The relationship between collaboration and professional development: Possible effects of EFL student teacher/supervising teacher dialogue on the beliefs and instructional practices of the EFL supervising teachers

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VITA

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between collaboration and professional development: Possible effects of EFL student teacher/supervising teacher dialogue on the beliefs and instructional practices of the EFL supervising teachers

by

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This study investigates whether a collaborative dialogue in addition to knowledge-transmission training between EFL student teachers and supervising teachers would contribute to the professional development of EFL teachers as opposed to only knowledge-transmission training. To answer this major research question the following subquestions were dealt with:

1. What is the nature of the collaborative dialogue between the supervising teachers and the student teachers?

2. Will there be a difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those who were additionally engaged in a collaborative dialogue based on an assistance-support form of sustained interaction with student teachers?

3. Will there be a difference between the public and private school teachers in terms of benefits in teachers' instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk after they have engaged in a collaborative dialogue in addition to a knowledge-transmission type of training, if so how?

4. What are the supervising teachers' and student teachers' attitudes toward participation in a collaborative dialogue as opposed to a knowledge-transmission type of training?

Forty English language teachers (twenty from private and twenty from public schools) and twenty student teachers from the Department of Foreign Language Teaching of Marmara University formed the target population of the study. Twenty of the English teachers were assigned to the experimental and the other twenty to the control group. Control group teachers were given a knowledge-transmission type of training about classroom skills, whereas experimental group teachers were additionally engaged in a collaborative dialogue based on an assistance-support form of sustained interaction with student teachers (combined treatment).

Quantitative data results obtained from classroom observations indicated that experimental group teachers in both the private and public schools showed statistically significant improvement in most of the teaching practices in comparison to control group teachers in both settings.

Moreover, the treatment changed the nature of the talk of the experimental group teachers at a significant level and this change affected student participation in class in a positive way. In relation to teacher talk, significant changes were seen in all aspects except in teachers' repetition skills. Regarding the nature of student talk, again the majority of the interactive practices showed significant change as a result of the treatment.

In addition, the results also indicated that the public and private school experimental group teachers which statistically differed from each

other in favor of the private school teachers in several teaching practices and in several aspects of teacher and student talk at the beginning of the study, equally benefited from the combined treatment.

Qualitative data results obtained from the semi-structured interviews with supervising teachers and journals kept by student teachers indicated that the student teachers and supervising teachers followed the pre-conference, observation and postconference cycle based on feedback and reflection. Moreover, they all agreed on the mutual benefits of the process to the professional development of the participants.

Hence, the results of the study indicated that supervising teacher/student teacher dialogue based on support and assistance can be utilized as an effective INSET program in both private and public schools.

KISA ÖZET

İşbirliği ile mesleki gelişim ilişkisi: Öğretmen adayı ile kurulacak işbirliği odaklı bir diyaloğun, uygulama öğretmenliği rolünü üstlenecek öğretmenlerin yabancı dil öğretimine ilişkin düşünceleri ve benimsemiş oldukları öğretim yöntemleri üzerindeki olası etkileri.

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, bilgi aktarımına dayalı bir eğitim programına ek olarak, öğretmen adayı ile kurulacak işbirliği odaklı bir diyaloğun, uygulama öğretmenliği rolünü üstlenecek öğretmenlerin işbirliğine yönelik düşünceleri ve benimsemiş oldukları öğretim yöntemleri üzerinde ne derece etkili olduğunu ve/ya olabileceğini araştırmaktır.

Çalışma aşağıdaki araştırma soruları üzerine temellendirilmiştir:

1. İngilizce uygulama öğretmenleri ile öğretmen adayları arasında kurulacak bilgi aktarımına dayalı bir eğitim programına ek olarak işbirliğine dayalı bir diyaloğun, uygulama öğretmenlerinin mesleki gelişimlerine katkısı var mıdır? Katkısı varsa, ne ölçüdedir?

a. Uygulama öğretmeni ile öğretmen adayı arasında kurulacak olan diyaloğun nitelikleri nelerdir?

b. Salt bilgi aktarımına dayalı, kısa süreli bir eğitim programına katılan İngilizce öğretmenleri ile bu eğitim programına ek olarak öğretmen adayları ile işbirliğine ve bilgi paylaşımına dayalı bir diyalog oluşturan öğretmenlerin sınıftaki öğretim davranışları, öğretmenlerin ve öğrencilerinin ikinci dili kullanma şekilleri arasında farklılık oluşacak mıdır? Oluşacaksa, bu farklılık ne ölçüde kendini gösterecektir?

c. Uygulama öğretmenleri / öğretmen adayları arasında kurulacak olan bu diyalog sonunda, devlet ve özel okullarda görev yapmakta olan öğretmenler arasında sınıftaki öğretim davranışları ve öğretmenlerin/öğrencilerin ikinci dili kullanış şekilleri açısından bir farklılık olacak mıdır? Olacaksa, farklılık ne ölçüde görülecektir?

d. Uygulama öğretmeni ve öğretmen adaylarının bu tür bir diyaloğa ilişkin benimsedikler tutumları nelerdir?

Bu çalışmaya, ikisi devlet ikisi özel olmak üzere dört orta dereceli okulda görev yapmakta olan kırk İngilizce öğretmeni ve Marmara Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı dördüncü sınıf öğrencileri arasından rasgele seçilen yirmi öğretmen adayı katılmış ve bu gruplardan, iki deney, iki kontrol grubu oluşturulmuştur. Kontrol grubundaki öğretmenler, sadece bilgi aktarımına dayalı bir eğitim programı alırken, deney grubundaki öğretmenler bu programa ek olarak, öğretmen adayı ile kurulan işbirliği odaklı bir diyalogda yer almışlardır (ikili iyileştirme yöntemi).

Sınıf-içi gözlemler sonucu elde edilen veriler, devlet okulları ve özel okullarda görev yapan kontrol grubu öğretmenleriyle karşılaştırıldığında, deney grubu öğretmenlerinin öğretim uygulamalarında istatistiksel olarak önemli ölçüde iyileşme oldğunu göstermiştir. Araştırmanın sonunda, deney grubundaki öğretmenlerin, öğretim davranışlarını ve sınıfta ikinci dili kullanma şekillerini kontrol gruptaki öğretmenlere oranla daha çok geliştirdikleri saptanmıştır. Bunun yanısıra, deney grubundaki öğretmenlerin ve bu öğretmenlerin sınıflarındaki öğrencilerin ikinci dili kullanımı değişmiş ve daha iletişim odaklı olduğu gözlenmiştir.

Buna ek olarak, çalışmanın sonucunda elde edilen veriler, özel okullarda görev yapan deney grubu öğretmenleriyle, devlet okullarında görev yapan aynı grup öğretmenlerinin, ikili iyileştime yönteminden eşit olarak yararlandıklarını ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Deney gruptaki öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen adaylarının diyalogla ilgili sözel anlatımları ve öğretmen adaylarının uygulama boyunca tuttukları günlükler, çalışma sürecinde gruplar arasında gözlem öncesi ve sonrası karşılıklı iletşim odaklı konuşmaların yapıldığını göstermiştir. Bunun yanısıra, her iki grubun da bu diyaloğa ilişkin olumlu tutumlar benimsedikleri, işbirliği ve desteğe dayalı bu diyalogtan mesleki açıdan yararlandıkları ortaya çıkmıştır.

Sonuç olarak, öğretmen adayı ile kurulan işbirliği odaklı bu diyaloğun, devlet ve özel okul İngilizce öğretmenlerine etkin bir hizmet içi eğitim programı olarak sunulmasının yararlı olabileceği kanıtlanmıştır.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study

As learning to teach is a complex, variable and on-going process, teachers mostly continue to learn about teaching and learning throughout their professional lives (Freeman, 1992; Freeman & Richards, 1993). Frequently, in many countries today, teachers, following their initial professional certification, engage in in-service teacher education and training (hereafter INSET) to update and improve their professional knowledge and reconsider and evaluate their teaching skills and attitudes towards teaching (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Myers, 1993). In-service teacher education can address training and/or the development needs of teachers. The training orientation of INSET is characterized by objectives that are defined by a deficit in teaching skills, curricular knowledge or some other areas of expertise (Freeman, 1989; Roberts, 1998) and can be associated with the concept of the teacher as employee, which implies that the employer controls the teacher's learning (Kennedy, 1995).

On the other hand, the development orientation of INSET implies more divergent objectives, which allow for teachers' individual differences and which are determined by teachers' sense of their own learning (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Roberts, 1998; Shulman, 1988; Williams & Burden, 1997).

An overall picture of the current INSET practices reveals the training oriented off-site and school-based courses as the dominant INSET models (Hayes, 1997; Richards, 1998). In the off-site INSET course, teachers from a number of schools typically come together for varying lengths of time for a training course ranging from short courses of one day or less to longer ones. The school-based INSET courses are provided within the school and the target is the teaching staff in the school. In both models, knowledge is transmitted usually by an outside 'expert' (Craft, 1996).

Although these programs are very popular among teachers, a close look at the content of current INSET practices reveals the following picture: to begin with, off-site or school-based INSET courses catering to the training needs of the teachers are intensive by nature; thus, providers overprepare or overload content and this leads to 'one-way' interaction; secondly, the school-based in-service courses are generally limited to the immediate problems of the teachers at a specific school (Cullan, 1997; Lamb, 1995) and finally, follow up studies are lacking and the courses are mostly delivered with no attempt to support teachers in implementation. Therefore, the providers have little opportunity to discover the longer-term effects of their work (Smylie, 1988).

An analysis of research done in the field indicates that there have been few impact studies done on the effects of these courses on the teachers involved and the results of these studies have revealed the fact that the professional aims of the courses are not usually fulfilled (Breen, Candlin, Dam & Gabrielsen, 1989; Cullan, 1997; Lamb, 1995). Freeman (1992)

claims that "models of teacher education which depend on knowledge-transmission or input-output models of teacher education are essentially ineffective" (p. 19). This is because they depend on received knowledge to influence behavior and do not allow teacher-learners to construct their own versions of teaching.

On the other hand, the INSET courses based on the development approach provide the teachers with opportunities to assimilate the ideas presented to them, fitting them into their existing personal beliefs based on prior experience (Roberts, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). This tendency to assimilate input indicates the need to uncover teachers' implicit beliefs in order to make them available for a collaborative review (Liston & Zeichner, 1990; Schön, 1987; Wallace, 1991).

1.2. Statement of the problem

A preliminary study carried out by the researcher about the INSET activities engaged in by Turkish EFL teachers revealed a profile similar to the one mentioned above; the off-site and the school-based models, both of which are of the training-oriented and knowledge-transmission type, are the dominant INSET models. The off-site courses are government-sponsored and organized by the Ministry of Education with the help of the British Council and are offered at different times of the year in different parts of the country. The aims and content of the course are determined by project personnel and school administrators and are based on the perceived shortcomings and weaknesses of English teachers. As the courses usually

involve large and undifferentiated groups of teachers, they usually fail to address the differential needs of the teacher trainees. Courses based on the school-based model are provided within schools by an outside 'expert' who works for a private institution and who is supposed to transmit knowledge about a specific topic which is usually determined by the head of the department in relation to the needs of the teachers. To the best knowledge of the researcher, follow-up support in the use of ideas and practices presented in the INSET course is not widely provided in the field of TEFL in Turkey or abroad and evaluation studies of the course assessing its impact on teachers are rarely carried out.

According to the constructivists (Alcove & Mc Carty, 1992; Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Kolb, 1984), knowledge-transmission type of INSET activities based on positivist approach seem to lack the two major conditions leading to a teacher's development: (1) the necessity to relate all new learning to teachers' prior practices and beliefs; (2) the encouragement of reflection (Bell & Gilbert, 1994). However, it is argued that teachers would benefit more from INSET activities in which they are provided with opportunities to recognize and reflect on their implicit knowledge (Knezevic & Scholl, 1996). One way to achieve this aim is to encourage the teachers to take part in collaborative dialogues, which is believed to be central to teacher learning (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Traditionally, student teachers have been frequently perceived as apprentices and too often, student teachers regard the role of their supervising teachers as evaluators of their performance rather than support

providers. Again traditionally, many supervising teachers who lack the necessary training to fulfill the requirements of their supervisory role, undermine the knowledge of student teachers and often are determined to demonstrate that their way is the best way to teach. However, it has been argued that active involvement in inquiry-oriented activities and reflective reasoning on meaningful problems or cases not only stimulate the performance improvement but also lead to a professional attitude of continual learning (Eraut, 1994; Knezevic & Scholl, 1996; Tilemma & Knol,1997; Tomlinson, 1995).

In line with these views, a recent project was carried out by YÖK ("Higher Education Council") and the World Bank within the framework of a major project aiming at the improvement of the faculties of education in some Turkish universities. As part of this project, a model of faculty-school partnership was developed and according to this model, the traditional roles of supervising teachers are expected to change. Here again the main concern, however, is how student teachers can benefit from supervising teachers in their practice teaching period. That is, there is not much focus on the reciprocity of the relationship between the supervising teacher and the student teachers.

Although numerous studies have focused on the roles of teachers in experienced/novice teacher, student teacher/supervising teacher dialogues and the effects of these on novice or student teachers (Bailey,1990; Kapuscinski, 1997, Shantz, 1995; Zeichner & Liston, 1987), to the knowledge of the researcher very few studies have been carried out to

examine and explore the possible effects of supervising teacher/student teacher collaborative dialogue on the supervising teacher's development and instructional practices (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Hamlin, 1997; Kiraz, 1997). Moreover, these studies were done in the ESL, not in the EFL context, and were based on a qualitative design focusing only on the oral protocols of the supervising teachers.

Considering the intensive workload of the EFL teachers in the schools, it is not surprising that there is not much opportunity for teachers to be involved in professional development activities. Given these conditions, the supervising teacher/student teacher dialogue could be utilized as one means to achieve this end.

1.3. Purpose of the study

One major research question guided this study:

Would a collaborative dialogue in addition to knowledge-transmission training between EFL student teachers and supervising teachers contribute to the professional development of EFL teachers as opposed to only knowledge-transmission training?

Subquestions:

1. What is the nature of the collaborative dialogue between the supervising teachers and the student teachers?

2. Will there be a difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those

who were additionally engaged in a collaborative dialogue based on an assistance-support form of sustained interaction with student teachers?

3. Will there be a difference between the public and private school teachers in terms of benefits in teachers' instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk after they have engaged in a collaborative dialogue in addition to a knowledge-transmission type of training, if so how?

4. What are the supervising teachers' and student teachers' attitudes toward participation in a collaborative dialogue as opposed to a knowledge-transmission type of training?

1.4. Significance of the study

The study is expected to (a) help teachers, who because of their hurried schedules cannot find the opportunity to follow INSET practices, to use the student-teacher collaborative dialogue as an opportunity for professional development; (b) help EFL teachers modify traditional views of supervision; (c) help student teachers become familiar with the practice of collaboration with supervising teachers and its benefits; (d) guide future studies on the same topic; (e) contribute to the modification of the roles of the supervising teachers as part of the project model of faculty-school partnership developed by YÖK and the World Bank.

1.5. Overview of methodology

To attain these aims, out of the 24 schools which had contact with Marmara University and which agreed to take part in this study (only 6), two

private schools with almost similar profile and two public schools again with almost similar profile were chosen. The following criteria determined the choice of the schools: (a) number of students, (b) number of English teachers, (c) similar entrance requirements, (d) similar English programs, in terms of the English hours and English course books being used, based on information gathered from preliminary interviews with the principals of the schools and the heads of the departments. The English teachers in these schools were given a questionnaire tapping information about their teaching experience, educational background and supervisory teaching experience. As a result, forty English language teachers (twenty from private and twenty from public schools), were selected based the following criteria, (a) they were all non-native teachers, (b) they were all main-course teachers, (c) all of them had BA degrees from English Language Teaching departments, (d) they all had at least 2 years of experience as supervising teachers. Twenty of the teachers, five from each school, volunteered to be in the experimental group and the other twenty were assigned to the control group.

The student teachers were chosen randomly from the 4th year students enrolled in the Department of Foreign Language Teaching of Marmara University. The researcher is the university supervisor and carried out the training procedures of the study.

Teachers in both the experimental and control groups were given a knowledge-transmission type of training about classroom skills and activities necessary to increase meaningful communication and to encourage the

active use of English in class. The content of this training program was determined as a result of interviews with the heads of the English departments to investigate the needs of the teachers and the researcher's perceived shortcomings of the program based on observations and discussions with teachers and students in the schools. This training was also given to the student teachers to revise their knowledge on instructional practices.

The second type of training related to collaborative dialogue was given only to the teachers in the experimental group and to student teachers participating in the dialogue. In this training, the parties involved were informed about the requirements of their roles in a collaborative dialogue within the framework of a supervision/feedback cycle. This training focused on the following steps: planning/pre-observation, lesson enactment/ observation, feedback and reflection. The training also included such areas as discussion of the orientation period, agreement on special objectives to focus on during class observation, pre- and postconferences and role play activities. In short, the objective of these training sessions was that during the practicum, the student teachers and supervising teachers observe each other and engage in a collaborative dialogue while discussing the classroom techniques and procedures of improving meaningful interaction in the classroom. Another purpose of this training was to help the experimental group teachers review the content of the knowledge-transmission type of training.

Data for this study came from (a) classroom observations of the experimental and control groups by the researcher; (b) tape-recordings of the classes observed; (c) the researcher's field notes; (d) student teacher's journals; (e) semi-structured interviews with student teachers and supervising teachers. The primary purpose of using different data collection sources was to triangulate the information to validate its accuracy and adequacy.

To see if there was a difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training (control groups) and those who were additionally engaged in a student teacher-supervising teacher collaborative dialogue (experimental groups), four lessons of each teacher in both control and experimental groups were analyzed by means of an observation form adapted from Cullan (1997) and Nunan (1989).

In order to triangulate the data coming from the observation form and to see whether there was a difference between the above mentioned groups in terms of the nature of teacher and student talk, the tape-recorded lessons were transcribed and analyzed by means of the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching scheme (COLT) developed by Fröhlich, Allen and Spada (1985).

To see whether there was a difference between the experimental groups of the private and public schools in terms of the teachers' instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk, the above mentioned analyses were repeated.

Data coming from the semi-structured interviews and student teacher journals were used to investigate the nature of the collaborative dialogue and the attitudes of the supervising teachers and student teachers towards this dialogue.

The test for differences between the two independent populations was applied to the data coming from the classroom observations to see if there was a significant difference between the control and experimental groups and between the experimental groups of the public and private schools in terms of their teaching practices and the nature of teacher and student talk. The significance level was set at .05. Data coming from the interviews and journals were used to analyze the nature of the collaborative dialogue, student teachers' and supervising teachers' attitudes towards this dialogue and to cross-validate the results of the analyses of teachers' observed lessons.

1. 6. Hypothesis

The hypotheses of the study were as follows:

1) There will be a statistically significant difference between the teachers who take only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those who are additionally engaged in collaborative dialogue in terms of the teachers' instructional practices, the nature of teacher and student talk in favor of the latter group.

2) The student teachers and supervising teachers will feel that they benefit from taking part in this dialogue.

3) There will be a difference between the public and private school teachers in terms of benefits in some of the teachers' instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk after they have engaged in a collaborative dialogue in addition to a knowledge-transmission type of training, in favor of the private school teachers.

1.7. Assumptions and limitations

When conducting this study, the researcher had real difficulties in finding schools in which to carry out the study. Either the school owners or the heads of the English departments rejected the project because of the observation and tape-recording part of the study. In some schools, the heads thought that their teachers did not need any kind of training at all. Moreover, the researcher was trying to find schools where the English teachers were not working with student teachers from other universities at the same time. These factors limited the range of schools to a great extent. Therefore, the limited sample of data from these schools and one university may not have been necessarily representative of any larger population of supervising teachers and student teachers.

1.8. Operational definitions

Student teacher/pre-service teacher: A university student who participates in a teacher-preparation program to practice and learn the methodology and skills of teaching.

Cooperating teacher/supervising teacher/mentor: A school classroom teacher whose role is to work directly with student teachers.

Student teaching period/practicum: The period of time the student teacher spends in the school under the supervision of the cooperating teacher to learn, develop and practice teaching skills.

University supervisor/researcher. Employed by the university, responsible for providing support to the students and evaluate their practicum. In this study the university supervisor is the researcher of the study at the same time.

1.9. The organization of chapters

This dissertation consists of five chapters. In Chapter I, a brief background of the study is presented; the aim, overview of methodology, hypothesis, assumptions and limitations and operational definitions are also included here.

Chapter II presents a review of the literature in terms of the following basic components; (a) theories of teacher learning and implications for teacher education, (b) the theoretical framework of in-service teacher education, (c) current provision of in-service EFL teacher education courses abroad and in Turkey; (d) supervising teachers' and student teachers' dialogue abroad and in Turkey.

Chapter III presents the methodology of the study; the research design, a detailed description of the subjects, the treatment, methods of data collection and data analysis of the study.

Chapter IV presents the findings of the study;

Finally, Chapter V provides a discussion of the findings and their implications for in-service teacher development and student teacher-supervising teacher roles in EFL teacher education abroad and EFL teacher education in Turkey.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1. Presentation

Teacher education, curriculum development, program design research, professional standards and policy making all reflect implicitly held views of what teaching is and how it should be done (Freeman & Richards,1993; Pennington, 1990). This question, related to the nature of teaching, resolves itself into different perceptions of teaching and teacher knowledge and mainly involves issues like how teacher's knowledge is obtained and how it guides teachers' actions. The views related to the nature of teaching are based on learning theories derived from two opposing paradigms of knowledge; the positivist ('knowledge-centered') and phenomenological ('person-centered') paradigms (Roberts, 1998). In the next section, these two paradigms of knowledge will be dealt with in detail as they underlie the basic concerns in the design of pre-service and in-service teacher education programs.

2.2. Theories of learning and teacher education

2.2.1. The positivist paradigm

In terms of human learning, behavioristic psychology is the classic example of the positivist approach to getting knowledge about human behavior (Beyer, 1988; Stern, 1983; Williams & Burden, 1997). From this

perspective, all social behavior is seen as determined by some features of the context external to the person (Roberts, 1998) and it is believed that human problems can be treated in merely technical terms and resolved by using general scientific truths (Roberts, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). Thus, the importance of the sense that learners themselves seek to make of their worlds and the mental processes that they bring to the tasks is denied (Beyer, 1988; Roberts, 1997; Williams & Burden, 1997; Woolfolk, 1998)

The positivist view values knowledge which is objective and from which generalizations can be made. Such knowledge is most likely to be transmitted from outside because 'it is the property of the researchers, academics and experts' (Roberts, 1998, p. 113). In other words, it is believed to be external to and independent of the personal knowing of individuals. In this view, knowledge is abstracted from experience and these abstractions become a body of knowledge separate from individuals and take on the appearance of being certain, static and objective (Olson, 1997; Stern, 1983).

Based on these ideas, a positivist approach in teacher education is represented by curricula which assume that the presentation of generalized knowledge about teaching is an adequate form of professional preparation and which view "practical knowledge of anything as simply a matter of relating the most appropriate means to whatever objectives have been decided on" (Wallace, 1991, p. 8). In other words, a teacher education course based on positivistic principles will define teaching competence as an inventory of discrete behavioral skills. Classical micro teaching,

competency-based teacher education and the traditional apprenticeship approach are directly based on this view.

In the classical micro teaching program a single model of a target behavior is presented and student teachers' behaviors are then shaped to match it by means of observation, imitation and reinforcement by feedback. It is believed that through successive approximations and corresponding reinforcements, the intern's teaching behavior gradually achieves acceptable standards (Wallace, 1991, p. 93). Thus, learners are presented a list of teaching skills but no rationale or research evidence to justify the focus on these particular skills are given along with these (Roberts, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997).

The notion of teacher competencies originated in the definition of behavioral skills and in this kind of education objectives are clearly defined and measurable. Competency-based teacher education is an essentially objective-driven approach to teacher education characterized by its reliance on objectives specified in advance and known to the learner (Wallace,1991).

Craft/apprenticeship-based teacher education shares the view of teaching as essentially imitative in process and model-based in content. In this model the student-teacher works alongside a master teacher in school and follows her/his instructions, advice and personal example as does an apprentice with a master craftsman. The apprenticeship approach values imitation of model behavior, mastery of essential skills and acceptance of routine procedures as the basis of action and the novice is expected to learn from the experts who have more experience. In this version experience is

seen as a body of practical knowledge which can be transmitted to others to be practiced.

As can be seen, all these models underlie the assumption that learning is model-based, that knowledge made by natural science is most likely transmitted and that human problems can be treated in technical terms and resolved by using general scientific truths. Hence, the practical use of the transmitted knowledge was not questioned.

2.2.2. Phenomenological paradigm

Phenomenology is one of the schools of thought which questioned the claims of the positivists (Tellez, 1996). Phenomenology, as articulated by Husserl in 1962 (cited in Tellez, 1996), maintained that each individual's experience is crucial to understanding the nature of reality, crucial to understanding consciousness and therefore central to understanding learning. Since then, teacher education has undergone a transformation which could be described as a movement away from positivistic approaches with their emphasis on external evidence of learning and observable learning 'objectives', to phenomenological approaches to learning, where individuals' experiences are viewed as central to understanding learning and teaching (Tellez, 1996). According to the phenomenological experience, concepts are meaning units forged by the mind in its experience of things (ibid.).

In contrast to a positivist view of reality, phenomenologists assert that the subjective is vitally important (Williams & Burden, 1997) and they are

"concerned with understanding conscious experiences, personal meaning and the experience of what it is to be human, rather than explaining behaviors through general laws" (Roth, 1990 quoted in Roberts, 1998).

2.2.2.1. Humanistic theory

Humanistic and constructivist theories are within the phenomenological tradition, because they embrace the "individuality, awareness and self-determination of people" (Roth, 1990 quoted in Roberts, 1998). The essence of humanistic theory is the notion of 'self-agency', the self determining power of persons.

For Moskowitz (1978), there seem to be two major emphases of humanistic theory. First , it is concerned with educating the whole person, i.e., both the intellectual and the emotional dimensions are focused on. Secondly, it emphasizes bringing out the uniqueness of each individual. According to Moskowitz, "to be self-actualizing is to function to one's fullest capacity" (p. 12). Thus, humanistic theory emphasizes the value of every single individual, e.g. the importance of feelings, open communication, the inner world and the autonomy of the learner (Stevick, 1990; Williams & Burden, 1997). It argues that learning must be internally determined, rather than externally controlled as in model-based approaches to education.

2.2.2.1.1. Humanistic theory and teacher education

Humanistic theory views positive teacher-learner relationships as necessarily cooperative, with the teacher serving to facilitate development

and not to control. In this view, the teacher's role is to support the self-determining learner in a process of joint implementation and review, and not only to transmit knowledge and control the development of the learners (Williams & Burden, 1997; Woolfolk, 1998).

The effects of the humanistic view on teacher education can be seen in features like recognition of the teachers' personal autonomy within the school system, partnership relationships between supervising teachers and student teachers, a recognition of the emotional dimension to personal change and therefore, of teachers' needs for support (Rudduck, 1988; Shaw-Baker, 1995). Moreover, the humanistic perspective complemented conventional teacher education syllabuses by highlighting the need for skills which enable self-directed development. These include, for example, self-assessment and working effectively in groups (Gebhard, 1990; Woodward, 1991).

2.2. 2.2. Constructivist theory

Constructivist models of human thinking originated from Piaget's work on child development, according to which individuals are actively involved right from birth in constructing a personal meaning, their own personal understanding, from their experiences (Youniss & Damon, 1992; Williams & Burden, 1997). Piaget's fundamental insight was that individuals construct their own understanding and that learning is a constructive process occurring in stages (Oxford, 1997b; Sutherland, 1992; Vadeboncoeur, 1997).

Sharing the humanistic views in regard to the importance of the individual, the core principle of constructivist views to learning is that people "will make their own sense of the ideas .....with which they are presented in ways that are personal to them ... (and that)... each individual constructs his or her own reality" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 2). In this way the learner is brought into central focus in learning theory and the learner's prior knowledge is considered to be critical to the learning process, something which positivism ignored or downplayed considerably.

2.2. 2.2.1. Constructivism and teacher education

Unlike the positivist view, where teaching is considered to be a kind of simple delivery, constructivists realize that teachers' personal ideas must be accounted for in any view of teaching or the education of teachers. Kolb's experiential learning theory, based on constructivist ideas of learning, offers valuable insights for teacher education. Kolb (1984) defines learning as the "process where knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p. 38). Learning is thus seen as a continuous process where knowledge is "created and recreated".

Alkove and McCarty (1992) articulate the implications of a constructivist perspective in developing a conceptual framework for teacher preparation:

> The idea of professionalism found in the constructivist program asserts that education must present the learner with relevant problematic situations in which the learners can experiment, that is,

manipulate objects to see what happens, question what is already known and compare findings and assumptions with those of others and search for their own answers. (p. 21)

In the context of pre-service teacher education, Freeman (1992) indicates that learners "enter formal teacher education with a fund of experience or schema about teaching" which they derive from their 'apprenticeship of observation' (Lortie, 1975 quoted in Freeman, 1992), i.e. as students, from their experiences with schools and schooling. This 'apprenticeship' equips them with conceptions of what teaching is and how teachers behave which, in turn, "furnish de facto explanations of practice - ways of thinking about and understanding teaching and teachers' roles (Freeman, 1992, p. 13).

