice in Korean classroom contexts
	How the school context supports or hinders approaches to and strategies for teaching speaking
	What could be done to develop the teaching of speaking in Korean secondary schools
	Limitations to or suggestions for teaching speaking in the school context in
	general

Mentor Interview Topic Example

Mentor background including education and teaching experience
The system and syllabus for teaching English in the secondary school
English teacher training and teacher support in the secondary school
Practicum and Teaching Speaking
Mentor views on the practicum
Regarding the system of the practicum in general
Regarding the role of the mentor in relation to student teacher learning etc
Mentor comments on the trainees' teaching speaking
Regarding the trainees' oral proficiency or use of English
Regarding the trainees' speaking activities
Regarding the trainees' approaches from the communicative perspectives
Mentor views on teaching speaking
Regarding teaching speaking in relation to each level of students
Regarding teaching English in English according to each level of students
Speaking activities effective for student level and motivation
Communicative strategies useful regarding student level and motivation
Any challenges or difficulties experienced in relation to teaching speaking

Head Teacher Interview Topic Example

- Head teacher role in the secondary school during the practicum
 - Expectation about your duty and responsibility in terms of training trainees
- Training programs for trainees during the practicum
- Head teacher views on the role of the practicum in relation to the learning of trainees
- Head teacher comments on trainees' teaching of speaking during the practicum
- Resources for the teaching of speaking in the secondary school Textbooks and other materials or facilities etc...
- Training programs and support for English teachers in the secondary school

Follow-Up Questionnaire:

Pre-service English Teachers' Understanding and Experience of Teaching and Learning of Speaking

- Pre-service English Teacher Education in Korea

```
영교과예비선생님 안녕하세요! 교생실습 잘 다녀오셨죠!
지난번 설문참여해주셨던예비선생님들 교생실습중 의사소통지도활동관해 잠깐 여쭙고자 간단한 설문부탁
드리고싶습니다. 교사로서 준비해가시는 여정속에 힘내시고 건투를빕니다!
필요하신 자료 정보 언제든지 말씀해주세요!!! 이메일: <u>Thanksgiving75@Hotmail.Com</u>
```

- 1.What challenges to teaching speaking did you experience? Have you been confronted with any challenges when you tried to teach speaking during the practicum? (교생중 영어회화수업관해 어떤 어려움을 경험하셨나요 영어회화를 수업중 가르치면서 어떤 힘든점을 발견하셨나요)
 - V
- What strategies did you use to overcome any difficulties that you had in your approaches to communicative teaching in classroom or school contexts? (교생실습학교에서 영어회화지도관한 어려움을 극복하기위해 어떤 교수학습전략을 사용하셨나요)
 - 2.1. How do you think school contexts influenced (either supported or hindered) your approaches to and strategies for teaching speaking? (교생중 학교환경이 영어회화지도 방법과 전략에 얼마나 영향을 (보조 혹은 제약) 주었다고 생각하세요)
 - 2.2.How do you think the theories of teaching speaking and its actual practice in classroomcontexts were linked with or differed from another? (영어회화지도 이론과 수업중 경험한
실제가 얼마나 상호연관된다고 혹은 다르다고 생각하세요)

F

- 3.What do you think you have learned about teaching especially with regard to teaching speaking when you reflect on your experience during the practicum? (교생실습기간을 회고할때 영어회화지도관해 교생중 배운점이 무엇이라고 생각하세요)
 - 3.1.What kind of support do you think would have been useful and helpful for you to have learned more about teaching speaking during the practicum? (교생중 영어회화지도관해 더욱 배우기위해서 어떤 보조가 필요했다고 생각하세요)
 - 3.2.What could be done to develop the teaching of speaking in Korean secondary school? (한국 중등학교에서 영어회화지도를 향상하기위해서 어떤 노력과 발전이 필요하다고 생각하세요)

Thank You for Participation and Contribution to the Questionnaire!!!

f the fourth year
but the problem of
urses with a lack of
te high level fourth
year education course
th) (2)
or intensive proper
years without being
rly and later years
y of contents between
), Early year education
re proper training) (2)
om English practice
1
ractice course (the most
ssroom English course
ng
ractice course
ng) (3)
tions in the ability to
h during microteaching
iciency (perceiving
TEE) (4)
ey in speaking
iciency (perceiving
ish in English during
eeling pressure
t much pressure) (5)
dents' self-esteem and
dents' self-esteem and king during the

	I
Researcher: Well, from your explanation, there seems to	
have been no particular pressure on your practice of CLT.	
Was there any difficulty with CLT in your school?	
Eunhae: No. My mentor explained the textbook that I need	No pressure from the mentor on the textbook
to teach during the practicum, but she never gave me any	– Mentor support for CLT (24)
pressure in terms of covering the textbook.	-< School context >
Researcher: I see.	
Eunhae: When I become a qualified teacher then maybe I	Trying to compare the textbook speed with
will have to cover the textbook. I'm a trainee teacher here,	other classes as the students need to cover the
so actually I don't feel any pressure, to be honest. But	textbook for the exam
occasionally I compare my lesson with the other class in	– Textbook focus (17), Exam preparation (25)
order not to be too slow with the textbook, because students	
	- < School Context>
will have to take an exam next month anyway. So when I	< Education System >
am not behind, I am relieved, but if I am behind I feel I have	< Contextual Constraints for CLT >
to speed up the textbook.	
Eunhae: I discuss my lesson plan with my mentor because	Discussing with the mentor about the lesson
the students are used to my mentor's teaching style. I can	plan because students are used to the mentor's
certainly teach my own communicative lessons based on	teaching style and CLT based lessons will
CLT, but after I left, it will take longer for them to get used	make students difficult to get back to the
to my mentor's teaching style and the textbook-based lesson	textbook focused lessons after the practicum
again. So I'm trying to adjust my teaching style to my	– Textbook focus (17), Exam preparation (25)
mentor's as much as I can, and also introduce my own	– < School Context>
teaching methods which I would like to do during my	< Education System >
lesson. I discuss with my mentor very often to adjust this	< Contextual Constraints for CLT >
Researcher: I see what you mean	
Eunhae: So I am trying to follow my mentor's teaching	Trying to mix CLT with the mentor's teaching
style as much as I can and introduce some of my own	Trying to mix CLT with the mentor's teaching style
	5
communicative approaches during my lessons.	- CLT approach (mixing CLT with mentor
	styles) (19)
	– < Contextual Constraints for CLT >
Researcher: OK. So you usually mix your CLT with your	
mentor's existing lesson.	
Eunhae: Yes. However, the students shout to me if I teach	Trying to meet students' expectation about
them exactly in the same way as my mentor does. You are	new ways of teaching as a student teacher but
doing the same thing as her For example, my mentor	also considering not to be too different from
usually does a five minute test before she starts her lesson	the mentor's teaching style therefore
in order to let them review what they learned last time. So	discussing with the mentor very often to adjust
when I did the test, they shouted to me. Why are you	the lesson plan
imitating our teacher? So to speak, even the students have	- CLT approach (reflecting mentor styles
some expectations about me as a new teacher. As I am a	and student expectations in CLT) (19)
student teacher, they seem to expect me to teach in a	– < Contextual Constraints for CLT >
different way so I have to meet their expectations to some	
extent, but as I cannot be completely different from my	
mentor's teaching style, I very often discuss with her about	
my lesson plan.	
Researcher: I can understand your point. However, you	
said your students are very interested in new ways of	
teaching or your communicative lesson.	
	Studente' familiarity with CIT due to the
Eunhae: Yes, in my mentor's lessons, she tries to involve students in estivities, so students are familier with CLT and	Students' familiarity with CLT due to the
students in activities, so students are familiar with CLT and	mentor's teaching style so trying to involve
expect me to teach similarly to my mentor, so my goal for	students in speaking activities very much
my lessons is like my mentor to involve students in speaking	- CLT approach (involving students in
	speaking activities) (19)
activities as much as possible.	- <teaching speaking="" strategies=""></teaching>

