A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF THE PRACTICUM COMPONENT IN EFL TEACHER TRAINIG PROGRAMS IN TURKEY

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF LETTERS
AND THE INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
OF BILKENT UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN
THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

BY
MUSTAFA ZÜLKÜF ALTAN
August 1990

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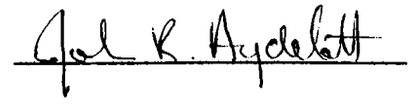
We certify that we have read this thesis and that in our combined opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.



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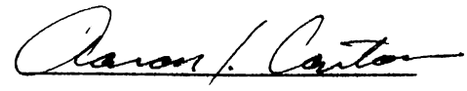

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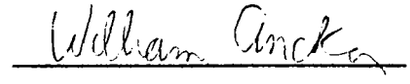

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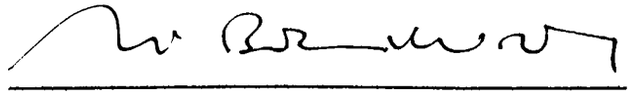

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To My Mother

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I would also like to thank to those who responded my questionnaire which was the heart of this study.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

In their preparation programs, many professions provide an opportunity for novices to try their hands to see how it feels to do the work of a professional practitioner. In teacher education this opportunity is called the practicum. The practicum, designed to demonstrate educational theory in practice, allows the student to develop practical skills from the theory learned. The primary purpose of the practicum is to facilitate the growth of the student through a professional learning experience.

Approaches to the development of professional skills and competencies of preservice teachers revolve around the provision of guided experience in schools or school-like situations. Almost universally this procedure involves the placement of student teachers in schools or laboratories for varying periods of time, for various experiences, and at varying stages in their preparation.

STATEMENT OF THE TOPIC

Turkey is a rapidly developing country and its aim is to reach the level of developed countries, as pointed out by M. Kemal Ataturk the founder of the Turkish Repuplic.

Our century is known as the "know-how" or "telecommunication" or "technology" century and the most common language used internationally is English. Therefore,

English is important for establishing relations among countries as well as for following the developments in every rapidly developing field.

Teaching English, especially in the last quarter of the 20th century, has turned into to a national mobilization in Turkey. A great number of students at various levels and government and private sector personnel for various purposes want to learn English. The money and the manpower sources that the Turkish government supplied for foreign language learning, especially English, reached great dimensions.

This research study is a descriptive study of the practicum component of English language teaching university programs in Turkey. The study is descriptive, in that the practicum component of various university training programs has been surveyed in order to find out the nature of the programs and the extent to which the programs are in line with what experts suggest for practica. In this thesis, I have investigated the following points:

a. What experts say in regard to the practicum, including benefits, importance, design, and the ways practicum is carried out.

b. What the current practicum practices are in ELT settings in Turkey.

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The ELT education programs have a vital duty which is to prepare effective English teachers. Although it is not said

directly, the reason for the failure in English teaching mobilization is mostly connected with the inefficency of English teachers. Any observer of the national scene today cannot fail to notice the ever increasing tide of statements, by people of different statuses, concerning the need for more effective English teachers.

The practicum plays an important role in developing effective teachers. But there seems to be a gap between the present practicum settings in Turkey and what experts suggest about the practicum components in ELT programs. For this reason, the purpose of my thesis is to examine the current practices in regard to ELT practica in Turkey and to ascertain whether some suggestions for change or improvement might be profitably proposed.

Finally, the most important aim of this study is to attract the attention of YOK program designers, university ELT department administrators, teacher trainers, and trainees to the practicum component and present them with evidence that the practicum component in ELT needs improvement.

STATEMENT OF METHODOLOGY

To construct this thesis, various materials including pedagogical texts, current journals and encyclopedias have been chosen from the libraries in Ankara in order to review the existing literature in English relating to the topic of the thesis. A workable, commonly held definition of the practicum, the benefits of the practicum component, the

opinions which experts hold regarding the importance of the practicum, options which experts suggest for the design of the practicum component, and the ways in which the practicum is perceived have been ascertained.

The findings of the literature review and the YOK regulations have been used as a basis for constructing a questionnaire to collect data on current practices relating to the practicum component in Turkish Universities.

The questionnaire was mailed to the heads of the English Language Teaching departments of Faculties of Education of fourteen Universities. These fourteen Universities are the ones with English Language Teaching departments in their Faculties of Education.

The original data have been analyzed according to frequencies, percentagess and cross tabulation. The results of this questionnaire with the findings from the review of literature have been compared in order to draw some conclusions, some implications, and offer some suggestions for the persons whose attention I want to attract to the practicum.

STATEMENT OF LIMITATIONS

The limitations of this study are as follows:

a- as my instruments are concerned with teaching English, it is doubtful that the results of the study will be applicable to other disciplines. That is, the study is limited to English Language Teaching in Teacher Educatin

Programs. But the findings in the review of literature still may be applicable to other disciplines.

b- the findings provide a valid description of the situation only at the time the questionnaire was administered

c- the study is limited to the situation in Turkish universities.

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

The first chapter is an introduction to the study in which the topic, the purpose of the study, the method used in constructing the study, limitations of the study, and the organization of the study are explained.

The second chapter is a review of the related professional literature from a variety of different sources.

In the third chapter the method used for collecting and analyzing data for this study is explained.

The fourth chapter includes the presentation and analysis of the original data.

Finally, in the last chapter the findings of the study are reviewed in order to draw some conclusions, some implications, and offer some suggestions.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

University EFL teacher education programs most commonly include a knowledge base, drawn from linguistics and language learning theory, and a practical component. In general, to debate whether theory or practice is more important would be to raise trivial objections, thus, to waste valuable time and force. To maintain, as has been done, that both theory and practice are necessary and interdependent elements in a modern program of teacher education is but to assert an acknowledged truth. Theory without accompanying practical application is educational fallacy, and practice without sound theory behind it becomes empty, time consuming activity.

Ferguson (1989) points out that in an effort to close the gap between theory and practice, teacher educators frequently require students to participate in course-related field experiences. Many professions, in their educational programs, provide an opportunity for the neophytes to try their hands to see how it feels to do the work of the professional practitioner. The law students have their moot courts, the medical students have their cadavers and their rounds in the clinic, the aircraft pilots have their link trainers, the actors have their supervised rehearsals. The

beginning teachers must also learn to teach in the middle of the noisy confusion of their scheduled classes.

In the preparation of an EFL teacher, as it is the same for other fields of teacher education, the practice teaching or clinical aspect is crucial.

Conant (1963), Joyce, Yarger, Howey, Harbeck, and Kluwin (1977) as cited in Goodman (1985) say that

> although much controversery has surrounded the ways in which future teachers have been and are prepared, the one component of teacher education that traditionally has been considered valuable is field experience. And as a result there has been a growing trend to increase field experiences within teacher preparation programs (p. 42).

Richards (1987) notes that the intent of teacher education must be to provide opportunities for the neophyte to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use. In fact, historically, the methods of teaching, observation, demonstration and practice in teaching have been the most dominant elements of the preparation for teaching.

But, Goodman (1986) as quoted in Ferguson (1989) argues that just placing students in practicum sites does not automatically provide neophytes with valuable, relevant experiences. Lanier and Little (1986) according to Ferguson (1989) point out that field experiences often produce negative outcomes. And a growing number of teacher educators now believe that practicum experiences give a utilitarian perspective through trial-and-error approaches. Buchman

(1984), as cited in Ferguson (1989), claims that field experiences seldom give opportunity to put theory into practice in any systematic way.

Zeichner (1981), Tabachnick, et al. (1979-1980) according to Ferguson (1989) point out that the main concern in the practicum usually deals with mastering technique not with assessing the appropriateness of instructional strategies against the specified purposes and goals. Berliner (1962), and Lortie (1975) as quoted in Ferguson, hold that the reason for this failure is that novice teachers are more concerned about matters of survival than about pedagogical philosophy. Ferguson says that neophytes cannot experience full professional growth unless they are given the opportunity to reflect on how theory fits into their own intuitive understanding and beliefs. Therefore, teacher educators have recently started to develop more purposeful approaches to the methods practicum.

PRACTICUM DEFINED

Richards and Crookes (1988) and many other experts define practice teaching or the practicum which includes a powerful series of professional experiences as the major opportunity to feel what teaching is for the student teachers. It is aimed at closely relating the study of theory and practical experience, both usually being carried out simutaneously. During the professional experiences the student teachers apply, refine, and reconstruct theoretical

learnings through which they acquire the practical skills and knowledge needed to function as an effective language teacher.

BENEFITS OF THE PRACTICUM

One of the latest surveys made by Richards and Crookes (1988) shows eight objectives for a practicum course in order of importance:

1- To provide practical experience in classroom teaching
2- To apply instruction from theory courses
3- To provide opportunities to observe master teachers
4- To give feedback on teaching techniques
5- To develop increased awareness of personal teaching style
6- To develop lesson-planning skills
7- To develop ability to select/adapt materials
8- To become familiar with specific methods (p. 11)

It is obvious that the objectives listed above are directly for the benefit of the trainee and, accordingly, the profession. Beyer (1984) points out that the greater the number of hours students spend in practicum the better prepared they will be. He also adds that the more experience people achieve in an educational setting, the more proficient they will presumably become, and the more comfortable they will be when they are given the full responsibilities of teaching. But, the practicum also has benefits for the trainer, the university training program, and the cooperating school program. Trainees are the mirrors of the trainers. So, the trainers have the chance to control their effectiveness in preparing their students and also to find out the gaps in their teaching methods and content by means

of the practicum. The aim of the university teacher training programs is to prepare the needed effective teachers; thus, the designers of these programs have the chance to find out whether they are successful in fulfilling this aim.

As for the importance of the practicum component, Turney (1982) as cited in Doresh (1987) notes the following:

> The practicum is an integral part of the programme of teacher education contributing to the achievement of its aims and closely related to its content competence (p. 26).

Pickle (1984) remarks that the function of field experiences is to offer the student in teacher education direct contact with the real teaching world. Conant (1963) claims that

> few of those in leadership posts would attempt to specify precisely what instruction should be required, except for <u>practice teaching</u> on which there is general agreement (p. 27).

Baltra (in Holden, 1979) says that

> perhaps one of the most important aspects of teacher training is the practice teaching. Practice teaching should be a gradual and systematic process, very well coordinated and planned so that it can be integrated into the school and the usual student's activities. It also has to be developed in close contact with the theory the student teacher has been given in his recent teacher training course (p. 52).

Sarasan, et al., (1986) claim that there is no simple relationship between the knowledge of subject matter and effectiveness in teaching. Expertise in a subject matter

does not guarantee effectiveness in teaching. And the practicum is the only solution for solving this problem.

Byers and Irish (1961) take a similiar view and say that knowledge of subject matter cannot develop into professional expertise unless a planned practicum is provided for the student under expert guidance. They also argue that the practicum provides an evaluation of the relevance and effectiveness of the theoretical and content courses that have preceded the experiences; practice teaching is one of the circles of the training chain, not simply one of a series of independent courses.

OPTIONS WHICH EXPERTS SUGGEST FOR THE DESIGN OF THE PRACTICUM COMPONENT

Many education experts hold the idea that the practicum usually takes place over the course of a single semester. Richard and Crookes (1988) argue that

> practicum placement is split, though a rationale for placement does not emerge. It seems likely that if students generally have little teaching experience, the practicum would be placed early in the program, and if the students are mainly experienced, the practicum would be placed at the end (though a case for converse can also be made) (p. 13).

Richard and crookes characterize the teaching experiences as campus-based or field based.

Allen and Seifman (1971) suggest that a common way of structuring the practice teaching course is the block-plan. The idea behind the block-plan is to concentrate professional practice and problems into one semester. The semester is

divided into components; a few weeks of campus-based preparation for student teaching, the larger block of weeks for the actual student teaching, and a few weeks back on the campus for analyzing and evaluating the experience. The training institution usually offers a weekly seminar for discussing the student teachers' experiences during the student teaching.