In the context of experienced teachers' learning, the constructivist view suggests that teachers' perceptions and beliefs are progressively reinforced by their teaching experience, becoming increasingly central to their view of themselves and having a powerful effect on their learning. Thus, teacher development as learning by teachers needs to take into account the existing knowledge, experiences, opinions and values of the teachers (Bell & Gilbert, 1994), rather than treating them as tabula rasa because teachers, like other learners interpret new content with their existing ideas (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Freeman, 1992; Oxford, 1997b). That is, they "reinterpret new

ideas on the basis of their built up theories[1] over years of actual experience in the classroom" (Wright, 1990, p. 2). For this reason, it is not easy for the teachers to show tangible changes involving their skills, knowledge and attitudes after attending education programs, which depend on knowledge-transmission. According to Rudduck (1988) "the coherence of an existing set of norms is not easy to displace, and it would be unrealistic to expect that new ideas alone, however exciting they may seem during the course, will be sufficient to carry the would-be innovator through into radically new modes of action" (p. 203).

In the learning cycle suggested by the constructivist view, teachers filter new information according to their expectations and existing knowledge. Then they construct the meaning of the input and match it with their prior internal representations relevant to the input. This match confirms or disconfirms existing representations (Roberts, 1998). As can be seen, teachers need time and support to test and compare their existing knowledge with the incoming knowledge in their particular teaching context. According to the constructivist view, the educator's role is to facilitate the cognitive alteration necessary for learning through designing tasks and questions that create dilemmas for teachers and that make them reflect on their own experiences, thus uncovering their implicit beliefs related to teaching (Bell & Gilbert, 1994; Richardson, 1997; Wallace & Woolger, 1991). Only in doing so, will it be possible for the educators to understand

[1] In the field, various terms have been used to refer to the term 'belief': pedagogical thoughts (Shavelson & Stern, 1981), personal philosophies (Burns, 1996), theoretical belief (Kinzer, 1988; Smith, 1996) and theoretical orientation (Kinzer, 1988). The term 'theory' employed by Wright (1990) above is a term to denote the term 'belief'.

what the learner/teacher does with the knowledge and to help him through the process of implementation (Bell & Gilbert, 1996). This view leads to a key feature in teacher education, namely reflective practice.

2.2. 2.3. The concept of reflection in teacher education

As discussed in the previous section, reflection is a major concept in teacher education and it draws on the work of Dewey (1933,1991). Dewey presents a picture of people undertaking most of their lives in a routinized way. The grounds for their action are based on tradition, instruction and imitation. By contrast, reflective action, according to Dewey, is fundamentally different in character from routine action, in that it involves the active and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it. Dewey's idea of reflective thinking suggests that one should be able to solve problems one encounters by using his/her past experiences. Identifying a problem, making the necessary observations to solve the problem, organizing possible solutions, and experimenting with the alternatives are the steps which make up the reflective thinking process. Dewey's idea that reflection is something special and different from everyday routine action led him to conclude that reflection demands special skills and personal qualities on the part of the individual, e.g. develop the skills of keen observation, reasoning and analysis.

Influenced by this line of inquiry, Schön (1987) distinguishes two forms of reflection - what he describes as 'reflection-*in*-action' and 'reflection-*on*-action'. Reflection-*in*-action occurs when a practitioner faces an

unknown situation. In these circumstances, the experienced practitioner is able to bring certain aspects of his work to the level of consciousness and to reflect on it and reshape it without interrupting the flow. Talking about what we are doing after the event is a different process which Schön calls reflection-on-action and it is something that many professionals find it difficult to do. This is because, Schön asserts, it is an attempt to put into language a kind of intelligence that is tacit and spontaneous (Schön, 1987, p. 25).

For Schön, reflection-*on*-action is a key process in learning a professional activity like teaching. While Schön's 'reflection-*on*-action' is no different from Dewey's notion of reflective thinking, the notion of 'reflection-*in*-action' is of dubious relevance to teaching. Experience suggests that one's questioning his/her assumptions takes time and teachers need some 'time out' away from the classroom to do it (Roberts, 1998). Schön contends that each individual's knowledge is mainly tacit and implied by the ways in which s/he acts. In the context of teaching, Schön believes that by constantly generating questions and checking the emerging beliefs with personal past experience, i.e. reflection-on-action, teachers can bring the ways in which they are 'framing' teaching situations to the level of consciousness. In trying to make the implicit knowledge explicit, they progressively gain or improve control of their own teaching.

Schön's (1987) view of professional expertise has two general implications for teacher education: one is that reflection is inherently educative and enables further self-development and the other is that

professional learning is seen as self-discovery in the context of practical activity (Barlett, 1990; Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

Reflective approach to teacher education can be seen as a reaction to the model of teachers as technicians, in favor of a recognition of the thoughtful and professional aspects of teachers' work (Flowerdew, 1998). For that reason, varied approaches are being used to help teachers develop a critically reflective approach to their teaching, including action research, ethnography, journal writing (Bailey, 1990; Korthagen,1985; Zeichner & Liston, 1987).

As can be seen, constructivism focuses on individual meaning making processes (Griffiths & Tann, 1992;Oxford, 1997b). However, an individual's development occurs in constant exchange with his/her social circumstances and "learners make their own sense of the world, but they do so within a social context and through social interaction" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 28).

2.2. 2.4. Social constructivism

The sociocultural form of constructivist learning derives primarily from Vygotsky (1978), who emphasized the importance of social interaction in the construction of knowledge (Davydov,1995; Sprinthall, Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1996; Vygotsky, 1978). According to Vygotsky (1978), an individual's cognitive system develops as a result of communication in a social group and it cannot be separated from social life. Vygotsky firmly maintained that social interaction is prerequisite to learning and cognitive

development. Within this framework, the development of an individual relies on social interactions. It is with this social interaction that meanings are shared and then internalized by the individual. That is, learning always involves more than one person. Thus, his studies on the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD), that is the realm of potential learning that each learner could reach within a given developmental span under optimal circumstances and with the best possible support from the teacher and others in the environment, are based on social interaction in a dyad where the role of the adult, teacher or more experienced peer is to assist or provide scaffolding for the child, student or less experienced peer (Cobb, 1994; Newman & Holzman, 1995; Vygotsky, 1978). In other words, in the teaching-learning process, a more experienced member of a culture can assist and support a less experienced member by structuring tasks, making it possible for the less experienced person to perform them and to internalize the process, that is, to convert them into tools for conscious control. Current theory posits that students and future teachers can obtain opportunities to develop their cognition by actively communicating with others who are more proficient and thereby expand each other's conceptual potential (Feiman-Nemser & Beasley, 1997; Nyikos & Hashimoto, 1997). Thus, within the ZPD more capable students can provide peers with new information and ways of thinking so that all parties can create new means of understanding.

From this perspective, knowledge and understandings are socially constructed when individuals engage socially in talk and activity about shared problems or tasks (Olson, 1997). Moreover, social learning contexts

are found to promote explaining to others and self-explanations often leading to cognitive gains (Schwartz, 1995). Consequently social modes of working are regarded as creating effective learning situations for people to express, discover and construct their knowledge. Black and Ammon (1992) define this kind of learning as being

> more concerned with understanding achieved through relevant experience than with accumulated facts received from others, more imbued with meaning, more influenced by social and cultural contexts and in general, less governed by abstract principles than traditional conceptions of learning. (p. 324)

In other words, learning is socially constructed through interaction with the social and natural environment and knowledge is not thought of as a received, static entity that is separate from the individual (Driver, Asoko, Leach, Mortimer & Scott, 1994; Kauchak & Eggen, 1998; Richardson, 1997; Sutton, Cafarelli, Lund, Schurdell & Bichsel, 1996).

2.2. 2.4.1. Social constructivism and teacher education

A social constructivist perspective for teacher education recognizes dialogue, talk to be central to teacher learning. Although talk has long been seen as part of the experiential learning cycle and humanistic perspectives stress the social and interpersonal climate which promotes learning, the emphasis on dialogue in this view is that collaborative and task-focused talk is of special value, in that "it offers opportunities to clarify one's own

meanings and offers social relationships that support changing views of the self as teacher" (Roberts, 1998, p. 45).

Thus, emphasizing the primacy of social interaction as the driving force and prerequisite to individuals' cognitive development through internalization of ideas encountered in the social cultural realm, social constructivism is the foundation for collaborative learning which is explicitly oriented to negotiating and fulfilling the potentials of each person involved (Nyikos & Hashimoto, 1997; Oxford, 1997a).

In the context of teacher collaboration, Knezevic and Scholl (1996) argue that

> the process of having to explain oneself and one's idea, so that another teacher can understand them and interact with them, forces team teachers to find words for thought which, had one been teaching alone, might have been realized solely through action. For these reasons, collaboration provides teachers with rich opportunities to recognize and understand their tacit knowledge. (p. 79)

This statement indicates the need for the right social relationships during professional development. Studies about collaboration deal mostly with collaboration among teachers, peers or experienced vs. less experienced ones (Bailey, 1996; Shannon & Meath-Lang,1992) and they share the idea that collaboration can provide a powerful mechanism for teachers to explore their own conceptions of teaching and learning (Oxford, 1997a). The process of interweaving their own knowledge with the personal

knowledge and experiences of other teachers is an effective way for teachers to acquire new conceptions of their own teaching practice.

Hence, collaboration gives teachers an opportunity for heightened reflection (Knezevic & Scholl,1996; Oxford, 1997a) as they share experiences, reflect on and develop their individual and collective resources for dealing with specific problems in their school and classroom environment (Pennington, 1990). In short, although Vygotsky had focused on the benefits of collaborative talk only on the less experienced or unskilled learner, several researchers, as mentioned above, have emphasized the mutual benefits of this social process as it also leads the more experienced partner of the dialogue to discover missing information, gain new insights through interactions and develop a qualitatively different way of understanding (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Kiraz, 1997; Reich, 1995; Richards, 1998; Oxford, 1997a; Turner, 1995).

To summarize, the social constructivist theory, based on phenomenological paradigms of knowledge, builds on the notions of individual reflection, on individual constructivist views of learning and on social dimensions of teacher work as a means to learning and rejects the traditional approach to teaching, based on knowledge-transmission and behavioral change resulting from efficient shaping (Cobb,1994; Richardson, 1997).

In the next section, current in-service teacher education practices in the light of the mentioned paradigms of knowledge and learning theories will be discussed.

2.3. Theoretical framework of in-service teacher education

As mentioned above, underlying any approach to the development of second language teachers is a conception of what good teaching is and what the essential knowledge and skills of teachers are (Pennington, 1990; Richards, 1998). Although the perceptions of teaching and teacher knowledge may change, related to the fundamental distinction between the two opposing paradigms of knowledge, researchers agree on the fact that learning to teach is a lifelong process and that a teacher has to be equipped with sufficient knowledge, skill, attitude and awareness in order to carry out her/his job professionally in line with the changes in education. Thus, it is believed that teachers should remain involved in continuous education throughout their teaching career (Kaplan, 1977; Sprinthall, Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1996; Winterton, 1977). Myers (1993) in regard to continuous educational change states that

> once in practice, the individual needs to be involved in continuing education in order to be able to maintain and improve their level of competence and ensure continuing job satisfaction. Through this, and in a world which may change rapidly and frequently in terms of the demands made on them, they will be able to stay up-to-date with new ideas, practices and information, and with the changing requirements of local and national legislation. (p. 11)

There are several reasons why a teacher should be in an on-going change process. First of all, initial teacher education, no matter how thorough and systematic, cannot prepare the individuals comprehensively for all the various demands that are to be encountered throughout a full teaching career (Kirk, 1988, p. 45). Moreover, over the years, there may be some deterioration in the pedagogical skills of the teachers and their attitudes towards their profession may change. Most importantly of all are the new directions in theory and practice, technological advances in teaching and learning materials, international and intercultural relationships among nations due to globalization. All these force teachers to seek professional programs to develop their skills and acquire new ones, to revitalize the practice of their craft and to keep abreast of developments in pedagogy and knowledge (Kirk ibid).

In-service education and training (hereafter INSET) which is seen as a key element in strategies to raise the quality of educational provision includes activities engaged in by teachers following their initial professional certification (Hayes, 1997). These activities are intended primarily or exclusively to stimulate the professional competence and development of teachers, to improve school practice and to implement politically agreed upon innovations in schools (McIntyre, 1988; Pennington, 1990; Roberts, 1998; Veenman, Van Tulder & Voeten, 1994).

INSET programs, representing an attempt to implement some form of change toward an articulated end can address training and/or development needs of the teachers (Kennedy, 1995; Symile, 1988). The changing

concept of an effective teacher and the demands for a more active role for teachers in teacher education programs have obliged teacher educators to differentiate the terms teacher 'training' and teacher 'development' as they underlie the two different paradigms of knowledge mentioned in 2.2. (Palmer, 1993; Richards,1987; Woodward, 1991).

Training is characterized by objectives that are defined by a deficit in teaching skills, curricular knowledge or some other area of expertise. Typically they are defined by the gap between the teacher's current level of skill or knowledge and the level required by his/her role in the system. A training orientation to INSET can be associated with the knowledge transmission and process-product models based on the positivist approach where specific teacher behaviors are identified as training objectives. The skills are shaped through behavior modification and the teachers are expected to incorporate such individual behaviors (a process) to promote student learning (a product) (Sprinthall, Reiman & Thies-Sprinhall, 1996).

On the other hand, constructivism underpins the development approach of INSET and the notion of development implies more divergent objectives, which allow for teachers' individual differences and which are determined by teachers' sense of their own learning needs. Thus, it can be associated with the notion of a teacher as an independent problem solver who takes responsibility for personal and professional development (Roberts, 1998 ; Williams & Burden, 1997).

2.3.1. Current provision of INSET

An overall picture of current INSET practices reveals the training oriented off-site and school-based courses as the dominant INSET models (Hayes, 1997; Richards, 1998). In the off-site INSET course, teachers from a number of schools typically come together for varying lengths of time for a training course ranging from short courses of one day or less to longer. The school-based INSET courses are provided within the school and the target is the teaching staff in the school. In both models, knowledge is transmitted usually by an outside 'expert' (Craft, 1996). The popularity of these programs lies in what Widdowson (1987) calls the 'social and professional intensity of the event' (p. 2). Thus, teachers have a break in routine, a chance to meet new colleagues and to discuss their professional problems, exposure to stimulating new ideas and the novelty of being students again.

However, it has been argued that the current INSET practices reveals the following picture: to begin with, off-site or school-based INSET courses catering to the training needs of the teachers are intensive by nature, thus, providers overprepare or overload content and this leads to 'one-way' interaction; secondly, based on the feedback obtained from the teachers it has been argued that the school-based in-service courses offer general and 'too theoretical' information which is far removed from the daily working experiences of teachers (Cullan, 1997; Goodwyn, 1997; Lamb, 1995; Veenman, Van Tulder & Voeten, 1994). Moreover, the courses are mostly delivered with no attempt to support teachers in implementation (Moon & Boullon, 1997). The trainers simply demonstrate a series of techniques or

activities for various skills and provide handouts which detail the steps to be carried out. Little efforts are made to get teachers to consider the rationale or principles underlying the use of particular classroom activities or to encourage specific teaching-learning behaviors. Teachers, therefore, leave courses with no greater understanding of the teaching-learning process than when they went in. Finally, most in-service courses end up with evaluation reports used to determine the success of a program and which are mostly statements of participants' satisfaction or learning outcomes. Follow-up studies which are in fact needed to understand the effects of these programs with regard to teachers' behavior and pupils' behavior and achievement are lacking and the providers have little opportunity to discover the longer-term effects of their work (Smylie, 1988).

Hayes (1997) argues that in most cases the objectives of the INSET programs, which attempt to bring about quite radical changes in teacher behaviors, are determined by official decisions and teachers have no influence over the objectives. According to Hayes (ibid.), these INSET programs do not achieve their aims because the trainers do not give sufficient importance to the participants' existing knowledge and the content and activities are not of direct relevance to teachers' everyday school situations. Moreover, according to Karavas-Doukas (1996),

> courses designed to train teachers ... focus on transmitting information about a new approach and persuading teachers of its effectiveness. When the teachers return to their classrooms, they 'misinterpret' the ideas and translate them to conform to their existing classroom

> routines, at the same time believing they are doing exactly what the new approach indicates. (p. 194)

Unlike this positivist approach to learning, the constructivist approach would not view the teachers as 'misinterpreting' but as assimilating the ideas, fitting them into their existing beliefs based on prior experience (Roberts, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). This tendency to assimilate input indicates the need to uncover teachers' implicit ideas and beliefs in order to make them available for a collaborative review by the help of reflection. (Liston & Zeichner, 1990; Schön, 1987; Wallace, 1991). Thus, development based INSET programs based on a constructivist perspective encourages teachers to reconstruct their awareness of their own beliefs to personalize course inputs (Moon & Boullon, 1997).

In addition to this individual meaning making process, Fullan (1982) argues that social support is an essential element in enabling teachers to implement innovations:

> training approaches are effective when they combine concrete teacher-specific training activities, ongoing continuous assistance support during the process of implementation and regular meeting with peers and others. Research on implementation has demonstrated beyond a shadow of doubt that these processes of sustained interaction and staff development are crucial regardless of what the change is concerned with.
>
> (Fullan, 1982 quoted in Roberts, 1998)

Moreover, according to Joyce and Showers (1980), to be most effective, INSET programs should include theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and coaching. Without coaching, transfer of new skills or strategies to everyday practice cannot be guaranteed. In addition to these, they claimed that INSET programs should be well-connected to the specific school situation. That is, schools must take an active part in making INSET programs effective instruments of improvement through modification of its design and content according to their needs.

To summarize, the implementation of an innovation is not a simple matter of replacing materials or expecting teachers to change their practice from old to new. Teacher change is typically evolutionary and heuristic in nature (Pennington, 1995) and teachers during their trials need support as they may run into unpredictable problems, dilemmas and blocks. The help needed at this stage is to work with the realities of the teachers' own classrooms and generalized advice is of no particular help. Thus, within the social constructivist framework to INSET, teacher learning should not be seen as an isolated activity and teachers should additionally be provided with opportunities for collaborative dialogues and supportive relationships with fellow teachers and others to address their practice and beliefs. This kind of collaborative dialogue based on support is of utmost importance for teachers during the process of implementing new ideas into their daily practices.

To summarize, INSET courses are effective only if they are based both on training and the development needs of the teachers (Allwright, 1998; Roberts, 1998) and if they provide teachers not only with new teaching ideas but also with guidance and support in their subsequent attempts to put these ideas into practice.

2.3.2. Studies on INSET abroad

An analysis of research done in the field indicates that there have been few published studies about the impact of INSET on the teachers and institutions it is intended to benefit. The results of these studies have revealed the fact that the professional aims of the training based courses are not usually fulfilled (Breen, Candlin, Dam & Gabrielsen, 1989; Cullan, 1997; Lamb, 1995). In other words, there is often a large gap between what happens in an in-service course and what subsequently happens in the classroom.

Tomlinson (1988) tried to find out the effects of short in-service programs he ran for Indonesian school teachers and concluded that without subsequent follow-up courses, their effect would have been 'disastrous' because the "motivation and stimulus the participants gained would soon have been negated by the confusion and frustration they would have suffered in trying to apply all that they had learnt" (p. 18). Tomlinson (1988) points out that too often, the designers and tutors of INSET courses leave the country with some positive evaluations they received in the end-of-

course questionnaires and have little opportunity to discover the longer-term effects of their work.

Lamb (1995), also tried to discover through interviews and observation how far the participants had taken up and implemented certain practical ideas promoted on the course and found out that all the participants had forgotten most of the information and ideas that they had been exposed to. There were also cases where teachers mentioned ideas that had been remembered but never well enough understood to affect the teaching in any way. Moreover, sometimes participants had modified an idea from the course in order to justify a change in their teaching which was not anticipated by the tutors. In short, a great deal of the original input was lost and what was taken up was reinterpreted by teachers to fit their own beliefs and their own concerns about what was important to them and their students. Lamb (1995) indicates that the focus of the short INSET course, where experienced teachers already have well-developed mental constructs of teaching, should be the teachers' beliefs themselves. These beliefs need first to be articulated and then analyzed for potential contradictions with each other, the teaching circumstances and the beliefs of learners. "Only then will teachers be able to accommodate new ideas, to appreciate the theory underlying them, understand their practical realization and evaluate their usefulness" (Lamb, 1995, p. 79).

On the other hand, some studies, again small in number, show that training and development based INSET courses are much more beneficial for teachers. Cullan (1997) carried out an in-service course for English

language teachers in Tanzania. The course work was oriented both to teacher development and teacher training. It was development oriented in the sense that it took into account the extensive classroom experience that many of the participants inevitably had and the reflection on this experience. It was also training oriented in that it provided the participants with training, through demonstration, micro-teaching and actual teaching practice, in basic classroom skills such as teaching vocabulary, presenting or practicing a grammatical structure in class. Cullan tried to assess the impact of the main aims of the teacher training and development course on the teachers who attended it once they have returned to their schools. This involved, in the first instance, investigating the impact of the course on the teachers' classroom skills. Most of the teachers in the sample were observed twice, with an interval of about two months in between by means of an observation form developed by the researcher. It consisted of 12 selected teaching behaviors called categories. Each category in the scheme was rated by the observer on a scale of 1 (weak) to 5 (excellent). It was found out that the techniques and skills (e.g. warm up and introduction to the lesson, preparation and planning,) which received emphasis at all stages of the INSET course were positively transferred by the teachers. There were also some older teachers who "appeared to have reverted to their normal style of interaction because they no longer felt the observer to be a threat" (p. 29). This point illustrated the difficulties older teachers have in changing their previous lengthy experience in favor of new ideas in a short time and that

follow-up visits to teachers need to be supplemented by further visits after a longer period of time.

The Basque Country Diploma program in 1992, which focused on promoting teacher learning by engaging them in awareness-raising activities, is another example of a training and development oriented INSET course (Roberts, 1998). The course was developed by British Council staff and the University of the Basque Country syllabus specialists and the aim was to upgrade the qualification and professional skills of English teachers. The program consisted of two phases; the first phase was devoted to readings and lectures in which teachers were offered theories of teaching, methodology, competence and language and expected to reflect on their own experience and knowledge. Course providers believed that such explanatory theories, together with teachers' reflection, generate a descriptive lexicon, offer explanations of personal experience and can propose departures from routinized practice. As such they would contribute to rethinking and personal change. During this phase, conventional activities were used to convey principles, demonstrate language teaching/learning strategies and encourage teachers' reactions. Learning through reflection was not seen as a short term process: course providers tried to initiate reflection early in the course and worked consistently to support individual developments in thinking throughout. The second phase of the program has been designed to provide the support needed during the teachers' experimental attempts at implementations. Teachers worked by themselves and were supported by personal tutors. Unlike training oriented

courses, which stop at the input stage usually because of lack of funding or a lack of awareness of implementation needs, this program provided encouragement and support during the difficult phase of going it alone. The evaluation of the diploma program has been positive. The results of the questionnaires and interviews suggested the following outcomes: a high level of impact upon the teachers' classroom practice (including the use of a wider range of EFL techniques and less dependence on course books) changed attitudes towards pupils and an increase in curricular knowledge and terminology. Although the overall impression among the participants of these courses was that the courses were effective, there is no direct formal evidence on training or development impacts, such as could be obtained by observation.

2.3. 3. INSET in Turkey

A preliminary study carried out by the researcher about the INSET activities engaged in by Turkish EFL teachers revealed a profile similar to the one mentioned above; the off-site and the school-based models, both of which are of the training-oriented and knowledge-transmission type, are the dominant INSET models. The off-site courses are government-sponsored and have been organized by the Ministry of Education since the 1960s. In 1961 only one twenty-seven day course for 32 participants was offered by the Ministry of Education in Istanbul. Since then the number of the courses given in each year has increased and the courses are being offered at different times of the year, usually during the summer months, in different

parts of the country (Demircan, 1988; Farukoğlu, 1994). INSET aims at removing the differences among teachers with various backgrounds and different teaching applications and at providing an acceptable standard compatible with the targets of the Turkish National Education and to meet the needs of teachers of English, whose language performance and teaching skills, as the Ministry believes, need to be enhanced under the supervision of various experts from universities, the British Council and specialists employed by the Ministry (Farukoğlu, 1994). The content of the course is determined by the project personnel and school administrators with the help of the British Council and it is based on the perceived shortcomings and weaknesses of the English teachers in Turkey. In the proposal of the INSET which was prepared by the English Language Instruction Department of In-Service Education of the Ministry of National Education in 1995, for English language teachers (native speakers of Turkish) in secondary schools, some stated weaknesses of the teachers were as follows:

1. Practicing teachers of the English language have a misconception of what teaching the English language is all about. Many think that the instruction in the English language involves teaching only word meaning and grammar.

2. The importance of practice is not adequately stressed by the teachers. Thus, verbal communication skills are not adequately developed.

3. Some teachers do not use/speak English in English lessons. They overuse the native language in English lessons.

4. Many English language teachers use traditional educational approaches, i.e. a teacher centered focus. New educational approaches have a student-centered focus.

5. English teachers do not have sufficient opportunities to come together to share ideas, experiences, and to learn from each other.

INSET in Turkey is aimed at improving the quality of teaching of English at state secondary schools of Turkey by training the teachers during their careers. However, as the needs of the teachers and their levels of proficiency in English are not specified before they are invited to participate in these courses and as the courses usually involve large and undifferentiated groups of teachers, they usually fail to address the differential needs of the teachers.

Koç (1990) analyses and argues that the course coordinators/ organizers should take part in determining the needs of teachers and in selecting the teachers to participate in in-service training and that the criteria for selecting teachers should be clearly defined in terms of teachers' needs and wants. Another crucial problem observed is related to the frequency with which these courses are organized. When the large number of teachers working in secondary schools is considered, teachers usually have a chance of attending such courses every 12 or 15 years during their professional career. Doğuelli (1990) emphasizes the importance of regular updating of English language teachers and argues that initial training followed by one seminar 10 or 20 years later can scarcely be seen to be sufficient for a lifetime of practice.

Courses based on the school-based model are provided within both private and state schools by an outside 'expert' who is supposed to transmit knowledge about a specific topic which is usually determined by the head of the department in relation to the needs of the teachers. To the best knowledge of the researcher, there is only one study that created opportunities for teachers to relate the incoming knowledge to their existing knowledge and beliefs, try out new ideas in class and reflect on them (Akyel, 2001). This was a pilot project with two teachers guided by a supervisor who was asked by the administrators of a university to set up a staff development program for the teachers working in a preparatory school. Broadly speaking, three major activities were envisaged for this project: (a) reflection and dialogue (collaboration in clarification and rethinking of perspectives); (b) reception (input of new information through suggested readings); (c) performing the tasks related to data collection. Hence, these activities were intended to enable teachers to explore teaching with a view towards coping with problems in their respective classes. The findings of the study showed that engaging teachers in collaborative dialogues with peers or researchers gave teachers an opportunity to engage in heightened reflection on their individual practices and helped them to develop strategies for dealing with problems in their classrooms and initiate change in their teaching behaviors.

As can be seen, both abroad and in Turkey, with the few exceptions mentioned above, INSET activities based on knowledge-transmission seem to lack the two major conditions leading to a teacher's development

emphasized by constructivists: (a) the necessity to relate all new learning to teachers' prior practices and beliefs, (b) opportunity for trying out ideas in the classroom and reflecting on them (Bell & Gilbert, 1994). As afore mentioned, it can be said that teachers would benefit more from development and training based INSET courses in which they are not only provided with theoretical knowledge but also with opportunities to recognize and reflect on their implicit knowledge and share it with others. This aim can be achieved by encouraging the teachers to take part in a collaborative dialogue, which the social constructivist perspective recognizes to be central to teacher learning (Knezevic & Scholl, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997). The collaborative dialogue can provide mutual benefits to the professional development of both the student and supervising teachers in the institutional framework. In the next section, a discussion on the supervising teacher/student teacher relationship will be provided.

2.4. The supervising teacher-student teacher relationship

Research on teacher education programs suggests that typical teacher education programs comprise a collection of courses which provide students basically with theoretical knowledge. Most of the time, although students are required to carry out some practice in the form of peer teaching and microteaching in various skills courses, these activities are not sufficient for the students to relate theory and practice and to raise their awareness to their own beliefs and conceptions related to teaching.

As afore mentioned, the constructivist framework emphasizes the growth of the prospective teachers through reflection and self-examination and typically, the opportunity to practice reflection and self-examination is reserved for the period of practicum, a common and prevalent component of all teacher education programs (Goodwyn, 1997;Tillema & Knoll, 1997). This period is viewed as critical to the development of preservice teachers' pedagogical skills, because "practical school experience necessarily contributes to the development of teachers" (Zeichner, 1980, p. 45) and because teachers' professional life patterns are highly influenced during this period (Applegate & Lasley, 1982; Hoy & Rees, 1988; Johnston, 1994; Karmos & Jacko, 1977; Pinnegar, 1995; Wooflok, 1998; Zeichner, 1980). Thus, the theoretical knowledge gained in the university courses is believed to fuse with the practical experiences of the student teaching period.

Research suggests that the effectiveness and the quality of the student teaching experience, especially in terms of developing the reflective capabilities of prospective teachers, is very much related to the ability of all involved in this experience, especially to the help and guidance provided by the supervising teacher (Hawkey, 1997; Lemlech & Kaplan, 1990, Shaw-Baker, 1995). Copas (1984) reports that "the value of the direct learning experience in schools seems to depend upon the quality of the teacher with whom the student is placed" (p. 49). The supervising teacher, being the classroom teacher at the same time, potentially has the greatest influence on the development of a student teacher, because of close and ongoing interaction during the student teaching period. Thus, the supervising

teacher, whom student teachers see as their most significant socializing agent, is the person who may assist more than anyone else in fitting all the pieces together to form a complete picture in the student teacher's professional development (Duquette, 1994; Johnson, 1997; Lemlech & Kaplan, 1990; Karmos & Jacko, 1977). The ability of the supervising teacher to communicate context and specifics especially plays an important role in the student teaching period (Karmos & Jacko, 1977; Lemlech & Kaplan, 1990; Wentz & Yarling, 1994). Thus, student teachers are expected to be involved in a reflective conversation as they think about and attempt to understand their teaching experiences with their cooperating teachers. Helping student teachers to look at their own practice is particularly important because "the way in which they interpret school experience is often influenced and 'shaped' by their own set of attitudes, beliefs and values; their life values in general and their educational values in particular (Maynard & Furlong, 1993, p. 75).