Haewon: In fact, I misunderstood the jigsaw activity. However, there was also not enough time to design the jigsaw activity while I had to spend more time in preparing for the reading section in the textbook. Anyway I am not really satisfied with the outcome of the handout today. Researcher: Right, so do you mean the purpose of the	Misunderstanding of the jigsaw activity but little time for task design due to spending more time to prepare for reading – Focus on reading (13), Time constraint for task design (16), Textbook coverage (17) – < Contextual Constraints for CLT > – [Influence of school systems on teaching speaking]
handout was comprehension checking? I saw one student in each group trying hard to write the answers in the handout.	
Haewon: Yes. (Laugh) So to speak, the aims of the jigsaw activity was to make them discuss about what they learned from the specialist group by explaining to their friends freely but I did not seem to understand that purpose clearly I think the handout was really a mistake	Intending to make students discuss what they learned in specialist groups but the aims were not achieved by misuse of the handout - Jigsaw (ineffective task and handout) (22) - < Speaking Activity > - [Influence of lack of practical skills on teaching speaking]
Researcher: I see. What about grouping? Did you have any	
intention to group them in that way? Haewon: I asked them to group with a few people where they were seated. Then I asked them to decide on each one's number and the group name.	Grouping of a few students where they were seated and asking to decide each team name and each member's number - Jigsaw (group work and grouping) (10) - < Speaking Activity > - [Nature of teaching speaking during practicum]
Researcher: Right. Students were very active as you said.	
Haewon: Yes. They were too energetic especially as there was a competition Their participation is usually very good in this school as they are supported to do so here as I said to you before.	Energetic students during competitions and usually very good student participation due to school support - Student participation (very active) (11) - < School Context > - [Influence of school support on teaching speaking]
Researcher: Oh, I see. Yes I remember you said that. Well, how do you think of your reading approach in Jigsaw then?	
Haewon: Well, I think that way of reading was actually very good. Because I learned in the teaching methodology course that it is important to provide a lot of reading materials during reading along with communicative activities but what teachers normally do with reading in schools is just to let students read and translate and then teachers provide explanations without any supplementary materials.	Learning about the importance of adopting reading materials and communicative activities when teaching reading during the teaching methodology course but in the school context reading is taught by translation without supplementary materials - Jigsaw reading (much input from teacher training on reading and communicative practice in CLT) (10)-1 - < CLT approach > - [Influence of teacher training on CLT]
Researcher: Yes, you are right regarding how reading is taught in schools.	
Haewon: So today I intended to let the students read as much as possible so that they can improve their reading comprehension and be able to communicate about it with each other even though within the limited time	Trying to help students read as much as possible to improve reading ability and communication during the limited time - Jigsaw reading (much reading and communication focus) (10)-1 - < CLT approach > - [Influence of teacher training on CLT]

Time	Interaction	Description	Interpretation	Analysis	Stage
30mins	Whole Class Interaction	Jinsung: Listen to the next one and tell me what they say.	He employs a short question technique again to elicit speech		Listening
	(Jinsung	Jinsung: There is what?	from the students, and this time he	Short Question	(Cassette
	– Students)	Students: Any water	seems to enable them to answer	(Elicitation	Player)
		Jinsung: (Play the tape) <i>Look at the stars</i> []	in English though students read	Strategy – elicit	
		Jinsung: There is what?	the textbook	voca. in English	
		Students: Mountains			
		Jinsung: What is the meaning of 'mountain'?	Again there was translation of	Translation	
		Students: Mountain.	vocabulary.	(vocabulary)	
		Jinsung: What is the meaning of ' <i>lake</i> '?			
		Student 1: Lake.			
		Jinsung: Right. Good. We will now do speaking practice together.	There was frequently chorus	Chorus Reading	Speaking
		Jinsung: (Play the tape) I'm sure I'll win the game.	reading aloud as a whole class		Section –
		Jinsung: I'm sure I'll win the game. Let's repeat together.	after much listening of the model	(Oral Practice)	Model
		Jinsung: (Play the tape) I'm sure I'll win the game.	dialogue in the speaking section		Dialogue
		Students: I'm sure I'll win the game.		Listening and	
		Jinsung: (Play the tape) How can you be so sure?		Speaking	
		Students: How can you be so sure?		Integration	
		Jinsung: I'm sure I'll win the game. what is 'I'll'?	There was also a short question to	(Input Strategy)	
		Student 1: I will.	translate the meaning of grammar		
		Jinsung: Yes. 'I will.' What is the verb here in the third sentence?	structure into Korean	Short Question	
		Students: Try.		(Elicitation	
		Jinsung: Yes. ' <i>Try</i> ' is a verb here.		Strategy –	
36mins	Group	Jinsung: Right. Now we will practise speaking together. Look at		translation of	Speaking
	Interaction	the next dialogue. Those who are on the left side of the		grammar, voca)	Section –
	(Students	classroom, you are A. You guys on the right side are B.	It was interesting to see that there		Dialogue
	- Students)	So both groups will speak together from number 1, right?	was dialogue practice between		Practice
		Students: Yes.	two groups of the class rather than		
		Jinsung: Look at Number 1. Pass the test. Pass the test.	in pairs. It seems to be a way to	Reading Aloud	
		From this group can we start?	help students speak in English but	of the Dialogue	
		Students: I am sure I'll pass the test.	it was mechanical repeating of the	between groups	
		Jinsung: (Point out students on the left side)	model dialogue in the speaking	(Oral Practice)	
		Now the other group.	sectionno communicative		
		Students: How can you be so sure?	interaction with meaning focus.		