In their survey of 1988, Richard and Crookes were able to rank order the activities receiving the most time during the practicum. The order of activities according to their survey is as follows:

1- Regular classroom teaching (supervised)
2- Regular classroom teaching (unsupervised)
3- Observation of experienced teachers
4.5- Individual conferences with supervisor/master teacher
4.5- Seminars
6.5- Viewing of videotapes of participants' teaching
6.5- Microteaching of ESL students
8.5- Viewing of videotapes of example teaching
8.5- Observation of peers
1.5- Workshops
10.5- Viewing of sample lessons (p. 14)

Cruickshank and Armaline (1986), as cited in Richards and Crookes (1988), state that

> the experiences provided for the novice teacher during a practicum can be classified according to whether they are <u>direct</u> or first-hand, or whether they are <u>indirect</u> or second-third hand (p. 15).

<u>Direct Experiences</u>: These experiences are the ones in which the student teachers deal with the situation themselves. Direct experiences may be the student teaching or peer teaching or micro-teaching. On the other hand indirect

experiences are the ones in which the student teachers are passive, such as watching someone else teach. Richard and Crookes' survey shows that the practicum typically includes a mix of both types of experiences. The survey conducted by Richard and Crookes (1988) shows that supervised classroom teaching is the activity receiving the most time. Since the practicum is largely dependent on supervised student teaching, the choice of cooperating school, cooperating teacher and the kind of the supervision provided become the key factors in the success of the practicum course. They also point out that the criteria for selecting the cooperating teacher, at best, is by teaching skills, and at worst, by availability. Their survey also indicates that the responsibility of the student teaching activity is shared by the cooperating teacher and the supervisor; in some programs the responsibility of the student teaching activity belongs only to the supervisor.

As for the feedback on student performance during the practicum, their survey shows the forms of feedback in order of frequency of use:

1- Conferences with supervisor/cooperating teacher
2- Observation of videotapes of a lesson
3- Peer feedback
4.5- Written reports
4.5- Use of audiotapes of a lesson (p. 20)

The survey also reports the use of a checklist or observation form as a standardized procedure for giving written feedback.

Conant (1963) and Merril (1967), as quoted in Richard and Crookes (1988) point out that

> the use of unsupervised regular classroom teaching as a component of teacher preparation reflects a long-held view that many skills of teaching can only be acquired through actual classroom teaching (p. 15).

One of the alternatives to unsupervised field experience is microteaching, which involves both microteaching of students and microteaching of peers. But in the survey of Richard and Crookes (1988) the ranking of microteaching appears to be relatively low. The reason for this ranking may be attributed to the fact that the microteaching is divided into two kinds: microteaching of students and microteaching of peers.

Indirect Experiences: In the survey of Richard and Crookes (1988), the use of indirect experiences according to the frequency of use are ranked as follows:

1- Observation of experienced teachers
2- Viewing of videotapes of sample lessons
3.5- Observation of peers
3.5- Viewing of videotapes of peers (p. 18).

It is not surprising that observation takes such a large part of time in practicum as it is the most basic component of any form of training that is used to learn a skill. But how effective it is needs to be explored and whether its effectiveness warrants allocating to it so large share of the practicum.

CENTRAL ISSUES TO BE TAKEN INTO CONSIDERATION WHILE DESIGNING A PRACTICUM PROGRAM

As it is obvious that the practicum courses reveal a wide variety of options for designing and carrying out the practicum, the central issues listed below must be taken into consideration while designing a practicum program.

Objectives: Richard and Crookes (1988) insist that the objectives for the practicum experiences should be established and accepted by those involved in the program, and procedures for validating objectives should be developed. Those involved in the programs are students, supervisors, cooperating teachers, cooperating schools and universities. Byers and Irish (1961) claim that the program cannot be wholly successful unless student teachers know what they are expected to learn and what kinds of experiences they may anticipate in the program.

The Setting: Richards and Crookes (1988) recommend that there must be a balance between the campus-based and field-based experiences and what students are expected to learn (and how) from both kinds of experiences should be precisely taken into consideration.

Logistics: Richards and Crookes (1988) suggest that the relative weighting of the practicum course and its poitioning within a program should ensure that an optimum integration of theoretical and practical components has been achieved, according to the goals of the program.

Curriculum: Richard and Crookes point out a balance between the direct and indirect experiences in which what

students are expected to learn from each kind of experience and the relationship of each kind of experience to the total curriculum should be considered carefully.

Supervision: Cruickshank and Kennedy (1977), Brimfield and Leonard (1983), Haberman (1983), and Kohler (1985) as cited in Olsen and Carter (1989), all point out that

> in teacher education in the USA the cooperating teacher often appears to be the most important person in helping student teachers come to understand what it means to teach (p. 113).

Richard and Crookes (1988) suggest that programs should be conscious of the procedures by which cooperating teachers are chosen and clarify their criteria for such teachers. And there must also be a cooperative relationship among the supervisor, cooperating school and the student teacher.

The following section of this chapter is an explanation of the different activities/experiences included in the practicum component:

a- Microteaching

b- Peerteaching

c- Student teaching

d- Cruickshank's model of reflective teaching

e- Othrs: assisting, tutoring, and observing

Microteaching

Definition

Allen and Ryan (1969) claim that practice is a primary necessity for many learning activities. Teachers spend much of their time on activities which can be learned and can be improved through practice. They say that in order to teach the whole unit well, the teacher has to uitilize many skills and techniques.

Allen and Ryan discuss microteaching as a training concept that can be applied at various pre-service and in-service stages in the professional development of teachers. They say that microteaching provides teachers with a practice setting for instruction in which the normal complexities of the classroom are reduced and in which the practice teachers receive a great deal of feedback on their performance. Allen and Ryan also point out that microteaching helps to focus attention on teaching behavior and provides a setting for controlled practice. They hold that microteaching gives two kinds of satisfaction. During the initial experience the teachers satisfy a natural curiosity to see themselves as others see them. The second satisfaction comes when guided practice leads to improvements in teacher-pupil interaction.

Jensen (1974) claims that microteaching is inexpensive, easy to carry out, and completely competency-oriented. He also says that the achievement of small, cleary specified objectives, the built-in capability of providing a practice arena in which competent performance may be observed, the

provision for continuous feedback and evaluation make microteaching highly adaptable to competency-based teacher training. According to him a competency-based training model consists of the following structural elements:

A- Determining desired outputs
   1- Identification of instructional goals
   2- Definition of target competencies
   3- Definition of behavioral objectives associated with defined target competencies
   4- Definition of criterion performance for each objective
B- Implementing input procedures
   5- Selection of a suitable training arena in which the basic ingredient of microteaching is the teach-critique cycle.
   6- Implementation of a trials-to-criterion training process
   7- Provision for feedback to trainees and supervisors
C- Evaluation outputs
   8- Implementation of a method of evaluating trainee competence
   9- Follow-up evaluation to assess the relevance and appropriateness of competencies in terms of their comprising professional training (p. 4).

Jensen (1974) defines microteaching as a practice system which systematically combines the elements of preparation, application (teach), feedback, evaluation (critique), modification and, in most cases, reapplication (reteach) And he adds that by applying a particular teaching technique, teacher trainees develop or improve their skills in this system.

Allen and Ryan (1969) identify the following five essential propositions that are encompassed by microteaching:

1- microteaching is real teaching. Although the teaching situation is a constructed one in the sense that teacher and

student work together in a practice situation, thus, real teaching does take place.

2- microteaching lessens the complexities of a classroom teaching. Class size, scope of content and time are all reduced.

3- microteaching focuses on training for the accomplishment of specific tasks. These tasks may be the practice of insructional skills, the practice of techniques of teaching, the mastery of certain curricular materials or the demonstration of teaching methods.

4- microteaching allows for the increased control of practice. In the practice setting of microteaching, the rituals of time, students, methods of feedback and supervision, and many other factors can be manipulated; as a result, a high degree of control can be built into the program.

5- microteaching greatly expands the normal knowledge-of-result or feedback scope in teaching. Immediately after microteaching lessons, the trainees engage in a critique of their performance. On the other hand, Wallace in Holden (1979) says that the classic definition of microteaching is that it is "a scaled-down teaching encounter." In other words, it is a teaching situation which has been reduced in scope or simplified in some way. Wallace (Holden, 1979), and many others point out that there are three main ways in which the teaching encounter may be scaled down:

a) The teacher's task may be simplified and made very

specific; usually the teacher is asked to practice only one skill at a time. This skill is described by the supervisor, so the student teachers know exactly what they have to do. The teachers are expected to concentrate on those skills.

b) The length of the lesson may be shortened; since the student teachers are concerned with only one skill at a time, there is no need for them to teach a full 40 or 45 minute lesson. In most programs, the 'micro-lesson' lasts only about 5 to 10 minutes.

c) The size of the class may be reduced; usually a microteaching class is less than 10 persons, sometimes only four or five.

Organization

Wallace describes the model of microteaching that was originally devised at Stanford University as follows:

> First of all, the 'trainee' is instructed by the tutor in what is involved in the teaching skill he is about to practise. This stage is called the briefing. After being given some time for preparation, he teaches his micro-lesson: this is called the teach. Th micro-lesson is then discussed by the teacher, the tutor and the other trainees who have been present at the teach. This discussion stage is the critique. After the critique, the teacher attempts the skill again, modifying his lesson in the light of the suggestions he has received; and this stage is called the re-teach (Holden, 1979, p. 56).

There are some aspects of microteaching which, while not essential, are very often associated with the microteaching process. Wallace (Holden, 1979) point out that the first is

the use of video-recording. When video is used, the lesson is taught in a studio, or in an ordinary classroom equipped with video-recording equipment. Allen and Ryan (1969) claim that videotape operators need no special knowledge or knowledge of underlying principles. All they need is (1) the ability to follow basic instruction, and (2) some practice.

The second aspect deals with the students who will participate in microteaching. Wallace claims that

> in some programs, real pupils are not available for micro-classes, and then the student teacher's fellow-students are asked to role-play the part of the pupils. The teachers usually announce which level they are teaching at, and the other students are asked to respond accordingly (Holden, 1979, p. 56).

Allen and Ryan (1969) focus on the selection of real students in microteaching. They say that the students must be volunteers and that these volunteer students should be paid. They point out that the laboratory's purpose is the training of teachers rather than the training of students. They add that there are also two other major considerations in the selection of microteaching students: (1) the microteaching students should be representative of those the trainees will contact in the schools; (2) the grade level of the microteaching students is a relevant factor. The age group that the trainees will teach must be taken into consideration.

As for the training of laboratory microteaching students, Allen and Ryan (1969) point out two types of training for them. The first is initial training which

occurs before they begin to work in the laboratory. The initial training involves clarification of the student's role in the laboratory. The second is maintanance training given at intervals during the operation. Since each teaching skill has its own rating feedback form, microteaching students need to be trained to use these forms. This training consists of giving the microteaching students a clear idea of the skill and an understanding of the terminology in each item of the feedback form.

Variations of Microteaching

Jensen (1974) states that microteaching can take many forms. As microteaching can be classified either teach-to-pupil systems or teach-to-peer systems, in each classification a number of variations may be identified depending upon such variables as reteach, options, critiquing approach and feedback mode. Some of the variations are illustrated in Figure I below in which there are 24 possible variations of microteaching.

Reteach options	critique options	Feedback options			
		Videotape	Audiotape	Peers	Critiquer
Teach only	External critique				
	Self critique				
Systematic reteach	External critique				
	Self critique				
Trials to criterion	External critique				
	Self critique				

Figure I: Variations in microteaching (Jensen, 1974, p. 8).