Although the value of school experience in teacher education and the important role of the supervising teacher is widely accepted (Cochran-Smith; 1991; Hawkey, 1997; Johnston, 1994), researchers underline the existence of substantial disagreement with the notion of guided relationships between supervising teachers and student teachers (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1985; Hoover, O'Shea, Carroll, 1988; Richardson-Koehler, 1988; Zeichner, 1980). Traditionally the conference between the student and supervising teacher evidences a lack of substantive talk about teaching (Calderhead, 1987; Lemlech & Kaplan,

1990) Thus, too often student teachers and supervising teachers seem not to discuss teaching models, content, analyses of varied learning experiences, or procedures to modify instructional materials (Elliot & Calderhead, 1993; Haggarty, 1995; Lemlech & Kaplan, 1990). The perceived differences in roles that students and supervising teachers assume appear to inhibit the type and quality of their dialogue. In addition, student teachers rarely observe experienced teachers working together and infrequently hear teachers coach and counsel each other (Ellis, 1993). As a consequence, they are not aware of the behaviors of others that demonstrate interest, excitement or reflections about teaching. However, it is very important that student teachers learn to reflect on the practice of teaching and engage in a dialogue with their supervising teachers and peers. The focus should be on talking professionally and not only on evaluating the performance of the student teachers.

In many of today's schools, supervising teachers have the common belief that student teachers are in their classroom to learn how to manage and instruct. Typically, supervising teachers establish their own particular set of routine teaching activities prior to their student teacher's arrival and are not very receptive to changing these routines. It has been observed that in this type of classroom, student teachers feel like intruders into this environment and are not content with their student teaching period (Akyel, 1997; Johnston, 1994).

Moreover, in traditional settings, most field experiences still reflect the 'apprenticeship model' based on prescriptive approach to supervision

(Ishler, Edens, and Berry, 1996). That is, the supervising teacher is seen as an authority figure who has expert status, knows what ought to be done in a given teaching situation and is in a position to tell the student teacher what she has done wrong and what can be done to put it right (Wallace, 1991). In these settings based on a positivist framework, supervising teachers mostly undermine the knowledge of the student teachers and try to influence them to choose the teaching method or style that is very similar to what they themselves had already established (Shantz, 1995). In other words, student teachers are expected to emulate the supervising teacher's behavior and reflective inquiry about the teaching experience and collaboration with others is not supported (Cochran-Smith, 1991; Ishler, et.al., 1996). Too often student teachers simply mimic or copy their supervising teachers' behavior without understanding the reasons behind those actions and use those behaviors. When they merely imitate their supervising teachers they have difficulty teaching on their own because "they have not developed a consistent, internalized philosophy of instruction, have not found a style which suits them and cannot adapt their behavior to new and different situations" (Valli, 1992, p.19).

Alkove and McCarty (1992) argue that the trend toward developing a theoretical framework in teacher education is resulting in a movement away from a positivist orientation to a more constructivist approach to teacher preparation. Building largely on the work of Vygotsky, researchers advocate that the supervising teacher, assuming the role of a mentor, establish a relationship based on guidance and collaboration (Feiman-Nemser &

Beasley, 1997; Wentz &Yarling, 1994), and coordinate the student teachers' school-based learning in relation to classroom teaching (Rothwell, Nardi & McIntyre, 1994). As mentoring itself is a form of professional capability to which teachers bring all sorts of existing ideas, assumptions and capabilities, supervising teachers need to adopt both a reflective approach to their own activities and learning proposed by Schön (1987) and a collaborative approach towards supervision (Wallace, 1991). That is, they should get involved in a continual reflective cycle with their student teachers based on collaboration and support. In this reflective cycle, supervising teachers are supposed to provide student teachers with basic information to enable adjustment to the practicum situation, to involve them in planning and learning experiences, to conference with them at regularly scheduled times evaluating their progress and development (Tomlinson,1995). Moreover, they should show sensitivity towards the student teachers as individuals and consider listening as important as talking and try to help the student teacher develop autonomy through practice in reflection and self-evaluation. That is, the main aim is to allow the student teachers to reflect on their teaching practices and self-evaluate so that they can pursue their own professional development more effectively and to provide the necessary support and assistance at the same time.

As afore mentioned, in traditional teacher education programs, both pre- and in-service, teaching is viewed as an information transfer and the passing of knowledge as one-way. However, it is believed that trainers learn a great deal about teaching and training from working with their students and

trainees (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Goodwyn, 1997; Kiraz, 1997; Reich, 1995; Shaw, 1995; Turner; 1995). In answering questions that students or student teachers ask and helping them to overcome obstacles teachers are forced to review their own beliefs and maybe look for alternative strategies in their own teaching practices. Points and useful suggestions may be made that teachers would never have thought about if left to their own devices (Tomlinson, 1995).

As discussed previously, the constructivist position is clearly in contrast with the knowledge-transmission approaches which predominate in teacher education programs (Cobb, 1994). Tilemma & Knol (1997) argue that passive accretion of new knowledge is not the same as new and meaningful learning as the latter calls for constitution of a personal knowledge base and is apparent in learning by professionals. In other words, active knowledge (re)construction requires a different orientation towards the learning needs of beginning professionals and other forms of presentation than those to which student teachers are accustomed. It is strongly dependent on experimentation whereby the reasons and explanations for professional solutions that are presented to student teachers can be tested and built into a personal knowledge base.

Today, pre-service teacher education requires a close relationship between higher education institutions and schools, the underlying idea of which is the development of student teaching and lifelong professional growth of in-service teachers. According to Gebhard (1998), in an attempt to move away from the dominant format in teacher education, in which

theoretical course work and a teaching practicum are separated in time and space and often represent competing ideologies, many institutions preparing teachers are attempting to restructure their programs to contextualize teacher education by forming partnerships with local schools. Over a decade ago, the Holmes Group developed the concept of professional development schools to improve the development of pre-service and in-service teachers. Since then many programs have joined with local school districts to create Professional development schools (hereafter PDSs) where student teachers get a more coherent learning experience when organized in teams with the faculty, with one another and with the cooperating teachers who also deepen their knowledge by assuming the role of being mentors (Dixon & Ishler, 1992; Imig & Switzer, 1996).

In PDSs, the goal is to place a greater value on teacher learning and teacher development than is typically the case. The intention is to ground the theoretical component of programs in the practice of teaching, engaging both experienced and beginning teachers as well as university faculty, in the reflective analysis of their work (Anderson, 1997; Zeichner, 1992).

PDSs differ from typical student-teaching placements in that the university actively seeks out and makes a long-term commitment to a public school. The purpose of this joint venture is to create a setting that supports the theoretical and practical aspects of learning to teach, allow expert teachers to play a larger role in the development of new teachers by acting as mentors and university adjuncts (Gebhard, 1998). The movement to restructure the practice and integrate it with in-service teacher education and

school reform involves major changes in the roles and responsibilities of those who work in the practicum and a significant shift in the distribution of power between schools and universities, e.g. classroom teachers having more influence on the total teacher education curriculum and university faculty playing a greater role in supporting and helping to institutionalize school reforms (Dixon & Ishler,1992; Zeichner, 1992).

Research studies discussed in the next section, will shed light on the current supervising teacher-student teacher situation abroad and in Turkey.

2.4.1. Studies on the supervising teacher-student teacher relationship-abroad

Several studies have been carried out to investigate the nature of the student teacher-supervising teacher relationship. These studies mostly focused on the content and frequency of the student teacher-supervising teacher conferences and the attitudes of the supervising teachers towards collaborating with student teachers.

Koerner (1992) observed eight experienced cooperating teachers and found out that they were uncomfortable having a student teacher for several reasons, e.g. interruption of instruction, displacement of the teacher from a central position in the classroom, disruption of the classroom routine, breaking the isolation of the classroom teacher and shifting of the teachers' time and energy to instruction.

Richardson-Koehler (1988) carried out a study which investigated norms related to learning to teach held by supervising teachers and the

ways these were communicated to the student teachers. The sample consisted of fourteen elementary school student teaching triads; fourteen student teachers and their supervising teachers and one university supervisor. The data were collected by means of student teachers' reports of discussions with supervising teachers, the informal and formal supervising teacher interviews and observations of the routines of supervising teachers. The findings of the study indicated that in the feedback sessions between supervising and student teachers, student teachers received very little evaluation of behavior or statements of reasons for doing what was suggested; the discussions were highly situation-specific and focused on an individual student or problem in the particular classroom. The reasons for the poor quality of feedback were the supervising teachers' lack of ability or unwillingness to engage in reflection of their or their student teachers' classroom practices.

In a study of student teacher-cooperating teacher relationships, Kapuscinski (1997) reported that the majority of student teacher-cooperating teacher relationships took the form of master-apprentice, in which

> the student teacher perceived the cooperating teacher as the expert and attempted to emulate his/her teaching behavior. ....the cooperating teacher was responsible for directing the relationship to that end. He or she insisted on setting the pace of the course, dictating methodology, and determining which sources would be used. (p. 5)

Borko and Mayfield (1995) analyzed the characteristics of teaching conferences between student teachers, their university supervisors and supervising mathematics teachers. They found out that conference length was related to the specificity of comments offered by the supervising teachers as well as to the supervising teachers' beliefs about learning to teach. According to Borko and Mayfield (1995)

> at their best, student teachers' relationships with both supervising teachers and university supervisors can provide feedback about specific lesson components, suggestions about new ways to think about teaching and learning and encouragement to reflect on one's own practice (p. 515).

In most of instances in Borko's study this potential was not realized for most student teacher-supervising teacher dyads and conversations rarely included in-depth exploration of issues of teaching and learning. It seemed that in many cases student teachers learned not to expect much out of their relationships with the supervising teachers and university supervisors; they primarily wanted the opportunity to practice and to learn by doing and hoped for some suggestions and feedback. The major reason for such lack of impact is, it is argued, due to the beliefs among teachers and supervisors that learning to teach is mainly achieved through experience and to the shared desire to maximize comfort and minimize risks during teaching practices.

Haggarty (1995) made an in-depth study on the conversations between supervising teachers and student teachers. It was found that some

supervising teachers dominated the conversations and their talk was dominated by their own experiences and ideas, and when discussing issues, both groups drew upon their own experiences to a great extent so that the opportunity to link their thinking at the end of each issue to what had been observed or what might be planned was largely ignored. Haggerty (1995) found that supervising teachers were able to talk about their own practice but they were less successful in talking about their own instructional decisions and practices. Instead of recognizing and articulating the complexity of decisions teachers make, the supervising teachers in this study tended to behave as though it was unproblematic and uncontentious to implement recommended good practice.

Based on the data gathered over a three year period, Browne (1992) draws attention to the differences in attitudes and actions of the supervising teachers in a traditional and reflective model. The role of the classroom teacher in traditional pre-service education has been limited to providing a classroom for observation or participation and for student teaching. Moreover, in most cases placements are usually controlled by the school districts and teachers are normally requested to complete evaluation of student teachers on criteria established by the university without any input from them and they are often poorly informed about the content and requirements of teacher education programs. Thus, teachers and students felt the need for enhanced communication and improved feedback strategies. The investigation of the nature of the supervising teacher-student relationships also showed little evidence of guiding and it was

noted that many supervising teachers often did not share their knowledge and provide much feedback to the student teachers regarding their practice teaching performance because only a few of them were appropriately trained for supervision of the student teacher, and when feedback was provided it tended to be judgemental in nature rather than reflective. Based on this initial investigation, Browne's study was related to supervision training of classroom teachers based on enhanced recognition, increased communication to improve their coaching and supervision skills. Implementation of the project produced teachers and student teachers who reported improved quality of field experiences on routine evaluations. Over 89% of the student teachers reported that supervising teachers conferenced with them more often and gave feedback that caused them to question their instructional decisions. They also reported that supervising teachers asked them questions that required them to think about connections between practice and methods courses.

2.4.1.1. Studies on the benefits of being a supervising teacher

As practice teaching is one of the most important components of any preservice program, it is not surprising that most efforts are in the direction of understanding the benefits of collaboration and guided relationship for the student teachers. Numerous research studies have singled out the importance of actual classroom experience under the guidance of an effective mentor in the professional preparation of preservice teachers (Applegate & Lasley, 1982; Copas, 1984; Hoover, O'Shea & Carroll, 1988;

Kapuscinski, 1997, Shantz, 1995; Zeichner & Liston, 1987). However, research has not yet fully identified compelling reasons why classroom teachers should volunteer to participate as supervising teachers or why school districts should choose to collaborate with teacher preparation institutions in the preparation of new teachers. Few studies carried out about this subject indicate that university and school district collaboration in the preparation of new teachers has the potential to provide reciprocal benefit: the professional growth of supervision teachers along with the development of student teachers and prospective teachers need to be viewed as potential sources of new knowledge (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Hamlin, 1997; Kiraz, 1997).

Research to date has provided mixed views regarding the perceived benefits for classroom teachers who chose to serve as student teacher mentors. Whaley and Wolfe (1984) indicate that financial compensation rates highest as motivation whereas Stout (1982) reported that 73% of the secondary teachers surveyed identified an intrinsic professional obligation as their primary reason for accepting student teachers. On the other hand, Duquette (1994), in her study of 41 teachers found that the most frequently cited reason for becoming involved in supervision was a request from the principal. Other reasons included wanting to contribute to preservice education, wanting to further one's own professional development feeling that the teacher education program was worthwhile. The benefits included having time to work with individual students and plan programs, the opportunity to meet new people who were entering the profession and

professional satisfaction. Interestingly, the expectation of professional growth does not seem to be a primary factor in teachers' decisions to enter into the mentor role.

Hamlin's (1997) study focused on whether from the supervising teachers' points of view, this experience had an effect on their teaching. Two different universities with similar teaching programs were chosen for the study; one small, private and one large state university both of which had extended student teacher programs where during the fall term students observe, explore and familiarize themselves with the school sites where they will student teach. During this time, students oriented themselves to the teaching setting, established working relationships with their supervising teachers and university supervisors and in many cases established relationships with the students they would teach. Their actual full time student teaching experience started in spring when they were at their school sites all day. Both programs were required to provide clinical supervision training for their supervising teachers and university supervisors were asked to conduct formal observations for instructional assistance which included planning conferences to determine specific teaching skills to be addressed and what data collection tools would provide evidence of performance, observation for data collection and post-conferences where the supervising teacher and student teacher discussed the data and brainstormed possible alternatives for improved teaching. At the end of the programs, nearly 75 % of the supervising teachers stated that their teaching had changed as a result of supervising a student teacher; some of them indicated that they

learned new classroom activities from their student teachers which they intended to add to their curriculum; a larger number commented that having a student teacher helped them refine or review their knowledge of teaching methods. Some other supervising teachers commented that the process of reflecting about teaching practices with their student teachers caused them to become more conscious of what they believe about teaching. Hamlin (1997) claims that support and training of supervising teachers is essential and believes that training workshops should include interactive discussions about the roles and responsibilities of supervising teachers, focus on the development of effective communication skills, provide practice in using conferencing techniques observation tools and giving effective feedback.

Clinard & Ariav's (1998) study focused on the perception of cooperating teachers about their impact on student teachers and the benefits they draw from collaborating with novices. The research was carried out in 85 Professional Development Schools (PDS) in the US during 1993-94 and 1994-95 and in one PDS in Israel in 1994-95. While sample size differed substantially between the two parts of the study (364 teachers in the US and 18 teachers in Israel) both parts have been based on the same philosophy, structure and contents. The content was developed collaboratively by the researchers and implemented in both cultures in similar ways: training workshops for cooperating teachers focusing on their role and skills, collaborative dialogues for problem solving and sharing, and orientation meetings with the student teachers. The major findings of the study were that American cooperating teachers thought they learned from

their student teachers, especially in the areas of ideas for teaching, innovative instructional strategies and classroom management whereas Israeli cooperating teachers did not think they learned much from the student teachers they worked with. In both cultures the cooperating teachers thought that their main contribution to student teachers was in guiding them with techniques related to discipline and instruction.

Kiraz (1997) also investigated the ways student teachers contribute to the professional development of their supervising teachers. Data was collected from student teachers, supervising teachers and university coordinators by means of interviews. The study revealed that the nature of supervising teacher/student teacher relationships did provide opportunities for supervising teachers to become more reflective of their own teaching, and interaction with student teachers prompted them to become more conscious about teaching methods they already know. Moreover, by observing student teachers peer coaching each other, supervising teachers perceived the necessities of interacting with other individuals for their own professional development and becoming more open to their colleagues' criticism and comments.

2.4.2. The supervising teacher-student teacher relationship in Turkey

For the purposes of this study, the researcher carried out a preliminary investigation about the student teaching period in Turkey with student teachers and beginning teachers working at both state and private institutions. This investigation revealed that the student teaching period was

viewed as an important and valuable component of teacher education programs in Turkey. The student teachers interviewed emphasized the importance of support and encouragement which should be provided by the cooperating teachers during the student teaching period. They believed that the quality of the relationships between student teachers and supervising teachers played a crucial role in increasing the quality of teaching practice. However, they also cited many cases in which the supervising teachers were not very receptive to changing their own particular set of routine teaching activities. Thus, like in Akyel's (1997) and Johnston's (1994) studies, student teachers felt like intruders into this environment and could put their techniques into practice as they expected they would be able to. Moreover, when facing the lack of interest from their supervising teachers they felt demotivated and in most cases, tried to attend classes as little as possible.

Student teachers also indicated that during field experiences, they continuously tried to implement what they had learned from university courses and their educators encouraged them to develop their unique teaching style and teach meaningfully. However, several student teachers argued that they had difficulty in meeting the expectations of their cooperating teachers and their higher education supervisors because the expectations were different for both; when they attempted to apply their pre-service knowledge to practice, cooperating teachers were often resentful about what student teachers were taught in their methods courses and what they were expected to practice during field experiences. Thus, in many

cases when the content of supervising teacher/student teacher interaction created problems, student teachers often simply copied their supervising teachers' behavior without understanding the reasons behind those actions. In other words, student teachers in many cases accepted and tried to implement those behaviors mindlessly. It was also observed that when differences or disagreements occured between supervising teachers and student teachers in the classroom, student teachers became intimidated by their supervising teachers and seemed to agree with them without questioning. Substantive talk about teaching did occur but it was often one-sided, with the supervising teacher doing most of the talk about general classroom aspects, especially about individual students in the class.

Student teachers also complained that in most instances the cooperating teachers did not remain in the class and left the class to the student teacher. Post-lesson conferencing, where student teachers could critique whether what was seen to work was justifiably good practice in the long term or what appeared to be successful practice might not be so upon reflection, did not often take place.

The perceptions of student teachers and classroom teachers were also elicited on the characteristic role of teachers working with student teachers in their classrooms. There was considerable agreement between students and classroom teachers about the supportive function of the teachers. Both parties found support as the primary feature of the relationship between teachers and student teachers and saw challenge as secondary to support. The lack of challenge in these relationships was

speculated to happen due to several possible reasons; neither supervising teachers nor student teachers may have wished to put the relationships at risk; secondly, the kind of relationships supervising teachers experience in schools are those based on friendship with other colleagues and staff rather than those related to learning. Thus, supervising teachers' preconceived beliefs or orientations illustrate the influence of their constructs on the operation of guided relationships. The researcher also observed the fact that in some instances the student teachers' and supervising teachers' lack of knowledge and interest in classroom observation and conferencing skills may have been a reason for the lack of guidance in supervising the teacher/student teacher dialogue. In many instances, the supervising teacher gave the student teacher some information about the lesson s/he was going to teach but apart from this, the talk mostly focused on individual student problems.

The supervising teachers at both private and public schools moreover indicated that they valued the opportunities to contribute to the profession by assisting with the preparation of preservice students; yet, they said that they felt the need of a training in terms of supervision and wanted recognition from the university for their contributions. They also stated that supervising a student teacher was an extra burden as it took them longer to teach the contents of the curriculum, altered established classroom routines and invaded the privacy to which they had become accustomed and, in some instances, caused competition for the attention and affection of the students.

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Furthermore, most of the teachers believed that they should be involved in ongoing education for professional development; however, especially public school teachers stated that because of their hurried schedules they had no time and motivation to do anything to develop themselves professionally. Private school teachers seemed to be luckier in this respect because of the higher number of knowledge-transmission type of in-service presentations or conferences held at their institutions.

2.4.2.1. Studies on the supervising teacher-student teacher relationship in Turkey

To the best knowledge of the researcher, only Ekmekçi's study (1990), carried out in Çukurova University, focused on the problems encountered in teacher training sessions. According to the findings of the study, 51% of the student teachers indicated that they had gained a great deal during the practice session while the rest thought that they had not gained much and that the practicum did not have much effect on their beliefs and ideas about teaching.

Within the framework of a major project of YÖK ("Higher Education Council") and the World Bank aiming at the improvement of the Faculties of Education in Turkish universities, a model of faculty-school partnership has been developed. According to this model, which requires close collaboration between the faculty and the school, the traditional roles of supervising teachers are expected to change. In the handbook prepared by YÖK (1998) the responsibilities of the cooperating teachers, university

supervisors and school coordinators are presented in detail and specific standards for supervision are defined. Accordingly, in order for student teachers to develop into the self-directed and analytical professionals that are needed to meet the challenges of contemporary schools, cooperating teachers are supposed to assume the major responsibility for supervision in the classroom and for facilitating the practicum period. They are supposed to assist the student teacher during the practicum and keep a record of the student teacher's performance.

To summarize, the findings of the studies on the nature of the supervising teacher-student teacher dialogue indicated that in most of the cases the parties were not clear on their roles, that the conferences they held did not serve their real purposes, as there was little guidance and support (Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Haggarty, 1995; Kapuscinski, 1997; Koerner, 1992, Richardson-Koehler, 1988). The studies on the benefits of being a supervising teacher were all about the perceived benefits of the dialogue on supervising teachers' instructional practices and carried out in the ESL context (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Hamlin, 1997; Kiraz, 1997). That is, data was collected only from teachers' oral reports and not from researcher's classroom observations. To the best knowledge of the researcher, only one study was about the training of the supervising teachers (Browne, 1992) and student teachers in this study reported that after the training, their dialogue with their supervising teachers changed positively.

The present study aims to investigate the benefits of the collaborative dialogue on supervising teachers' instructional practices as well as analyze student teachers' and supervising teachers' opinions about the possible

effects of the dialogue. Specifically, the study measures the possible effects of the collaborative dialogue through objective measurements of instructional practices and through analysis of the qualitative data obtained in relation to the supervising teachers' and student teachers' attitudes towards the dialogue. In doing so, the study also explores whether there is a difference between knowledge-transmission type of INSET and knowledge-transmission type of INSET followed by collaborative dialogue between supervising teachers and student teachers. In the next section, detailed information about the methodology of the study will be provided.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Presentation

This chapter presents the research questions and discusses the population and setting of the study, the treatment, data collection and data analysis procedures employed.

3.2. Research question and subquestions

One major research question guided this study:

Would a collaborative dialogue in addition to knowledge-transmission training between EFL student teachers and supervising teachers contribute to the professional development of EFL teachers as opposed to only knowledge-transmission training?

To answer this major research question the following subquestions were dealt with:

1. What is the nature of the collaborative dialogue between the supervising teachers and the student teachers?

2. Will there be a difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those who were additionally engaged in a collaborative dialogue based on an assistance-support form of sustained interaction with student teachers?

3. Will there be a difference between the public and private school teachers in terms of benefits in teachers' instructional practices and the

nature of teacher and student talk after they have engaged in a collaborative dialogue in addition to a knowledge-transmission type of training, if so how?

4. What are the supervising teachers' and student teachers' attitudes toward participation in a collaborative dialogue as opposed to a knowledge-transmission type of training?

3.3. Population and Settings

3.3.1. Selection of the Participants

Initially, the researcher made a list of the schools, which collaborated with Marmara University for the practice teaching program. Among these 24 schools, only 3 private and 3 public schools agreed to participate in this study. Out of these 6 schools, 2 private schools with almost similar profiles and 2 public schools again with almost similar profiles were selected. The public schools were 'super lises'. The criteria for this selection were as follows: (a) number of students (b) number of English teachers, (c) similar entrance requirements, (d) similar English programs, in terms of the English hours and English course books being used, based on information gathered from preliminary interviews with the heads of the English departments.

All the English teachers in the selected schools were given a background questionnaire. The items focused on in the questionnaire were aimed at tapping information about teachers' educational background, teaching experience, supervising experience, teaching load, and INSET courses attended so far (see Appendix A). Based on the findings of the the questionnaire, 10 teachers from each of the 4 selected schools

were chosen. The selection of the teachers was based on the following criteria: (a) to be all non-native teachers, (b) to be all main-course teachers, (c) to have BA degrees from English Language Teaching departments, (d) to have at least 2 years of experience as supervising teachers. The participating teachers were observed before the first training, i.e. at the beginning of the study, and a t-test was applied to the data obtained from classroom observations by means COF and tape recordings in order to investigate whether there were any significant differences between the two public and between the two private schools in terms of teachers' instructional practices and the nature of student and teacher talk. According to the results of these tests, no significant differences were found between the two public schools and between the two private schools in terms of the mentioned areas (see section 4.2.1. for a detailed discussion of teachers' entry behaviour).

On the other hand, a t -test applied to the data obtained from classroom observations and tape recordings showed that there were significant differences between private schools and public schools in terms of some instructional practices of the teachers and some aspects of teacher and student talk as will be discussed in detail in section 4.2.1. (Table 5/Table 6). However, statistical analyses showed that these differences did not affect the results of the study (Table 9/Table 11).

3.3.1.1. The Schools

As mentioned above, two private and two public schools took part in this study. The two private schools offered both primary (ages 7-13) and secondary (ages 14-16) education programs. Both private schools were English medium schools with about 650 students. In one school there were 13 and in the other there were 14 English teachers. There were two native English teachers in each school. Initially, the researcher intended to carry out this research only in lycee prep classes, however, as there was not a sufficient number of lycee prep classes in the private schools, the following arrangement had to be made: three classes from Grade 7, five classes from Grade 8 and twelve classes from lycee prep. The students participating in this study had taken a central exam prepared by the Ministry of Education to enter these private schools. The 7th and 8th grade students had taken this exam prior to the 6th grade. The lycee prep students had taken it after the 8th grade due to changes in the Turkish elementary education system, which took effect in 1997[2]. In each class there were about 18 to 24 students and the number of hours of English lessons was about 18 hours both in 7th and 8th grades. In the lycee prep classes the number of English hours was 24 hours. According to the information gathered from the head of the English department of the schools, the two private schools were using the same English books. In these schools, Grade 7 teachers (3) were using *Hotline* 3 and *Highflyer* 2 and Grade 8 teachers (5) were using *Hotline* 4 and

[2] In 1997 the establishment of an eight year elementary school system was mandated and implemented; thereby ending the previous practice of a five-year program followed by a three year "Junior high school" program. Thus, the minimum education requirement was raised from 5 to 8 years.

Highflyer 2. Teachers (12) teaching lycee prep classes were using *Hotline* 1, 2 and 3. As mentioned earlier, the two private schools were almost similar to each other in terms of the number of students, number of English teachers and the English programs they were using.

The public schools in this study were secondary schools, called "Super lise". In these schools there were about 900 students. In one of the public schools there were 12 and in the other one there were 11 English teachers. In both schools there were about 40 students in each class. The students in these public schools had had private or public primary school backgrounds and had about a 4.5/5 secondary school average, a requirement for admission to these schools. Therefore, these students were higher achievers than those in other public secondary schools. The number of hours of English lessons was about 24 hours per week. In the public schools all lycee prep classes were using *Hotline* 1, 2, 3. In short, the two public schools were almost similar to each other in terms of number of students, number of English teachers and the English books they were using.

The coursebooks used by both the private and public schools combine conventional and communicative methods to develop both accuracy and fluency. Grammar, vocabulary and all four skills are emphasized throughout each of these books. Everyday conversations are also focused on separately. They are all accompanied by a teacher's book, workbook, audiocassettes, posters and a grammar practice book. A typical unit in these course books starts with the presentation section in the form of

listening, reading and speaking activities that provide the target structures and lexical items to be studied. This is followed by grammar presentation in an inductive way. That is, students are not taught grammar rules explicitly. Next, learners are provided with a variety of listening, reading, speaking and writing activities both to consolidate target linguistic items and engage in communicative activities

3.3.1.2. Participating teachers

All participating teachers were informed about the type and the nature of the research to be conducted. Among the forty teachers, twenty teachers volunteered to be in the experimental group and the other twenty were assigned to the control groups. Hence, each group had the following arrangement: Control group: 10 public, 10 private school teachers; experimental group: 10 public, 10 private school teachers. The findings of the questionnaire concerning the teachers participating in this study, both control and experimental group teachers, can be summarized as follows: In the control group there were four male and sixteen female teachers. Nine of them were Marmara University graduates. Seven were from Istanbul University and the rest from Bilkent, METU, Gazi and Ankara (one from each). In the experimental group there were three male and seventeen female teachers. Nine of them were Marmara University graduates and the rest were from Gazi (3), Istanbul (6), Dokuz Eylül (1) and Boğaziçi (1). The average number of years of teaching experience for the control group teachers was 7.2 and for the experimental group teachers 7.4 years. The

average number of years as a supervising teacher of the control group teachers was 5.3 and for the experimental group 5.4 years. Sixteen teachers in the control groups were teaching in the lycee prep classes (10 teachers in the public, 6 teachers in the private schools). The rest of them were teaching Grade 7 (2 teachers) and Grade 8 (2 teachers). Similar to the control groups, in the experimental groups, sixteen teachers were teaching prep classes and the rest again Grade 7 (1 teacher) and Grade 8 (3 teachers).