Worksheet - Cross-Case Comparisons

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
Language	Good memory of	Childhood going	Negative memory of
Learning	learning speaking	abroad and	learning speaking with
Experience	and interest in	confidence in	anxiety
	speaking	speaking	, ,
Teacher Training	Microteaching of	Intensive	Microteaching of CLT
Course	CLT and TEE during	microteaching of CLT	and TEE during the two
	the teaching	and TEE and feedback	methodology courses;
	practice course but	with reflection on	CLT based speaking
	mostly theory-based	microteaching during	courses during the
	courses;	four teaching skills	early years;
	Little training on	courses;	Some courses taught in
	speaking;	Intensive training on	English;
	Some courses	speaking;	Study speaking abroad
	taught in English	All the courses taught	experience (during the
		in English;	gap year)
		Study speaking	
		abroad experience	
		(during the gap year)	
Practicum	Concerns on learner	Concerns on learner	Concerns on learner
Expectation	self-confidence in	style and differences	affection and anxiety in
	speaking;	in speaking;	speaking;
	Focus on classroom	Focus on	Focus on
	interaction and	communicative	communicative activity
	elicitation;	activity and	and application of
	Positive expectation	application of theory	theory to practice;
	for practicum except	to practice;	Positive expectation for
	for difficulty with	Positive expectation	practicum
	TEE	for practicum except	
		ambiguity to adjust	
		TEE	
Practicum School	Conservative head	Flexible head teacher	Supportive head
Context	teacher;	for teaching practice;	teacher for CLT and
	Conservative mentor	Supportive mentor	TEE;
	with GTM with no	with the frequent	Positive mentor for CLT
	practice of CLT or	practice of CLT and	but focus on GTM;
	TEE;	mix with GTM;	School reputation for