In practice, feedback models are often used in combination (e.g., peers and videotape). When each of these combinations is considered as a separate variable, we have dozens of variations of microteaching.

Jensen (1974) identifies four options for selecting a model: learner options, feedback options, reteach options.

Learner Options: There are three alternatives: teach to real pupils, teach to peers, or teach to both pupils and peers. Each alternative is discussed in the following section.

a. Teach to Pupils

There are three advantages to teach to pupils. These are (1) as it is natural it provides realistic interaction

with pupils. (2) Direct experience in applying teaching skills with real pupils offers the trainee the opportunity to develop skill in modifying applications to individual students. (3) It gives trainees a greater sense of the relevance of microteaching, since they can observe the results of lessons in terms of pupil learning.

As for the disadvantages, Jensen (1974) says that (1) lessons may be more difficult to schedule especially for preservice trainees; (2) lessons cannot be easily controlled; and (3) pupils may react to audio or videotaping equipment rather than to trainees.

b. Teach to Peers

Jensen (1974) claims that teaching to peers which does not provide the trainee experience with real pupils has certain disadvantages, but there are still advantages. He borrows from Ober and others (1971) in order to point out four advantages: (1) It is convenient especially for preservice training, since the trainees need not travel to schools. (2) Each trainee gets double exposure to each lesson but also simulates the role of a pupil in lessons performed by other trainees. (3) Trainees get the opportunity to observe their peers teach. (4) Variables which are mentioned as disadvantages of teach to pupils can be more easily controlled.

c. Teach to both Pupils and Peers

Teaching to both pupils and peers involves, of course, the advantages and disadvantages of both approaches. It is recommended that trainees first teach to peers, then, after mastering skills, teach to pupils in a live situation.

Feedback Options: Acheson and Gall (1980) point out some common means of observation for feedback such as, audiotape recording, videotape recording, selective verbatim technique, verbal flow chart, movement chart, and at task technique or any combination of these.

Reteach Options: There are three possible reteach choices:

1 "no teach" which should be used only when time is short;

2 "systematic reteach" which is perhaps the best choice when it can be validly assumed that all trainees will benefit from the additional practice which the "reateach phase" proides, and all trainees are similarly unskilled in applying a certain technique.

3 trials-to-criterion, provides for individual differences in skill among trainees by offering the option of not requiring a reteach to trainees who have succeeded in their teach phase, and also requiring a less proficient trainee to repeat lessons until attaining proficiency. Jensen (1974, p. 13) gives a generalized skeleton model of the lesson process in Figure 2.

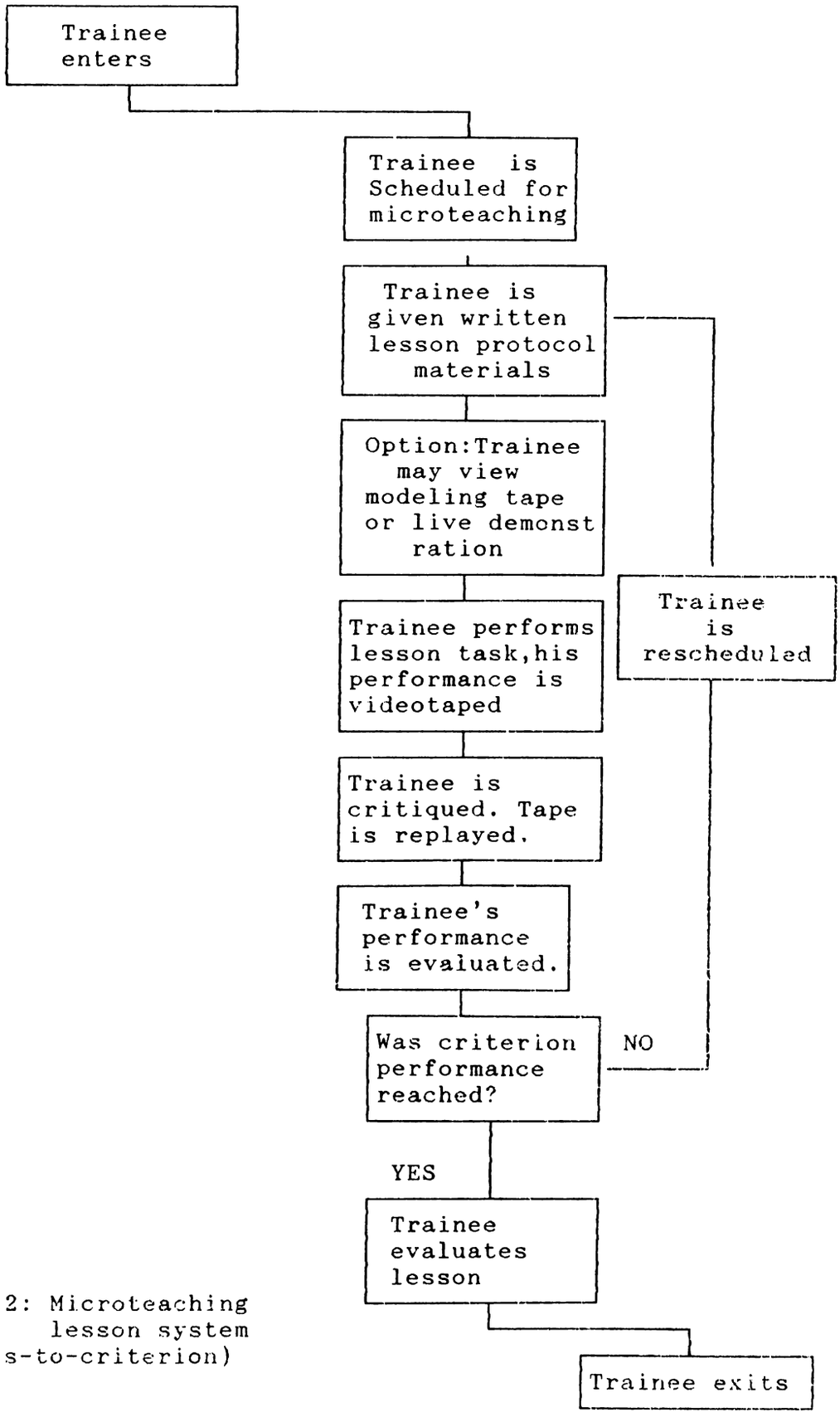

Figure 2: Microteaching lesson system (trials-to-criterion)

Evaluation Options: Jensen (1974) states three evaluation options: (1) self-evaluation by trainees, (2) objective evaluation by observer-critiquer, and (3) both of them. The third option, which involves both objective evaluation by the critiquer (observer) and subjective evaluation by the trainee, may be considered the best. And it allows the trainee to share in the evaluative process as cooperative evaluation is more likely to produce behaviour change on the part of the trainee. On the other hand, Wallace (Holden, 1979) claims that

> one of the interesting developments in microteaching has been the way in which it has been adapted by various teacher-trainees to suit different needs. Variations on almost every aspect of the microteaching process have been experimented with (p. 58).

Whether it is done in a campus laboratory with real students or peers or in a real school with students, carried out with or without hardware, microteaching has both strengths and weaknesses.

Strengths of Microteaching

Wallace (Holden, 1979) points out that very few writers on microteaching advocate it as a substitute for student teaching in schools. Many, however, see microteaching as a useful addition to the range of teacher training techniques that are available. He points out some of the advantages of microteaching as follows:

> 1- it allows the trainees to concentrate on the business of teaching, undistracted by the problems of classroom-management inherent in student teaching; 2- the trainees can concentrate on one teaching skill at a time; 3- microteaching allows the trainees to monitor their own performance as a teacher in a systematic way and improve it as necessary; 4- the critique session sensitizes all the trainees taking part to teaching as a process, so that the trainees become more self-aware in this respect; 5- by emphasising the analysis of teaching into its component skills, microteaching lays the basic for a truly scientific approach to teacher training (Holden, 1979, P. 57).

Allen and Ryan (1969) state that one of the unforeseen but major benefits of the microteaching laboratory is that it helps make supervision much more potent. The supervisor and trainees work together through many lessons before the trainees have their in-school experiences. Therefore, the trainees become quite accustomed, right from the beginning, to being observed by and having conferences with supervisors. As a result, when they are supervised in schools, they are not foreign to the supervision process. The micro-teaching sessions can be tailored for the individual situation. Special training opportunities can be scheduled. The number of students can be varied if it seems appropriate.

Finally, as Allen and Ryan (1969) state, a teacher training program can use the microteaching laboratory as a tool for many different research efforts. Since the microteaching laboratory provides real teaching and real learning, whole areas of the teaching-learning process can be experimentally examined. The behavioral effects of education courses and other experiences can easily be tested.

Teaching skills and methods can be tested for in the laboratory, and their effects followed up in the schools. In such a very controllable microteaching situation, research in supervision can be especially facilitated.

Weaknesses of Microteaching

As with all kinds of activities/experiences included in the practicum, microteaching has some disadvantages too. Wallace (Holden, 1979) claims that

> the main criticism made of microteaching is that it is an artifical procedure. Supporters of microteaching admit this but go on to make the point that all training procedures are to some extent artificial: artificiality is the price one has to pay for control over the training process. Another possible criticism is the psychological strain undergone by trainees who have to 'perform' in front of their fellow students, more especially if the teaching is being videotaped (p.57).

One of the more vital questions is whether it is desirable, or even possible, to analyze the teaching process into component skills in the way that is proposed. But the advocates of microteaching adopt a 'common-sense' approach and allow that there are at least some teaching skills that can profitably be isolated and practiced.

Hill and Dobbyn (1979) point out that the main problem in a microteaching session is that the situation is extremely unnatural. The reality that the trainees' aim to practice a technique rather than to teach an item must be remembered.

Similarly, Geddes and Raz (Holden, 1979) argue that microteaching is artificial. This artificiality is clear in

what is one of the strengths of the technique: The simplification of the classroom situation. Teaching a small group of pupils for a limited period of time is very different from the real world where the trainee may have to teach 20 to 30 pupils for 40 to 50 minutes. Another serious weakness is using peers as pupils. Accounts of foreign language teacher training show that peers are used far more often than real pupils in microteaching. The arrangement of microteaching to teach real pupils is really very difficult. In addition, as foreign language teaching tends to be cumulative rather than topic-based, with real pupils there is the problem of continuity, and having to build on what they already know.

As Wallace (Holden, 1979) says, there is obviously still a lot of basic work to be done to establish a satisfactory framework for relating microteaching techniques to TEFL. Neverthless, there seems to be no doubt that microteaching is here to stay as one of the most flexible and useful tools that we have available to bridge the gap between the theory and practice of TEFL methodology.

Peer Teaching

Definition

Johnson (1968), as cited in Allen and Ryan (1969), takes the view that peer teaching predates student teaching. Although it is not so widely practiced as other experiences, it is often used as a preparation for student teaching.

Geddes and Raz in Holden (1979) say that

> in peer teaching, 'the class' is often asked to role-play. For example, they might be told: "pretend that you are a class of 3rd year learners in a secondary school. You have covered the following structures..." This can be effective, but it can equally well be a frustrating experience for the 'teacher' (p. 60).

Various experts from many sources define peer teaching as an activity in practicum in which trainees teach their fellow students (peers), who are asked to play the role of schoolchildren, under the supervisor's control.

Organization

Peer teaching occurs on campus and the place is usually a normal classroom or campus laboratory classroom. Although there are some differences, the organization of peer teaching is very similar to the peer teaching variation in microteaching.

The course design for peer teaching is illustrated in Figure 3.