In the control groups, 10 private school teachers and 7 public school teachers had attended an INSET course offered by the British Council, the Ministry of Education or different publishing companies once. Seven private school and 4 public school teachers had joined an INSET course more than once. Three public school teachers in the control groups had not attended any INSET courses at all. On the other hand, in the experimental groups, 10 private school and 5 public school teachers had attended an INSET course once and 6 private school and 3 public school teachers had joined an INSET course more than once. Five public school teachers in the experimental groups had not attended any INSET course at all. The courses offered by the British Council and the publishing companies were on subjects like general methodology, CALL, teaching young learners, testing etc. The courses offered by the Ministry of Education were on teaching skills: i.e. reading, writing, listening, grammar.

The teaching load of the teachers at the public schools ranged from 23 to 27 hours a week whereas at the private schools the teaching load was

20 to 24 hours. The teachers were all teaching the main course for the 1998-99 academic year. Some of the teachers were also teaching literature and video courses apart from the main course, but the observations for this study were carried out only in main course lessons.

3.3.1.3. Student teachers

The twenty student teachers in this study, 14 female and 6 male, were chosen randomly from among fourth year students enrolled in the Department of Foreign Language Education of Marmara University. That is, they were asked to register to the classes of the researcher. The student teachers were all graduates of Anatolian Teacher Schools. Until September, 1999, students in this department followed the curriculum implemented before major changes were made in the program in conformity with the requirements of the 1997-1998 YÖK and World Bank project, which set new standards for student teachers, aiming at the improvement of faculties of education in Turkey. In the Marmara University program of study, courses related to teaching were given to all second, third and fourth year (first semester) students. The methodology I course focused on L1 and L2 acquisition in the first semester of the second year. The methodology II course focused on approaches and methods in language teaching in the second semester of the second year. The methodology III course focused on teaching the 4 language skills in both the first and second semesters of the third year. In the first semester of the fourth year, students in the methodology IV course went over the topics of the previous years

methodology courses and learned about techniques and procedures for teaching young learners, CALL, testing and materials evaluation. In the second semester of the fourth year, students started with their practicum. In the methodology courses, the student teachers were required to do peer teaching, followed by peer and self evaluations. However, as the classes were too crowded, the student teachers were asked to do presentations in groups of four in different sessions.

3.3.1.4. The Researcher

The researcher was the university supervisor at the same time and carried out the classroom observations and training procedures of the study. The researcher was also present during the formal meetings and occasionally during the informal meetings held by the student teacher and supervising teachers.

3. 4. Treatments

For the purposes of this study the researcher carried out three types of training; knowledge-transmission training, collaborative student teacher-supervising teacher dialogue training and student teacher orientation training.

3.4.1. Knowledge- transmission training

A knowledge-transmission type of training, which consisted of lectures and demonstrations on classroom dynamics and discussions on practices

teachers use, was given by the researcher to teachers in both experimental and control groups and to the student teachers (see Appendix B). The training consisted of four sessions, lasting about 2.5 hours each. The content of this training was based on the suggestions gathered by the researcher in the preliminary stages of the research when informing the teachers about the nature of the study. Hence, the perceived areas of weakness in many teachers' classroom skills were the key content areas emphasized in this training. Thus, the knowledge-transmission type of training was on classroom management skills and activities necessary to increase meaningful communication and to encourage the active use of English in class. While preparing the training sessions, the researcher benefited from various sources (see Appendix B1). The researcher also integrated some practical suggestions for effective classroom practices made in various INSET seminars that she had attended.

In session 1, the researcher dealt with the beginning dimension of a lesson, focusing on the aims of lesson beginnings. In sessions 2 and 3 topics like teacher talk, questioning patterns, feedback, use of group and pair work were discussed. Finally, in session 4, teaching practices like the use of L1, checking understanding, use of teaching aids, teacher position in the classroom and teacher's voice and language during the lesson were presented.

As in all knowledge-transmission type of trainings, the researcher in this study provided the teachers only with relevant information. That is, as mentioned before, within the framework of the nature of knowledge-

transmission type of training, initially there was no follow-up support for both groups on the implementation of this information in the classroom practices of the teachers.

3.4.2. The collaborative student teacher-supervising teacher dialogue training

After the knowledge-transmission type of training, the teachers in the experimental groups, i.e., the supervising teachers, were given a three-session training on supervision and developing a collaborative student teacher/supervising teacher dialogue. Each session lasted about 2 hours.

This training consisted of workshops which incorporated the following major areas: the roles of the supervising teacher, the roles of the student teachers, the nature and the steps involved in a student teacher-supervising teacher collaborative dialogue (see Appendix C). While preparing the content of this training the researcher benefited again from various sources (see Appendix C1).

Another purpose of this training was to help the experimental group teacher review the content of the knowledge-transmission type of training and to raise their awareness of how they could implement this information in their classes as they went over the teaching practices in group/pair work activities. That is, within this framework, this training served as an immediate follow-up to the previous training sessions.

3.4. 3. Student teaching orientation training

Before the practicum, the researcher gave the student teachers a

training which consisted of two parts. The aim of the first part of the training, which lasted about 6 class hours, was twofold: first of all, to review and discuss the points focused on in the knowledge-transmission type of training given to teachers participating in this study and secondly, to do focused observation tasks in which student teachers were focusing on one aspect of teaching, e.g. giving feedback. At the end of the first part of the training, the student teachers watched two video cassettes filmed in two different classes and evaluated the class teachers using the observation form adapted from adapted from Cullan (1997) and Nunan (1989) (see Appendix D).

The second part of the training, a shortened version of the collaborative dialogue training, was a two session training on the practicum and each session lasted about two and a half hours (see Appendix E). The aim of this training was basically to familiarize the student teachers with the requirements of the student teaching period, focusing on their role in the collaborative dialogue in which they were going to take part with their supervising teachers. Right after these training sessions, the student teaching period started.

3. 5. Data Collection

In this study, data came from the following sources: (a) classroom observation of the experimental and control groups by the researcher; (b) tape-recordings of the classes observed; (c) semi-structured interviews with

student teachers and supervising teachers; (d) student teachers' journals, (e) the researcher's field notes.

Classroom observation: For the purposes of this study, teachers in the control groups and experimental groups were observed four times during the 1998/1999 academic year. The researcher observed the teachers both in the experimental and control groups once before the knowledge-transmission type of training during the first semester. Three weeks after the training, the teachers in both groups were observed again. In the second semester of the same academic year, the teachers in both groups were observed once at the end of the student teacher-supervisor teacher dialogue and once a month after this observation.

*Tape-recordings of the observed lessons:.*The observed lessons were also tape-recorded by the researcher. To accustom the EFL teachers to the presence of the tape-recorder and the researcher as an observer, a 20 minute segment of each teacher's lesson was audio-taped before the actual recordings. Although videotaped recordings are known to be preferable to audiotaping because they also reflect the nonverbal behavior of classroom instruction, the researcher could not get permission for videotaping from the school administrations. In this study, the aim of tape-recording was to capture as much of the interaction of the class as possible.

Semi-structured interviews with supervising teachers and student teachers: The third type of data came from the interviews. The aim of the researcher was to learn the opinions and attitudes of student teachers and supervising teachers about the nature of this dialogue. Specifically, the

interviews focused on issues like the frequency and content of student teacher-supervising teacher pre- and post-conferences, the benefits of the collaborative dialogue on supervising teachers' and student teachers' teaching practices, the concerns of the student and supervising teachers, etc. (see Appendix F).

Student teacher journals: The student teacher journals provided an ongoing record of classroom events, and a first hand account of the student teacher-supervising teacher dialogue. The researcher informed the student teachers that they were expected to write mainly about the practicum, focusing on the pre- and post-conferences they had with their supervising teachers, to discuss their beliefs about teaching and to give an evaluation of their own teaching.

Field notes: In this study, the researcher took extensive field notes throughout the whole study with the aim of expanding and triangulating the data collected from the other informant groups.

During the observations, the focus of the field notes was mainly on general aspects of classroom life such as the classroom environment (e.g. seating arrangements, bulletin boards, teaching materials, etc.), students (e.g. student interest, student behavior in group study) and teachers (e.g. presentation of a lesson). However, during the student teaching period, the point of concentration shifted to different aspects such as the student teacher-supervising teacher relationship, the supervising teachers' opinions about their student teachers' preparation and participation, the supervising

teachers' help to student teachers and other aspects of student teacher-supervising teacher conferencing.

3. 6. Data analysis

For the purposes of the study, data collected from the above mentioned sources was analyzed by means of a combination of qualitative and quantitative strategies. Lynch (1996) calls this combination a mixed study design and claims that it provides the most thorough information possible as data is validated by means of a triangulation of various types of qualitative and quantitative instrumentation.

In this study, data coming from the classroom observations and tape-recordings was analyzed quantitatively. In doing so, the researcher aimed at reaching objective results based on statistical analyses and validating the findings coming from journals, questionnaires, field notes.

To answer the major research question, namely whether a collaborative dialogue between student teachers and supervising teachers would contribute to the professional development of the supervising teachers, the subquestions were first answered by using the following schemes for the analysis:

Classroom Observations : In an attempt to answer the second subquestion whether there would be a difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those who had been additionally engaged in a student teacher-supervising teacher collaborative dialogue, classroom observations were

analyzed by means of a classroom observation form (COF) which was developed by the researcher. The categories on the form are related to those aspects of teaching which teachers felt that they needed training in (see Appendix D). These aspects which formed the content of the knowledge-transmission training sessions are included in many observation forms used in the field (Cullan,1997; Nunan, 1989). In using this form the researcher aimed at assessing the extent of transfer of ideas and skills from the training to the classroom. In addition, the researcher took field notes to collect more detailed information and develop a deeper understanding of how and why teachers teach the way they do.

In order to find to what extent each item of the scale relates to all other items and to the total test, the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20, a highly regarded method to assess the reliability, was used (Best & Kahn, 1959). An alpha coefficient of .72 was obtained, which showed that the form had a satisfactory reliability and internal consistency (McMillan & Schumacher, 1989).

During the observations, the researcher recorded the degree of application of these behaviors by the teachers. Each item was rated by the researcher on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being 'very weak' and 5 'very good'. In brief, 1 indicates that a particular item was never observed during the observation. 2 ('weak') indicates, that the teacher did not perform the strategy required by that particular item well, 3 ('fair') indicates that the teacher was aware of the strategy, yet performed it unsatisfactorily. 4 ('good') indicates that the particular strategy was performed satisfactorily by

the teacher. Finally, 5 ('very good') indicates that the teacher performed the strategy perfectly. The observation forms were completed during the lessons. At points where the researcher hesitated on the exact evaluation of an item, she asked for the assistance of a trained colleague to replay the tape recordings of the lessons and doublecheck the questionable items. While doublechecking, the researcher also used her field notes when she had questions about non-verbal items, e.g. teacher position, teacher's use of the blackboard.

Audio-taped lessons: Evaluating a teacher's performance with a broad scale, such as the classroom observation form, could be subjective because it depends on the skill of the observer to fit the performance on the right slot on the scale. To validate this analysis, to further analyze the teacher talk and to answer the second part of the second subquestion, namely whether there was a difference between the above mentioned in terms of the nature of student and teacher talk in the classroom, the tape-recorded lessons were transcribed and analyzed by means of The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching scheme (COLT) developed by Fröhlich, Allen and Spada (1985). This instrument was developed for a large-scale evaluation of communicative language teaching, with the intention of discriminating among language teaching programs by means of categories on the instrument (i.e., criterion-related validity) (Chaudron, 1988). The categories included in COLT observation scheme are for the most part theoretically driven. Their conceptualization was derived from a comprehensive review of theories of communicative language

teaching and theories of first and second language acquisition. The COLT scheme has been used in a variety of L2 contexts to discover matches and mismatches between L2 program goals and practices and the researchers proposed that the instrument had validity in ascertaining differences among the programs and classes as measured by the relative frequency of communicative behaviors and activities observed (Chaudron, ibid).

COLT consists of two sections. Part A describes classroom activities in organizational and pedagogical terms and Part B describes communicative features of verbal exchanges between teachers and students and/or students and students as they occur within activities.

For the purposes of this study, only Part B of COLT was used to analyze the classroom data collected by means of tape recordings. Thus, the coding for Part B is done after the observation, from transcripts made from tape recordings. In COLT Part B, there are seven communicative features to measure use of the target language and the extent to which learners are given the opportunity to produce language without teacher imposed linguistic restrictions, to engage in sustained speech, to initiate discourse, to reach the meaning of what is being said, to elaborate one another's utterances and to exchange unknown or relatively unpredictable information (see Appendix G).

For the purposes of the study, all of the features but some categories were used for coding teacher and student talk (see Appendix H). The Kuder-Richardson Formula 20 was used to assess the reliability of this

modified form of the scheme (Best & Kahn, 1959). An alpha coefficient of .75 was obtained.

The general coding procedure for Part B is to place check marks in the appropriate columns for any of the relevant categories which occur within a teacher or student turn. A turn is defined as any speech which is produced by a speaker until another person begins speaking. Therefore, a turn can include as little speech as one word or as many as several sentences in extended discourse. Each category of Part B is calculated as a proportion of its main feature. To calculate a proportion, the usual procedure is to count the number of check marks in a particular category and divide by the total number of check marks under that particular feature (see Appendix I).

A trained colleague helped the researcher to transcribe and analyze the data coming from the tape recordings. When differences occured in the frequency counts, these discrepancies were resolved through discussions.

To answer the third subquestion, whether there would be a difference between the instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk of the teachers in the public and private schools after they had been engaged in a collaborative dialogue as well as exposed to a knowledge-transmission type of training, the researcher used the above mentioned procedures of data analysis.

Semi-structured interviews, student teacher journals and field notes: In an attempt to answer the first and fourth subquestions about the nature of collaborative dialogue, supervising teachers' and student teachers' attitude towards this dialogue, semi-structured interviews with student teachers and

supervising teachers, student teacher journals and researchers' field notes were analyzed and used to cross-validate the data.

As suggested by the Miles and Huberman model (1994) of qualitative analysis, the data analysis starts with data reduction which includes various methods to simplify and transform the raw data in the notes. In this study, pattern coding was used to reduce the "large amounts of data into a smaller number of analytic units" (p. 69).

Pattern codes are "explanatory codes that identify an emergent theme or explanation and pull together a lot of material into more meaningful units of analysis" (ibid. p.67). In other words, pattern coding is used to group data into a smaller number of sets, themes or constructs, e.g. benefits of the collaborative dialogue for the supervising teachers, student teachers' opinions of their relationship with their supervising teachers, etc.

3.7. Statistical analyses

By using the SPSS/8.0 program, the following tests were applied to the data analyzed by means of COF and COLT:

1) The test for differences between two independent samples was applied to the data analyzed to see whether a significant difference existed in the entry behaviours of the teachers in the two private and two public schools and between the private and public schools in terms of instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk.

2) The test for differences between two independent samples was applied to the post-knowledge transmission training data obtained by using

COF and COLT to find out the possible effects of the knowledge-transmission training on teachers in the above mentioned groups.

3) The repeated measures of ANOVA test (MANOVA) was applied to the pre-collaborative dialogue training data and each post-training data of the control and experimental groups obtained by using COF and COLT to see the degree of change, if there was one, on teachers' instructional practices and on the nature of teacher and student talk and to find out whether the schooltype (public vs. private) had any significant effects on the results of the treatment.

4) The test for mean differences between two independent samples (t-test) was applied to the data obtained by using COF and COLT after the knowledge-transmission only training, at the end of the collaborative dialogue process and one month after the process to find out the point of the process at which a significant difference emerged, if there was one, between the control and experimental groups.

5) The test for mean differences between two independent samples was applied to the data obtained by using COF and COLT after the knowledge-transmission only training, at the end of the collaborative dialogue process and one month after the process to find out if there was a difference between the experimental group teachers in public and private schools in terms of instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Presentation

As mentioned in the previous chapters, the present study was designed to investigate whether a collaborative dialogue in addition to knowledge-transmission training between EFL student teachers and supervising teachers would contribute to the professional development of EFL teachers as opposed to only knowledge-transmission training. To answer this major research question the following subquestions were dealt with:

1. What is the nature of the collaborative dialogue between the supervising teachers and the student teachers?

2. Will there be a difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those who were additionally engaged in a collaborative dialogue based on an assistance-support form of sustained interaction with student teachers?

3. Will there be a difference between the public and private school teachers in terms of benefits in teachers' instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk after they have engaged in a collaborative dialogue in addition to a knowledge-transmission type of training, if so how?

4. What are the supervising teachers' and student teachers' attitudes toward participation in a collaborative dialogue as opposed to a knowledge-transmission type of training?

For the purposes of the study, first the results of the second and third subquestions and then the first and fourth subquestions are presented separately.

4.2. Quantitative data results on the effects of the knowledge-transmission type of training vs. combined treatment

In an attempt to answer the second subquestion, namely whether there will be a difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those who were additionally engaged in a combined treatment, the results of the classroom observation schemes (COF and COLT) were analyzed.

4.2.1. Teachers' entry behaviour

To see if there were any differences in the entry behavior of teachers in the two public and two private schools regarding the use of instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk, t-tests were used. The results of the t-test applied to the data obtained from COF at the beginning of the study indicated that there were no significant differences in the instructional practices of the teachers between the two public and two private school teachers. That is, teachers in public schools a and b (see Table 1) and teachers in private schools a and b (see Table 2) were similar to each other in terms of instructional practices included in COF.

Table 1: Differences in the instructional practices of teachers in public schools a and b.

Teachers' instructional practices	School	X	Sd	df	t-value	p
Articulating objectives/ warm-up	public a public b	1.9 1.7	0.74 0.48	18	0.8	**0.48**
Teacher talk	public a public b	1.5 1.6	0.53 0.52	18	-0.5	**0.67**
Questioning patterns	public a public b	2 1.8	0.67 0.42	18	0.8	**0.43**
Prompting	public a public b	1.9 1.7	0.74 0.48	18	0.8	**0.48**
Wait time	public a public b	1.6 1.4	0.52 0.52	18	0.9	**0.39**
Turn distribution	public a public b	1.8 1.9	0.79 0.57	18	-0.45	**0.74**
Feedback	public a public b	1.8 1.9	0.79 0.63	18	-0.45	**0.74**
Instructions	public a public b	1.8 1.7	0.79 0.67	18	0.4	**0.76**
Group or pair work	public a public b	1.8 1.9	0.63 0.57	18	-0.45	**0.74**
The use of L1	public a public b	2 2.3	0.82 0.67	18	-0.9	**0.38**
Use of teaching aids/ blackboard	public a public b	2 2.2	0.32 0.42	18	-1.65	**0.14**
Checking understanding	public a public b	1.9 1.8	0.57 0.63	18	0.36	**0.71**
Teacher position	public a public b	1.8 1.9	0.63 0.57	18	-0.36	**0.71**
Teacher voice and gestures	public a public b	2.1 2	0.74 0.47	18	0.38	**0.72**

n= 20

Table 2: Differences in the instructional practices of teachers in private schools a and b.

Teachers' instructional practices	School	X	Sd	df	t-value	p
Articulating objectives/ warm-up	private a	2.2	0.42	18	0.5	**0.66**
	private b	2.1	0.57			
Teacher talk	private a	2.1	0.32	18	0.6	**0.5**
	private b	1.9	0.88			
Questioning patterns	private a	2.3	0.48	18	1.7	**0.29**
	private b	2.1	0.32			
Prompting	private a	2	0.47	18	0.89	**0.33**
	private b	1.8	0.42			
Wait time	private a	1.9	0.32	18	-0.6	**0.58**
	private b	2	0.47			
Turn distribution	private a	2.2	0.42	18	0.61	**0.5**
	private b	2	0.82			
Feedback	private a	2.2	0.42	18	0.00	**1**
	private b	2.2	0.79			
Instructions	private a	2.1	0.57	18	0.36	**0.72**
	private b	2	0.67			
Group or pair work	private a	2	0.47	18	0.6	**0.5**
	private b	1.8	0.79			
The use of L1	private a	3.2	0.79	18	0.6	**0.55**
	private b	3	0.67			
Use of teaching aids/ blackboard	private a	2.2	0.42	18	-0.54	**0.63**
	private b	2.3	0.48			
Checking understanding	private a	2.2	0.67	18	-0.36	**0.7**
	private b	2.3	0.79			
Teacher position	private a	2.2	0.57	18	-1.7	**0.23**
	private b	2.5	0.82			
Teacher voice and gestures	private a	2.3	0.48	18	-0.5	**0.66**
	private b	2.4	0.52			

n=20

The results of the t-test applied to data obtained from COLT, which analyze the nature of teacher and student talk, indicated that the teachers in the above mentioned groups also did not differ from each other at a statistically significant level in terms of teacher and student talk at the beginning of the study. As can be seen from the following tables no

significant differences were found between public a and b (Table 3) and private a and b teachers (Table 4) regarding any of the variables on COLT before the treatment at the beginning of the study.

Table 3: Differences between public a and public b in terms of the nature of teacher and student talk

	School	X	SD	df	t-value	p
Teacher talk						
L2	public a	81,9	2,8	18	-0.58	**0.56**
	public b	82,7	3,2			
Unpredicted info	public a	21,8	6,2	18	0.28	**0.85**
	public b	21,3	5,5			
Genuine questions	public a	22,2	7,5	18	-0.05	**0.9**
	public b	22,9	9,3			
Reaction to message	public a	20,7	6,1	18	0.69	**0.5**
	public b	19	4,7			
Incorporation of ss'utterances						
Clarification request	public a	11,7	5,1	18	0.05	**0.9**
	public b	11,4	4,8			
Repetition	public a	25,2	2,8	18	-0.82	**0.3**
	public b	26	2,3			
Elaboration request	public a	2,4	2,6	18	-1,6	**0.2**
	public b	3,7	2			
Student talk						
L2	public a	72,6	3,5	18	-0.05	**0.09**
	public b	75,3	3,3			
Unpredicted information	public a	23,7	5,7	18	-1.7	**0.28**
	public b	26,4	5,1			
Genuine question	public a	36	7,3	18	0.13	**0.88**
	public b	35,5	7,6			
Incorporation of t/ss'utterances						
Comment	public a	5	1,2	18	-0.71	**0.47**
	public b	5,7	7,7			
Expansion	public a	5,4	2,8	18	0.36	**0.72**
	public b	5	2,1			
Paraphrase	public a	5,2	1,6	18	- 0.9	**0.3**
	public b	6,1	2,2			
Sustained speech	public a	17,1	1.1	18	-1.64	**0.17**
	public b	22,6	4,1			
Unrestricted speech	public a	33,3	4,9	18	0.47	**0.49**
	public b	31,6	5,8			

n=20

Table 4: Differences between public a and public b in terms of the nature of teacher and student talk

	School	X	SD	df	t-value	p
Teacher talk						
L2	private a	86,9	4,3	18	0.28	**0.8**
	private b	86,4	3,6			
Unpredicted info	private a	25,3	4,1	18	0.51	**0.6**
	private b	2,4	6,8			
Genuine questions	private a	26,1	6,1	18	-0,28	**0.8**
	private b	27	6,4			
Reaction to message	private a	23,3	8,3	18	0.43	**0.7**
	private b	22	7,4			
Incorporation of ss'utterances						
Clarification request	private a	15,6	4,6	18	-0.36	**0.7**
	private b	16	5,3			
Repetition	private a	24,4	4,2	18	0.0	**1**
	private b	24,3	3,3			
Elaboration request	private a	3,2	1,9	18	-0.64	**0.5**
	private b	3,9	2,3			
Student talk						
L2	private a	75,4	4,5	18	-0.54	**0.6**
	private b	76,7	6			
Unpredicted information	private a	28,2	2,9	18	0.59	**0.6**
	private b	27	3,9			
Genuine question	private a	38,6	3,7	18	-0.32	**0.7**
	private b	39	4,5			
Incorporation of t/ss'utterances						
Comment	private a	7	2,2	18	0.00	**1**
	private b	7	3,7			
Expansion	private a	6,8	2	18	0.00	**1**
	private b	6,8	3,8			
Paraphrase	private a	6,1	1,5	18	-0.51	**0.6**
	private b	6,9	4,6			
Sustained speech	private a	16	4,5	18	0.26	**0.8**
	private b	15	5,6			
Unrestricted speech	private a	35,9	5,4	18	-0.34	**0.73**
	private b	37	4,2			

n=20

To see whether there were any differences between the entry behaviors of the private and public schools in terms of instructional practices and the nature of student and teacher talk, t-tests were applied again to the data obtained by COF and COLT.

As can be seen on Table 5, private and public school teachers differed from each other at a significant level in terms of the following instructional practices included in COF: teacher talk (Xp[3]=1.55, Xpr=2, p<.05), wait time (Xp=1.55, Xpr=1.9; p<.03), the use of L1 (Xp=2,15 Xpr=3.1, p<.004), and teacher position (Xp=1.85, Xpr=2.35, p<.02). Moreover, the difference between the mean scores of the two groups is close to the level of significance in the following teaching practices: articulating objectives (Xp=1.8, Xpr=2.15; p<0.09), questioning patterns (Xp=1.9, Xpr=2.2; p<0.06), giving feedback ((Xp=1.8, Xpr=2.2; p<0.06), checking understanding (Xp=1.85, Xpr=2.2; p<0.07) and teacher's voice and gestures (Xp=2.05, Xpr=2.35; p<0.09). As can be seen, the private school teachers have higher mean scores than public school teachers in all the instructional practices analyzed by COF but the differences in the other practices are not statistically significant.

[3] Xp stands for the mean scores of the public school teachers, Xpr stands for the mean scores of private school teachers.

Table 5: Differences in the instructional practices of teachers in private and public schools.

Teachers' instructional practices	School	X	Sd	df	t-value	p
Articulating objectives/ warm-up	public private	1.8 2.15	0.62 0.49	38	-1.8	**0.09**
Teacher talk	public private	1.55 2	0.51 0.65	38	-2.04	**0.05**
Questioning patterns	public private	1.9 2.2	0.55 0.41	38	-1.92	**0.06**
Prompting	public private	1.8 1.9	0.62 0.45	38	-0.68	**0.5**
Wait time	public private	1.55 1.9	0.51 0.45	38	-2.4	**0.03**
Turn distribution	public private	1.85 2.1	0.67 0.64	38	-1.32	**0.24**
Feedback	public private	1.8 2.2	0.70 0.62	38	-1.99	**0.06**
Instructions	public private	1.75 2.05	0.72 0.6	38	-1.7	**0.16**
Group or pair work	public private	1.85 1.9	0.67 0.64	38	-0.33	**0.81**
The use of L1	public private	2.15 3.1	0.75 0.72	38	-3.87	**0.004**
Use of teaching aids/ blackboard	public private	2.05 2.15	0.39 0.49	38	-.0.78	**0.48**
Checking understanding	public private	1.85 2.2	0.59 0.62	38	-.1.81	**0.07**
Teacher position	public private	1.85 2.35	0.59 0.64	38	-2.71	**0.02**
Teacher voice and gestures	public private	2.05 2.35	0.60 0.55	38	-1.78	**0.09**

n=40

Table 6: Differences between private and public schools in terms of the nature of teacher and student talk.

	School	X	Sd	df	t-value	p
Teacher talk						
L2	public	82.3	2.99	38	-2.4	**0.02**
	private	86.65	3.87			
Unpredicted info	public	21.6	5.76	38	-1.79	**0.09**
	private	24.7	5.4			
Genuine questions	public	22.6	5.22	38	-1.72	**0.09**
	private	26.5	6.12			
Reaction to message	public	19.9	5.4	38	-1.16	**0.22**
	private	22.5	7.6			
Incorporation of ss'utterances						
Clarification request	public	11.6	4.8	38	-2.66	**0.01**
	private	16	4.8			
Repetition	public	25.6	4.77	38	0.84	**0.3**
	private	24.4	3.7			
Elaboration request	public	3.05	2.33	38	0.7	**0.48**
	private	3.5	2.09			
Student talk						
L2	public	73.95	3.6	38	-1.3	**0.14**
	private	76.05	5.2			
Unpredicted information	public	25.1	5.4	38	-1.93	**0.07**
	private	27.8	3.35			
Genuine question	public	35.8	7	38	-1.77	**0.09**
	private	38.9	4			
Incorporation of t/ss'utterances						
Comment	public	5.35	2.08	38	-2.2	**0.05**
	private	7	2.9			
Expansion	public	5.2	2.42	38	-1.88	**0.07**
	private	6.8	2.9			
Paraphrase	public	5.65	1.95	38	-0.89	**0.33**
	private	6.5	3.3			
Sustained speech	public	19.9	8.8	38	1.91	**0.06**
	private	15.6	4.3			
Unrestricted speech	public	32.5	5.2	38	-2.56	**0.01**
	private	36.2	3.7			

n=40

Table 6 presents results of the t-test applied to COLT. Teachers in the above mentioned groups differed from each other in the following items related to the nature of teacher and student talk: teachers' use of L2 (Xp=82.3, Xpr=86.65; p<.02) and clarification request (Xp=11.6, Xpr=16, p<.01) and students' unrestricted speech (Xp=32.5, Xpr=36.2, p<.01). In all these items, the scores of the private school teachers were again significantly higher than those of the public school teachers. Moreover, in the following aspects of teacher and student talk the mean score differences approached but did not reach significance: teachers' giving unpredicted information (Xp=21.6, Xpr=24.7; p<.09) and asking genuine questions (Xp=22.6, Xpr=26.5; p<.09) and students' giving unpredicted information (Xp=25.1, Xpr=27.8; p<.07), asking genuine questions (Xp=35.8, Xpr=38.9; p<.07) and expansion ((Xp=5.2, Xpr=6.8; p<.07). Public schools have a higher mean score than private schools only in students' sustained speech (Xp=19.9, Xpr=15.6; p<.06).