Short teaching practice due to the mid-term examFractice for three weeksMuch teacher practice of TEE; Much school support for speaking; Teaching practice for two weeksStudent Level and MotivationLow level with poor motivation papMixed level and motivationHigh level with good motivationCLT and TEE practiceElicitation by questioning and questioning and questioning and practice by vocabulary and grammar repeat or model dialogue or model dialogue or dialogue or reading and speaking; speaking practice by vocabulary and pair work of the grammar repeat or model dialogue or integrally; and speaking and speaking and speaking textbook;Speaking practice by speaking practice by vocabulary and pair work of the pair work of the pair work of the caling aloud the reading listening and speaking during the lesson; to low level; No TEE practice due to low level; No TEE practice due to low level; CLT or TEE; Challenge with class Struggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of management at first skills with task design and class management and class management and lack of management at first skills with task designStatistice and with CLT management at first skills with task designTheory and ConnectionMore awareness of school context but the firstration of in the school in the school contextStatisticon with TEE maragement at first skills with task designTheory and ConnectionMore awareness of school context but the f				
mid-term exam during practicumweeksof TEE; Much school support for speaking; Teaching practice for two weeksStudent LevelLow level with poor motivationMixed level and motivation gapHigh level with good motivation2CLT and TEEElicitation byElicitation byElicitation byPracticeQuestioning and questioning and nomination through further examples;Nomination during pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the grammar repeat or reading lacud the textbook;Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Quiz and jigsaw; textbook;Much use of praise; textbook;Quiz games with textbook;Teaching reading and textbook;Quiz and jigsaw; textbook;No TEE practice due to low level;No TEE practice due speaking integrally;Speaking integrally; to low level;No TEE practice due speaking integrally;Theory and confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsCiewing nog ap to low level;Statisfaction with TEC skills with task design and gaps betweenTheory and Confidence for TEE and lack of many gaps betweenViewing nog ap textpointFeeling ambiguityPracticeMore awareness of the frustration of the frustration of the frustrationStatisfaction with TEL practice and more textpointPracticeMore awareness of to low level;Statisfaction with CLT practice and moreStatisfaction with TEL practice and moreTheory and ConfidenceStatisfaction with CLT practice and more<		Short teaching	Much teaching	student achievement;
during practicumsupport for speaking; Teaching practice for two weeksStudent LevelLow level with poor motivationMixed level and motivation gapHigh level with good motivationCLT and TEEElicitation by questioning and nomination through nomination throughElicitation by questioning and nomination during practiceElicitation by questioning and nomination during practiceElicitation by questioning and nomination during practice by Speaking practice by Speaking practice by speaking practice by vocabulary and par work of the model grammar repeat or reading aloud the textbook;Speaking practice by pair work of the model aloud the textbook; Quiz games with textbook;Aloud the textbook; Quiz and jigsaw;Much use of praise; and speaking integrally;Quiz games with candies several times speaking integrally; taching listening and speaking integrally;Fuaching listening to low level; No TEE practice due to low level; No TEE practice due participation to low level;No TEE practice due participationgrammar; to low level; to low level; No TEE practice due to low level; No TEE practice due participationInspection pressure; total lexet book;Theory and PracticeAcknowledging tony leven to may gaps betweenViewing no gap total cand with CLT practice and more avareness of CLT total text fool the frustration of the frustration of the frustration of the frustration of the frustration of the frustration of total text practice and with CLT practice and more avareness of CLT total text practice and the frustration of the frustration of <b< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></b<>				
Image: Second			weeks	
Image: constraint of the sector of the sec		during practicum		
Student Level and MotivationLow level with poor motivationMixed level and motivation gapHigh level with good motivationCLT and TEE PracticeElicitation by questioning and nomination through further examples; Speaking practice by vocabulary and grammar repeat or reading aloud the textbook;Elicitation by questioning and nomination during pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Speaking practice by pair work of the pair work of the pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Much use of praise; Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Quiz games with textbook;Teaching reading and speaking integrally;No TEE practice due to low level; to low level; and lack of instruction skillsNo TEE practice due speaking integrally;Full TEE practice for high level but mother to gue use for struggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of struggle with self- connectionInspection pressure; to low level; management at first skills with task design and class management and class for management at first skills with task design and class for school context but the frustration of practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT cLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge with CLT				Teaching practice for
and MotivationmotivationmotivationCLT and TEEElicitation byElicitation byElicitation byPracticequestioning andquestioning andnomination duringnomination throughnomination duringnomination duringfurther examples;Speaking practice bySpeaking practice byvocabulary andpair work of thepair work of the modelgrammar repeat ormodel dialogue ordialogue or readingreading aloud thereading aloud thealoud the textbook;textbook;textbook;Quiz and jigsaw;Much use of praise;Quiz games withTeaching reading andreaching listeningcandies several timesspeaking integrally;and speakingduring the lesson;Full TEE practice forintegrally;Teaching listeningto the level gap;No TEE practice duespeaking integrally;tongue use forStruggle with self-management at firstskills with task designconfidence for TEE;Challenge with classStruggle with alck ofStruggle with self-management at firstskills with task designinstruction skillsviewing no gapbetweenPracticemany gaps betweenbetweenconnectionschool context but the frustration ofpractice and more awareness of CLTPracticein the schoolof TEE problem in thestudent reticence and				two weeks
CLT and TEE PracticeElicitation by questioning and nomination through further examples;Elicitation by questioning and nomination during paractice by pair work of the pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Elicitation by questioning;Speaking practice by vocabulary and grammar repeat or reading aloud the textbook;Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or aloud the textbook;Speaking practice by aloud the textbook;Much use of praise; and speaking and speaking to low level;Quiz games with speaking integrally; Teaching listening and speaking to low level;Teaching listening speaking integrally; to low level;Full TEE practice for high level but mother to the level gap; Inspection pressure;Theory and ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap perspective change and class management and lack of instruction skillsViewing no gap practice and more awareness of CLT cla and speaking integrationFeeling ambiguity practice and more awareness of CLT challenge with CLTTheory and PracticeMore awareness of school context but the frustration of cLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and	Student Level	Low level with poor	Mixed level and	High level with good
Practicequestioning and nomination through further examples; Speaking practice by yocabulary and grammar repeat or reading aloud the textbook;questioning and nomination during warming up; Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Questioning and nomination during brainstorming; Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Questioning and nomination during brainstorming; Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Questioning and nomination during brainstorming; Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook; Quiz games with Teaching listening and speaking to low level; No TEE practice due to low level; No TEE practice due to low level; No TEE practice due Struggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsQuiz games participationquestioning and nomination during but increase participationTheory and Practice ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap practice and with CLT practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and	and Motivation	motivation	motivation gap	motivation
Inomination through further examples;nomination during warming up;nomination during brainstorming;Speaking practice by vocabulary andpair work of the pair work of theSpeaking practice by pair work of the dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;grammar repeat or reading aloud thereading aloud the reating aloud the textbook;Quiz and jgsaw;Much use of praise; Teaching listening and speakingQuiz games with during the lesson;Teaching reading aloud speaking integrally;No TEE practice due to low level;Speaking integrally;Teaching listening and speaking integrally;No TEE practice due to low level;No TEE practice due speaking integrally;Inspection pressure;CLT or TEE; confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsChallenge with class skills with task design and class management and lack of instruction skillsFeeling ambiguity betweenTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging wareness of school context but the frustration of the frustration of cLT and TEE practice practice and with CLT practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and	CLT and TEE	Elicitation by	Elicitation by	Elicitation by
further examples;warming up;brainstorming;Speaking practice bySpeaking practice bySpeaking practice byvocabulary andpair work of thepair work of thegrammar repeat ormodel dialogue ordialogue or readingreading aloud thereading aloud thereading aloud thetextbook;textbook;Quiz and jigsaw;Much use of praise;Quiz games withTeaching reading andTeaching listeningcandies several timesspeaking integrally;and speakingduring the lesson;Full TEE practice forintegrally;Teaching listeningto low level;No TEE practice duespeaking integrally;tongue use forNo TEE practice duespeaking integrally;tongue use forNo TEE practice duespeaking marc;Struggle with self-CLT or TEE;Challenge with classskills with task designand lack ofparticipationand class managementand lack ofparticipationand class managementmany gaps betweenbetweenbetweenConnectionMore awareness ofSatisfaction with CLTPracticeMore awareness ofSatisfaction with CLTPracticeparticipe and with CLTpartice and moreawareness of CLTpartice and with CLTpartice and morein the schoolof TEE problem in thestudent reticence and	Practice	questioning and	questioning and	questioning and
Speaking practice by vocabulary and grammar repeat or reading aloud the textbook;Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Speaking practice by pair work of the model dialogue or aloud the textbook;Much use of praise; textbook;Quiz games with textbook;Teaching reading and textbook;Teaching reading and speaking integrally;Much use of praise; and speaking integrally;Quiz games with candies several times and speaking to low level;Teaching listening and speaking integrally;No TEE practice due to low level;Speaking integrally;Teaching listening and speaking integrally;No TEE practice due to low level;Speaking integrally;Inspection pressure;CLT or TEE; CLT or TEE;Challenge with class management at first participation instruction skillsStruggle with self- management at first but increase participationSkills with task design and class management and class management and lack of participationTheory and PracticeAcknowledging termy gaps betweenViewing no gap perspective change awareness of School context but the frustration of the frustration of perspective change and more awareness of TEE problem in theSatisfaction with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and		nomination through	nomination during	nomination during
vocabulary and grammar repeat or reading aloud the textbook;pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;pair work of the model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Much use of praise; Much use of praise; and speaking integrally;Quiz games with candies several times speaking integrally;Teaching reading and speaking integrally;Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Full TEE practice for high level but mother to low level;No TEE practice due to low level;No TEE practice due speaking integrally;Inspection pressure; Struggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsStruggle with alack of skills with task design and class management and lack of many gaps betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenTheory and PracticeAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap practice and with CLT practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and		further examples;	warming up;	brainstorming;