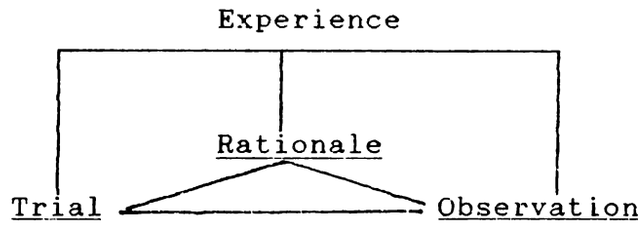

Figure 3: Course Design in Peer-teaching

This diagram is a slight adaptation of the 'E-R-O-T-I' (Experience, Rationale, Observation, Trial) model, as proposed originally by O'Brien (1981, p. 59) and which was used by Yoneyama (1988, p. 4).

As rationale or theoretical background plays an important role in all activities in practicum, it takes an important part in peer-teaching too. Rationale consists of the trainer's/supervisor's lectures, demonstrations, analysis and comparison. The lecture given by the supervisor before each trial gives the trainee support in preparing a lesson plan. Discussion after a trial and analysis and comparison also give motives in considering the features of the trainee's own performance objectively.

In the observation component, the trainees observe videorecorded lessons by experienced teachers, live demonstrations by experienced teachers, video feedback of their own or peers' and their peers' live demonstrations.

The trial component consists of teaching, reteaching and constructing material. In the experience component, the trainees participate as 'students' for their peers' teaching and perhaps most importantly they are real students and have

different trainers to observe and from which to gain experience.

Generally there are four phases in peer teaching. Wallace (Holden, 1979) describes that first of all, the trainees and the supervisor decide on the lesson schedule. Then the trainees begin to teach their lessons which may include a general introduction, warm-up, introduction of new materials and follow-up. In the general introduction section, the trainees announce the level they are teaching and ask their peers to respond accordingly. This section is called the teach. Then each trainee gives a brief explanation using the teaching plan which is distributed before the session. And also the participants make comments after the demonstration. This section is called the critique. If it is necessary, the supervisor asks the trainees to perform their teaching again under the light of suggestions they have received. This section is called the re-teach. Then, comes the re-critique section in which the same procedure as for the critique session is repeated. But the discussion, here, mainly focuses on the points which differ from or are considered to be substantial improvements over the first trial.

In some programs another section is added. This section, 'analysis and comparison,' allows the trainees to reflect on their teaching objectively. Also in some programs, the trainees are shown some sample teaching films on video or the

trainers perform live sample lessons before the trainees demonstrate.

Variations in Peer Teaching

First, although it is not essential in many programs, videotape may be used in peer teaching. Alien and Ryan (1969) suggest that during the critique part, the supervisor shows the full tape to the trainee and points out only the favorable aspects of the lesson.

Second, the length of the lesson and the size of the classroom may be changed. For example, in some programs peer teaching happens in five to ten minutes for about five trainees.

Strengths of Peer Teaching

Ryan, in Allen and Seifman (1971), claims that an advantage of peer teaching is that it calls for no special arrangement. Geddes and Raz, in Holden (1979), argue that

> peer pupils can provide more effective feedback than real pupils; by working together, peers develop very satisfying and rewarding relationships; peers become more involved in what the 'teacher' is doing and the skills or techniues being practised (p. 60).

Weaknesses of Peer Teaching

Geddes and Raz take the view of Cripwell (1979) and claim that "unless the role-playing is carefully structured the 'pupils' tend to concentrate on their performance rather than on what their 'teacher' is doing" (Holden, 1979, p. 60).

They also add that if the students do not stick to their roles, they temporarily adopt a new one for a particular response which may cause trouble in the teaching/learning process of peer-teaching.

Student Teaching

Definition

Student teaching is commonly used as a synonym for practice teaching, or the practicum. But, in this study what is meant by student teaching is one of the learning experiences included in practice teaching. Therefore, student teaching can be defined as a direct learning experience period of supervised or unsupervised (mostly supervised) teaching in a real school setting.

Since the student teaching experience usually comes near the end of the undergratuate program for the professional and academic preparation of teachers, it furnishes a very important opportunity for synthesis and application of theoretical learnings that have been provided through other course work. The student teaching program provides a laboratory for the testing of ideas, a place where the student may encounter real problems, an opportunity for personal growth, and a feeling of reality. All of these factors tend to make the student teaching experience one of the most interesting and helpful phases of the professional preparation of the prospective teacher. The process of 'learning by doing' seems to be basic to the student teaching experience.

Since the classroom is the place in which novices will presumably spend the main part of their professional lives, it seems reasonable to include experience of this sort as an

introduction to their profession. Beyer (1984) explains that the student teaching experience has become an almost universally accepted part of programs in teacher education. Student teaching is typically the final activity of the prospective teacher's professional preparation and it is expected to provide sufficient 'real life' experience to allow prospective teachers to explore teaching methods and styles, connect 'theory' and 'practice,' and become familiar with the demands of teaching, and acquire the necessary skills and values needed to function adequately in a teaching setting. As the classroom is the place in which novices will presumably spend the main part of their professional lives, it seems reasonable to include experience of this sort as an introduction to their profession. And he adds that the more experience people have in an educational setting, the more proficient they will be, and the more comfortable they will feel when they find themselves with the full responsibilities of teaching.

Byers and Irish (1961) claim that student teaching helps the trainees fill the gap between their work in university classrooms and work as independent teachers. As the trainees have learned as much as they can through various experiences at university about teaching, student teaching helps the trainees learn through direct experience which gives the opportunity to use the previously acquired knowledge to build teaching skills.

Merrill and Schuchman (1973) point out that the main purpose of a student teaching program is to provide a

planned, carefully supervised learning experience for the student teachers which allows them not only to demonstrate but improve their resourcefulness as teachers in a real setting. The program is first a learning experience, because it provides the student teachers an opportunity to see, to know and to think about their behaviors as a teacher, and an opportunity to determine the level to which their behaviors have created a learning environment for students. The student teachers learn as they change their behaviors in ways which produce better student response and greater student achievement of instructional objectives. So, the thing which makes student teaching a worthy experience is student response to the student teacher.

As a university student, the student teacher becomes familiar with very academic learning experiences. This learning environment of the student teacher, however, is very different from the traditional university setting. The student teachers discover that they must learn as an active participant in the environment of a secondary or high school. They must demonstrate that they can accept responsibility and fulfill a role. They are evaluated on how well they perform this role, how students respond, and how they change as a result of their experiences rather than on their ability to reply to questions or write essay answers.

Together with the principles pointed out above, the principles (Merrill and Schuchman, 1973) below provide a 'perceptual dimension' for understanding learning and change

in the professional student teaching program:

1- to see oneself clearly
2- to understand others
3- to become institutionalized
4- to question and doubt oneself
5- to decide and to do with others
6- to try one's own style and approach in the real setting
7- to become a committed and confident individual
8- to enter the students' worlds (p. 147)

Organization of Student Teaching

The generally expected period for the student teaching is a quarter or half of the semester.

Ryan (Allen and Seifman, 1971) observes that

> student teaching is a generic term, an umbrella label covering a wide diversity of organizational and curricular patterns. The great heterogeneity that permeates student teaching programs does not appear to be based so much on conflicting theories regarding student teaching as on the idiosyncratic desires and conveniences of the training institution (p. 17).

He also points out that the focus of student teaching has shifted from campus laboratory schools to the public schools. But the shift from cmpus laboratory schools to public schools caused the problem of organization.

Merrill and Schuchman (1973) point out that student teaching programs generally involve at least three major agencies: the national education system, university, and local school system. In order for these three agencies to work well together and be aware of the purpose of a student teaching program, the responsibilities of each must be clearly stated. These responsibilities and roles define the

interagency rationale of the student teaching program. A truly effective student teaching program requires commitment, participation, and support from each agency. Normally, the university structure has constituted the framework from which a student teaching program develops. The faculty and various committees within the university usually are responsible for establishing the format and procedures used in the student teaching experience.

Merrill and Schuchman (1973) believe that professional student teaching programs work in complete efficiency only as a result of some cooperative policy-formulation structure. The structure must have channels for establishing sufficient communication between the university and the cooperating school during the student teaching program. Such structures are designed to have a joint committee in which school systems feel they have a fundamental role in policy formulation. They also claim that "each student teaching program must have a director who administers policy and provides day to day management" (p. 102). The position should be full-time and recognized within the setting. The director must have full ability and understanding of the need for the program. The clerical and the supporting staff should be able to answer the needs. The office of the director of student teaching is responsible for maintaining records on each student teacher as well as information about the program. One of their responsibilities in student teaching is maintining the coordination between the university and the off-campus schools. The director must be

a represantative of the teaching profession who knows the purposes, and the expected outcomes of the teacher education program, the curricula for teacher education, the importance and the role of the practicum and how to organize and administer a program which is both sound and forward looking.

Phases in Student Teaching

According to Merrill and Schucman (1973) the student teacher should be placed in a school setting which enables the trainee gradually to assume full responsibility as a teacher. This active teaching experience requires the student teacher to function professionally with students, with other teachers, and with the principal. The entire experience is carefully planned and carried out under close supervision of the cooperating teacher and the supervising teacher of the university.

Many sources on student teaching experiences identify four area of activities:

1- orientation
2- observation
3- teaching
4- evaluation

The reason for orientation is that the student teachers may have had previous observation experiences in the teaching setting, but they will need more comprehensive information as they assume the role of student teachers. There are various ways of doing this orientation process. One of the best

ways to manage the orientation is to schedule an informal meeting at which the supervising/cooperating teachers introduce the student teachers to other members of the school and the student teachers get acquainted with the teaching staff. The student teachers may also be given folders including some necessary documents and information they need. Merrill and Schuchman (1973) claim that orientation to the setting is important as it makes the student teachers feel that they are part of the school and community, and that they are already known and accepted.

Observation and participation occupy the greatest part in student teaching. During this period, the trainee also has also the opportunity to observe students in a school setting as well as the cooperating teacher. The trainee becomes familiar with classroom and school routines.

Ryan (Allen and Seifman 1971), remarks that an effective student teaching program combines observation and participation. The trainee is assigned to a specific teacher and over a period of time gets increasing responsibilities under the cooperating teacher's direction. Observation without careful preparation and thorough follow-up can become nothing more than an inefficient time consuming activity.

Brown (1960) suggests that another way for the student teachers to clarify their observations is to have daily conferences with the cooperating teacher. These conferences permit the student teachers to check why something is not clear in their minds. The cooperating teacher explains one purpose or method rather than evaluate the trainee's ideas.

This process of repeated observation, discussion, and analysis begins to result in a set of principles and purposes to guide the student teacher's planning and teaching procedure. Brown adds that observation is preparation for teaching and after the student teachers have observed for a time, they will want to test their skills as teachers. Gradually, the trainees begin to help the regular teachers in their daily routine tasks such as paper correction. They may also help the teachers prepare for a class and perhaps do some work with individual students.

After a period of observation and participation, the student teacher takes over teaching duties for a number of weeks. The regular teacher becomes the supervising teacher. Ryan, in Allen and Seifman (1971), says that the cooperating teacher is responsible to the university for the student teacher's performance. The effective supervising teacher spends a good deal of time with the student teachers, answering questions, suggesting approaches, and generally helping them to adapt to their new roles. The cooperating teacher and university supervisor must work in harmony in supervising the student teachers.

The concern of the supervisory team should be focused on the future of the student teachers. The student teachers should receive real, firm, positive confiration of their successes, strengths, and of their full capabilities. They should develop some pride in their accomplishments and a considerable amount of confidence. The supervisory function

should help them achieve this. Another objective of the supervising process is to help the student teachers to see with more experienced eyes to identify their own potential and to face up to self-criticism. Basically, however, supervision should help the student teacher to derive full meaning from the experiences and translate this meaning into new and more effective patterns of teaching behavior.

Merrill and Schuchman (1973) point out that one of the other benefits of supervision is to make the student teacher to be self critical. If the student teachers can learn to do this, they will generate within themselves the ability for continuous improvement. If not, they are not perceptive of their own weaknesses. A climate must be established which allows the student teachers to trust the supervisors working with them to the extent that they can afford to admit weaknesses and problems with which they may not be dealing effectively.