4.2.2. Effects of knowledge-transmission training

In an attempt to find out the possible effects of the knowledge-transmission training, the independent samples t-test was applied to the post-knowledge training data obtained by using COF and COLT at the end of the knowledge-transmission training. The results of the tests indicated that the knowledge-transmission type of training didn't cause any significant changes either on the instructional practices of the teachers (see Table 7) or on the nature of teacher and student talk in both public and private schools (see Table 8).

As can be seen, the knowledge-transmission type of training, the content of which was prepared according to the needs of the participant teachers, did not cause any immediate significant changes in terms of teachers' instructional practices (COF) and the nature of the talk of the teachers and the talk of the students (COLT).

Table 7: Effects of knowledge transmission training on the instructional practices of teachers in public and private schools.

Teachers' instructional practices	School	X	Sd	X2	Sd	df	t-value	p
Articulating objectives/ warm-up	public	1.8	0.62	2.1	0.55	38	1.6	**0.11**
	private	2.15	0.56	2.4	0.57		1.62	**0.12**
Teacher talk	public	1.55	0.51	1.8	0.41	38	1.8	**0.09**
	private	2	0.67	2.35	0.59		1.88	**0.08**
Questioning patterns	public	1.9	0.55	2.05	0.51	38	0.89	**0.37**
	private	2.2	0.46	2.25	0.51		0.38	**0.71**
Prompting	public	1.8	0.62	2.05	0.51	38	1.55	**0.17**
	private	1.9	0.41	2.1	0.38		1.5	**0.1**
Wait time	public	1.55	0.51	1.85	0.59	38	1.8	**0.09**
	private	1.95	0.41	2.1	0.51		0.8	**0.33**
Turn distribution	public	1.85	0.67	2.15	0.49	38	1.6	**0.11**
	private	2.1	0.79	2.25	0.55		0.78	**0.43**
Feedback	public	1.8	0.7	1.95	0.69	38	0.73	**0.49**
	private	2.2	0.69	2.45	0.62		1.55	**0.17**
Instructions	public	1.75	0.72	2.1	0.55	38	1.8	**0.09**
	private	2.05	0.64	2.25	0.55		1.3	**0.24**
Group or pair work	public	1.85	0.67	2.2	0.7	38	1.58	**0.11**
	private	1.9	0.76	2.25	0.82		1.6	**0.12**
The use of L1	public	2.15	0.75	2.3	0.66	38	0.6	**0.5**
	private	3.1	0.85	3.25	0.88		0.66	**0.48**
Use of teaching aids/ blackboard	public	2.25	0.39	2.55	0.51	38	1.6	**0.12**
	private	2.25	0.44	2.55	0.59		1.9	**0.08**
Checking understanding	public	1.85	0.59	2.1	0.55	38	1.6	**0.17**
	private	2.25	0.72	2.45	0.67		1.2	**0.2**
Teacher position	public	1.85	0.59	2.1	0.55	38	1.5	**0.17**
	private	2.3	0.64	2.55	0.66		1.2	**0.27**
Teacher voice/gestures	public	2.05	0.6	2.25	0.55	38	1.2	**0.28**
	private	2.35	0.55	2.55	0.51		1.2	**0.21**

n=40

Table 8: Effects of knowledge transmission training on the nature of teacher and student talk in public and private schools

	School	X1	Sd	X2	Sd	df	t-val	p
Teacher talk								
L2	pubiic	82.3	2.99	83.5	3.2	38	1.3	**0.21**
	private	86.6	3.87	87.5	3.5		0.73	**0.47**
Unpredicted info.	public	21.6	5.76	23.7	3.2	38	1.5	**0.15**
	private	24.7	5.49	26	4.6		0.7	**0.41**
Genuine questions	public	22.6	8.22	23.8	4.1	38	0.9	**0.55**
	private	26.5	6.12	29.1	4.28		1.6	**0.13**
Reaction to message	public	19.9	5.4	21.9	5.6	38	1.2	**0.25**
	private	22.5	7.69	25	6.3		1.2	**0.26**
Incorp. of ss' utter.								
Clarification request	public	11.6	4.86	13	3.7	38	0.8	**0.3**
	private	16	4.84	16.7	4.2		0.58	**0.65**
Repetition	public	25.6	4.7	25	2.37	38	1.6	**0.19**
	private	24.4	3.7	23.8	2.7		0.28	**0.85**
Elaboration request	public	3.1	2.3	4	1.78	38	1.62	**0.16**
	private	3.6	2.1	4.4	2.2		1.16	**0.11**
Student talk								
L2	public	73.95	3.6	75.6	3.4	38	1.6	**0.13**
	private	76.05	5.2	77.1	5.5		0.6	**0.54**
Unpredicted info.	public	25.1	5.46	26.6	5	38	0.8	**0.36**
	private	27.8	3.35	29.2	4.4		1.2	**0.27**
Genuine question	public	35.8	7	36.6	5.33	38	0.4	**0.69**
	private	38.9	4	40.6	4.45		1.2	**0.21**
Incorp. of ss'/t's utter.								
Comment	public	5.35	2.08	5.3	2.5	38	0.05	**0.97**
	private	7	2.94	7.05	3.39		0.05	**0.96**
Expansion	public	5.2	2.4	5.2	2.1	38	0.00	**1**
	private	6.8	2.9	7.7	3.2		0.9	**0.36**
Paraphrase	public	5.65	1.95	5.4	1.7	38	0.5	**0.67**
	private	6.5	3.35	6.2	3.4		0.38	**0.78**
Sustained speech	public	19.9	8.83	20	6.24	38	0.04	**0.97**
	private	15.6	4.3	15.6	6.6		0.00	**1**
Unrestricted speech	public	32.5	5.27	33.2	4.43	38	0.5	**0.63**
	private	36.2	3.78	38.1	4.42		1.7	**0.16**

n=40

4.2.3. Effects of the combined treatment on teachers' instructional practices

To see the possible effects of the combined treatment on teachers' instructional practices and to see if the school type had any effects on the results of the treatment, the repeated measures of ANOVA (MANOVA) were applied to the scores that the control and experimental groups obtained in terms of COF before, immediately after and again one month after the collaborative dialogue. In other words, comparisons between the control and experimental groups were made to see if there were any differences between the long term effects of the knowledge-transmission training only and the immediate and long term effects of the combined treatment.

Table 9 shows the group differences and the intercept of group differences and school type across all observations. As can be seen, there are significant differences between the control and experimental groups in the following instructional practices: articulating objectives ($p<.004$), teacher talk ($p<.012$), questioning patterns ($p<.047$), prompting ($p.<004$), wait time ($p<.04$), turn distribution ($p<.003$), feedback ($p<.02$), instructions ($p<.001$), group/pair work ($p<.046$), the use of L1 ($p<.03$), use of teaching aids ($p<.046$) and checking understanding ($p<.04$). On the other hand, the combined treatment did not cause any significant changes on teacher position in the classroom and teacher voice and gestures.

Table 9: Differences between control and experimental groups in terms of the instructional practices

Teachers' instructional practices	Gr.	df	t-value	Differ+ Group p	t-value	Differ+School type p
Articulating objectives/ warm-up	C E	38	-3.3	**0.004**	1.3	**0.208**
Teacher talk	C E	38	-2.65	**0.012**	0.05	**0.951**
Questioning patterns	C E	38	-2.3	**0.047**	0.45	**0.678**
Prompting	C E	38	-3.3	**0.004**	1.7	**0.167**
Wait time	C E	38	-2.25	**0.04**	0.2	**0.851**
Turn distribution	C E	38	-3.53	**0.003**	0.25	**0.812**
Feedback	C E	38	-2.5	**0.02**	0.56	**0.682**
Instructions	C E	38	-3.87	**0.001**	0.56	**0.682**
Group or pair work	C E	38	-2.25	**0.046**	0.78	**0.444**
The use of L1	C E	38	-2.4	**0.03**	0.05	**0.93**
Use of teaching aids/ blackboard	C E	38	-2.25	**0.046**	0.39	**0.755**
Checking understanding	C E	38	-2.2	**0.04**	0.3	**0.758**
Teacher position	C E	38	-1.72	**0.12**	0.05	**0.917**
Teacher voice / gestures	C E	38	-1.32	**0.23**	0.69	**0.445**

n=40

The above results have the following implications: In relation to articulating objectives and warm-up, teachers started making use of different and effective warm-up activities, e.g. giving background information necessary for understanding or communicating about the topic, introducing vocabulary or difficult language in various ways (see Table 9).

During the training sessions, the researcher noticed that the teachers participating in this study were not aware that they were doing most of the classroom talk. However, at the end of the combined treatment, teachers in the experimental groups seemed to be able to avoid excessive talk in favor of student talk due to the change in the nature of the activities carried out in class and teachers' questioning patterns. Similarly, after the treatment, questions asked by the experimental group teachers became more congruent with the objectives of a communicative lesson and teachers started using display and referential questions more effectively. The researcher noticed that they preferred 'life-personal', instead of 'life-general' questions as these questions involved students in talking about themselves, thus providing greater opportunities for meaningful interaction. Moreover, when students misunderstood a question, experimental group teachers tried to reformulate it either by rephrasing the question or simplifying it by making the answer more concrete and obvious. Sometimes they also prompted by inserting supplementary information that steered the lesson in the right direction. In doing so they were also able to check students' comprehension and give the students opportunity to practice.

As mentioned above, another significant increase can be seen in teachers' wait time. In contrast to control group teachers, teachers in the experimental groups paused and gave students more time to think about their answers before giving the answer themselves or calling on another student. The use of longer wait time was especially seen when students were asked to demonstrate higher order abilities, e.g. forming conclusions, making comparisons and inferences, etc. During the treatment, the importance of turn distribution among all students was also emphasized. At the end of the study, teachers seemed to distribute response opportunities at a significantly higher level than control group teachers, thus encouraging students to engage in classroom interactions more actively.

During the observations before the collaborative dialogue, the researcher had noticed that teachers tended to focus on correcting mistakes of form rather than message. Collaborative dialogue seems to meet the objective of awareness raising to different types of teacher feedback as experimental group teachers focused on this aspect more than control group teachers; e.g. letting students know that they have performed correctly and increasing their motivation by acknowledging their correct answers. This finding was later on confirmed by the results of COLT data (explained in the next section).

Again during the observations, the researcher noticed that in many classes problems arose due to students' uncertainty about what they were supposed to be doing. As a result of the combined treatment, teachers communicated the necessary information much more clearly, e.g. told the

students precisely what the task involved, what the possible options were etc. During training sessions, teachers also said that they became aware of the fact that both long and repetitive as well as vague and hesitant instructions distracted and bored students and caused discipline problems.

When discussing the use of group/pair work, teachers mostly complained that during pair/group work they were losing control and there was too much noise because of certain problematic students. Although later most of the experimental teachers indicated their satisfaction with the activities student teachers carried out in the lessons (to be discussed in the next section), they still said that "group work is effective, only when there are observers. Students know that student teachers are going to be graded so they do their best". According to these teachers, when there were no observers, students reverted to off the topic discussions in L1, making the group work ineffective. Thus, they believed that these activities did not work in 'their context'. As afore mentioned, there is a significant improvement on this item but the researcher noticed that the change was due to teachers' use of pair work activities rather than group work. Teachers thought that pair work activities are easier to manage than group work activities because each student had to take more responsibility to complete the task.

During the practicum, student teachers were eager to prepare extra materials and use them in different activities and experimental group teachers helped them prepare these. Most of the teachers believed that student teachers' trying new techniques or activities in the lessons changed the classroom atmosphere positively, but as it took time to prepare the extra

materials all the time, they themselves "stopped doing so years ago". In most of the classes the only teaching aids used were the board and in some classes tape-recorders. As indicated in the researcher's field notes, even these were not used effectively most of the time. During the knowledge transmission training and collaborative dialogue, the importance of visual aids and the effective use of the blackboard and tape recorder were described and focused on and as a result, teachers' use of extra materials, especially newspapers or magazines, improved at a significant level.

Another significant difference between the control and experimental groups occurred in terms of the L1 use. In other words, experimental group teachers made more judicious use of L1, i.e. the use of L1 during communication decreased but teachers used L1 for lexical explanations when necessary.

As mentioned before, the combined treatment did not have any significant effects on teachers' position in the classroom and teachers' voice and gestures. During the observations, the researcher observed that teachers have their own teaching space in class where they mostly prefer to sit or stand. There were also teachers whose voices were not easily heard in the back rows and others who were using excessive body language by which the students were mostly distracted. Despite the emphasis given during the training sessions, these two areas seem to be the ones in which teachers have found it more difficult to make changes than in the others. The reason for this may be that these two practices may be bound-up with personality factors which take a much longer time to change.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, it was also investigated whether the school type affected the results obtained from the control and experimental groups at the end of the combined treatment. According to the results presented in Table 9, none of the t-values for the intercept of difference between control and experimental groups and school type is at a statistically significant level at the end of the study. In other words, this finding indicates that the difference between experimental and control group teachers emerged as a result of the combined treatment and not as a result of difference of the school type.

4. 2.3.1. Immediate and long-term effects of the combined treatment on teachers' instructional practices

To find out the point of the process at which a significant difference emerged between the control and experimental groups, the mean scores of each item after the knowledge-transmission only training, at the end of the collaborative dialogue and one month after the dialogue were calculated and experimental and control group gain scores were compared with each other.

According to the results presented in Table 10, the combined treatment had both immediate and long-term effects on the experimental group teachers in the following instructional practices: articulating objectives (X2c=2.2, X3c=2.3; X2e=2.3, X3e=2.85; p<.03), (X3c=2.3, X4c=2.4; X3e=2.85, X4e=3.2; p<.04), teacher talk (X2c=2, X3c=2.1; X2e=2.15, X3e=2.7; p<.03), (X3c=2.1, X4c=2.25; X3e=2.7, X4e=3.15, p<.05), questioning patterns (X2c=2.25, X3c=2.05; X2e=2.05, X3e=2.3, p<.01);

(X3c=2.05, X4c=2.15; X3e=2.3, X3e=2.8, p<.01), feedback (X2c=2.2, X3c=2.25; X2e=2.2, X3e=2.75, p<.01), (X2c=2.25, X3c=2.25; X2e=2.75, X3e=3.25, p<.02) and instructions (X2c=2.25, X3c=2.75; X2e=2.1, X3e=2.4; p< .01); (X3c=2.75, X4c=2.15; X3e=2.4, X4e=2.9; p<.04).

As can be seen in Table 10, the treatment had only immediate effects on the use of longer wait time (X2c=1.9, X3c=2; X2e=2.05, X3e=2.6, p<.03), group/pair work (X2c=2.05, X3c=2; X2e=2.4, X3e=2.7; p<.03) and teaching aids and blackboard (X2c=2.4, X3c=2.35; X2e=2.65, X3e=3.25; p<.04). Regarding the long-term effects of the treatment on these items, although there is an increase in the mean scores, the change is not a significant one. Allocating longer wait time to encourage communication in the classroom was one of the topics the treatment placed considerable emphasis on. Teachers said that longer wait time affected classroom interaction positively but it was not always possible to do it because of the pace and duration of the lessons.

As mentioned before, experimental teachers were highly satisfied with group/pair work activities student teachers carried out in their classes. Combined treatment had only immediate effects on this item because teachers made use of group, especially pair work activities, only for a restricted period of time. So, as the class was not used to using it, they gave up. Teachers also complained that students did not find the group work and pair work tasks interesting and stimulating enough.

According to the researcher's field notes, experimental group teachers in both private and public schools preferred using the extra materials

brought by the student teachers; for this reason, the immediate effects of the training fell to the period of student teaching. However, after the student teachers left the program, teachers fell back to their old habits regarding these two teaching practices. Teachers claimed that they could not find time to prepare their own materials because of their work load. According to the researcher, this is due to teachers' work load and due to the demands of the syllabus which limit the amount of time that could be used to implement communicative practices. As teachers follow a common curriculum, it is very important for them not to be behind the other classes so that their students are not unsuccessful in the common exams.

The treatment had no immediate but only long term effects regarding the following instructional practices: prompting ($X3c=2.1$, $X4c=2.25$; $X3e=2.3$, $X4e=2.9$; $p<.01$), turn distribution ($X3c=2.15$, $X4c=2.2$; $X3e=2.55$, $X4e=3$, $p<.04$), the use of L1 ($X3c=2.75$, $X4c=2.8$; $X3e=3.35$, $X4e=3.75$; $p<.03$) and checking understanding ($X3c=2.15$, $X4c=2.1$; $X3e=2.6$, $X4e=3.1$; $p <.02$). These teaching practices seem to require more time than others to show a statistically significant change.

Table 10: Immediate and long-term effects of the combined treatment on teachers' instructional practices.

Teachers' instructional pract.	Gr.	df	X2	Sd	X3	Sd	t-val.	p	X4	Sd	t-val	p
Articulating object. warm-up	C	38	2.2	0.6	2.3	0.47	2.3	**0.03**	2.4	0.8	2.2	**0.04**
	E		2.3	0.57	2.85	0.87			3.2	0.8		
Teacher talk	C	38	2	0.57	2.1	0.7	2.3	**0.03**	2.25	0.8	2.1	**0.05**
	E		2.15	0.59	2.7	0.73			3.15	0.8		
Questioning patt.	C	38	2.25	0.55	2.05	0.5	2.7	**0.01**	2.15	0.6	2.74	**0.01**
	E		2.05	0.51	2.3	0.5			2.8	0.6		
Prompting	C	38	2.1	0.64	2.1	0.47	1.7	**0.12**	2.25	0.6	2.7	**0.01**
	E		2.05	0.39	2.3	0.4			2.9	0.64		
Wait time	C	38	1.9	0.6	2	0.6	2.3	**0.03**	2.2	0.6	0.23	**0.08**
	E		2.05	0.51	2.6	0.6			3	0.8		
Turn distribution	C	38	2.15	0.51	2.15	0.7	1.69	**0.15**	2.2	0.7	2.23	**0.04**
	E		2.25	0.55	2.55	0.6			3	0.8		
Feedback	C	38	2.2	0.69	2.25	0.6	2.7	**0.01**	2.3	0.7	2.55	**0.02**
	E		2.2	0.72	2.75	0.8			3.3	0.86		
Instructions	C	38	2.25	0.72	2.75	0.8	2.7	**0.01**	2.15	0.6	2.18	**0.04**
	E		2.1	0.55	2.4	0.8			2.9	0.7		
Group or pair work	C	38	2.05	0.52	2	0.8	2.3	**0.03**	2.1	0.8	0.39	**0.7**
	E		2.4	0.82	2.7	0.8			3	0.8		
The use of L1	C	38	2.7	0.89	2.75	0.79	1.9	**0.06**	2.8	0.7	2.3	**0.03**
	E		2.85	0.88	3.35	0.7			3.75	0.7		
Use of teaching aids/black.	C	38	2.4	0.45	2.35	0.6	2.17	**0.04**	2.5	0.55		**0.22**
	E		2.65	0.59	3.25	0.79			3.55	0.5	1.32	
Checking unders.	C	38	2.2	0.51	2.15	0.68		**0.2**	2.1	0.79	2.5	**0.02**
	E		2.35	0.67	2.6	0.68	1.3		3.1	0.7		
Teacher position	C	38	2.35	0.72	2.4	0.73	2.5	**0.02**	2.5	0.8	2.5	**0.02**
	E		2.3	0.66	2.9	0.7			3.4	0.9		
Teacher voice/ges.	C	38	2,3	0.59	2,4	0.6	1.7	**0.1**	2.5	0.7	0.05	**0,6**
	E		2,5	0.51	2,95	0.6			3.4	0.8		

n=40

4.2. 4. Effects of the combined treatment on the nature of teacher-student talk

To see the possible effects of the collaborative dialogue on teachers' instructional practices the repeated measures of ANOVA (MANOVA) were applied to the scores that the control and experimental groups obtained in terms of COLT before, immediately after and one month after the collaborative dialogue. In other words, comparisons were made to see the differences between the long term effects of the knowledge-transmission training only and the immediate and long term effects of the combined treatment, Table 11 shows the group differences and the intercept of group differences and school type across all observations. As can be seen, at the end of the study the following characteristics of teacher talk of experimental group teachers showed significant improvement: use of L2 ($p<.03$), unpredicted information ($p<.001$), genuine questions ($p<.02$), reaction to message ($p<.01$) and clarification request ($p<.04$) and elaboration request ($p<.03$).

As mentioned above, in comparison to control group teachers, experimental teachers' use of L2 increased significantly. Related to the use of L2, provision of unpredictable information shows a significant level of increase. This kind of information was provided either as part of prompting, i.e. when rephrasing a question the teacher added some information, or as part of spontaneous speech, i.e. in the warm-up activities they added personal observations about events or stated personal attitudes. In other words, experimental group teachers provided ideas and opinions outside the

text, thus facilitating genuine communication in the classroom. The questions under this group were mostly elicitation of opinions or interpretation questions. They encouraged students to express themselves. The significant increase in terms of reaction to message indicates that experimental group teachers showed their interest in the content of students' messages similar to daily communication during the class interaction. As afore mentioned, pre-training data showed that teachers mostly preferred providing feedback to form rather than message. Experimental group teachers' relatively high mean scores on elaboration request indicate teachers' interest in making students express their ideas in detail rather than in the form of short answers. Before the treatment, the researcher noticed that when the teacher did not understand what a student was trying to convey, she would usually call on another student or tell the student the expected answer. Experimental teachers tried different clarification strategies to make the student go on with the communication. The increase in all of the above mentioned items shows that teachers' ability to foster communicative use of English in class improved as a result of the combined treatment.

As can be seen in Table 11, student talk in experimental teachers' classes also shows significant improvement in comparison to that in the control classes. The improvement occurred in the following aspects: use of L2 ($p<.04$), giving unpredicted information ($p<.04$), commenting ($p<.05$), expanding ($p<.002$), paraphrasing ($p<.02$) and using unrestricted speech ($p<.01$) and sustained speech ($p<.04$). Students started giving unpredicted

information to answer the teachers' genuine questions at an increasing level and rather than giving short answers, they either added their comments or used other ways to elaborate on them. For example, they tried to expand their answers by giving various examples to clarify their points or paraphrased their answers when necessary. When providing unpredicted information or elaborating their answers, students tried to elaborate their answers. That is, like real communication, they more and more focused on conveying their message rather than on form and participated more in class. All these changes in the nature of student talk may be related to the changes in the nature of teacher talk as discussed earlier.

The combined treatment had no significant effects on teachers' repetition practices and students' use of genuine questions. It seems to be a strong habit of the teachers to repeat students' correct answers several times. Although this practice does not have any place in real communication, teachers believed that it is necessary to repeat correct answers so that other students can benefit from it. Despite the increase in teachers' use of genuine questions and provision of unpredicted information, students' use of genuine questions did not show a significant increase. This may be due to cultural reasons as it is common practice in Turkish classrooms that teachers mostly ask the questions. Although the classrooms observed in this study became much more communicatively oriented than before, students still shied away from asking questions to their teachers.

The findings on table 11 indicate that school type had again no significant effect on the results obtained at the end of the combined treatment.

Table 11: The effects of the combined treatment on teacher and student talk.

	Group	df	t-value	Differ+ Group p	t-value	Differ+ School p
Teacher talk						
L2	C	38	-2.3	**0.03**	0.05	**0.93**
	E	38				
Unpredicted information	C	38	-3.9	**0.001**	0.3	**0.78**
	E	38				
Genuine questions	C	38	-2.6	**0.02**	0.31	**0.76**
	E	38				
Reaction to message	C	38	-2.8	**0.01**	0.05	**0.94**
	E	38				
Incorpor. of ss' utter.						
Clarification request	C	38	-1.7	**0.04**	0.05	**0.95**
	E	38				
Repetition	C	38	-0.9	**0.36**	0.2	**0.79**
	E	38				
Elaboration request	C	38	-2.3	**0.03**	0.9	**0.32**
	E	38				
Student talk						
L2	C	75,4	-2.12	**0.04**	0.2	**0.88**
	E	76,7				
Unpredicted information	C	28,2	-2.05	**0.05**	0.2	**0.88**
	E	27				
Genuine question	C	38,6	-1.71	**0.11**	1.92	**0.06**
	E	39				
Incorpor. of ss'/t's utter.						
Comment	C	7	-2.07	**0.05**	0.3	**0.72**
	E	7				
Expansion	C	6,8	-3.6	**0.002**	1.7	**0.17**
	E	6,8				
Paraphrase	C	6,1	-2.6	**0.02**	0.2	**0.809**
	E	6,9				
Sustained speech	C	12	-2.1	**0.04**	0.23	**0.896**
	E	11				
Unrestricted speech	C	35,9	-2.8	**0.01**	1.3	**0.231**
	E	37				

n=40

4.2.4.1. Immediate and long term effects of the combined treatment on the nature of student and teacher talk

Table 12 presents the mean scores of the second, third and fourth observations of the control and experimental groups separately. As can be seen, the combined treatment had both immediate and long-term effects on two aspects of teacher talk, i.e. unpredicted information (X2c=25.5, X3c=26.4; X2e=24.2, X3e=29.5, p<.004), (X3c=26.4, X4c=27.6; X3e=29.5, X3e=35.2; p<.01) and elaboration request (X2c=4.4, X3c=5.45; X2e=4.95, X3e=8.45; p<.01; X3c=5.45, X4c=6; X3e=8.45, X4e=10.8; p<.04) and two aspects of student talk, i.e. expansion (X2c=6.3, X3c=7.25; X2e=6.6, X3e=10.5; p<.01), (X3c=7.25, X4c=7.8; X3e=10.5, X4e=16.1, p<.003) and unrestricted speech (X2c=36.6, X3c=38.2; X2e=34.7, X3e=42.6, p<.01; X3c=38.2, X4c=43.5; X3e=42.6, X4e=53.7, p<.01).

In terms of teachers' clarification requests, the combined treatment had statistically immediate effects (X2c=14.6, X3c=13.9; X2e=15.1, X3e=18.1; p<.04) and the long term effect of the treatment is verging on significance (X3c=13.9, X4c=13.3; X3e=18.1, X4e=18.8; p<.07).

The combined treatment had no immediate but only long-term effects on the following aspects of teacher talk: teacher's use of L2 (X3c=86.4, X4c=86.6; X3e=88.8, X4e=91.3, p<.02), genuine questions (X3c=27.2, X4c=27; X3e=33.2, X4e=38.3; p<.02) and reaction to message (X3c=24.8, X4c=25.4; X3e=27, X4e=36.9, p<.002). The ability of the teacher to exploit opportunities in class to use English as a vehicle for oral communication seems to be an area in which teachers have clearly found it

more difficult to make changes than in some others. Fostering a communicative use of English in class is a skill which is closely bound up with a teacher's own command of English and above all his/her confidence in using it in the classroom. As mentioned before, teachers mostly preferred questions aiming at testing students' knowledge on a subject. Finally, it took a longer time for the teachers to change their strategies when reacting to the message of the students. Rather than saying 'Good', 'OK', they were asked to engage in meaningful conversations.

As can be seen in Table 12, the treatment had no immediate but only long-term effects on the following aspects of student talk: provision of unpredicted information ($X3c=28.2$, $X4c=28.5$; $X3e=32.2$, $X4e=36.1$; $p<.05$), paraphrase ($X3c=6.85$, $X4c=6.75$; $X3e=7.95$, $X4e=10.25$; $p<.04$) and sustained speech ($X3c=19$, $X4c=22.1$; $X3e=21.6$, $X4e=29.7$; $p<.04$). The increase in the amount of students' provision of unpredicted information may be a result of the increase in teachers' genuine questions. Moreover, students' skills in paraphrasing seem to be improved. That is, their answers became less controlled and there was an increase in the amount of student speech, i.e. their answers became longer.

Table 12: Immediate and long-term effects of the combined treatment on the nature of teacher and student talk.