grammar repeat or reading aloud the textbook;model dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;dialogue or reading aloud the textbook;Kuthook;textbook;Quiz games with textbook;Quiz and jigsaw;Much use of praise; Teaching listening and speakingQuiz games with candies several times and speaking tintegrally;Teaching listening teaching listening and speakingGuing the lesson; full TEE practice for high level but motherNo TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally; to low level;Teaching listening and speaking integrally;tongue use for to low level;Mentor pressure on CLT or TEE;Challenge with class struggle with self- and lack of instruction skillsStruggle with lack of skills with task design and class management and lack of instruction skillsStrugno gap betweenTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging school context but the frustration of the frustration of cLT and TEE practice cLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT perspective change and more awareness of TEE problem in the student reticence and		Speaking practice by	Speaking practice by	Speaking practice by
reading aloud the reading aloud the textbook;reading aloud the textbook;aloud the textbook; Quiz and jigsaw;Much use of praise; Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Quiz games with candies several times speaking integrally;Teaching reading and speaking integrally;And speaking integrally;during the lesson; Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Full TEE practice for high level but mother to low level;No TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally; No TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally; to the level gap; Inspection pressure; CLT or TEE;Inspection pressure; Struggle with classCLT or TEE; confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsChallenge with class participation instruction skillsStruggle with ask design and class management and class management participation instruction skillsTheory and Practice ConnectionAcknowledging school context but the frustration of practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and more awareness of CLT and more awareness of TEE problem in the student reticence and		vocabulary and	pair work of the	pair work of the model
textbook;textbook;Quiz and jigsaw;Much use of praise;Quiz games withTeaching reading andTeaching listeningcandies several timesspeaking integrally;and speakingduring the lesson;Full TEE practice forintegrally;Teaching listening andhigh level but motherNo TEE practice duespeaking integrally;tongue use forto low level;No TEE practice duegrammar;Mentor pressure onto the level gap;Inspection pressure;CLT or TEE;Challenge with classStruggle with lack ofStruggle with self-management at firstskills with task designand lack ofparticipationand class managementand lack ofparticipationsetweenTheory andAcknowledgingViewing no gapFeeling ambiguityPracticemany gaps betweenbetweenbetweenLearning fromMore awareness ofSatisfaction with CLTSatisfaction with TEEPracticumschool context butpractice and with CLTpractice and moreIthe frustration ofperspective changeawareness of CLTCLT and TEE practiceand more awarenesschallenge due toin the schoolof TEE problem in thestudent reticence and		grammar repeat or	model dialogue or	dialogue or reading
Much use of praise; Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Quiz games with candies several times during the lesson;Teaching reading and speaking integrally;and speaking integrally;during the lesson; Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Full TEE practice for high level but motherNo TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally; No TEE practice due to low level;No TEE practice due grammar;Mentor pressure on CLT or TEE;Challenge with class management at first oonfidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsStruggle with self- participationInspection pressure; Struggle with self- oonfidence for TEE and lack of participationTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging school context but the frustration of the frustration of cLT and TEE practiceViewing no gap practice and with CLT practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT perspective change and more awareness of TEE problem in theSatisdue to o student reticence and		reading aloud the	reading aloud the	aloud the textbook;
Teaching listening and speakingcandies several times during the lesson; Teaching listening and speaking integrally;speaking integrally; Full TEE practice for high level but mother tongue use for grammar;No TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally; No TEE practice due to tow level;No TEE practice due grammar;grammar;Mentor pressure on CLT or TEE;Challenge with class but increase and lack of instruction skillsStruggle with lack of skills with task design and class management and class managementTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from Practice CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT perspective change and more awareness of TEE problem in theSatisdet on ore awareness of cLT challenge due to student reticence and		textbook;	textbook;	Quiz and jigsaw;
and speaking integrally;during the lesson; Teaching listening and speaking integrally;Full TEE practice for high level but mother tongue use for grammar;No TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally; No TEE practice due to low level;no TEE practice due grammar;grammar;Mentor pressure on CLT or TEE;Challenge with class but increase and lack of instruction skillsStruggle with self- participationInspection pressure; skills with task design and class management but increase participationTheory and Practice ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from PracticumMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT perspective change and more awarenessSatisfaction with TEE practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and		Much use of praise;	Quiz games with	Teaching reading and
integrally;Teaching listening and speaking integrally;high level but motherNo TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally;tongue use forMentor pressure on CLT or TEE;to the level gap;Inspection pressure;CLT or TEE;Challenge with classStruggle with lack ofStruggle with self- confidence for TEEbut increase participationand class managementand lack of instruction skillsparticipationand class managementTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguityPractice PracticumMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practiceSatisfaction with CLT perspective change and more awarenessSatisfaction with CLT practice change awareness of CLT cLT and TEE practiceSatisfaction with CLT prespective change and more awarenessSatisfaction with TEE practice and more awareness of CLTIn the schoolof TEE problem in the student reticence andstudent reticence and		Teaching listening	candies several times	speaking integrally;
No TEE practice due to low level;speaking integrally; to low level;tongue use for grammar;Mentor pressure on CLT or TEE;to the level gap; CLT or TEE;Inspection pressure; Struggle with classStruggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsconficience for TEE participationStruggle with task design and class management and class managementTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from PracticeMore awareness of the frustration of the frustration of cLT and TEE practiceSatisfaction with CLT practice change and more awareness of TEE problem in theSatisfaction with TEE practice change awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and		and speaking	during the lesson;	Full TEE practice for
to low level;No TEE practice duegrammar;Mentor pressure on CLT or TEE;to the level gap;Inspection pressure;Struggle with self- confidence for TEEChallenge with classStruggle with lack ofand lack of instruction skillsparticipationand class managementTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from PracticeMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practiceSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT and more awarenessSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT cLT and TEE practiceSatisfaction with CLT practice and more and more awarenessSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT cLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT prespective change and more awarenessSatisfaction with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and		integrally;	Teaching listening and	high level but mother
Mentor pressure on CLT or TEE;to the level gap;Inspection pressure;Struggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsconfidence for TEE participationskills with task design and class managementTheory and ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from Practice CLT and TEE practice in the schoolMore awareness of confice to the frustration of in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT prespective change and more awarenessSatisfaction with CLT challenge due to student reticence and		No TEE practice due	speaking integrally;	tongue use for
CLT or TEE;Challenge with classStruggle with lack ofStruggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsbut increase participationskills with task design and class managementTheory and Practice ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from PracticumMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT perspective change and more awareness of TEE problem in theSatisfaction class student reticence and		to low level;	No TEE practice due	grammar;
Struggle with self- confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsmanagement at first but increase participation but increaseskills with task design and class managementTheory and Practice ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from PracticumMore awareness of the frustration of the frustration ofSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLTLearning from the frustration of the frustration of the frustration of the frustration ofSatisfaction with CLT perspective change and more awareness of TEE problem in theskills with task design and class management but increase between		Mentor pressure on	to the level gap;	Inspection pressure;
confidence for TEE and lack of instruction skillsbut increase participationand class managementTheory and Practice ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenLearning from PracticumMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice change and more awareness of TEE problem in the student reticence and		CLT or TEE;	Challenge with class	Struggle with lack of
and lack of instruction skillsparticipationTheory and Practice ConnectionAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenConnection		Struggle with self-	management at first	skills with task design
instruction skillsinstruction skillsFeeling ambiguityTheory and PracticeAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguityPractice Connectionmany gaps betweenbetweenbetweenLearning from PracticumMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLTLearning from practice the frustration of in the schoolCatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLTLearning from practice practice the frustration of in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLTLearning from practice practice and more awareness in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and more awareness of CLT school context but practice practice practice problem in the student reticence and		confidence for TEE	but increase	and class management
Theory and PracticeAcknowledging many gaps betweenViewing no gap betweenFeeling ambiguity betweenConnectionMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practiceSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLT practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to student reticence and		and lack of	participation	
Practice Connectionmany gaps betweenbetweenbetweenLearning from PracticumMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practice in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and with CLT practice and with CLTCLT and TEE practice in the schooland more awareness of TEE problem in the student reticence and		instruction skills		
ConnectionMore awareness of school context but the frustration of in the schoolSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and more awareness of CLT challenge due to of TEE problem in the	Theory and	Acknowledging	Viewing no gap	Feeling ambiguity
Learning from PracticumMore awareness of school context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practiceSatisfaction with CLT practice and with CLTSatisfaction with TEE practice and more awareness of CLTCLT and TEE practice in the schooland more awareness of TEE problem in the student reticence andchallenge due to student reticence and	Practice	many gaps between	between	between
Practicumschool context but the frustration of CLT and TEE practicepractice and with CLT perspective changepractice and more awareness of CLTCLT and TEE practice in the schooland more awareness of TEE problem in the student reticence andchallenge due to	Connection			
the frustration of CLT and TEE practiceperspective change and more awarenessawareness of CLT challenge due toin the schoolof TEE problem in the student reticence and	Learning from	More awareness of	Satisfaction with CLT	Satisfaction with TEE
CLT and TEE practiceand more awarenesschallenge due toin the schoolof TEE problem in thestudent reticence and	Practicum	school context but	practice and with CLT	practice and more
in the school of TEE problem in the student reticence and		the frustration of	perspective change	awareness of CLT
		CLT and TEE practice	and more awareness	challenge due to
context mixed-level large class passiveness		in the school	of TEE problem in the	student reticence and
		context	mixed-level large class	passiveness