Hill and Dobbyn (1979) say that if the supervisors are obliged to make observations of a number of trainees in action, they must use their time wisely and, if possible, they must visit three consecutive sessions of the same class taught by the same trainee, rather than making three visits on different dates or time.

The last phase in student teaching is the evaluation. There are a number of kinds of evaluation, but the most important ones for the practice teaching course are, of course, the evaluation made by the cooperating teacher and the university supervisor. In the evaluation of the student

teacher, every program uses or designs various forms and checklists to assess the performance of student teachers according to their criteria for the desired outcome. The cooperating teacher and the university supervisor usually collaborate, but usually it is the responsibility of the university supervisors to assign a letter grade to the student teacher which represents a translation of his/her performance into an academic evaluation code.

Strengths of Student Teaching

Student teaching's wide support in the university community and its popularity with beginning teachers rest on some very real strengths. These strengths can be summarized as follows:

1- it allows the neophytes to test themselves in a real world of the classroom.

2- student teaching ideally provides a gradual, controlled entrance into classroom teaching. This regulated entrance allows the novice to take increasing mastery.

3- student teaching is the profession's competence test.

4- student teaching is the arena in which the neophyte tests out theory and professional knowledge.

5- stuent teaching is normally one of the few opportunities student teachers have to receive supported feedback and analysis of their teaching from both university and public school supervisors.

Weaknesses of Student Teaching

As all types of learning and training experiences have, student teaching has some certain weaknesses, too.

Ryan (Allen and Seifman, 1971), points out five weaknesses:

1- student teaching is a label and does not represent any particular level of teaching competence or the mastery of any skills or strategies.

2- many experts agree that it is unclear what student teachers learn about teaching. They learn how to adapt themselves to a system. According to Loreson's research (1967) the students learn how to match the demands of the supervisory team.

3- there is a gap between the knowledge gained in education courses and the demands of student teaching.

4- the most criticism about student teaching comes from the shortage of the skilled supervisors of student teachers including cooperating teachers. The cooperating teachers provided by schools are usually untrained and chosen without purpose. And also the university supervisors lack commitment needed for effective supervision.

5- as there are so many student teachers to be supervised, the supervisor, even well trained, can only provie 'first-aid services.'

Cruickshank's Model of Reflective Teaching

Definition

Goodman (1986), as stated in Ferguson (1989), claims that recent studies suggest that just placing students in practicum sites does not automatically provide prospective teachers valuable, relevant experiences. In his article Ferguson discusses the work of several writers (Lanier and Little, 1986; Buchman, 1984; Zeichner, 1981; Tabachnick et al. 1980; Berliner, 1962; and Lortie, 1975) and points out that field experiences often produce negative outcomes; they seldom require novices to translate theory into practice in any systematic way. He adds that even when the practicum experiences require neophyte teachers to connect theory with practice, a technical rather than a reflective orientation is typically promoted. In most instances, the main concern is with mastering the technique, not with assessing the appropriateness of instructional strategies according to specified purposes or goals. Ferguson (1989) points out that

> Neophytes are unlikely to experience full professional growth unless they are given the opportunity to reflect on how theory fits into their own intuitive understandings and beliefs (p. 36).

Beyer and Zeichner (1982), as cited in Beyer (1984), remark that a paradox currently exists for many programs of teacher preparation because of two opposing tendencies. First, there is an increasing amount of attention being given to field work of various types; second, there has been a

growing commitment to provide experience programs for novices in which they may be encouraged to examine educational issues, ideas, and practices from a critical perspective.

Shulman (1987), as cited in Ferguson (1989), states that

> teacher education programs cannot expect to be effective until they work with the beliefs that guide teacher actions and examine the principles underlying the choices teachers make (p. 36).

Ferguson points out that the arguments of Shulman and others have persuaded teacher educators to begin developing more purposeful approaches to the methods practicum, and he claims that the most meaningful programs endeavor to help prospective teachers connect theory with practice through reflective teaching.

Gore (1987) points out that the term 'reflective teaching' has become part of the language of teacher education, but close analysis reveals that the term often is used to convey different meanings and for different purposes. She adds that this contemporary attention to reflective teaching can be attributed primarily to the efforts of Zeichner (1981-82) and Cruickshank (1985-86). Both teacher educators advocate the development of reflective teachers and have produced practical programs to facilitate the achievement of this goal. However, it is clear that their approaches differ markedly.

Gore (1987), Goodman (1985), Beyer (1984), Smyth (1989), Pickle (1984), Ross (1989), Ashcroft and Griffiths (1989), Zeichner and Liston (1987), and many others trace the notion

of reflective teaching to Dewey (1904, 1916, 1933) who warned against a mechanical focus on teaching method in the preparation of teachers. Goodman (1985) argues that

> Dewey (1904) warned against placing students in public schools before they developed habits of reflection. He suggested that if students were placed in 'apprenticeship' experiences too soon, they would be overly influenced by the on going practices found in their placements. As a result, these practicum experiences would stifle students' potential for reflective inquiry and experimental action, while encouraging mindless imitation (p. 46).

Goodman adds that the students who were placed in the practicum would have had little opportunity to reflect upon their teaching experiences or experiment with curriculumn or instructional strategies. As a result, some educators argue that the value of these experiences is limited.

Ross (1989) says that in order to develop a definition of reflection, many aducators have worked heavily on the studies of Schon (1983) and Kitchner and King (1981) who have developed and validated a seven stage model for the development of reflective judgement. Ross alsc explains that in developing a definition of reflection, Zeichner and Liston's (1987) and Goodman's (1984) studies have been influential. And she adds that reflection is defined, according to Goodman (1984), Ross (1987), Zeichner and Liston (1987), as a way of thinking about educational matters that involves the ability to make rational choices and to assume responsibility for these choices. The elements of the reflective process include:

1- Recognizing an educational dilemma
2- Responding to a dilemma by recognizing both the similarities to other situations and the unique qualities of the particular situation.
3- Framing and reframing the dilemma
4- Experimenting with the dilemma to discover the consequences and implications of various solutions.
5- Examining the intended and unintended consequences of an implemental solution and evaluating the solution by determining whether the consequences are desirable or not (Ross, 1989, p. 22).

Greene (1978), as cited in Zeichner and Liston (1987), holds that

> the concern of teacher educators must remain normative, critical, an even political--neither the colleges nor the schools can change the social order. Neither the colloges nor the schools can legislate democracy. But something can be done to empower teachers to reflect upon their own life situations, to speak out in their own ways about the lacks that must be repaired; the possibilities to be acted upon in the name of what they deem decent, human, and just (p. 23).

Ross (1989), Zeichner and Liston (1987), and Ashcroft and Griffits (1989) point out that the development of reflection also requires the development of particular attitudes and skills which are utilized from Dewey's (1933) concept of reflective action that expresses a desire to develop in student teachers those orientations which lead to reflective action:

1- Open-mindedness: Ashcroft and Griffits (1989) point out that open-mindedness means the desire to seek out and examine alternative perspectives.

2- Responsibility: Ascroft and Griffits point out that

responsibility involves the student in the consideration of long-term as well as short-term consequences of action for

3- Whole-heartedness: Ashcroft and Griffiths (1989) explain that whole-heartedness implies that open-mindedness and responsibility are permanent attitudes.

The skills in Dewey's (1933) concept of reflective action which lead the student teachers to reflective action include the following:

1- Keen Observation: Kitchener and King (1982), as cited in Ross (1989), hold that "students must also develop the ability to view situations from multiple perspectives, the ability to search for alternative explanations of classroom events" (p. 23).

2- Reasoned Analysis: Kitchener and King (1982), as cited in Ross (1989), explain this step as the ability to use evidence in supporting or evaluating a decision or position. Therefore, 'reflective teacher' can be defined as one who assesses the origins, purposes, and results of his or her work at all three levels.

Zeichner and Liston (1987) point out that since the practicum is concerned primarily with the growth and development of student teachers in teaching roles, the term reflective teaching is used to identify this central goal of the curriculum. Goodman (1989) points out that in recent years, many teacher educators advocate that teacher preparation programs and practices should be designed to help preservice teachers become more thoughtful and reflective. The assumptions behind these thoughts are first,

preservice teachers can be taught to become more reflective; second, reflective teachers will provide better educational experiences to the children. But this suggestion becomes a sharp contrast to the traditional teacher preparation curriculum that emphasizes instruction in technical teaching skills.

Goodman (1989) holds that although there are many materials concerned with reflective teaching, none of these books directly addresses any strategies that are specifically designed for use in teacher preparation. But, here Cruickshank's reflective teaching approach, as it has generated wide spread interest and has won support from scholars and from prominent organizations such as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the Association of Teacher Educators, Phi Delta Kappan and the Exxon ducation Foundation, is described with its critiques including both advantages and disadvantages. Cruickshank (1985) states that

> Reflective Teaching is used in introductory courses in preservice teacher education to introduce novices to the role of the teacher and to the tasks of teaching. It is generally used in methods courses, which focus on helping novices to gain knowledge of theory and then learn to apply this knowledge under controlled, laboratory conditions. ... and the leaders of seminars for student teachers use reflective teaching to provide common experiences that can lead student teachers to share and explore their own classroom experiences and to find out the deeper, personal meanings of teaching (p. 705).

Cruickshank, et al. (1981) as cited in Gore (1987), describe the aims of reflective teaching as follows:

1- to provide preservice teachers with a 'complete and controlled clinical teaching experience';

2- to provide an opportunity for students to consider the teaching event critically, analytically and objectively ;

3- to develop in students good habits of thought about teaching in order to become wiser as teachers.

Organization of Cruickshank's Model of Reflective Teaching

Students in a teacher education class are divided into small groups of four to six. All student teachers are then given an identical lesson to teach and they are allowed a few days to prepare for teaching to the small group (peers). There are 36 specially designed, 15-minute lessons which are included in the instructor's manual. In this manual the objectives, subject matter, materials and allowed time are defined and the teacher only decides how to teach the lesson within the specified guidelines.

Cruickshank and Applegate (1981), as quoted in Gore (1987), arge that the most distinctive feature of the reflective teaching approach is that the content of the lessons is relatively unique and not normally a part of academic subjects with which learners would be familiar. That is, lessons are content-free, such as the 'Origami task.' In this lesson the student teacher teaches how to make paper butterflies, and the learners make a butterfly from paper using the technique of origami. The teacher usually is not allowed to touch or fold a learner's paper. This

activity is said to be psychomotor learning and to rely on the demonstration skill of the teacher. The lessons in reflective teaching are classified according to the following: (a) cognitive, psychomotor, and affective domains of learning (b) types of teaching, describing, demonstrating and fostering attitude change.

Gore (1987) points out that all reflective teaching lessons must fulfill the following criteria:

1- Students must not be familiar with the content (content free). The reason for this is to enable the students to concentrate on the process of teaching.

2- After the lesson is taught, there must be an observable, measurable outcome to determine whether learning took place. Therefore, learners are required to do something visible; for example, they should be able to make paper butterflies.

3- Reflective teaching lessons must take at least 15 minutes. The rest of the 50 minutes class period is for reflection.

4- Reflective teaching lessons donot require additional materials. The prepared materials have to be used.

Immediately after each reflective teaching lesson, learner outcomes are determined using instruments provided with the lesson outline. The student teachers explain how and why they planned and taught the lesson as they did, and discuss the process variables which affect the act of peer learning. In the large group the students share teaching

methods, reflect on the different methods used and generate inferences relative to variables that appear to affect teaching, learning and satisfaction. The teacher educator's role is to coordinate and facilitate the reflective teaching process.