	Gr.	X2	Sd	X3	Sd	t-val	p	x4	sd	df	t-val	p
Teacher talk												
L2	C	85	3.55	86.4	3.3	-0.9	**0.34**	86.6	2.8	38	-2.4	**0.02**
	E	86.1	4.2	88.8	3.4			91.3	3.6			
Unpredicted info	C	25.5	3.44	26.4	4.9	-3.1	**0.004**	27.6	3.7	38	-2.7	**0.01**
	E	24.2	4.7	29.5	6.16			35.2	5.7			
Genuine questions	C	25.7	5.03	27.2	4.2	-1.7	**0.08**	27	6.2	38	-2.4	**0.02**
	E	27.2	4.88	33.2	10.9			38.8	10.7			
Reaction to mess.	C	23.9	6.7	24.8	8.7	-1.3	**0.2**	25.4	6.6	38	-3.6	**0.002**
	E	23.1	5.5	27	5.7			36.9	4.7			
Incorpo. of ss'utter.												
Clarification req.	C	14.6	5.1	13.9	6.1	-1.7	**0.04**	13.3	6.4	38	-0.6	**0.07**
	E	15.1	3.55	18.1	4.4			18.8	8.3			
Repetition	C	25.0	2.9	24.7	3.7	-0.2	**0.8**	24	3.6	38	-0.4	**0.69**
	E	24.9	2.2	23	2.65			22.4	3.64			
Elaboration req.	C	4.4	2.08	5.45	2.3	-2.7	**0.01**	6	2.8	38	-2.2	**0.04**
	E	4.95	2.1	8.45	2.85			10.8	5.51			
Student talk												
L2	C	75.2	4.6	76.5	5.9	-1.3	**0.2**	77.7	4.6	38	-2.1	**0.05**
	E	77.5	4.3	79.9	6.3			85.6	6.05			
Unpredicted info.	C	27.7	5.3	28.8	5.2	-1.3	**0.24**	28.5	7.4	38	-2.1	**0.05**
	E	28.1	4.4	32.2	5.6			36.1	4.78			
Genuine question	C	38.8	4.5	39.6	8.9	-1.7	**0.09**	41.3	6.97	38	-0.6	**0.6**
	E	38.4	6.02	44	8.25			47.1	9.31			
Incorpo. of ss'/t' utter.												
Comment	C	5.6	2.4	5.45	2.6	-2.1	**0.05**	6.1	2.5	38	-0.2	**0.8**
	E	6.8	3.57	9.1	3.43			10	4.4			
Expansion	C	6.3	2.6	7.25	2.7	-2.7	**0.01**	7.8	5.07	38	-3.4	**0.003**
	E	6.6	3.37	10.5	3.77			16.1	7.18			
Paraphrase	C	6.05	2.25	6.85	2.23	-1.8	**0.09**	6.75	3.24	38	-2.3	**0.04**
	E	5.55	3.13	7.95	3.1			10.3	2.97			
Sustained speech	C	15.9	6.42	19	5.76	-0.39	**0.68**	22.1	6.58	38	-2.3	**0.04**
	E	19.6	6.7	21.6	7.59			29.7	5.2			
Unrestricted sp.	C	36.6	5.6	38.2	6.92	-2.74	**0.01**	43.5	5.8	38	-2.7	**0.01**
	E	34.7	4.14	42.6	6.32			53.7	7.23			

n=40

The findings obtained from the quantitative test results up to this point indicated that there is a significant difference between the instructional practices of the teachers who took only a knowledge-transmission type of training and those who were additionally engaged in a collaborative dialogue with student teachers. Regarding the immediate and long term effects of the combined treatment, we can say that experimental group teachers scored significantly higher than control group teachers in most of the classroom practices. Moreover, there is a significant difference between these groups in terms of the nature of teacher and student talk. When we compare the group gain scores of the two post-collaborative training data (i.e. after the collaborative dialogue and one month after the collaborative dialogue), we can see that the combined treatment had more long term effects than immediate effects.

4.3. Effects of the combined treatment: public vs. private school experimental group teachers

In an attempt to answer the third subquestion, namely whether there was a difference between the public and private schools in terms of benefits in teachers' instructional practices and the nature of teacher and student talk after they are engaged in a collaborative dialogue, the two independent samples t-test was applied to the gain scores of the two groups in relation to the data collected by COF and COLT at the beginning of the study (before the training) and at the end of the study (after the training).

First, the two groups were compared in terms of their entry behaviours. The results of the t-test applied to the data analyzed by COF

are presented in Table 13. As can be seen in Table 13, there are significant differences between the instructional practices of the above mentioned groups in terms of the following instructional practices included in COF: questioning patterns ($p<.05$), wait time ($p<.02$), prompting ($p<.02$), giving instructions ($p<.03$) and the use of L2 ($p<.001$). In other words, prior to the treatment, experimental teachers in the private schools were found to be significantly better than experimental teachers in public schools in terms of the variety of the questions they asked ($Xp=1.8$, $Xpr=2.2$). In terms of wait time ($Xp =1.6$, $Xpr = 2$), again the private school teachers provided the students in their classes with longer wait time after asking them a question, giving the student longer time to think than the public school teachers. Private school teachers were again better than public school teachers ($Xp=1.7$, $Xpr=2$) in terms of prompting skills, as they tried to paraphrase and reformulate their questions when students were having difficulties in answering questions. Moreover, the instructions of the private school teachers were clearer and more precise than the other group ($Xp=1.6$, $Xpr=2.2$). The instructions of the public school teachers at this point were more verbose and vague. Finally, the groups differed from each other at a significant level in terms of L2 use since private school teachers used more L2 in the class ($Xp=2.2$, $Xpr=3.3$). Moreover, in terms of checking the understanding of the students, the difference between the two groups is very close to the level of significance in favor of the private school teachers again ($Xp=1.8$, $Xpr=2.4$; $p<.06$).

Table 13: Differences between private and public school experimental teachers in terms of their instructional practices

Teachers' instructional pract.	School	df	X	Sd	t-value	p
Articulating objectives/ warm-up	public private	18	1.8 2.2	0.63 0.42	-1.7	**0.11**
Teacher talk	public private	18	1.6 2.1	0.52 0.73	-1.7	**0.1**
Questioning patterns	public private	18	1.8 2.2	0.43 0.42	-2.07	**0.05**
Prompting	public private	18	1.7 2	0.47 0.43	-2.3	**0.02**
Wait time	public private	18	1.6 2	0.57 0	-2.34	**0.02**
Turn distribution	public private	18	1.7 2.3	0.81 0.61	-1.8	**0.09**
Feedback	public private	18	1.9 2.1	0.71 0.32	-1.02	**0.34**
Instructions	public private	18	1.6 2.2	0.73 0.65	-2.2	**0.03**
Group or pair work	public private	18	1.9 2.1	0.84 0.72	-0.78	**0.78**
The use of L1	public private	18	2.2 3.3	0.67 0.62	-3.9	**0.001**
Use of teaching aids/ blackboard	public private	18	2.1 2.3	0.34 0.4	0.9	**0.3**
Checking understanding	public private	18	1.8 2.4	0.62 0.71	-.1.95	**0.06**
Teacher position	public private	18	2 2.2	0.63 0.68	-0.6	**0.5**
Teacher voice and gestures	public private	18	2.2 2.3	0.62 0.41	-0.3	**0.7**

n=20

The results of the t-test applied to the data analyzed by COLT are presented in Table 14 and they indicate that the groups differed from each other in terms of the following practices: teachers' use of L2 ($p<.001$) and students' use of L2 ($p<.05$), expansion ($p<.01$). In conformity with the results of the previous test, private school teachers have significantly higher

mean scores in their use of L2 (Xp=82.5, Xpr=87.8; p<.001). The mean percentage of L2 spoken by the students in the private schools is also significantly higher than that used in public school classes (Xp=73.4, Xpr=76.8; p<.05). In terms of expansion skills, (i.e. elaborating on and adding new information to their answers), the private school students were significantly better than public school students (Xp=4.1, Xpr=6.5; p<.01). Moreover, the difference between the groups is close to the level of significance in terms of students' asking genuine questions (p<.07). Students in the private schools seemed to initiate discussion or ask genuine questions on their own more than public school students did.

As can be seen, private schools have higher mean percentages than public groups in all aspects of teacher and student talk except teachers' clarification requests (Xp=14.5, Xpr=14.1; p<.76) and students' sustained speech (Xp=18, Xpr=15.6; p<.4); however, these differences are not statistically significant.

Table 14: Differences between public and private experimental group teachers in terms of the nature of teacher talk and student talk.

	School	df	X	Sd	t-val	p
Teacher talk						
L2	public	18	82.5	2.55	-3.9	**0.001**
	private		87.8	3.2		
Unpredicted info	public	18	20.9	3.44	-1.7	**0.13**
	private		24.8	2.7		
Genuine questions	public	18	23.6	1.03	-0.9	**0.3**
	private		26.9	2.88		
Reaction to message	public	18	21.2	3.7	0.05	**0.9**
	private		21.4	3.5		
Incorp. of ss' utter.						
Clarification request	public	18	14.5	4.1	0.38	**0.76**
	private		14.1	3.55		
Repetition	public	18	21.2	1.9	-0.6	**0.5**
	private		21.4	2.2		
Elaboration request	public	18	2.9	2.08	-0.6	**0.5**
	private		3.5	2.1		
Student talk						
L2	public	18	73.4	3.6	-2.1	**0.05**
	private		76.8	4.3		
Unpredicted info.	public	18	25.2	5.3	-0.9	**0.34**
	private		27.1	4.4		
Genuine question	public	18	35.8	4.5	-1.8	**0.07**
	private		38.7	2.02		
Incorp. of ss'/t'utter.						
Comment	public	18	5.2	2.4	-1.7	**0.1**
	private		7.2	3.1		
Expansion	public	18	4.1	2.6	-2.8	**0.01**
	private		6.5	3.37		
Paraphrase	public	18	5.8	2.25	-0.8	**0.4**
	private		6.9	3.13		
Sustained speech	public	18	18	3.42	0.8	**0.4**
	private		15.6	3.7		
Unrestricted speech	public	18	33.9	1.6	-1.7	**0.19**
	private		35.1	2.14		

n=20

Since there were significant differences between the entry behaviors of the two groups in terms of several instructional practices (see Table 13) and several aspects of teacher talk and student talk (see Table 14) as discussed above, a gain score analysis was carried out to compare the relative effectiveness of the combined treatment for the groups. In other words, a t-test was applied to the mean gain scores obtained by COF and COLT to see whether the two groups were different in terms of the mean gain scores from pretreatment (X1) to posttreatment (X2).

Table 15 presents the results of the mean gain scores of the two groups obtained by means of COF. As can be seen in Table 15, the mean gain scores of the private schools are higher than public schools in all the teaching practices analyzed by COF, but the difference is not statistically significant. In other words, there are no significant differences between private and public school experimental teachers in terms of the mean gain scores of the instructional practices. Hence, the t-test applied to the mean gain scores indicate that the groups have benefited from the training equally.

However, in the following instructional practices, the difference between public and private school teachers is close to the level of significance: teachers' use of prompting (X1p=1.7, X4p=2.5; X1pr=2.2, X4pr=3.7; $p<.07$) and teachers' voice and gestures (X1p=2.2, X4p=2.8; X1pr=2.3, X4pr=3.5; $p<.09$). In both practices the mean gain score difference is in favor of the private school teachers. In other words, private

school teachers seemed to have benefited somewhat more from the training than the public school teachers in these two aspects of teaching.

Table 15: Gain score differences between the public and private school experimental group teachers in terms of teachers' instructional practices

Teachers' instructional practices	School	df	X1	Sd	X4	Sd	t-value	p
Articulating objectives/ warm-up	public private	18	1.8 2.2	0.63 0.42	3 3.9	0.67 0.57	-1.7	**0.1**
Teacher talk	public private	18	1.6 2.1	0.52 0.73	2.7 3.5	0.67 0.71	-0.78	**0.45**
Questioning patterns	public private	18	1.8 2.2	0.43 0.42	2.6 3.3	0.52 0.67	-0.9	**0.34**
Prompting	public private	18	1.7 2.2	0.47 0.43	2.5 3.7	0.53 0.67	-1.8	**0.07**
Wait time	public private	18	1.6 2	0.57 0	2.6 3.3	0.7 0.67	-0.9	**0.38**
Turn distribution	public private	18	1.7 2.3	0.81 0.61	2.7 3.8	0.82 0.42	-1.7	**0.12**
Feedback	public private	18	1.9 2.1	0.71 0.32	2.8 3.2	0.79 0.92	-0.1	**0.82**
Instructions	public private	18	1.6 2.2	0.73 0.65	2.6 3.4	0.7 0.52	-0.6	**0.5**
Group or pair work	public private	18	1.9 2.2	0.84 0.72	2.8 3.6	0.63 0.71	-1.3	**0.21**
The use of L1	public private	18	2.2 3.3	0.67 0.62	3 4.1	0.47 0.51	-0.02	**1**
Use of teaching aids/ blackboard	public private	18	2.1 2.3	0.34 0.4	3 3.4	0.47 0.52	-0.6	**0.55**
Checking understanding	public private	18	1.8 2.4	0.62 0.71	2.5 3.5	0.71 0.53	-0.9	**0.34**
Teacher position	public private	18	2 2.2	0.63 0.68	3.4 3.9	0.84 0.88	-0.6	**0.54**
Teacher voice/ gestures	public private	18	2.2 2.3	0.62 0.41	2.8 3.5	0.63 0.53	-1.8	**0.09**

n=20

Table 16 presents the results of the mean gain scores of the groups analyzed by COLT. As can be seen in Table 16, there are no significant differences between the gain scores of the private and public school

experimental teachers in terms of the aspects on teacher talk. In terms of teachers' reaction to the given message the gain score difference is close to the level of significance in favor of the private school teachers (X1p=21.2, X4p=34.5; X1pr=21.4, X4pr=39.4; p<.08). In terms of student talk, there is a significant mean gain score difference between the groups in students' genuine questions in favor of private school students (X1p=35.8, X4p=40.6; X1pr=40.4, X4pr=53.5; p<.01). Moreover, in terms of students' expansion skills (X1p=4.1, X4p=11.3; Xpr=6.5, X4p=18.9; p<.06) and unrestricted speech (X1p=33.9, X4p=11.3; X1pr=33.9, X4pr=48.9; p<.07), the difference is close to the level of significance. In both cases, the gain score difference is in favor of the private school students although this difference was not statistically significant.

As above mentioned, private and public school experimental teachers benefited from the combined treatment equally. This finding does not support the third hyphotesis of this study. As the public school teachers had more working hours than private school teachers, as they had attended fewer INSET activities than private school teachers and as the public school classes were more crowded than those in the private schools, the researcher expected that private school teachers would benefit more from the combined treatment. That the groups equally benefited from the process can be due to the fact that they voluntarily participated to be in this process. Although they complained from time to time about the extra load they had, they were highly motivated during the dialogue. Moreover, the student teachers with whom they worked had also a training on their roles in the collaborative

dialogue. Thus, both parties seemed eager to fulfill the necessities of this dialogue.

Table 16: Gain score differences between the public and private school experimental group teachers in terms of the nature of teacher and student talk

	School	df	X1	Sd	X4	Sd	t-value	p
Teacher talk								
L2	public	18	82.5	2.55	88.9	3.3	-0.2	**0.8**
	private		87.8	3.2	93.8	2.1		
Unpredicted info	public	18	20.9	3.44	31.3	2.9	-0.6	**0.5**
	private		24.8	2.7	36.5	4.5		
Genuine questions	public	18	23.6	1.03	33.2	2	1.7	**0.1**
	private		26.9	2.88	43.1	5.2		
Reaction to message	public	18	21.2	3.7	34.5	4.4	-1.6	**0.08**
	private		21.4	3.5	39.4	3		
Incorp. of ss' utter.								
Clarification request	public	18	14.5	4.1	16.8	5.7	-0.7	**0.4**
	private		14.1	3.55	19.1	3.4		
Repetition	public	18	21.2	1.9	22.8	3.8	-0.2	**0.8**
	private		21.4	2.2	21.7	5.4		
Elaboration request	public	18	2.9	2.08	8.3	4.5	-1.8	**0.12**
	private		3.5	2.1	13.3	7.1		
Student talk								
L2	public	18	73.4	3.6	81.3	4.1	-0.4	**0.7**
	private		76.8	4.3	85.9	3.9		
Unpredicted info.	public	18	25.2	5.3	34.6	5	-0.7	**0.43**
	private		27.1	4.4	36.3	4.3		
Genuine question	public	18	35.8	4.5	40.6	3.8	-2.7	**0.01**
	private		40.4	2.02	53.5	2.6		
Incorp. of ss'/t's utter.								
Comment	public	18	5.2	2.4	7.6	4.6	-1.3	**0.2**
	private		7.2	31	12.4	3.2		
Expansion	public	18	4.1	2.6	11.3	2.4	-1.9	**0.06**
	private		6.5	3.37	14.9	1.2		
Paraphrase	public	18	6.8	2.25	9.8	4.5	-0.6	**0.5**
	private		6.9	3.13	8.7	3.6		
Sustained speech	public	18	18	3.42	26.4	5.3	-1.3	**0.28**
	private		15.6	3.7	24	5.1		
Unrestricted speech	public	18	33.9	1.6	48.9	4.3	-1.8	**0.07**
	private		35.1	2.14	58.4	6.4		

n=20

To summarize the quantitative results of the obtained data, we can say that as a result of the combined treatment, experimental group teachers showed statistically significant improvement in most of the teaching practices in comparison to control group teachers who took only the knowledge-transmission type of training. Except for two teaching practices, namely teacher position and teacher voice and gestures, which, the researcher believes, are bound-up with one's personality and which are more difficult to change, significant changes were seen in all other practices.

Moreover, the treatment changed the nature of talk of the experimental group teachers at a significant level and this change may have a positive relationship in regard to improving the quality of student participation in class. In relation to teacher talk, significant changes were seen in all aspects except in teachers' repetition practices which seem to have become more habitual and were defended strongly by most of the teachers who believed firmly that students needed to have correct answers echoed by the teacher several times. Regarding the nature of student talk, except for students' reluctance to ask genuine questions to their teachers, which may be a cultural characteristic of Turkish students, all interactive practices showed a significant change as a result of the treatment.

In relation to the differences between public and private school experimental teachers, no significant differences were found in terms of the mean gain scores of teachers' instructional practices and talk. On the other hand, there was a statistically significant difference between the groups' mean gain scores in terms of students' asking genuine questions. Students

in the private experimental groups asked more genuine questions than those in the other group.

4.4. The nature of the collaborative dialogue

In an attempt to answer the first research question investigating the nature of the supervisor and student teacher collaborative dialogue data coming from the semi-structured interviews with supervising teachers, student teacher journals and researchers' field notes were analyzed.

Supervising teacher responses in the interviews indicated that student teachers and supervising teachers in both private and public schools met 3-4 times in the course of everyday life between class. These meetings were 'informal' meetings as they were not scheduled in advance. The most frequently stated reason for informal and short meetings was related to the demands of other professional obligations. Only four private school teachers said that they had their conferences in longer breaks, 20 minutes or more, e.g. during lunch break, as in short breaks they couldn't discuss much.

In both phases of the student teaching period, that is, when student teachers observed the lessons of their supervising teachers and other teachers, and when student teachers started teaching and their supervising teachers observed and evaluated their lessons, the focus of the pre-conferences was on lesson planning. In the first phase, supervising teachers shared the plans they had in mind for the day with the student teachers in the morning; so the main focus was on the content of the

upcoming lesson(s). In other words, the supervising teachers informed the student teachers on the topic they were going to cover and immediately before each lesson mostly gave them a copy of the worksheets or extra materials they would make use of. One student teacher said:

> Before every lesson, she tells me what she is going to cover such as "Today we'll focus on *when-while*". She also mentions her classroom management problems with specific students.

Nearly all supervising teachers (18/20) said the pre-conferences enabled the student teachers to understand the substance of the daily program. Two private school teachers, moreover, emphasized that the pre-conferences were necessary for the "initial assessment about the student teacher's knowledge of classroom management". These teachers then "used this information as a basis to discuss and plan for future teaching activities with student teachers".

During the pre-conferences, besides discussing the plans for the upcoming lesson, eight private and six public school teachers stated that they told their student teachers to focus on one aspect of their teaching at a time. These topics were the focus of the knowledge-transmission training, i.e. giving feedback, using different question types, etc. (see Appendix B). The observation form was given specific mention at this point, not only as a useful basic framework for the pre- and post-observation discussion but also for the way that it helped them document and share data on the lessons to be discussed. Using this form helped the supervising teachers point out

some key parts of the lessons and ask the student teachers to focus their observation on these points. Thus, both the student teachers' observations and the post-conferences became more effective.

In the post-conferences, supervising teachers usually gave brief information on the lesson observed by the student teachers and on the teaching point and how "it fit the overall structure of the lesson". Conferences also focused on factors that affected the flow of the lesson, the pace of activities and student understanding of subject matter content. For example, some supervising teachers explained possible strategies for redirecting the attention of students who were misbehaving or not paying attention during lessons. There were others who discussed problems that arose when students worked at different paces and finished assignments at different times. The following excerpts regarding the content of the post-conferences are taken from student teacher journals:

> The conference is mostly about behavior, how to handle discipline problems.

> My supervising teacher mostly complains about some spoilt students in the classroom and shows me ways of dealing with them.

> She was trying to have group work but the students were making so much noise .... My teacher told me that this time she wanted to change group members and this resulted in chaos. But she believed it should be done from time to time and they would get used to their new groups in a short time.

The focus of the post-conferences varied also according to the questions of the student teachers:

> I asked her why she was so strict in the lesson and she told me that she got distracted even by the smallest noise.
> That's why she was trying to keep them as silent as possible.

> She introduces new vocabulary either by asking students to underline them in their text or by using them herself in a sentence. I asked her why she was not explaining them by giving simple one word definitions; she told me that underlining helps them keep the words in their visual memory better.

> Today we talked about the benefits of worksheets. She told me that worksheets help to review the structure and vocabulary of the week.

> She explained conditionals type 1 and type 2 in Turkish. I asked her the reason for it. "They don't even understand it in Turkish, let alone in English", she said.

In the second phase of the student teaching cycle, student teachers were first asked to micro teach for 20 minute periods three times and assume full teaching responsibilities for these short periods. During these periods, they were observed by their supervising teachers informally. The pre-conferences in this phase again focused on lesson planning, but this time on the lesson plans of the student teachers. Student teachers were supposed to provide their supervising teachers with detailed written lesson plans usually a day before their scheduled teaching. Most of the supervising teachers (16/20) stated that they carefully reviewed the lesson plans of the student teachers they were working with prior to the lesson. Five private school teachers and three public school teachers, moreover, added that it was at this phase that they became heavily involved with student teachers by discussing with them key features of the plan so that the students in their classroom would be taught properly.

The supervising teachers mostly seemed flexible in their approach and gave student teachers leeway in planning. A teacher said. "He has to learn how to fly. If I monitor him too closely he won't have the opportunity to make many mistakes. He will learn from his mistakes". Another teacher stated, "I look at her plans and if they are reasonable, I'll let her try them. If she falls on her face, I'll let her go on and we talk about it later".

Only one public school supervising teacher commented that she was making 'necessary' changes on the lesson plans of her student teacher because

I have to be sure that this student is competent when he teaches next year. I'm giving him my model for good instruction. I don't have time to experiment with other models.

The post-conferences that followed the informal observations were considered to be an important learning context for student teachers and an opportunity for supervising teachers to raise issues related to specific instructional decisions and actions. Student teachers' actual teaching was the point of focus of all the post-conferences in this phase. Most of the supervising teachers (15/20) indicated that they started the feedback sessions by making positive comments on how satisfied they were with the teaching of their student teachers and went on with giving suggestions. The sequence of events of a conference was almost identical across supervising teachers. All conferences began with an introduction, progressed to a substantive part and ended somehow abruptly as these conferences were mostly held in one of the breaks. The introduction centered on one or more of the following: brief socialization, general (e.g. "That was a nice lesson") or specific praise (e.g. "That was an excellent answer you gave to Ali" or "Removing Ayse from the group was an effective way to handle the problem") or requested reflections on the lesson by the student teacher (e.g. "How did you feel the lesson went today?"). The middle part of the conference was aided by a focus on the supervisor's written notes, the observation form and the student teacher's lesson plan. Parallel to the training sessions, topics addressed most frequently included whether or not

the student teacher moved around the room, did a good job of it and monitoring student learning, had control of the situation and utilized effective questioning and feedback systems etc.

One private school teacher said

> I always observe, to see if the student teacher knows the material and is facilitating student learning and I give feedback on that...

Another teacher, who was critical but not directive, stated

> I believe the things I say might improve her teaching and offer suggestions that might work ... And if I find something that isn't working at all, I feel like it's my responsibility to let her know.

Another teacher said that in conducting conferences she tried "to touch on everything" that she noticed whether it was positive or negative.

On the whole, most of the teachers seemed to prefer the collaborative way of supervision. This approach, as mentioned by one private school supervising teacher, was "in contrast to more hierarchical approaches where the supervising teacher 'tells' the student everything he or she is doing right or wrong".

On the other hand, there were three teachers who seemed to believe they should not play an active role in student teachers' learning. One public school teacher said that she did not consider teacher feedback to be an important factor in learning to teach:

> I don't tell her 'why don't you try it that way' because she has to find the best way for herself and what I say might work for one situation but might not work for another.

Similarly, another teacher explained,

> The only thing that I said to the student teacher was that she needs experience. I told her to be willing to get in there, be willing to put the work in it, be willing to listen to the children, observe them, work with them be able to criticize them in a good way ... So that is about it: I think experience, getting in there and doing it, is the best teacher in the world.

Although this teacher offered some suggestions about teaching in general, he did not identify any elements of instruction for the student teachers to work on based on the lessons observed. He explained "the things that require improvement simply require time".

As a final act of the post-conference, some of the supervising teachers gave their student teachers a copy of their notes on their reactions to the observed lesson and actions to be taken.

4.5. Attitudes towards the collaborative dialogue

In an attempt to answer the fourth research question, namely what the student teachers' and supervising teachers' attitudes towards the dialogue are, semi-structured supervising teacher interviews, student teacher journals and the researcher field notes were analyzed.

4.5.1. Attitudes of the supervising teachers towards the collaborative dialogue

Most of the supervising teachers felt that both they and the student teachers benefited from the collaborative dialogue. In relation to the benefits of the process for student teachers, they indicated that the student teaching period can only be an 'educative experience' for the student teachers, if it is carried out through dialogue with trained supervising teachers and with the support and assistance of the university supervisor. Furthermore, they said that the aim of this period is to help students become "like regular teachers and start to feel and experience the world of teaching". They all agreed that becoming a 'real' teacher required a lot of 'practical experience' and student teaching is the first stage of this experience. According to the researcher's field notes, most of them seemed to share the ideas expressed by one of the supervising teachers:

> Student teaching is really important, because you improve your way of teaching by experience. I went through all the university classes but to really learn how to work with children and teach children I had to get in

there and do the job. It's not only something you can stand back and read about in a book.

One public school teacher talked about playing an active role in student teachers' learning and regarded this as a kind of duty:

I believe that experienced practitioners have a genuine moral obligation to help new teachers and it always has a real value for their professional development.

A private school teacher indicated that after teaching so many years he "really had important things to offer to the student teachers". He believed that student teachers would benefit from the 'practical comments' of the experienced teachers significantly.

According to some other teachers, theoretical knowledge is 'blended with' practical knowledge in this period and "during the practicum student teachers are provided with opportunities and support so that the knowledge they acquired at the university is grounded in the classroom contexts in which it will be used".

As stated by one private school teacher:

> We hold lots of conversations about theory and practice. What they learned in different courses doesn't always happen in the classroom.

Two private and two public school teachers said that "student teachers should appreciate the opportunity to be observed several times and given feedback on the lesson. Most of us have never been observed". The majority of supervising teachers said that as supervising teachers they were doing 'their best' to provide valuable input to their student teachers' professional growth and claimed that student teachers' way of teaching "has changed drastically" as a result of the feedback they received:

> I'd been asked by my student to focus on the way she used her voice in the lesson, something we both felt she needed to work on. During the lesson I was really pleased to see how much progress she had made.

Some supervising teachers especially liked the idea that student teachers worked mainly with one supervising teacher but observed the classes of other teachers from time to time. One private school teacher indicated that "observing a single teacher inhibits the capacity of students to continue to learn from experience".

In relation to the benefits of the process for the supervising teachers, most of the supervising teachers spoke of various benefits stemming from the supervision of student teachers and from having a collaborative dialogue with them and with the university supervisor. It was found out that supervising teachers benefited from this process in terms of (a) learning about and applying teaching practices; (b) awareness of individual teaching practices; (c) opportunities for collaborative reflection on teaching practices; (d) renewed enthusiasm about teaching.

Learning about and applying teaching practices : Two private and two public school supervising teachers indicated that they learned new activities from their student teachers which they intended to add to their curriculum. They appreciated the creativity and the new ideas that student teachers brought to their lessons. These included group work, the use of visual aids and introduction of new topics used in discussion lessons etc. As indicated by one teacher

> They bring such an influx of new ideas, it makes us all think about new possibilities all the time....

One supervising teacher recalled a lesson when she was having difficulty in keeping her children focused. When the students were grouped, the increasing noise level became 'intolerable'. Even the supervising

teacher had difficulty hearing her own voice and the group work was interrupted. The supervising teacher described how one student teacher helped her during the post -conference

> .....she suggested a possible seating arrangement. Then we placed the students in smaller groups like in the lectures given to us. The next lesson was much more enjoyable ... I should have done it before. Student teachers come up with very simple solutions which work pretty well.

Another teacher stated that although in the lectures it was emphasized that rearranging the students' desks for pair and group work activities can be an effective technique to increase student interaction, he never dared to do so:

> My students used to sit side by side looking across the classroom. The student teacher asked them to sit facing each other as they would in a real life situation... I believe it increased concentration and interest...

Teachers with longer teaching experience also indicated that they discovered more to learn about new techniques in language teaching:

I have been a teacher for a long time and I find that I am continually using the same activities but my student teacher helped me understand and use new ones.

Sometimes when we have been doing things for too long, we quit trying new things, so it is fun to have these people come in and want to try different techniques and see if they can make them work ... and often they do work.

With my student teacher I had a chance to go over and discuss what I've learned from the lectures and what they've been learning. We tried different techniques, different activities and then talked about these...

I had an opportunity to refine my existing knowledge about teaching models.

Awareness of individual teaching practices: Some supervising teachers (7/20) commented that having a student teacher helped them review their knowledge of teaching methods. This experience reminded supervising teachers of practices they had "discarded or had forgotten about in the daily business of teaching". One supervising teacher recalled a day when her student teacher felt 'uncomfortable' about running out of things to do. The supervising teacher brought her a folder of 'sponge activities' to use

to fill up time and it was a good opportunity for her to go over different things.