Information Sheet

The Title of the Research:

Learning to Teach Speaking during the Practicum in Pre-service Teacher Education in Korea

The Purpose of the Research:

The aim of the research is to find out what you learn about the teaching of spoken English during your teaching practicum. This is important in the light of the shift of emphasis toward communication-oriented and task-based pedagogies in the national curriculum. Through a preliminary questionnaire, potential participants were recruited according to the research purpose. To take part in the research is voluntary and therefore it is up to you whether or not to take part. If you agree to participate in my research, it will involve a questionnaire, interviews and also some observations during your practicum either in April or in May.

What You Need to Know about Taking Part in the Research:

Participant Consents and Rights:

- Before and also during the research, you have a right to withdraw from the study for whatever reason.
- The information you share with me during the research is all confidential and your real names will not be used when writing up the research reports or papers.
- You will have a chance to review or comment on partial drafts or final reports based on the data that you have provided.
- The research will be conducted in accordance with the ethical guidelines and also the requirements of the Ministry of Education.

What You Need to Know about the Overall Process of the Research:

There will be an initial questionnaire to fill in during one of the classes you attend in the teacher college. If you decide to take part in the research, you will be given an information sheet which will explain the overall process of the research in detail as well as having a discussion to ask a question about the research in person during the initial meeting, and you will also be required to fill in a consent form in order to show that you understand the research process and agree to take part in the research. There will be an initial interview with you before you start the practicum to ask about what you think or believe about teaching speaking in general with questions addressing information about teacher training courses related to teaching speaking or previous schooling experiences in relation to learning speaking.

During the practicum there will be some observations and interviews. That is, I will contact you by phone during the second week to arrange and conduct a telephone interview (for about 15 to 30 minutes) and I will ask about how you feel about observing classroom teachers during the

practicum. I will then make a school visit (once or twice if I get permission or if it is available to do so in the placement school) between the third week and the fourth week when you do teaching practice to observe the class you teach and there will be an interview after the observation to ask about the lesson on the basis of what I observed.

After the practicum there will be a follow-up interview with you once you have returned to the teacher college in order to ask about what you experienced and learned about teaching speaking during the practicum including overall reflection on the practicum. There will also be a follow-up questionnaire to fill in during the class you attend (where an initial questionnaire was distributed) in the teacher college.

What You Need to Know about the Information that You Provide during the Research:

All the data collected from you will be audio-recorded only for the purpose of retrieving and writing up the research. Once all the data have been gathered, I will transcribe and analyze recorded interviews and observations to compare what you said about teaching speaking before, during and after the practicum. The information that you provide during the research will be kept securely on a password-protected computer and will not be accessed by other people, as well as being kept strictly confidential to be used only for the research.

Possible benefits to participants:

Whilst there are no immediate benefits from taking part in the study I hope that participating in this research will help you increase your awareness of teaching of spoken English during your teaching practicum and so contribute to your personal and professional development in preparation for your future career. You are free to share any concerns or queries, and possible harms or discomforts in the course of gathering information will be given immediate attention. You will be given a copy of the results if you wish when the results are published.

Thank you for taking part in the research!!!

Contact Details:

PhD Student: Helen Jang (Email: <u>thanksgiving75@hotmail.com</u>) Supervisors: Simon Borg (Email: <u>s.borg@education.leeds.ac.uk</u>) Martin Wedell (Email: <u>m.wedell@education.leeds.ac.uk</u>)

Department: School of Education, University of Leeds, Leeds, LS2 9JT.