Strengths of Cruickshank's Model of Reflective Teaching

Cruickshank (1985) emphasizes that reflective teaching is real teaching; it is role taking not role playing. He claims that the students who participate in reflective teaching actually plan the lessons themselves, teach them and evaluate learning outcomes. The students also analyze the teaching and learning experience. As several student teachers teach the same reflective teaching lesson, they have the chance to discuss the differentiations they have followed during teaching. He also claims that reflective teaching allows the students to teach and at the same time encourage them to try out their personal teaching styles and learn about teaching by reflecting on their teaching behaviors and on student outcomes. Reflective teaching is an activity that takes place on the university campus. So there is no need to find off-campus teaching sites. Reflective teaching is 'cost-efficient.' That is, several preservice students can teach one after the other within a single clasroom. It also requires no special equipment except for an instructor's manual and the participant's guide. He also adds that reflective teaching provides a psychologically safe environment for the practice and study of teaching.

Participants receive generally no grade on their teaching performance, because emphasis is on enabling them to think about teaching.

McKee (1986), as cited in Killen (1989), points out that the use of 'content free' materials solves many problems which occur in peer teaching situations and forces the student teacher to select the most appropriate teaching method.

Smyth (1984), as cited in Gore (1987), points out that through experiences with reflective teaching, students might improve their ability to articulate their own knowledge and also begin to develop paradigms and frameworks which they lack. She also points out that the shared experiences provided by reflective teaching may develop trust and respect among students and as professionals.

Killen (1989) argues that by the use of content-free tasks in reflective teaching, the student teachers' feeling that their subject matter experience is being questioned can be prevented. He adds that in reflective teaching only their teaching is being questioned. He also points out that Cruickshank's approach to reflectivity is designed to help student teachers to develop skills and techniques that will enable them to facilitate tudent learning and at the same time to make the teachers life-long students of teaching.

Finally, Cruickshank (1985) claims that the use of unfamiliar subject matter might challenge the creativity of student teachers as they are unable to repeat the teaching

progressions learned during their years of schooling. It may also increase the enthusiasm of learners if they, first, learn the activity.

Weaknesses of Cruickshank's Model of Reflective Teaching

Gore (1987) makes criticisms about Cruickshank's reflective teaching and she draws some suggestions. she claims that

> in accepting a notion of content-free lessons, the assumption is that <u>how</u> one teaches can be separated from <u>what</u> one teaches. Content-free lessons may kill the enthusiasm, which is a major key to success in teaching, of students who have to spend time teaching or learning how to make paper butterflies when they attend higher education. Moreover, there are clear advantages to having students teach subject matter which is familiar to them. In this way, practicing teaching subject matter that relates to the school curriculum may be far more significant and meaningful to preservice teachers than teaching origami (p. 35-36).

She suggests that, reflective teaching lessons must not be content-free. And she adds that there are several alternatives, and it would be a good idea to allow the students to determine the content of reflective teaching. Gore also claims that such a limitation is also a contradiction to the attitude of open-mindness. A task such as making butterflies does not also develop a sense of responsibilty for student learning. Therefore, she says that Cruickshank's notion of reflective teaching is limited. Such kind of reflective teaching does not actively encourage students to question existing practices or to consider the whys.

Gore (1987) also criticizes Cruickshank's attention to role taking, not role playing. She points out that this claim is made because student teachers plan, teach, and assess lessons as a result of peers not being required to act as school children, as is often done in peer teaching. She adds that, although the student teacher plans, teaches and assesses, these all happen within a stationary guideline to a small group of peers. The nature of subject matter (content-free) may cause students to be flippant or cynical, or their efforts to comply with course requirements may cause them to feign interest. In either case, serious attempts to learn, based on curiosity and enthusiasm, are unlikely. Therefore she claims that for both students and teachers the element of role playing remains while the reflective teaching experience does not fit with the students' lived experiences of teaching and learning.

Other Models of the Practicum

Assisting

Richards (1987) points out that assisting is one of the training experiences in which the student teacher assists an experienced teacher in aspects of a class, such as using classroom aids or administering tests. And during this experience the student teacher becomes familiar with teaching as well as with the school environment.

McManama (1972) observes that the program of assisting in a preservice program should include the following: 1- examining the objectives; 2- considering the needs of students; and 3- understanding the school. He suggests the duties of the student teacher in assisting as follows:

a- assist with classroom management: observing students' behaviors, correcting minor problems, reporting the major problems to the teacher.

b- assist with classroom instruction: using classroom aids, administering tests, checking the tests, tutoring individual pupils, helping children who have been absent, supervise in dividualized programs.

Tutoring

McManama (1972) claims that "tutorial instruction is the oldest and most respected form of instruction known to man" (p. 118).

In some programs, tutoring is an activity in which a student teacher works as a tutor, for example, in a writing

lesson, to gain experience in the use of feedback techniques. This kind of tutoring activity is carefully structured and closely coordinated with classroom observation and teaching. Education experts point out that tutoring is not easy and an effective tutor is not necessarily an effective classroom teacher, nor is an effective classroom teacher always an effective tutor.

Tutoring can be defined as a training experience in the practicum in which the student teacher (tutor) helps one or more students develop some of their skills guided by the cooperating teacher's suggestions and the learner's needs. Greis (1984) claims that in a sense, tutoring is a preteaching activity to be distinguished from teaching in degree, rather than in kind.

Medway in Dunkin (1987) argues that "the success of formalized tutoring programs in public schools depends on administrative support, monitoring, and appropriate evaluation" (p. 245).

Observing

Allen and Ryan (1969) say that most of the preservice observation programs are based on the idea of learning by imitating model teachers.

Richards and Crookes (1988) point out that observation of experienced teachers, observation of sample lessons, and observations of peers are indirect learning experiences which are included in a practicum. And according to their survey

(1988), observation of experienced teachers is the third most common activity included in the practicum. They also explain that it is not surprising that observation occupies such a large section of time in the practicum, as it involves the most basic component of any form of training activity which is used to learn such a complex skill as teaching.

Observing is one of the indirect learning experiences which is conducted with four steps: a- briefing, in which the students are enlightened about the lesson and directed to search out certain things for observation and analysis. b- observation, c- discussion, d-analysis.

Richards and Crookes (1988) claim that to direct the student teachers to check out certain phenomena for observation and analysis is very important. The student teachers must focus on certain things and must be conscious of what they are looking for.

Merrill and Schuchman (1973) argue that observation without careful preparation and ending without a follow-up session does not help the student teachers effectively. Mills (1980), as cited in Richards and Crookes (1988), suggests the use of 'clinical observation' in training student teachers. Mills defines clinical observation as the "structured, intense, systematic, viewing and recording of significant information about classroom environments and events" (Richard and Crookes, 1988, p. 5). Richard and Crookes also point out that the student teacher needs necessary information about the activities happening in the

classroom, such as character of instruction, organization and management. They claim that there is no need to give all the information about the schedule, because this may lead to some confusion and misunderstandings in the student teacher's mind.

Summary

Throughout this chapter literature related to the practicum has been reviewed and the importance, benefits, options, and the central issues which must be taken into consideration while designing a practicum program have been reviewed. The activities and experiences included in the practicum component have also been thoroughly reviewed.

YOK's Regulations about the Practicum in Turkey

Here, it is necessary to give YOK's regulations about the practicum component for the ELT Bachelor's degree (23 August 1983), which is one month for the practicum under the heading of "practice teaching" during the second semester of the fourth year.

The next chapter explains the methodology followed to carry out this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to examine the current practices in regard to ELT practica in Turkey and to ascertain whether some suggestions for change or improvement might be profitably proposed. The aim of this study is to attract the attention of YOK program designers, university ELT department administrators, teacher trainers, and trainees to the ways the practicum can be effectively carried out and present them with evidence that the practicum in ELT in Turkey needs improvement.

The purpose of this chapter is to give detailed information about how this study was conducted. The chapter includes the following sections: introduction, explanation of the review of literature, development and implementation of the questionnaire, explanation of the analysis of the questionnaire, and explanation of the analysis of data.

EXPLANATION OF THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In order to construct this study with the available literature in English, various materials including pedagogical texts, current journals and encyclopedias from libraries in Ankara have been reviewed. While reviewing the professional literature for Chapter 2, I followed a general

to specific process. The chapter begins with the general idea of the practicum which includes definitions, options that experts hold for implementing the practicum, kinds of experiences and the central issues to be taken into consideration while designing a practicum program. Then most commonly mentioned activities in various sources included in the practicum component are reviewed thoroughly. The findings of the literature review were used as a basis for constructing the questionnaire (see Appendix B) to collect data on the current status of the practicum component in Turkish universities.

DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

I borrowed the concepts "goals," "organization," "operations," and "outcomes" from Bellon and Handler (1982) in order to guide my research. These concepts act as useful and relevant tools for analyzing educational programs. I used Richards and Crookes' survey (1988) which shows the nature of the practicum in 78 MA TESOL programs in the U.S. as a basis for the questionnaire. The reason for choosing this survey as a guide was, first, it directly deals with the practicum and second it is the most recent survey about the practicum I found. I borrowed some questions from Richards and Crookes' survey. Along with the questions from Richards and Crookes' survey, I prepared some additional questions. The questionnaire in its final form consisted of 13 questions.

I prepared letters (see Appendix A) for 14 people, the heads of ELT education faculties of 14 universities. I used the contact list of university officials from the Ankara office of United States Information Service for mailing the letters. I sent the letter and the questionnaire together with a self addressed-stamped envelope for the convenience of my respondents. After receiving only 10 responses, I prepared another letter (see Appendix C) and sent it together with the questionnaire to those who did not return the questionnaires. At the time of data processing I had received a return of 13.

ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Types of questions in the questionnaire are shown in Table 1.

Types of Questions	Number of Questions
rank ordering	4
multiple choice	3
yes/no questions	3
open-ended	3
Total:	13

Table 1: Number of Different Types of questions in the Questionnaire

As my study is a descriptive study of the practicum component in Turkey, the questionnaire emphasizes

organization over all other areas in order to describe the current status of the practicum component in Turkey. And also the concepts included in the organizational phase, such as resources, structure, and processes, suit my study to describe the nature of the practicum more than other areas.

The aims of these questions are shown in Table 2 below:

Kinds of Questions	Number of Kinds	Percent of Kinds
Goals	1	7.70
Organization	7	53.84
Operations	4	30.76
Outcomes	1	7.70
Total:	13	100.00

Table 2: Pecentage of Different Kinds of Questions in the Questionnaire

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The original data, which are presented and analyzed in chapter 4, were used to describe the current status of the practicum component in the ELT setting in Turkey. I presented the data according to frequencies and percentages. The results were compared and contrasted with the findings of the literature review and the analysis is based on the categories of goals, operations, organization, and outcomes.

The following chapter presents the data in tabular and textual form. The analysis follows the presentation of the data.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The data presented and analyzed here were obtained from the questionnaire (see Appendix B) that was mailed to 14 Turkish universities which had ELT departments in their educational faculties during the spring semester 1990. The questionnaire was addressed to the heads of the ELT departments and contained questions concerning the goals, operations, organization, and the outcomes of the practicum components of their teacher training programs. A total of 13 responses were received, a response rate of 92.85%.

The chapter is divided into two sections. In the first section, the responses to the questionnaire are presented question by question in tabular and textual form. The second section includes the analysis of the findings according to the goals, organization, operations and outcomes. The two sections together present a status study of the practicum in ELT university programs in Turkey.

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

Question: Respondents were asked whether they had a practicum component in their ELT training programs. All 13 of the respondents stated that they had a practicum course in their ELT training programs.

Question: Respondents were asked to indicate the length of the practicum, and during what year and what semester the practicum occurred in their programs. The results are shown in Table 3.

	Year				Semester	
Length in Semesters	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	1st	2nd
less than 1	–	–	–	2	–	2
1	–	–	–	10	1	9
2	–	–	–	1	1	1
more than 2	–	–	–	–	–	–

Table 3: Length and Scheduling of the Practicum Component

It is significant in the above table that the length of the practicum in most programs was one semester and in most programs it occurred in the second semester of the fourth year. None stated that the practicum was for more than two semesters and few stated that the practicum was less than one semester.