Moreover, although several teaching practices were focused on in the lectures teachers were exposed to within the framework of this study and in previous INSET programs, collaborative dialogue helped them make changes they had wanted to make but needed further impetus to make. One private school teacher said:

> This experience enhanced my effort to make some changes in my teaching style: being more positive with students and allowing students to participate more in class. I realized that students talked about themselves willingly when I did the same in the warm-up sessions.

Two public school supervising teachers explained:

> When my student teacher was having a hard time using group work, I had to think again... She showed me the lesson plan and I liked it ... but what was the problem? I had to think ...

> It's always refreshing to watch a new person come in and try new things. After several years of teaching, I sometimes think I have tried every possible thing. Attending the training sessions is not enough. Sharing your knowledge with someone is important. I think a student teacher convinces you to try things again. It' s energizing.

Opportunities for collaborative reflection on teaching practices : Some teachers focused on the relationship between the role of encouraging growth in the student teacher and their own professional development. For example, some indicated that having a student teacher present with them prompts them to think about and subsequently articulate, the knowledge which is associated with their teaching. This process appears to be prompted either by the supervising teacher observing the student teacher or by contrasting her own teaching behaviors with what she observes through watching the beginner. For example, one supervising teacher commented that "once you start explaining you realize how much you are carrying in your head".

Three private and two public school supervising teachers commented on the value and joy of having the opportunity to share ideas. They spoke not only of the synergy created by two, but also of the value of discussing things after a lesson:

> I have taught alone for many years now and I don't ever get feedback about my teaching. I liked the way we exchanged ideas.

> It was inevitable that he had questions that he wanted to ask... Through discussing with him why I did particular things, why the departmental policy was so and such.. I was actually analyzing for myself and evaluating for myself.. which made me look at:

"Well, is this really the best way of doing it?"

Supervising teachers from both public and private schools remarked that they felt 'up-dated' and they mentioned the pleasure of having someone to share new ideas with:

> It was refreshing to have someone to plan things with ...
>
> It was a really good decision to get involved with the student teachers and university supervisor. It has made me much more reflective about my own teaching.

One public school teacher commented that the process of reflection on their teaching practices caused them to become more conscious of what they believed about teaching. She said, "The best way to improve your own teaching is to help another person teach and observe his/her teaching". Another stated

> Working with someone who questions is always helpful. Explaining what you are doing and why you are doing it can't help but be productive.

Another public school teacher explained

> My student teacher and I have had many discussions. Our point of views are different on many issues. I hope our discussions have made us both better teachers.

Supervising teachers pointed out that when working with student teachers they had examined their use of various teaching strategies, evaluated whether or not they were achieving set objectives, analyzed how they responded to students, how they managed their classes and whether or not they were being consistent. Not only did participating in this study provide time for reflection, it also taught some supervisors how to reflect on their own teaching. One public school teacher stated

> I am not aware of changes in my teaching so much, yet I am developing stronger skills in analyzing what I do. Through discussion of my teaching, we look at techniques used and their effectiveness or ineffectiveness in various situations. This has brought about an awareness for me which has certainly improved my teaching ability, only listening to a lecture wouldn't make this possible...

Assuming the stature of a role model prompted two public school teachers to push themselves a little harder, "It has made me more conscious of how I use class time". It also pushed some teachers to experiment more:

My student teacher has excellent questions about why and why not. Mostly things suggested in the lectures. It has made me try new things.

When we teach a lesson we never think of the effect. We never reflect back on that lesson-how it went. Observing trainees helps us to be more aware of the outcome.

The project caused me to be more reflective. It's also caused me to study and review materials I felt could be helpful for my student teacher. I feel that I've learned how to improve my skills right along with the student.

Having to so closely evaluate someone over a period of time, caused me to delve into my own practices and manner of dealing with others.

I'm getting towards the latter part of my career and it might otherwise have been easy for me to ease back or slow down. You're not able to do that when you are working with young teachers. They cause you to reflect upon your present practice and to re-examine it and that is a very helpful thing for anybody at whatever stage of their career they are.

As can be seen, most of the teachers felt able to embrace students' questions open-mindedly, as an intellectual challenge-a welcome stimulus to reflection, analysis and the development of new insights. The image of being "kept on one's toes" was a common one used to convey the mental activity stimulated by the presence of student teachers and university supervisors:

> I think working with student teachers and university supervisors is very beneficial because it keeps us all thinking about what we are doing.

Renewed enthusiasm about teaching: Supervising teachers appreciated their student teachers' energy and enthusiasm about teaching. All teachers found those positive attitudes to be a source of encouragement. Some commented:

> I have taught for 18 years. Sometimes you lose sight of some very important aspects in dealing with your students. My student teacher was so positive, so energetic and so enthusiastic that I found it contagious.

> I have benefited from her enthusiasm and eagerness and especially from having to make explicit my beliefs to a genuinely interested

'outsider'. It is also so rewarding to feel that you are starting someone off on a good career.

Some of the students' curiosity was transmitted to the teachers who were stagnating professionally:

They come, hopefully, with some enthusiasm... some new ideas, different ways of looking at things. You know, questioning, "Why do you do it that way? "Because we did it this way for the last 10 years". And you have to justify yourself.. this stimulates people like me... As far I was concerned, it kept me awake.... Actually having to think about why you are doing something and where it is going and that sort of thing, I find very stimulating.

The majority of supervising teachers (17/20) agreed that "student teachers bring fresh ideas, energy and enthusiasm" and some of them (3 private school teachers) were also conscious of the intensity of the bonds which had been formed

Students really welcome seeing new faces, seeing different people, relating to them.. The student teachers bring a lot of energy, not just into the classroom but into extra-curricular activities... and that extra energy goes into the kids and the kids appreciate that...

Only one public school supervising teacher mentioned a specific benefit related to student learning. She said she valued the opportunity to sit back and observe how the children behaved when someone else was teaching:

> It was interesting for me to sit and watch my students' behaviors. I was able to observe my students in their groups and their participation. It was very useful to look at how they share the resources and materials.

On the whole, teachers mostly agreed that collaborative dialogue with the student teachers was a kind of "impetus to the professional development of both parties".

Apart from the major benefits mentioned above, many supervising teachers mentioned the support provided by the university during this project. To begin with, all supervising teachers reported that in the previous years they had been unclear as to how they should help student teachers and did not feel qualified to act as supervising teachers. Mostly they participated intuitively and reluctantly. In this respect, they all emphasized the necessity of the training provided by the researcher and indicated that in this project they were able to act according to clear training objectives. The training sessions, the talks they had with the university supervisor (the researcher) and the post-teaching conferences were of great "help to develop good working relationships.

For the first time, I know what the university wants as the objectives of student teachers' field experiences.

The university provided real assistance for me in working with my student teacher.

Supervising teachers also reported that in most of their student teaching programs in their previous years neither they nor the student teachers had known what to talk about. When they had dialogues they mostly focused on general issues rather than analysis of the supervising or student teacher's teaching.

Moreover, they focused on the role ambiguity they had in the previous years due to lack of training in supervisory skills. They said that in this project they felt 'important', 'close to the university', 'respected' and 'collaborating with the university'. Thus, most of them believed that initial supervising teacher training was 'absolutely essential' but equally essential was "the ongoing professional support" of the university supervisor. They said that without the proper support from the university supervisor, their professional exchanges with student teachers could not possibly have taken place.

Some supervising teachers emphasized the importance of building a partnership for the preparation of new teachers. They described that partnership as involving university faculty, the student teachers and themselves. They further believed that there must be congruence between

the experiences provided in the private and public schools and the goals established on the university campus. Some additionally emphasized the importance of communication and that "teacher educators and school administrators should be informed of each others' needs and expectations of the student teaching program". One supervising teacher on this point said:

> I think teachers should be recognized for their contribution to the prospective teachers. More support and assistance should be provided from the university.

In other words, this teacher asked the university to provide her with opportunities to update her knowledge in the field and to participate more fully in the training process.

Supervising teachers also mentioned that they frequently faced conflicting demands on their time. On the one hand, they had a commitment to help student teachers assigned to them and on the other, they usually had a normal teaching load. There appeared to be one main reason for problems which arose in this area: the schools could not make suitable arrangements to release supervising teachers from some of their duties. One teacher commented that being involved in this dialogue brought "a much heavier workload; a lot of time before, during and after school necessary for feedback, phone calls, team planning". The time commitment was sometimes very burdensome as supervising teachers had other professional commitments that also had to be met, e.g. "Time spent with the

student teacher necessitated that I bring home extra paper work". However, in most cases the time commitment and workload decreased as the practicum continued. According to one teacher "the workload was heaviest at the beginning (time spent explaining and discussing all aspects of the school and class makeup and individual student differences).

Another major concern was lack of financial incentives. They said they were spending a lot of time in working with a student teacher;

> holding all these conferences and providing feedback on performance plus the trainings we had .. We are all willing to do these things but ...
>
> Either our working load should be decreased or we should be paid for this extra time.

Another concern was related to the student teachers. Three supervising teachers reported concerns about students who did not respond to suggestions made by them and about those who did not make adequate progress. Two teachers said they had been motivated to become involved in the collaborative dialogue because they or the head felt "they had expertise in classroom practices which they wanted to share with a student teacher". At the very least, they expected suggestions made to their student teachers to be implemented. One supervising teacher described a student teacher who could plan lessons very well, but experienced difficulty in managing the flow of the activities. This skill never developed as well as the teacher

would have liked. This teacher had volunteered because she had a desire to ".... ensure that individuals were of high quality in the profession". Instead, she felt her efforts to improve the profession were fruitless. One public school supervising teacher commented on this point in general:

> Problems appear if the student teacher does not respond to criticisim and suggestions for improvements and if they have a difficult personality. Some students have difficulty in accepting suggestions and some have difficulty with discipline. Not all students are born teachers and consequently it was very time consuming and frustrating to work with them.

Finally, four private and six public teachers said that at the beginning student teachers did not know "how to ask questions". Although they liked the interest and enthusiasm of the student teachers, they sometimes got 'irritated' or 'angry' by the 'critical' style of their questioning. They felt that the student teachers should have refrained from making critical comments on class procedures and techniques until they were more familiar with the teaching context and until they had participated in more directed observation training sessions.

To conclude, we can say that despite some concerns, most supervising teachers felt that this new way of working was personally more rewarding and often resulted in their learning from the interaction with the student teacher and university supervisor, something which was impossible

with the traditional approach to supervision. They all agreed on the mutual benefits of the process to the professional development of the participants and added that "in sharing their expertise of teaching with their student teacher, they were 'really' helping the professional development of a beginning teacher and "felt encouraged and confirmed in their profession".

4. 5.2. Student teacher attitudes towards collaborative dialogue

Analyses of the student teacher journals indicated that when discussing the student teaching period, student teachers focused on the affective aspects of their dialogue with the supervising teachers on one hand and on the effects of the student teaching period on their professional development on the other.

Student teachers who took part in this study were naturally in close communication with their friends doing their practicum in other schools. Although they didn't make explicit comparisons all the time, they mentioned several times that their experience was 'really different' from that of others because of the collaboration they had. They described this process as follows:

> It gives you a chance to synthesize everything you have done. It makes you think and focus on future growth.
>
> It is a continual process. It leaves you with a sense of what you do well and what you need to work on.
>
> It gives you a chance to talk professionally about yourself.

The majority of the student teachers were satisfied with the relationship they had with their supervising teachers. One positive feature was specifically mentioned on several occasions: the supervising teachers' sensitivity to and understanding of student teachers' concerns, as can be seen from the following statements:

> I'm very lucky. She is really understanding of what it's like to just be starting out and having moments like that in the classroom.
>
> I've really appreciated the fact that I never feel isolated I always have someone to ask if I have a question.
>
> I know that with a new undertaking there is a certain amount of apprehension. I think it is the fear of the unknown. Mrs. X helped me to get rid of this fear..
>
> ... she welcomed my suggestions. She listened to me patiently.
>
> Mr. Y made me feel comfortable, assured and important from day one.
>
> Mrs. Z provided an environment that was nurturing and challenging for the students and myself. She gave me a lot of freedom in teaching and yet she also gave direction. I not only learned a great deal about teaching but also a great deal about students at this age.

Another important area that student teachers highlighted in their comments about the dialogue was the extent to which their supervising teachers aided their professional development. According to the student teachers, they benefited from this process in the following aspects: (a) it helped them feel like a professional, (b) it encouraged them to take part in collaborative reflection, (c) it helped them integrate theoretical knowledge with practical experiences, (d) it gave them a great deal of self-confidence coupled with enthusiasm.

Feeling like a professional: A number of student teachers indicated that they valued supervising teachers who treated them as professionals and who adopted a style of counseling which was not too directive.

> Above all, my teacher and the rest of the department treated me like an equal and made me feel welcome and useful.

> Today she told me that she had a serious problem with X (a student) and then she asked me what I would do if I were in her position.. I felt like a real teacher.

> The thing I liked best was the freedom the teacher gave me to try my own ideas.

.....he did not oversupervise. The psychology he adopted allowed me to develop at my own pace with good guidance given when necessary.

Participating in collaborative reflection: Most of the student teachers were not only looking for supportive, caring, listening supervising teachers who had time for their problems and treated them as colleagues and equals; they also wanted someone who could focus sharply on the issues and who could articulate his or her practice clearly.

Most of the public and private school student teachers reported that their teachers conferenced with them often and gave feedback that caused them to question their instructional decisions

.... she picks up on things that I don't pick up on. And she's so experienced that she knows what should be done and if I leave something out or don't explain something clearly enough then she's there to help me make that clear ... She gives feedback on how the lesson went and then we talk about how the kids responded.

My supervising teacher helped me see some shortcomings and I'm glad I was made aware of them . ...I feel much more confident and prepared.

My supervising teacher and my university supervisor present my shortcomings and offer suggestions: "I noticed that you seemed to cut students as they were answering. I'd like you to try this:

When you feel you need to come in, count to five silently before you do so"...

I like my teacher's style: He is collaborative but gives concrete intervention. I know precisely, what steps to take. I think this is what I need at this point.

After the lesson if something doesn't work, she explains the reasons why it didn't work and gives me suggestions about what will work for the future.

After the lesson Mrs. X told me I had problems with timing and I should have indicated the aims of the lesson in the lesson plan. And I should have used the blackboard more efficiently... I totally agree with her... But she also said it was an enjoyable lesson.

My supervising teacher was my safety net by staying in the class while I taught my lesson. She gave me valuable information during the pre- and post-conference sessions. She said I should give more positive feedback and have eye contact with the students...

Mr. Y and my university supervisor gave me specific feedback on my techniques and lesson plans.

The importance of getting favorable feedback was mentioned by one student teacher as it greatly affected the level of confidence and self-esteem of the student teacher:

> Favorable feedback boosts our confidence and we feel more determined about teaching well. However the opposite can occur when we have unfavorable feedback. We feel that after our first teaching practice we should be encouraged more.

***Integrating theoretical knowledge with practical experiences*:** Almost all student teachers mentioned that it was very important to talk with their supervising teachers about models of teaching, as these talks provided valuable information about how to integrate their theoretical knowledge into practice and that through collaborative dialogue they could discuss 'failure' or 'problems' they encountered in a positive way. Two student teachers also reported that their teachers asked them questions that required them to think about connections between actual classroom practice and their methods courses at the university:

> She helped me to see how different teaching techniques were applied and how they worked with students.

> The greatest benefit I obtained from my student teaching is that I conceptualized the knowledge gained in my college courses with the

> practical experiences gained during student teaching We have been taught so much about effective management skills, but without using and observing them being used, they stay in the air.

Some student teachers expressed the belief that "a person learns to teach by doing-through experience, practice and making mistakes" and viewed their difficulties as learning experiences rather than as something to hide. The following student teacher's comments illustrate this finding:

> I learn from my mistakes. But learning is the important thing, not being perfect. I am continually learning...

Some also cited observation as another important factor in achieving this aim:

> Another way that I have learned to teach is by going into the classroom watching people teach. By observing other teachers and my supervising teacher, I guess I have learned so much.

Increased self-confidence and enthusiasm: Some student teachers commented that having a positive relationship with the supervising teachers motivated them a lot and they were "looking forward to getting into the classroom", "gathering materials for their classroom" and "trying to think of unique ways to present information". Several also commented on the fact

that their expectations, particularly in terms of the students' behavior had changed; they became more relaxed. One student teacher stated that

> At first you expect complete silence (before starting and explanation) but now if 80 to 90 percent are ready.. the rest will come into line. At first you're waiting and waiting, but now if most of them are quiet ... that's good enough.

On the other hand, there were lots of statements which still showed their anxiety before they started with the actual teaching:

> My supervising teacher said she liked my plan.. but what if I have some extra time...
>
> I think I'll have problems with A. and Y. They think I'm their friend.
>
> If I can't answer their questions, I'll say so... or I'll tell them to find the answer on their own.
>
> I don't want the students to realize how I feel...

After observing the lessons, student teachers wrote detailed accounts of the lesson using the notes they kept in class and while discussing these, they discussed the content of the lesson, adding their positive and negative evaluations on it:

Today Mr. X introduced the third conditional. He gave such interesting examples from daily life... I think students like his lessons a lot. It was like a discussion class.

Mrs. A went over the exam questions today. Her English is perfect and she has a good relationship with the students but I think she talks much more than the students.

He is really professional. He knows when and how to correct errors.

It was a very traditional teacher-centered lesson. Mrs. X thinks she knows everything but I really get bored in her lessons.

Today Mrs. Y lectured on culture and traditions. I think she should have started with an interesting warm-up activity.

To summarize, most of the student teachers said they learned a lot from observing their supervising teachers and other teachers. The collaborative dialogue they had with their supervising teachers and university supervisors helped them achieve a much fuller understanding of a particular lesson. Through the conferences and observations they had the opportunity to learn about the different kinds of classroom activities, the targets the teacher was aiming at, the actions taken to bring these about and the conditions impinging on the teaching which had to be taken into account when deciding what to do. Through the collaborative dialogue they

were able to understand the complexities of classroom teaching and to learn more about teachers' skills strategies and achievements in the classroom.

On the other hand, there were also some areas of concern on the side of the student teachers. Two public and one private school student teacher explicitly mentioned disappointment with the way their supervising teachers approached their teaching. These supervising teachers, seemingly, were not willing to share their knowledge with the student teachers:

> My supervising teacher said that her routines were developed on the basis of "trial and error "and that they changed each year depending upon the students and other factors. So this is what I should do...
>
> My supervising teacher says I can try her routines but they may not work.
>
> She says I have to establish my own way of teaching on the basis of my personality; hers probably won't work for me so she doesn't share much with me...

Moreover, these three student teachers at the private and public schools stated that their interactions with the supervising teachers were too rushed and as a consequence these students did not expect much out of their conferences.

> She is really overloaded. Maybe she wants to collaborate with me but that's all she can do.

> We really don't have enough sessions. She just tells me things as she sees them just during the day when I have a break when I'm not with the kids. It's probably not enough time.

Some student teachers occasionally complained about the way their supervising teachers were giving feedback to them:

> I wish that my supervising teacher balanced the negative comments with positive ones. I felt that I didn't do anything well.

Another student teacher complained about his supervising teacher's inability to share his ideas:

> He did not give any 'situation specific feedback' regarding my teaching performance. How will I see my weaknesses?

It is clear from comments such as these that student teachers place a great emphasis on the manner with which the supervision is conducted and appreciated their teachers' treating them as a partner in the collaborative dialogue.

Another area of concern was lesson planning. Four private school student teachers indicated that their supervising teachers did not agree with the length of the lesson plans they prepared and that they found such detailed lesson plans 'unnecessary' and a 'waste of time'. The majority of

the journals (7/10) written by public school student teachers revealed that public school teachers also were underestimating written daily plans. A very common statement was made by the student teachers was that "Writing such long lesson plans is a waste of time". "You'll never do it in the future" or "Think of it as an assignment given by your university supervisor". Thus, student teachers were confused about the length of their lesson plans as compared to those of their supervising teachers. One student teacher said

> Basically their lesson planning is not as detailed as ours.

Another student teacher talked to her supervising teacher on this subject and the supervising teacher also said that the duration of time spent on planning was short and the plans were not as detailed as the student teachers wanted to see. As "they have been doing this for a long time". they had their 'mental plans'. Some supervising teachers thought that it was good for student teachers initially but there is "no way one can do that for a whole day, let alone a whole week."

Some student teachers (9/20) stated that the supervising teachers discussed the lesson plans in general but usually did not give much time or importance to the details of the written daily plans. One student teacher stated, "He gives me feedback on how he thinks my ideas would fit in the general scope of what he has been doing." Another student teacher said that "I show her the lesson plan and she points out what will work". The

others (17/20) wrote that they could get detailed feedback from their supervising teachers and university supervisors on their lesson plans.

Hence, qualitative analyses indicate that both student and supervising teachers generally agreed that collaborative dialogue based on reflection on practice, i.e. articulating strengths, weaknesses and areas to work on, contributes significantly to the professional development of both parties. Thus, these findings again confirm those of the quantitative data that there was improvement in teachers' teaching practices as a result of participating in the collaborative dialogue.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

This study was designed to see the effects of the collaborative dialogue on supervising teachers' professional development. The collaborative dialogue between the supervising teachers and the student teachers based on support and assistance served as the follow-up of the knowledge-transmission type of training.

Unlike those in the traditional student teaching periods described in several studies (Applegate & Lasley, 1982; Borko & Mayfield, 1995; Elliot & Calderhead, 1995), student teacher-supervising teacher dialogues in this study included in-depth exploration of issues related to teaching and learning and analysis of the student teacher's or supervising teacher's teaching and were characterized by guiding, sharing and reflection. The conferences, the student teachers and the supervising teachers held before and after the lessons, were related to actual classroom work focusing on planning, instructional tasks and classroom management. This difference was probably due to the training on the collaborative dialogue given to both student and supervising teachers.

Qualitative data results in relation to supervising and student teachers' attitudes towards collaborative dialogue revealed that both student and supervising teachers were highly satisfied with the process. To begin with the supervising teachers, it can be said that they felt strongly about the impact of the combined treatment, i.e. collaborative dialogue in addition to

knowledge-transmission training, on their own teaching. The experience of taking part in a collaborative dialogue in addition to attending a knowledge-transmission training was found valuable, as it enabled the teachers to experience the growth of their own professional development and the opportunity of encouraging growth in student teachers at the same time.

According to the supervising teachers, the collaborative dialogue in itself was effective in their professional development especially in the following instances: (a) it helped them learn about new teaching practices and improved their ability to apply the skills and knowledge 'taught' in the transmission type of training; (b) it created awareness in individual teaching practices; (c) it created opportunities to collaborate and reflect on practice, as it provided a ground on which teachers could discuss the issues related to their instruction and get outside assistance whenever they needed; (d) it renewed their enthusiasm in teaching. These perceived effects of the collaborative dialogue are in accord with those of other studies which explored the perceptions of supervising teachers about the impact of supervising on their professional development (Clinard & Ariav,1998; Kiraz, 1997).

On the negative side, the supervising teachers in the present study found working as a supervising teacher in addition to their usual work load stressful. This finding also confirms the findings of other studies (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Duquette, 1994) where supervising teachers had serious concerns about the time commitment and required some release time to carry out the supervision role properly. In the study carried out by Kiraz

(1997), each supervising teacher was expected to work with two student teachers and the teachers did not complain as their teaching load was decreased in return. In the present study, however, although the teachers were asked to work only with one student teacher, they had complaints about the time commitments because unlike the teachers in Kiraz' study they were not given any release time.

From the perspective of the student teachers, being involved in the collaborative dialogue with experienced and trained teachers was an invaluable experience. Student teachers feel that supervising teachers in this study provided them with appropriate feedback, the opportunity of questioning their teachers and reflecting on their own teaching in a non-threatening, collaborative environment. Like the ones in other studies (Browne, 1992; Duquette 1994; Elliot & Calderhead, 1993; Hamlin, 1997; Richardson- Koehler, 1988), student teachers in this study emphasized the crucial importance of the supervising teacher in the development of their professional skills and confidence and in helping them to pass the difficult transition to becoming an effective teacher in the classroom. On similar grounds, the importance of immediate feedback on the practical issues of teaching and classroom management and discipline was underlined. Most of the student teachers pointed out that their supervising teachers shared their practical professional knowledge with them through their dialogue, tried to sharpen their focus and coach them in the understanding of the teaching processes they are engaged in. Thus, the findings indicate that student teachers favor a supportive, caring and listening supervising teacher who

has time for their problems and treats them as colleagues and equals but they also want someone who can focus sharply on the classroom issues and who can articulate his or her practice clearly. This finding confirms the arguments in favor of collaborative supervision in the field (Furlong & Maynard, 1995; Wallace, 1991, Whitfield, 1995).

According to the student teachers, the collaborative dialogue helped them with their professional development in the following instances: (a) it helped them feel like a professional, (b) it encouraged them to take part in collaborative reflection, (c) it helped them integrate theoretical knowledge with practical experiences, (d) it gave them a great deal of self-confidence coupled with enthusiasm.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, studies investigating the impact of collaborative dialogue on the teaching practices of the supervising teachers are based only on qualitative data. That is, the researcher(s) learned about teachers' perceptions by means of interviews or questionnaires. In this study, on the other hand, the data collected by means of interviewing the supervising teachers were triangulated by means of the classroom observations and transcripts of the observed lessons analyzed quantitatively. The quantitative data obtained revealed that teachers in both public and private schools were able to utilize the above mentioned perceived benefits and channel them into their teaching. Findings of the quantitative analyses indicate that apart from the practices which are personality bound, e.g. teacher's position and teacher's voice and gestures, the treatment significantly affected supervising teachers'

instructional practices and their communication with the students. The results also indicate that the nature of student talk changed positively. Thus, the findings of qualitative studies indicating that acting as a supervising teacher is a reflective experience in which the supervising teacher finds opportunities to improve his/her teaching practices find empirical support from the results of the quantitative and qualitative data of this study, too (Clinard & Ariav, 1998; Hamlin, 1997; Kiraz, 1997).

In addition, the results also indicate that the public and private school teachers which statistically differed from each other in favor of the private school teachers in several teaching practices and in several aspects of teacher and student talk at the beginning of the study, equally benefited from the combined training.

The findings also indicate that INSET based on knowledge-transmission can be effective if there are follow-up sessions based on support and assistance. In other words, development and training oriented INSET programs are more effective than only training oriented ones in terms of their impact on the participants' professional development. This finding is compatible with the constructivist perspective on INSET that teachers will reconstuct their awareness of their teaching practice and beliefs and, as a result, will personalize course inputs if they are provided with a follow-up support (Bell & Gilbert, 1996; Colton & Sparks-Langer, 1993; Sutton, Cafarelli, Lund, Schurdell & Bichsel, 1996; Williams & Burden, 1997). As mentioned in section 2.2.2.4., the principles underlying the collaborative dialogue in this study are in line with the social constructive perspective,

which emphasizes the importance of theoretical input, experiential learning as well as of a social framework based on discussion and reflection to support the implementation of the knowledge and skills acquired in the training. In this study, this framework was created by means of asking experimental group teachers to take part in a collaborative dialogue with student teachers where they were expected to use in-depth observation skills and conferencing methods based on effective questioning and reflection. In doing so, they were able to process the information gained through the knowledge-transmission training in relation to their existing schema for teaching and (re)examine aspects of their teaching practices. The researcher, who works as the university supervisor at the same time, was in close contact with the supervising teachers, e.g. informed them about the details of the study, carried out training sessions, took part in the joint evaluation of the student teachers, provided support throughout the whole process, etc. and was not seen as an outsider trying to impose things on teachers.

5.1. Implications of the study

Based on the findings, the present study has several implications: First of all, the INSET activities should provide teachers not only with relevant knowledge about the innovations in the field but also with opportunities to recognize and reflect on their implicit knowledge through follow-up support after attending transmission type of seminars. The majority of INSET courses to teachers of English in Turkey and in most other

countries are either one-shot lectures given by outside experts or seminars held by a variety of institutions to inform teachers of innovations in the field and/or update their knowledge. However, as argued in the field (Freeman, 1992; Lamb,1995; Tomlinson, 1988) courses which depend only on knowledge transmission are essentially ineffective ending up with participating teachers' limited take-up. It has also been argued that positive questionnaire findings tapping teachers' attitudes towards the training do not necessarily mean successful transfer of skills or knowledge acquired in the trainings (Lamb, 1995). Hence, in order to increase the take-up of the training and to deal with teachers' needs at the implementation stage, INSET courses should not stop at the input phase based on theoretical aspects, but should continue with a follow-up phase.

Another implication of the study is that collaborative dialogue between student and supervising teachers can be utilized as an INSET program in schools as it proved to be highly effective in fostering mutual learning. The dialogue and task-focused talks offer opportunities to both parties to clarify their own practices. When helping student teachers to reflect on their practice, supervising teachers will question their own practice at the same time and relate what they observe to their own experience and behaviors. Hence, if supervising teachers are given the opportunity to update their theoretical knowledge and to use effective teaching techniques, observation and supervision skills, both parties will benefit from participating in the dialogue.

In line with the objectives of the project carried out by YÖK and the World Bank (1995-1999) aiming at the improvement of the faculties of education in all Turkish universities, the present study suggests that the supervising teachers change their traditional roles discussed in the literature review section of this study. To be able to change their roles as well as to be informed about the innovations in the field, supervising teachers need training in developing their skills in listening, giving feedback, observing practice, counseling, diagnosing performance, etc. Further, while skill development in these areas may be necessary, the conceptions that supervising teachers hold and the value and beliefs that they bring to the supervising context appear to be important factors in determining whether or not these skills are actually exercised. Thus, follow-up support after the training on the relevant supervisory techniques is absolutely necessary. As schools seem to lack the necessary knowledge and expertise among their staff to deliver training programs for skills enhancement in the areas needed, delivery on such INSET programs on site can be provided by volunteer university educators specialized in teacher training which requires effective university and school collaboration during the student teaching period.