Consent Form

Title of Research: Learning to Teach Speaking during the Practicum in Pre-service Teacher Education in Korea

Name of Researcher: Helen Jang

Please tick the box if you agree with the statement!

- □ I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet which explains the study and I have had the opportunity to discuss the study.
- I understand that my participation is voluntary. I know that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and I am also free to decline if there is any question that I wish not to answer.
- I understand that all the information that I share and provide during the study will be kept strictly confidential. I understand that my privacy will be protected throughout the study and my real name will not be identified but anonymous when presented or published in the research reports or papers.
- I agree with the data that I provide during the study to be used in further study.
- □ I agree to take part in the study.

Name of Participant:

Signature:

Date:

Participant Letter

Dear Student Teacher

Hello. I'm a research student in Leeds Univ. and I'm studying pre-service English teachers' learning during the practicum in Korea, in particular, in relation to their understanding and experience of teaching speaking throughout their initial teaching practice. Since there have been many changes in English education and also in English teacher education recently in Korea, my research aims to explore how student teachers teach speaking bearing in mind the emphasis on task-based communicative pedagogy in the national curriculum and education policy.

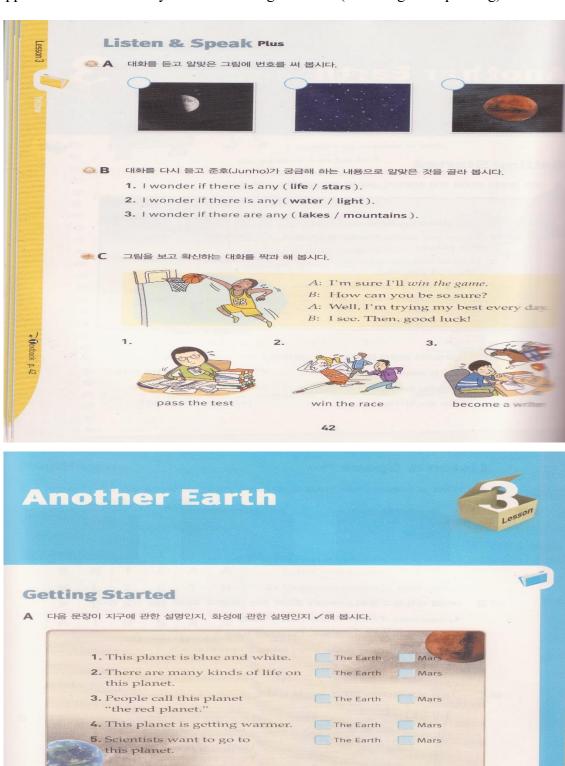
I'm writing to explain briefly about my research and to ask for your assistance and participation in my study during the practicum between April and June.

When you have read the information sheet in which I explain more about my research and what it will involve for you, I would ask you to sign the consent form below if you are happy to take part in my study.

I'd really appreciate your sincere agreement and participation in my study.

Yours faithfully

Helen



Appendix 20. The Activity Book in Jinsung's Lesson (Listening and Speaking)

41

We don't know for sure.

There must be UFOs.

• Is he an American?

B 비슷한 뜻을 가진 문장끼리 연결해 봅시다.
1. I wonder if he is American.

2. No one knows for sure.

3. I'm sure there are UFOs.

Dextbook

Appendix 21. Jinsung's Lesson Plan

Less	on 3. Ano	ther Earth	Book and Section	
Peri	od 6/6		A – Getting Started, Listen an	d Speak
			Plus (yellow, green, purple)	
	. 1	<u>Q</u> , 1, ,	(41-42, 46, 50)	1 : 0
Objec	tives 1.		nsolidate the usage of 'I wond ou be so sure?' again.	der 11',
	2.	•	better express their curiosity	v and ask
	2.		ictions and express their own	
		convictions.	-	
	Procee	dure and Clas	ss Activity	Time
1. Gi	reeting			2 min
	reeting			
	otifying students	of the last of	lass with me	
110	otriying students	of the last c		
2 In	troduction			2 min
		assignment	and asking the difficulty	
	hen solving the	U	and asking the unneutry	
- Ta	aking a memo o	f it and infor	ming that would be dealt	
	ith when the sch		-	
				25 min
3. Li	sten and Speak	Plus		25 1111
- Li	stening to the a	udio file and	matching the picture	
- Cl	hoosing correct v	words in the	sentence and reading it	
- Li	stening to the a	udio file and	repeating and making	
di	fferent conversat	ion with filling	ng the other given words	
				6 min
	hecking the answ			
- Cl	hecking the answ	ver of assigni	nents together	
5 01				10 min
	losure	11 .		
	onsolidating the			
	eminding express	_	-	
- He	elping anything	students want	to know	
	iving advice to s ving them the co		t studying English and themselves	

Appendix 22. The Textbook in Eunhae's Lesson (Listening and Speaking)

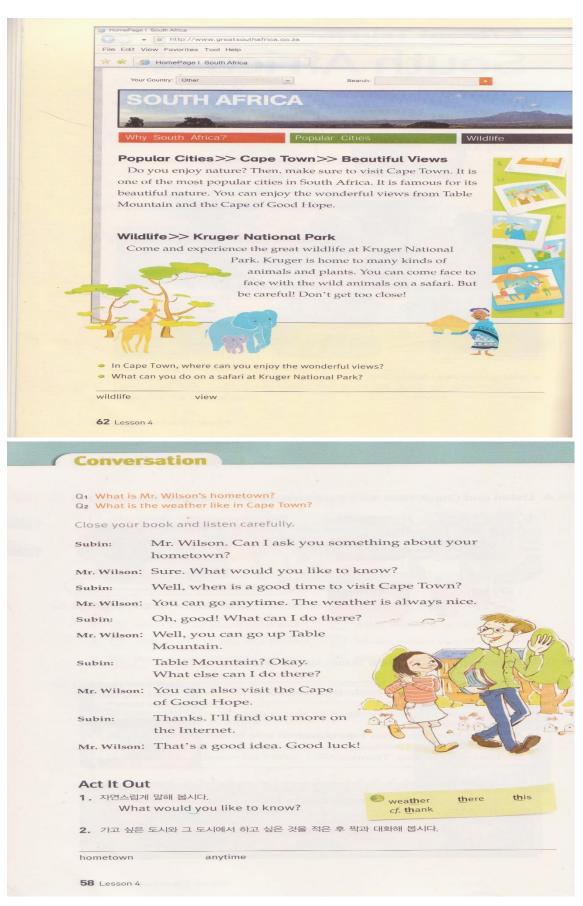


Appendix 23. Eunhae's Power Point Slides (Page 1)