Question: Respondents were asked to rank eight objectives for the practicum course in their programs in the order of importance. As the data were processed, the most common responses to the rank ordering question were noted. The results are shown in Table 4.

Rank Order	Objectives
1	To provide opportunities to observe master teachers
2	To give feedback on teaching techniques
3	To develop ability to select/adapt materials
4	To become familiar with specific methods
5	To develop increased awareness of personal teaching styles
6	To develop lesson-planning skills
7	To apply instruction from theory learned
8	To provide practical experience in classroom teaching

(1= least important, 8= most important)

Table 4: Objectives for the Practicum Course in Order of Importance

The objectives reflect the approach or philosophy implicit in the programs. Therefore, a program directed toward the acquisition of specific skills or competencies, for example, may have different objectives from one that seeks to develop certain qualities in teachers.

Table 4 above indicates that the most important objective for the practicum course was to provide practical experience in classroom teaching. The rank orderings were derived from the modal assignments of ranks on the questionnaire made by respondents to each of the objectives. Whereas, to provide opportunities to observe master teachers was the least important objective as seen by the respondents.

Question: Respondents were asked to identify the location of the practicum experiences/activities. All of the respondents identified "field-based" (at schools with real

students) as the most frequent setting for the practicum course. The second most frequent setting for the practicum was the "campus-based" which might include peer teaching, microteaching in classrooms, campus laboratories or viewing sample lessons in video.

Question: Respondents were asked whether they used any kind of recording equipment (video, tape recorder) during the practicum. Eight universities (61.53%) responded that they did not use any kind of recording equipment during the practicum course. Three universities responded that they used tape-recorders, and two universities responded that they used video during the practicum course.

Question: Respondents were asked to identify five of the most important experiences included in the practicum course in their programs. The results can be seen in table 5.

Rank Order	Experience
1.5	student teaching (unsupervised)
1.5	individal conferences with supervisors
2.5	viewing of videotapes
2.5	peer teaching
3	observation of experienced teachers
4	viewing of live sample lessons
5	supervised student teaching

(1= least importance, 5= most importance)

Table 5: Experiences Included in the Practicum Course

The experiences provided for the novice teacher during the practicum can be classified according to whether they are direct, or first-hand, or whether they are indirect, or second-/third-hand. Direct experiences allow the student teachers to teach either to real students or to their peers. Indirect experiences involve watching someone else teach. Experiences cited in the questionnaire indicate that the practicum included both direct and indirect experiences in these programs.

Question: Respondents were asked to rank the forms of feedback on student teacher performance during the practicum in order of frequency of use. The results are shown in Table 6.

Rank Order	Form
1	observation of videotapes of a lesson
2	use of audiotapes of a lesson
3	conferences with supervisor/cocerating teacher
4	peer feedback
5	written reports

(1= least frequent, 5= most frequent)

Table 6: Forms of Feedback on Student Teacher Performance

The issue of the practicum course reflects an apprenticeship view of the process of teacher education. Whether it is field-based or campus-based experience, the novices are assigned to a master teacher or to a supervisor

and are expected to learn some of the master teacher's/supervisor's skills through observing, working with, and, in many cases, getting feedback about their performances. Table 6 indicates that the most frequent form of giving feedback on student teacher performance was giving written reports. Observation of videotapes of a lesson was the least frequent form of giving feedback on student teacher performance.

Question: Respondents were asked whether a director and staff are assigned specifically for the practicum in their program. Seven universities responded affirmatively, whereas six universities responded negatively.

Question: Respondents were asked what the criteria were for selecting supervisors for the practicum course. As Table 7 indicates the most common criteria for selecting supervisors for the practicum course were experience and background; whereas, the least common considerations were the personality of cadidates or whether they had had experience in teaching methodology courses

Number of Respondents to Item= 8	
Criteria	Percent
experience	87.50
background	87.50
effectiveness	37.50
availability	25.00
personality	12.50
teaching methodology	12.50

* Since more than one answer was possible these percentages do not total 100.

Table 7: Criteria for Selecting Supervisors

Question: Respondents were asked what the criteria were for selecting cooperating teachers. The results are shown in Table 8.

Number of Respondents to Item= 7	
Criteria	Percent
experience	57.14
availability	42.85
background	42.85
willingness	28.57
effectiveness	14.28
personality	14.28

* Since more than one answer was possible, these percentages do not total 100

Table 8: Criteria for Selecting Cooperating Teachers

Table 8 indicates that the most common criterion for selecting cooperating teaches was experience; it was the same in selecting supervisors. Availability and background are the next most frequently criteria, Willingness to participate in the practicum was the third most common criterion, followed finally by effectiveness and personality.

Items 9 and 10 on the questionnaire allowed respondents to enter more than one criterion for selecting supervisors and cooperating teachers. Table 9 attempts to cross tabulate the criteria for selecting both. Inasmuch as the number of responses exceded the number of respondents the total entries excedes the 13 cases of the study.

	Cooperating Teachers			
Supervisors	Exper-ience	Background	Effect-iveness	Total
Experience	4	3	1	7
Background	3	3	-	6
Effectiveness	2	1	1	4
Total:	8	7	2	

Table 9: A Cross Tabulation Between the Criteria for Selecting Supervisors and Cooperating Teachers.

Not surprisingly the respondents who have stated experience as the most importat criteria for selecting

supervisors most frequently also stated that experience was the most important criterion for selecting cooperating teachers. Similarly, effectiveness was the least important criterion for selecting both supervisors and cooperating teachers.

Question: Respondents were asked to identify the person/s responsible for the student teaching experience at their programs. Eleven universities (84.61%) responded that the responsibility was shared by the cooperating teacher and the supervisor; whereas, two universities responded that only the cooperating teacher was responsible for student teaching activity in their programs.

Question: Respondents were asked to identify the number of students assigned to a supervisor on average during the student teaching activity. The results are shown in Table 10. It indicates that the most common average of students assigned to a supervisor during the student teaching experience was beetwen five to ten; whereas, the least common average was beetwen 30 to 40.

Number of Students Assigned to a Supervisor	Number of Respondents	Percent
5-10	6	50.00
10-20	3	25.00
20-30	2	16.67
30-40	1	8.33
More than 40	–	–
Total:	12	

Table 10: Number of Students Assigned to a Supervisor

Question: Respondents were asked to write their suggestions in order to improve the practicum component of ELT programs in Turkey. The suggestions were rank ordered by frequency of occurence and are shown in Table 11.

Rank Order	Suggestions
1	the time for student teaching should be increased
2	length of the practicum should be increased
3	the need for more equipment
4.20	cooperating teachers must be selected carefully by the university staff
4.20	cooperation between university and the cooperating school
4.20	the number of students assigned to a supervisor should be reduced
4.20	supervisors should be trained better
4.20	faculties should have their own centers for he practicum

(1= most frequent, 4= least frequent)

Table 11: Suggestions for Improvement of the Practicum

The most frequent suggestion for the improvment of the practicum component in ELT programs in Turkey was increasing the time allowed for the student teaching experience. The second most frequent suggestion was increasing the length of the practicum.

ANALYSIS OF THE FINDINGS

Summary of the Presentation of the Data

All 13 of the respondents reported a practicum course in their ELT training programs. The length of the practicum was mostly one semester and mostly occured in the second term of the fourth year. The most important objective for the practicum course was to provide experience in classroom teaching. The most frequent setting for the practicum was field based and five universities responded that they used tape recorders or video during the experiences in the practicum. The most important experience included in the practicum was supervised student teaching and the most frequent way of giving feedback on student teacher performance was by giving written reports. Seven programs had a director or staff assigned specifically for the practicum. The most common criteria for selecting supervisors were experience and background, whereas, experience alone was the most common criterion for selecting cooperating teachers. The responsibility for the student teaching experience was mostly shared by supervisors and

cooperating teachers. The most common average of students assigned to a supervisor during the student teaching experience was between five to ten.

Discussion

Goals of the Practicum

Goals are closely related to philosophical assumptions, stating in declarative form the expected outcomes of educational programs. Therefore, respondents were asked to rank 8 objectives for the practicum course at their programs in the order of importance. The objectives stated for the practicum course reflect how the nature of teaching is viewed as well as how teacher development is thought to occur. The results indicated that the most important objective for the practicum was to provide practical experience in classroom teaching. This objective had the same rank in Richards and Crookes' survey (1988). The second most important objective of the practicum was to apply instruction from theory learned. The third most important objective of the practicum was to develop lesson-planning skills. Developing increased awareness of personal teaching styles was the fourth most important objective which shows that autonomous learning and development are important in these programs. It was followed by becoming familiar with specific methods, developing ability to select/adapt materials, to give feedback on teaching techniques, and to provide opportunities to observe master teachers.

Organization of the Practicum Course

Seven questions were asked to gather information about the organization of the practicum.

It is a pleasant surprise to me that the universities studied close to exceede the minimum quidelines proposed by YOK. The time alloted for the practicum is longer than the time alloted by YOK. (See Table 3).

Seven universities indicated that they had a director and staff assigned specifically for the practicum course as the sources I reviewed suggest; whereas, six universities responded that they did not have a director and staff assigned specifically for the practicum course. As additional information did not emerge from the data, we do not know whether the responsibilities, position descriptions, conditions of those people who were assigned specifically for the practicum course were in line with what experts say or not. The issue needs for further study.

The data indicated that the two most important criteria for selecting supervisors were experience and background. They are followed by effectiveness, availability, personality and being a methodology teacher. Although the respondents identified experience and background as the most important criteria to select supervisors, they also suggested that supervisors should be trained better in order to improve the practicum in Turkey. (See Table 11). Experience was also the most important criterion for selecting cooperating teachers.

Experience was followed by availability, background, willingness to participate, effectiveness and personality. Although the respondents identified the criteria for selecting cooperating teachers, they also indicated that cooperating teachers should be selected by university staff in order to improve the practicum in Turkey. Therefore there is a contradiction on this issue. But still this suggestion indicates that there was dissatisfaction in the procedure of selecting and on the performances of the cooperating teachers. And also the data indicated that effectiveness was not considered very important in selecting supervisors and cooperating teachers in these programs.

Eleven universities responded that the responsibility of the student teaching experience was shared by supervisors and the cooperating teacher as the experts suggest; whereas, in two universities the cooperating teacher assumed the main responsibility for the student teaching experience. But still this procedure is not very unusual. The experts inform us that there are some programs in which only cooperating teachers are responsible for the student teaching experience.

The data also indicated that the number of students assigned to a supervisor during the student teaching experience was split though a rationale for assignments did not emerge. Six programs indicated the number of students assigned to a supervisor was between five and ten, three programs indicated that number as between ten and 20, two programs indicated that it was between 20 and 30; whereas,

one program indicated that it was between 30 and 40 students. There are two possible reasons for assigning many students to a supervisor; one, population of the students in the program was too high, or, two, there was a lack of qualified or available supervisors. As further information did not emerge from the data the issue needs for further study. But the respondents suggested that the number of students assigned to a supervisor during the practicum should be reduced in order to improve the practicum in Turkey.

Operations of the Practicum Course

All of the respondents stated that they had a practicum course in their ELT training programs. They identified that the most important activity included in the practicum was supervised student teaching. It is not surprising that supervised student teaching got the highest rank in the order of importance. As it has been seen in the review of literature, student teaching is the last activity for the prospective teacher which provides "real life" experience to explore teaching methods and styles, to connect theory and practice, and to become familiar with teaching. On the other hand, the time allowed for student teaching should be increased got the highest rank in suggestions for imrovement of the practicum in Turkey. Therefore, there seems to be dissatisfaction with this time allotment. The data did not clarify the alloted time for student teaching, so the issue needs further study. The experts suggest that the time for

the student teaching should occupy half or at least a quarter of the whole practicum period.

The second most important activity included in the practicum was viewing of live sample lessons. But the importance of this activity is not in line with the importance of providing opportunities to observe master teachers in the rank order of objectives of the practicum. The reason for this contradiction is that providing opportunities to observe master teachers was the least important objective in the practicum course. Although viewing of sample lessons is included in the indirect activities, it is still very important as it includes the main components of any form of training activity which is used to learn such a complex skill as teaching. The questionnaire does not include, detailed information about how viewing of live sample lessons occurred in these programs. This issue also needs further study. The third most important activity included in the practicum was observation of experienced teachers and it was followed by peer teaching, microteaching, individual conferences with supervisors, and unsupervised student teaching.

In another question, respondents reported on facilities utilized in the practicum. Eight universities responded that they did not use any kind of recording equipment during the practicum course; whereas, five universities responded that they used video or audio recording during the practicum course (38.40). On the other

hand, the need for these facilities received the third highest rank in suggestions for improvement of the practicum course in Turkey.

Outcomes of the Practicum Course

The data indicated that use of written reports was the most frequent form of giving feedback on student teacher performance during the practicum experiences. This was the same in Richards and Crookes' survey (1988). Written reports were followed by peer feedback, use of audio tapes of a lesson and observation of videotapes of a lesson. But the data did not clarify the processes followed during these procedures, the issue needs further study.

The next chapter includes the recommendations and conclusions to the study.

CHAPTER 5

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The study is descriptive in that the practicum components of 14 university training programs were surveyed in order to find out the nature of the programs and the extent to which the programs are in line with what experts suggest for teacher training practica. To construct this thesis, various materials were reviewed from the libraries in Ankara in order to build a background for the study.

The findings of the literature review and the YOK regulations were used as a basis for constructing a questionnaire to collect data on current practices relating to the practicum component in Turkish universities. I used Richard and Crookes' survey (1988) which shows the nature of the practicum in 78 MA TESOL programs in the U.S. as a basis for the questionnaire. I borrowed the concepts "goals," "organization," "operation," and "outcomes" from Bellon and Handler (1982) in order to guide my research. The questionnaire was mailed to the heads of the English Language Teaching departments of faculties of education of fourteen universities.

The original data have been analyzed according to frequencies, percentages, and cross tabulation. The study is limited to English Languge Teaching in Teacher Education Faculties. The findings are valid for the situation only at

the time the questionnaire was administered, and the study is limited to the situation in Turkish Universities.

The results of the original data with the findings from the review of literature have been compared in order to draw some conclusions and offer some suggestions to YOK program designers, university ELT department administrators, teacher trainers, and trainees, and to attract their attentions to the practicum component in ELT setting in Turkey.

RECOMMENDATIONS

For the last 20 years the practicum or the clinical aspect of teacher preparation has become crucial. As it is reviewed in Chapter 2, the practicum courses reveal a wide variety of options for design and implementation. The issue is nearly the same in this survey. Comments and recommendations are made according to the phases explained in Chapters 3 and 4.

Goals

It is heartening to observe that on increase in agreement among goals is beginning to emerge in Turkey. (See Table 4). The goals/objectives for the practicum currently reflect the uncertain status of classroom teaching and practical experience in EFL teacher training programs. It is to be hoped that this trend will continue.

Organization

The length of the practicum course and its positioning within a program should be subjected to critical scrutiny to ensure that a maximum integration of theoretical and practical components has been achieved according to the goals of the program. The survey indicated that some respondents felt that length of the practicum should be increased. It is possible at this time for YOK program designers and university administrators to take this suggestion into consideration.

Practicum courses should include both campus-based and field-based experiences. This average should be well-balanced and what students are expected to learn (and how) from these exercises should be clearly identified.

Each program should have a director and staff assigned specifically for the practicum; otherwise, we cannot talk about professional teacher training. The programs should establish their own criteria for selecting supervisors and cooperating teachers. As has been reviewed in Chapter 2, there must be a very sound relationship among the agencies. There must be active response and commitment from each agency resulting in actions that provide perfection for the program to carry out the tasks. Provision should be made to ensure that the relationship among cooperating teacher, student teacher, and the supervisor is a cooperative one. The responsibility for the student teacher experience should be shared by the cooperating teacher and the supervisor. The

responsibilities of the cooperating teacher and the supervisor should be clearly established in the programs. The number of student teachers assigned to a supervisor during the student teaching experience should be reduced as much as possible in the programs. If the university supervisor does not directly participate in the student teaching experience, there would be no direction set for requirements, evaluation, or assesment of the student teacher's experience in public schools.

Operations

The practicum courses should include a mix of both direct and indirect activities. Activities, such as reflective teaching, microteaching, assisting, and tutoring, which are reviewed in chapter 2, should also be included in the practicum course. But careful attention should be paid to what students are expected to learn from each kind of experiences which are in line with the goals of the program. Necessary equipment, such as tape recorders and video recorders, should be supplied for the programs.

Outcomes

If the goals and the daily activities are clearly defined and agreed upon by all the people, and the responsibilities and the position descriptions of those people are clearly defined, and if there is a sound communication among the agencies, there should be no

deficiencies in the outcomes phase. The success of the practicu depends, therefore, on the kinds of communication established among agencies and the people involved in the practicum course.

Conclusions

As far as I was able to discern from my review of literature this study is the first one which directly deals with the practicum component in the ELT setting in Turkey. Therefore, as has been mentioned in previous chapters, the basic aims of this study were to determine current practices and to identify key issues and present evidence that the practicum component in the ELT setting in Turkey needs improvement. Another important aim of this study was establishing priorities for needed research.

A needs assessment survey including the needs of students would be very useful for improving the practicum component in the ELT setting in Turkey. We must not forget that Turkey is not the only country which neglects this issue, and we can benefit from the studies carried out in other countries in order not to face the same problems and waste time dealing with them again.

I hope that this study will attract the attention of related agencies and will serve those who are interested in this subject as a basis for further studis in order to improve the practicum component in ELT setting in Turkey.

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APPENDIX A

SAMPLE

March 27, 1990

Doc. Dr. Ahmet Cevik
Karma Universitesi Egitim Fakultesi
Ingiliz Dili Egitimi Anabilim Dali Bsk.
HARPUT

Dear Doc. Dr. Ahmet Cevik:

An English instructor at Erciyes University, I have taken leave from my duties for one year in order to study toward my MA in TEFL at Bilkent University.

For the last few years, a great deal of discussion has been on English teaching/learning and accordingly about English teachers. Any observer of the national scene today cannot fail to have noticed the ever-increasing number of statements, by people of different statuses, concerning the need for more effective English teachers.

Crucial to the development of effective English teachers, the Practicum is the main opportunity for the student teacher to acquire the practical skills and knowledge needed to function as an effective language teacher. My thesis is an attempt to examine the current practices in regard to ELT practica in Turkey.

In order to base my study on reliable sources, I am requesting the participation of administrators of various ELT programs in Turkey. Please answer each question on the enclosed questionnaire with a clear statement or phrase or just tick the appropriate space reflecting your observations, perceptions and impressions about the current ELT practicum program at your university.

Please kindly return the completed questionnaire to me by April 20. I have enclosed a stamped, self addressed envelope for your convenience.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mustafa Zulkuf Altan
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences
MA in TEFL

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE ANALYZING THE PRACTICUM COMPONENT OF ELT IN TURKEY

University:
Faculty Date:
Department:
Position:

1- Do you have a practicum component in your ELT training program? If your answer to this question is YES please continue.

——— YES ——— NO

2- a. What is the length of the practicum course?

——— less than one semester

——— 1 semester

——— 2 semesters

——— more than 2 semesters

b. During what semester do students experience the practicum in your program?

Tick in this column	and	Tick in this column
——— During 1st year		——— First semester
——— During 2nd year		——— Second semester
——— During 3rd year		
——— During 4th year		

3- Please rank the following 8 objectives for the practicum in order of importance in your program:
(1= least importance, 8= most importance)

—— to provide opportunities to observe master teachers

—— to become familiar with specific methods

—— to provide practical experience in classroom teaching

—— to develop increased awareness of personal teaching styles

—— to develop lesson-planning skills

—— to apply instruction from theory courses

—— to give feedback on teaching techniques

—— to develop ability to select/adapt materials

4- Please identify the setting/s where students do their practicum experiences with your program
(1= most frequently, 2= frequently, 3= rarely).

—— Campus based

—— Field based (at schools with real students)

—— Others (please explain)

5- Do you use any kind of recording equipment (video, audio) during the practicum?

—— YES —— NO

If yes, please identify them

6- Please identify the five most important activities included in the practicum of your program
(1= least importance, 5= most importance).

—— Workshops

—— Viewing of live sample lessons

—— Supervised Student teaching (at schools with real students)

—— Viewing of videotapes of participants'teaching

—— Microteaching (teaching situation which has been reduced in scope or simplified in some way)

—— Peer teaching (trainees teach their fellow students who are asked to role-play of school chidren)

—— Viewing of videotapes of example teaching

—— Seminars

—— Reflective teaching (trainees reflect on how theory fits into their own intuitive understandings and beliefs immediately after teaching)

—— Observation of experienced teachers

—— Individual conferences with supervisors

—— Student teaching (unsupervised)

7- Please rank the following forms of feedback on student teacher performance during the practicum in order of frequency of use in your program
(1= least frequent, 5= most frequent).

—— Use of audiotapes of a lesson

—— Peer feedback

—— Written reports

—— Conferences with supervisor/cooperating teacher

—— Observation of videotapes of a lesson

8- Are there a director and a staff assigned specifically for the practicum in your program?

—— Yes —— NO

9- What are the criteria for selecting supervisors for the practicum in your program? Please list them.

10- What are the criteria for selecting cooperating teachers? Please list them.

11- Who is responsible for the student teaching experience (at public schools with real students) at your program?

—— Shared by the cooperating teacher and the supervisor

—— Supervisor only

—— Cooperating teacher only

—— Other (please explain)

12- How many student teachers are assigned to a supervisor on average during the student teaching experience?

—— 5 to 10

—— 10 to 20

—— 20 to 30

—— 30 to 40

—— More than 40

13- What would you suggest in order to improve the practicum component of ELT in Turkey?

* I would be grateful if you could enclose handbooks, quidebooks or other materials which you might have on the practicum at your university.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

APPENDIX C

SAMPLE

May 4, 1990

Doc. Dr. Nafiz Altay
Karabal Universitesi
Egitim Fakultesi
Yabanci Diller Egitimi Blm. Bsk.
TEKIRDAG

Dear Doc. Dr. Nafiz Altay:

This letter is a follow up of my previous letter of March 27, in which I asked for your participation in my thesis research.

My study is an attempt to examine the current status of ELT practica in Turkey. In order to base my study on reliable sources, I have requested the participation of administrators of various ELT programs by sending a questionnaire to them.

Unfortunately, I have not received the questionnaire from you which reflects your observations, perceptions, and impressions about the current ELT practica program at your University.

I am sending another copy of this questionnaire to you and I would be grateful if you could return the completed questionnaire to me by May 15. I have enclosed a stamped, self adressed envelope for your convenience.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mustafa Zulkuf Altan
Institute of Economics and Social Sciences
MA in TEFL

RESUME

Born in Maden-Elazig in 1964, I completed my primary and secondary education there. I did my undergraduate studies in the Department of English Language Teaching at the Faculty of Education, Selcuk University in Konya and gratuated with my B.A. in 1985.

I worked as an English teacher at the Public Vocational Girl School in Develi-Kayseri for one year before accepting a post as an Instructor in the Foreign Languages Department of Erciyes University in Kayseri in 1988.

During the 1989-90 year I attended the MA in TEFL at Bilkent University.