364

Lesson 4. Newspapers and Facts	
Listening (x2) – page 71	
A. 순서찾기 — 시간의순서 (in the time of order) B. 단어 (voca) - Human - Moon - Replace - Machine - Run short of - Had better	
*Speaking – page 72, 73	
A. 단어 (voca) - Break out 발생하다 - Success 성취 - 의 + 주 + 동 관계 확인 (check-up: subject + verb) - 대입하기 (match) - 확신에관련된 어휘확인 (check-up: voca 'for sure')	
*Dialogue – page 74	
 Has told (present perfect) Replace Humans with Computers 	



Appendix 25. The Textbook in Haewon's Lesson (Reading and Speaking)

Appendix 26. Haewon's Power Point Slides in Lesson 2 (Page 1)



Appendix 27. Haewon's Handouts (Page 1)

2010 학년도		2 학년	영 어		영역	Gramma
간 원 명	Lesson 4:	A Great T	rip to South	Africa	수준	Purple
겨 명	Class ID		Name		확인	
A. 줄 친	곳에 알맞은	· 관계대명시	ㅏ를 쓰시오.	I		
1. Th	ne man	teache	s English is	my father		
2. Tł	nis is the girl		likes to p	lay the flut	te.	
3. Tł	ne chair	I was	sitting on w	vas not co	mfortable.	
4. He	e has a hous	se	is very e	expensive		
5. Ir	ave a daug	hter	works	for a banl	k.	
B. 주어진	<u> </u> 말을 이용ർ	하여 우리말	을 영어로 옮	음겨 써 봅	시다.	
필요ㅎ	h면 어형을 b	바꿔 써 봅시	다.			
1. 너	를 울게 만든	영화 제목	을 말해라.(made me	cry)	
2. 감	자로 가득 친	! 바구니가	있다. (is full	of)		
3. Ja	ck은 나를 미	우 잘 아는	오랜 친구여	이다. (knov	v me very v	vell)
4. 우	리는 9시 30	분에 떠나는	· 기차를 탈	예정이다.	(leave at 9	:30)
C. 주어진	! 두문장을 김	관계대명사를	를 이용하여 5	한문장으로	바꿔써 봅	시다.
1. Ra	ain is a taler	ited singer.	+ He has re	ecorded s	everal albu	ms.
 Di	d you see a	building? +	- It has large	e windows	 S.	
 2. Th	ne girl is my			0	ere.	
 D. 다음 ·	글의 빈칸에		들어갈 세 단		시다.	
World's b	est known, grew up to	most popul	ar and expe	ensive wo atest artist	rks of art. s in the wo	w among the He is rld. No one most

Procedure	Activities				
Procedure	Teacher (⊳)	(⊲) Students	& Aids		
Greetings	 ▷ Greeting Okay class, Good afternoon my class!! ▷ Ask daily things - How are you today? / Why? 	 ⊲ Greeting - Good afternoon, teacher. ⊲ Answer - fine/ Because 	Individual and Group		
Reviews	 Review Quiz (Dialogue) To show students PPT - there are some questions which the students have learned during the last classes. *Expressions - What else can I do? What would you like to know? *Usage - Relative clauses, Superlatives -To check the right answer each time, find winner-groups and reward them points. 	 ⊲ To listen to the teacher's explanation, look at the PPT screen and participate in the Quiz in groups. ⊲ To answer each question as quickly as possible and get points. 	Power Point Board Group		
Motivation & Introducing Learning Aims	 -To show students a video about the South Africa 2010 World Cup. -To ask students what they think about it and what the video reminds them of. -To let the students know Today's aims and write it on the board. Today's aims Students can understand what to do in each place in South Africa Students can read and comprehend more information about South Africa and complete a task in a group. 	 ☐ To listen and watch the video. ☐ To answer and react to the teacher's indication. ☐ To understand Today's Aims 	Video Board Group		
	 Activity 1 (Actual Reading) There are five parts in the text (last four parts need some pictures or videos) To show pictures or videos to activate students' background knowledge To have students listen to the text and read the at the same time To show and present new words or expressions (This is repeated 4 or 5 times because there are small five parts in the textbook.) To check students' comprehension with questions and give points to winner groups 	 ⊲ To listen to the text and read at the same time ⊲ To follow teacher instruction and react to it 	Individual Group PPT Video		

		1	
	Activity 2 (Extensive reading and Jigsaw)		
Development	 To have students get together for professional discussions. There are 5 groups for discussions. Each student was given a specific piece of reading materials in advance as home work. (It was homework to read extensive materials) To have students discuss what they have studied as homework To get the students back into their own groups To have the students teach each other what they have discussed in the professional groups. (give each group worksheet. There are blanks to fill in) To have students present the worksheet in front of other students Activity 3 (Make a travel information brochure about South Africa) 	 ⊲ To discuss what they have studied as homework. ⊲ To go back to their own groups. ⊲ To cooperate and study with what they have discussed in professional groups and go back to their own groups ⊲ To present the work sheet in front of other students 	Group PPT Work Sheet
	 To give students paper and tick pens for designing a brochure, show them a brochure that the teacher made in advance and explain how to make a brochure To have students make a brochure in a group To have students present the brochure in front of the whole class. 	 indication and understand ⊲ Students make brochure with what they discussed and studied in groups ⊲To make their brochure 	Group Paper Pen Board
	 Activity 4 (Sum up Quiz) 		
Evaluation	 To show ready-prepared PPT slides which contain Quiz about what they studied today To have students participate in group To choose the winner team of today 	⊲ To participate in the quiz in groups	PPT Group
Closing	 To give assignments Okay, you did a good job! Here is homework, complete your brochure and read this extra material. To announce the next class Noticing the next lesson To say good-bye 	 ✓ To make notes about the assignment -Okay, teacher. ✓ To know what to study in the next class ✓ To say good-bye 	PPT Individual



Appendix 29. Fieldwork Photos (Photos from the Lessons and English Speaking Zones)