For this purpose, universities in Turkey, like many universities abroad, should form partnerships with local schools (Gebhard, 1998; Hamlin, 1997;Slick 1995; Zeichner, 1992). These schools, called the professional development schools, differ from typical student-teaching placements in that the university actively seeks out and makes a long-term commitment to a public school. In Turkey, Boğaziçi University pioneered in that kind of

partnership. Many more universities and schools in Turkey should be asked to engage in this kind of a relationship as it would provide superior opportunities for preservice and in-service teachers and administrators to influence the development of their profession. Working with the same schools will also enable the educators to carry forward their research studies and see the long term effects of similar trainings on the teachers after several years.

Finally, the present study suggests that supervising teachers be compensated for the vital role they play in teacher preparation. As afore mentioned, supervising teachers in the new model suggested by YÖK are expected to work differently with student teachers, compared with more traditional supervising teachers' work (Fakülte-Okul İşbirliği Kitapçığı). They are not only expected to be skilled in the instructional areas but also assume responsibility for assisting and guiding the student teachers through the essential portion of their teacher preparation. Although many regulations and policies have been legislated pertaining to the qualifications and characteristics needed to be an effective supervising teacher, very little attention and priority have been given to the reward structure. First of all, increased recognition must be given to the teachers who provide time, attention and professional support to the student teachers in addition to their heavy work load. Moreover, monetary incentives should be increased. At the time of this study, several universities started to provide supervising teachers with some payment but this 'monetary reward' is unfortunately pitiful and it is unrealistic to motivate teachers with such a low amount of

money. Supervising teachers should also be given some release time as they need time for training, meeting with student teachers, observation and conferencing, so, released time can be a valuable incentive. On the other hand, at a time when Turkish teachers are already under severe pressure to improve their classroom management skills and promote learning in light of the changing Turkish student profile as compared to the past, when budget cuts are resulting in larger class sizes and when teachers are expected to assume more responsibility for more student supervision of extra curricular activities in breaks and lunch time, administrators naturally wonder whether or not it is in the best interest of their schools to have their teachers additionally burden with the responsibility of supervising a student teacher. For this reason, participating schools should also be recognized for their effective cooperation. Finally, universities should demonstrate to school administrators how these partnerships will enrich and strengthen the teaching in their schools, e.g. positive findings in research studies could be presented to them to increase their interest, motivation, as well as contribute to their satisfaction and good feeling.

5.2. Suggestions for further research

An important limitation of the study was that the limited sample of data from the two private, two public schools and one university may not have been necessarily representative of any larger population of supervising teachers and student teachers. As the two public schools were "Super lise"s, the researcher suggests that further research should be carried out in

public schools where teachers need more motivation and support to promote their professional development.

As teachers change their institutions frequently in Turkey, it would be difficult to carry out further research with the same teachers but contact with some of the participating teachers in different institutions can be established to see the long-term effects of the training in a new or in the same school context.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

TEACHERS' BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete or put a tick in the blanks after reading the questions carefully.

Gender: Male ( ) Female ( )

Native speaker of English ( ) Non-native speaker of English ( )

Years of experience in teaching:

Years of experience as a supervising teacher :

Education : Level Institution

BA

MA

Ph.D.

Teaching subject/class in 1998/99: _____

Teaching hours per week:

Name of the institution you are working in at present: _____

INSET courses attended so far: _____

APPENDIX B

KNOWLEDGE-TRANSMISSION TRAINING[4,5]

SESSION 1

Step 1: The researcher started with a lecture on things to do to promote interaction in the classroom.

"As we all know, genuine communicative interaction is enhanced if there is an appreciation for the uniqueness of individuals in the class. Each student brings to the classroom unique language learning and life experiences (both successful and unsuccessful) as well as feelings about these experiences (including joy, anxiety and fear). As teachers, we need to be sensitive to each individual's background and affective state. To create a classroom atmosphere conducive to interaction, we need to understand and accept each student as he or she is, which sometimes requires considerable effort.

To begin with, reducing the traditional central position of the teacher may contribute to making classrooms interactive. This does not mean that we, teachers, have to give away the control of the class. The teacher can maintain control of what goes on in the classroom while still giving freedom to students to initiate interaction among themselves and with the teacher. This will provide chances for the students to express themselves in meaningful ways and potentially contribute to creating an interactive classroom.

[4] Given to all teachers and student teachers.
[5] The participating teachers were given the reference list at the end of this section (Appendix B1).

Classroom management refers to the way teachers organize what goes on in the classroom. We are going to discuss how teachers manage classroom teaching so that students have opportunities to interact in meaningful ways. Throughout our discussion , we will emphasize that classroom management is a personal and creative endeavor in which a complex set of factors are combined and constantly tested through classroom use.

The teacher can influence the kind of interaction that goes on in the class, and this interaction is created from a combination of many related factors. The goal of every dimension of a lesson is to create a classroom atmosphere conducive to interaction in English in meaningful ways because it is through meaningful interaction that students can make progress in learning English.

What are the dimensions of a lesson? "

Step 2: Teachers were shown OHP 1, summary of the main points to be covered in the training sessions (see Appendix B2).

Step 3: The researcher started a discussion about the beginning dimension of a lesson with a task (see Appendix B3).

Step 4: The researcher initiated a discussion on lesson openings.

"In real life, before you read, listen, watch, speak or write, you already know a lot about what you are going to do. You have all kinds of expectations and predictions in your head. Even before you open a letter from a good friend who frequently corresponds with you, you usually have a reasonably clear idea about possible topics in that letter , you know something about the events in his/her life. When you meet someone, it is likely that you have anticipated some of the topics you might discuss and perhaps imagined some to the things you will say.

In real life, in your own language, you are aware of many things before you communicate; other aspects of communication are unconscious. For example: You predict, you expect, you hope, you know something about a topic, you have a context in which to communicate , you have a purpose for listening, reading, etc., and you are personally involved.

We can relate this knowledge to teaching English by using warming-up activities with our students, which helps them to contextualise their learning. Thus, the opening of a lesson consists of the procedures the teacher uses to focus the students' attention on the learning aims of the lesson. Research on teaching suggests that the opening, or "entry", of a lesson generally occupies the first five minutes and can have an important influence on how much students learn from a lesson. Why? What is the purpose?"

Step 5: The researcher discussed the aims of lesson beginnings and different ways of starting a lesson with teachers and elicited responses from the participating teachers (see Appendix B 4).

Step 6: The researcher summed up.

"So, by means of different lesson openings we can examine information that has been covered in an earlier lesson, activate relevant schema, refresh students' memories and set the stage for new learning".

SESSION 2

Step 1: The researcher told the teachers that they were going to talk about the ways to increase student participation in a lesson during that session and showed them OHP 1, the same outline of the main points of the sessions (see Appendix B2).

Step 2: The researcher talked about the significance of teacher talk in the classroom.

"When asked to tape-record their teaching, listen to the tape and add up the amount of time they talk, teachers are generally surprised to discover they spend much more time talking than they had imagined. Although it can be argued that in many foreign language classrooms, teacher talk is important in providing learners with the only substantial live target language input they are likely to receive, it leaves the learners little opportunity to practice genuine communicative uses of language. If you want to encourage your students to use language you must be prepared to keep quiet. How can we achieve silence in the classroom?".

Step 3: The researcher elicited responses from the participating teachers (see Appendix B 5).

Step 4: The researcher lectured on silence by integrating teachers' responses.

"We shouldn't be afraid of silence. Constant language is tiring: students need time to think, collect their thoughts, make notes. Silence is particularly desirable, first of all, when students are doing something individually, e.g. reading a text or completing an exercise, preparing a piece of work. If the teacher speaks during these activities, it breaks students' concentration. Secondly, sometimes a student hesitates during an exercise, or looks for a word. Here, the teacher jumping in too soon makes the students lazy. The silent struggle to understand and recall is a natural part of language learning. Moreover, in discussions, the students sometimes need time to formulate a thought and most important of all, if the teacher is constantly injecting ideas, students will soon sit back and expect the teacher to do the work. And finally, sometimes there should be silence for the sake of silence - if something hectic has been happening, there is to be a change of activity, or students need, for example, to get out a new book. A moment or two of silence in the middle of a lesson means that students can return with renewed concentration to the activity which follows.

So, we are not going to use more language than is necessary, (don't forget we can reduce the amount of unnecessary classroom language by using our eyes and our hands) and we are not going to be afraid of silence".

Step 5: The researcher started talking about questioning patterns:

"Teachers ask a lot of questions. In fact, questions are one of the commonest types of utterances in EFL classes. Question asking occurs when the teacher is introducing a new topic or to review curriculum material

that students have just finished reading or seeing. Knowledge about questioning behaviors is important because effective questioning usually leads to increased student participation in a lesson".

Step 6: The researcher asked the teachers to discuss the reasons for asking questions and why questions are so commonly used in teaching. Responses from the teachers were reviewed (see Appendix B 6).

Step 7: The researcher lectured on questioning behavior.

"One way to focus on our questioning behaviors is to consider the purposes of questions. For many teachers, one purpose is to ask students to display their knowledge. These types of questions are called display questions. For example, when a teacher holds up a large paper clock and asks the students "What time is it?", the teacher is asking students to show that they know how to tell time in English. Likewise, when the teacher asks "What is the past form of 'to do?'", the teacher wants to see if they know this grammatical point. These questions offer a way to practice language or drill students and can be used when necessary but they are hardly ever asked in genuine communication outside the classroom (to begin asking display questions in social situations outside the classroom could lead to highly undesirable consequences!).

For some teachers, another purpose for asking questions is to learn about the students, to discover things about them and their knowledge to get answers to questios the teacher doesn't know the answers to. For example,

if the teacher forgot his watch and wants to know what time it is, he would use a referential question: "What time is it?". The same is true if the teacher asks, "Who has been to a museum?" , it is simply to know who has and who has not been to one. These questions are called referential questions and they provide a means through which we bring real questions into the classroom. They can also be fun for students because the questions are aimed at communicating and not testing their knowledge. Research found out that referential questions elicit longer and more syntactically complex responses and that these responses contain significantly more connectives, which play an important role in helping nonnative speakers to communicate successfully. One reason that referential questions significantly increases the syntactic complexity of learners' language is that they normally require more thoughtful responses (Lynch, 1991; Nunan, 1989).

Another important point indicated by educators is that teachers should make use of a variety of questioning patterns. For example, students should not just recite back the facts they learned by means of recall and recognition questions, e.g. 'Who', 'What', 'Where', 'When' type of Wh-questions, which have a low level of cognitive difficulty. Students should also be encouraged to think about the content and this goal is accomplished by asking higher level cognitive questions, which are questions that cannot be answered simply by looking in the textbook. The students have to think and then formulate an original response. Higher level cognitive questions may require the student to compare and contrast, state possible motives or causes for observed phenomena, draw conclusions, provide evidence, make

predictions or offer opinions. Research again revealed that recall and recognition questions generally elicit shorter responses than higher-level questions. Asking a higher cognitive question may not be sufficient to elicit a thoughtful response. One helpful behavior is to pause several seconds before calling on a student to respond. This gives all students time to think and encourages all students in the class to generate an answer, because they do not know whom the teacher will call on to respond.

To increase student participation teachers may also ask follow-up questions after the student has given an initial answer to a question. For example, the teacher might ask "Did you agree with the jury's verdict?" and the student might respond, "No, I didn't". The teacher can follow up by asking the student to support his position (e. g. "Why didn't you agree?"). Follow-up questions also can be used to encourage a student to clarify a vague answer, (e.g., "I'm not sure I understood what you said. Can you restate your answer?"), to generate additional ideas, (e.g. "Can you think of other ways of solving the crisis?"), or to challenge the student, (e.g. "That's a good idea but have you considered possible adverse consequences that might occur if your idea were put into practice?").

To check students' comprehension, teachers often ask, "Do you understand?". Such comprehension checks are not as common outside classrooms as they are inside classrooms and they do not have much value. Making use of the alternative questioning patterns we have discussed so far will enable you to check the understanding of the students at the same time".

Step 8: The researcher highlighted the following aspects related to effective questioning by showing OHP 2.

- PROMPTING
- WAIT TIME
- TURN TAKING

Step 9: The researcher briefly defined prompting.

"Teachers must have a tool for maintaining successful interaction if students cannot supply right answers. Prompting - clues teachers provide or other questions they ask when students are unable to answer the original question correctly; for example, 'Is that a tool? ".

Step 10: The teachers brainstormed on things they do when they don't receive any response from their students and responses were elicited from the teachers in a follow up discussion with the researcher (see Appendix B 7).

Step 11: The researcher showed further examples (OHP 3) to illustrate the principle of modification.

Original question	Reformulation
What are these people doing?	What are they planting?
What kind of an elephant is this?	Is he happy or sad?
What else did you see?	Did you see any furniture?
How did they travel?	Did they go by air or water?

Step 12: The researcher elaborated on how to use modification effectively

"As can be seen, the teacher is attempting to help students by not only rephrasing the question but also simplifying it by making the answer more concrete and obvious. This tactic serves two functions: from a non-responding students' perspective, it takes the pressure off by making answering the task easier. From a lesson perspective, it not only approaches the content in a slightly different way but also helps to maintain the continuity of the lesson".

Step 13: The researcher started lecturing on wait time

"On average, teachers wait less than one second for students to respond before interrupting, prompting, giving the answer themselves or calling on another student. In addition, it was found that teachers tend to cut off students' responses, rather than letting them complete their answers as fully as possible. Unfortunately, both of these problems are more pronounced when students are perceived as low achievers. In contrast, research (Rowe, 1986) results indicate that when teachers wait a little longer (three to five seconds), student participation increases in the following ways:

- the average length of students' responses increases,
- the quality of learner responses increases significantly,
- the number of correct responses goes up,
- more inferences are made by students".

Step 14: The researcher talked about the final point: Turn taking.

"Another issue relevant to the management of learning concerns the distribution of questions. It is generally considered desirable to distribute questions among all students rather than restricting them to a few. Although most of us probably imagine that we are even-handed in our treatment of students, we might find, if we obtained an objective record of our teaching, that we favor certain students over others with our questions. Teachers may call upon some learners more frequently than they do on others. Teachers are likely to call on students who raise their hands and who customarily give good answers to their questions. Conversely, some other learners get less than their 'fair share' of talk time. If we accept that students learn to speak by speaking, this means that those most in need of the opportunity to speak are probably given the least amount of classroom talking time. Moreover, nonvolunteers often make good contributions if the teacher takes the initiative by calling on them. In short, it is the duty of a teacher to encourage all students to take part in the activities in order to have an interactive classroom".

Step 15: The researcher discusses the "dont's'" of question asking.

"Teachers should avoid reacting negatively to student responses by making critical remarks (e.g., "That doesn't make any sense at all") or by showing annoyance. Critical behavior would increase the likelihood that the student will volunteer no response in the future. Rather than that, clarification requests should be used (e.g. "Tell me what you mean by that"

or "Can you say a little more about that?"). The second negative behavior, repeating one's question, is to be avoided because it wastes class time and encourages students not to listen carefully the first time the teacher asks a question. The third "don't" asking multiple questions , refers to the practice of asking several questions in a row before settling on a question to which a response is invited. Teachers tend to do this when they are unsure of the lesson content or if they are inclined to think aloud. Multiple questions also waste class time and they are likely to confuse students.

SESSION 3

Step 1: The researcher showed the teachers OHP 1 to remind them again of the order of the session topics (see Appendix B 2). This session started with a task. The teachers were asked to reflect on their feelings and beliefs about mistakes (see Appendix B 8).

Step 2: The researcher gave a handout with 5 situations and asked them how they would correct some mistakes which might occur in a lesson. The responses were elicited from teachers and elaborated on by the researcher (see Appendix B 9).

Step 3: The researcher lectured on learner errors.

"One theory of language learning states that learners' making mistakes should be viewed as positive, as mistakes are a sign that our learners are learning something. It is thus possible to see language errors as 'learning steps' that we can learn from. For example, a student who makes the mistake *I goed to the cinema yesterday* instead of saying *I went to the cinema yesterday* is aware that a simple past tense is formed by adding *-ed* to the stem of the verb:she does not say *I go to the cinema yesterday* because her intention is to speak about yesterday. However, she is unaware that the verb *to go* is irregular in the past simple or she has simply forgotten it. She is moving towards correctness in the past tense although she hasn't quite reached her goal. One common view is that many of the things we call mistakes and see as problems are in fact signals that our students are successful learning the language; our learners are trying

things out, testing out their knowledge and skills in learning the language and making mistakes is a part of their language-learning development. Accordingly, it was pointed out that we should not see mistakes as negative. Helping learners by correcting them can be a way of giving information, or feedback, to your students and will support their learning.

Now we can say that teachers should interrupt learners when they make a mistake when they are focusing on accuracy. For example when presenting a new structure and learners are practising it for the first time or when the main aim of a group task is practising something and learners are constantly wrong. For example, if you are practicing past tense questions and a majority of learners in a group is constantly making the same error "Did he came** on Saturday?" you might stop the group work and remind the whole class of the correct form. Sometimes it may be necessary for you to give delayed feedback. For example, if learners are in the middle of an activity (e.g. a role-play or a group discussion); you can make a note of errors and wait until the activity is finished to correct them. Why ? Because here, fluency and effective communication are your aims.

Moreover, some errors or mistakes should remain uncorrected by the teacher. For example, in the middle of a role-play, if a shy or not very strong learner is attempting to communicate or if a learner is trying to express something of personal significance or emotional content, the message is more important than correct English.

So, how can you help learners to self-correct or to correct each other's spoken errors? You can make a gesture, stop the learner, give a

questioning look or say 'Er?'. The learner then tries to say the correct form. It is also possible to indicate the nature of the error, by saying for example, 'Past tense' or by stressing the incorrect form to indicate where the error is : He GOED ** to Moscow?

Sometimes you can repeat the sentence up to where the error was made and then leave a gap for the learner to provide the correction or ask the whole class or another learner for a correct response and then ask the learner who made the error to repeat the correct form.

What are the advantages of self-correction and peer correction? First of all, the teacher learns how much her learners do and do not know and secondly, the learners really listen more to each other and understand they can learn from each other.

And the disadvantages of self-correction and peer correction are that the same two or three people might always answer and they might feel superior to others and the learner who is corrected might feel embarrassed and not contribute so well in future classes.

So, to sum up we mustn't forget that for an interactive class, errors should be tolerated to a certain extent. Researchers make the point that if teachers attempted to correct every error that occurred in class, there would be very little time for anything else. Hypercorrection can create a negative classroom atmosphere, discouraging learners from risk-taking and experimentation. Again, the extent of error correction will depend on the aim of the lesson. That is , when the focus is on meaning, it is probably inappropriate to interrupt the flow of interaction. In these situations , the

teacher can make a note of errors for follow-up treatment later (of course, if the error interferes with communication, then the teacher may have to intervene)".

Step 4: The researcher asked the teachers to discuss techniques of giving feedback. Responses from the teachers were reviewed and additional techniques were suggested by the researcher (Appendix B 10).

Step 5: The researcher summarized the goal of feedback techniques.

"If one of the goals of language teachers is to help the learners get closer and closer to the target language norm, then students must be provided with the feedback they need to modify their hypotheses about the functions and linguistic forms they use. Feedback can be either positive or negative and may serve not only to let learners know how well they have performed but also to increase motivation and build a supportive classroom climate".

Step 6: The researcher lectured on giving clear and effective instructions.

"Giving clear instructions is crucial to carry out an activity effectively. We should consider how we can make our instructions clear to the students and at the same time provide opportunities through these instructions for students to interact in meaningful ways. If the instructions given by the teacher are unclear, the students are forced simultaneously to try to do the

task and work out what the teacher had in mind. Some ways to give instructions include:

- Writing down instructions and giving them verbally,
- Having a student read the instructions, then having a student or two paraphrase these instructions to the class,

So be : **simple** **precise** **explicit**

Step 7: The researcher lectured on pair/group work.

"One of the major changes to the dynamics of classroom interaction brought by student-centered teaching has been an increasing emphasis on pair- and group work. Pair and group work can greatly increase the amount of speaking undertaken by all students in the class. Although with large classes setting up group activities can be difficult, pair and group work can help to develop interaction skills in the target language".

Step 8: The researcher showed OHP 4, a summary of the key points about pair and group work and went over each point in detail.

- interaction
- well-organized pair work
- the teacher's role during pair or group work
- activities following pair or group work

"Using pair/group work in class will produce interaction and maximize the amount of student talk time, only if each person has one bit of information needed by the others to complete the tasks. This condition forces a two-way information exchange. Everyone has to give and receive information for the task to be done properly. There are plenty of classroom activities which provide an extremely useful combination of real communication and quite deliberate rehearsal of a clearly identified set of restricted material: such as information gap activities in which more students are directly involved. To be 'well-organized', you should give clear and explicit instructions for pair or group formation and for the activity. Otherwise, the students waste time getting started and, later give up the task and start talking about other things if the activity is unclear to them.

Seating arrangement is another important aspect to be considered. If our goal is to provide lots of chances for students to use English to communicate meaning, we should feel free to create seating combinations that make this possible. For example, they can sit face-to-face as they interview each other or they can sit back-to-back as they simulate a telephone conversation or in circles as they discuss an issue or next to each other as they study reading selection or collaborate on a piece of writing.

While the pair or group work is taking place, you can go from group to group, monitor, and either contribute or keep out of the way - whichever is likely to be more helpful. If you do decide to intervene your contribution may be providing approval and support, helping students who are having difficulty, keeping the students using English and tactfully regulating

participation in the discussion. Sometimes, it may also be necessary to write on the blackboard an outline or model of what the students should be doing or some key words and phrases.

If you have set a time limit, then this will help you draw the activity to a close at a certain point. In principle, try to finish the activity while the students are still enjoying it and interested, or just beginning to flag. A feedback session should take place in the context of full-class interaction after the end of the group/pair work. Feedback on the task may take many forms; listening to and evaluating suggestions; pooling ideas on the board; displaying materials the groups have produced and so on. Your main objective here is to express appreciation of the effort that has been invested and its results.

If necessary, after the presentation the teacher may add comments (both correction of mistakes and suggestions for alternative, more natural, ways of saying things), Then students should work in pairs again, possibly reversing roles.

So the aim is that more students will be talking while the teacher is talking less and the atmosphere is relaxed and conducive to good learning".

Step 9: The researcher asked the teachers to brainstorm on their problems with pair/group work. Responses were elicited from the teachers and elaborated on by the researcher (Appendix B 11).

Step 10: The researcher summarized the techniques of effective pair/ group work by showing OHP5.

Your pair/group work will be most effective if you:

⇒ Divide the class in pairs or in groups yourself and make sure that all students know who they are working with and which role they are to take,

⇒ Make sure everyone is clear about what they are meant to be doing,

⇒ Go round, listen and check that they are doing it,

⇒ Stop the activity when it is clear that everyone is finished. Pair or group work is not an excuse for the teacher to sit back,

⇒ Follow up the pair/group work with a demonstration or summary from one of the pairs. If it is not well done, correct and provide help and then ask students to do the same practice again.

Step 11: The researcher highlighted the importance of clarifying objectives of pair/ group work with a case study.

"By the end of the first week, Ayten (a teacher at a private/secondary school) was experiencing a great deal of frustration: She got lost and in her own words felt like a 'beginning' teacher. When asked what kind of assistance she would like she replied that all she wanted was someone who would tell her what to do and how to cope with the complexities of the professional situation in which she found herself. She wanted to please and to do her best for her students. She realized that she had not negotiated the procedural aspects of learning with her students. She conducted a survey of

the students' attitudes toward the class, materials and group work. The students were asked to indicate what they found easy and what they found difficult, what they liked and what they disliked. The survey was followed by an intensive counseling session, in which Ayten followed up on the major points arising out of the survey. All students had given a low rating to group and pair work. In fact it was the only thing they hated and wanted to be stopped because they said they didn't understand why they were doing exercises in groups or in pairs. Moreover, in most cases they said they couldn't understand what the teacher was expecting from them. This was a real problem for her as a great many classroom activities were based on group and pair work. She explained to them that she wanted to give them the maximum amount of time to use the target language and if they had difficulty then this was part of communication and learning to communicate and that they had to work it out. She also decided to be more explicit with her instructions and to monitor classwork more carefully. As a result of the consultation process, all learners got quite prepared to continue with the pair and group work. Thus, clarifying the rationale made an incredible difference to them.

So, pair and group work can be problematic in classrooms when there is a mismatch between the expectations of the teacher and those of the students. For example, problems may arise because the teacher believes pair and group work maximize opportunities to speak, while the learners may believe that their role is to sit passively and absorb knowledge from the teacher".

SESSION 4

Step 1: The researcher showed OHP 1 again (see Appendix B2) to remind the teachers of the focus of the sessions and asked teachers to reflect on advantages and disadvantages of using their first language and English when teaching. Teachers started with a task (see Appendix B 12).

Step 2: The researcher lectured on the use of the first language.

" In the twentieth century, methods such as the audiolingual method reinforced the primacy of the spoken language and the importance of avoiding the use of the first language in the classroom. Learners were encouraged to operate in the target language from the beginning rather than translating from the mother tongue. Another argument was that when the teacher used the first language, s/he encouraged students to avoid using the target language. More recently, communicative language teaching and natural approaches to instruction have also downplayed the role of the first language. Despite these trends, the use of the first language has been defended by some language teaching specialists. It has been argued that the judicious use of the first language can greatly facilitate the management of the learning process, particularly where grammatical and lexical explanations are concerned. Sometimes a quick translation short-circuits the rather torturous process".

Step 3: The researcher discussed some general points on creating a classroom atmosphere conducive to learning.

"Student responses are essential for assessing the learning progress. At least two aspects of effective interaction are important. First, be sure to get information from as many students as possible. One way to do this is to call on nonvolunteers as well as volunteers. Another way of informally assessing understanding is to ask for a simple show of hands.

In this process, queries such as "Are there any questions" are generally not helpful. If there are questions, the students who have them often won't admit it (Think back on your own experience; no one wants to admit not understanding something. Everyone assumes that he or she is the only one who is confused).

Secondly, assessing the quality of student answers is important. Correct, quick and firm answers indicate that students understand the skill and the teacher should use general praise, such as a simple 'good answer' in response".

Step 4: The researcher discussed the use of teaching aids and the blackboard:

"Using teaching aids such as pictures, cassette players or videos effectively is of utmost importance in making the lesson more meaningful and contextual because effective learning takes place when the language items are contextualized. The use of the blackboard is also important as it is the most commonly used visual aid. It can be divided into three parts: two

smaller side panels, one for listing the new words and phrases (not cleaned during the lesson)and the other for doodles and drawings and a larger central area used to present the main material of the lesson".

Step 5: The researcher lectured on effective seating arrangements in the classroom.

To manage and promote an interactive classroom, we also need to know how to arrange a variety of classroom activities. In order to do this we should start with the seating arrangement of our classroom. The students can sit in a traditional seating arrangement or in a semicircle during teacher-class discussions or lectures. During group work it is not easy to talk to each other if students sit in straight lines facing the back of each other's neck (the spoken language is about people talking to each other). But students can still form groups of four by turning around and talking to those behind them. So allow students to move their desks or their chairs for pair and group work.

The seating should allow for the removal of the teacher from a central, dominant role during certain activities. The point here is that we teachers do not have to limit the students to traditional seating. If our goal is to provide lots of chances for students to use English to communicate meaning, we need to feel free to create seating combinations that make this possible".

Step 6: The researcher showed OHP 6, giving examples of suitable seating arrangements in the classroom.

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S                                   S     S         S
    S                           S         S         S
        S               S                 S         S
            S   S   S                     S         S
                                          SSSSSSSSSS
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Step 7: The researcher focused on teacher position, voice and language as final points necessary to improve classroom interaction.

"It is important for the students to see you and especially your mouth and your eyes and that you see all the students clearly. Eye contact is the best human contact; you can lose the attention of your students if you take your eyes off them for long periods. If you are standing and your eyes are constantly moving over the class, everyone feels involved.

Don't forget if the teacher speaks "without punctuation", students will be confused.

⇒ One way to provide this "spoken punctuation" is to make very short pauses before each change in the use of language; for example:

Listen again	(Giving instructions)
Does she know him?	(Giving examples)
Notice, in the first....	(Commenting)

The teacher's voice should be audible and it is important that the teacher mark the changes in why s/he is speaking. Pauses, stress and changes of pitch when changing from, for example, a comment to instructions, will mean it is much easier to follow what you say".

APPENDIX B 1

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APPENDIX B 2

OHP 1

ARTICULATING OBJECTIVES AND WARM-UP ACTIVITIES

TEACHER TALK

QUESTIONING PATTERNS

PROMPTING

WAIT TIME

TURN DISTRIBUTION

FEEDBACK

INSTRUCTIONS

GROUP WORK AND PAIR WORK

USE OF L1

TEACHING AIDS AND BLACKBOARD

CHECKING UNDERSTANDING

TEACHER POSITION

TEACHER VOICE AND LANGUAGE

APPENDIX B 3

TASK :Teachers were asked to form groups and reflect on their own experiences of lesson beginnings and discuss these with each other.

Teacher responses: Teachers said that they started their lesson by

- describing the goals of a lesson,
- stating the information or skills the students will learn,
- pointing out links between that specific lesson and the previous lesson,
- asking questions about concepts or skills taught in the previous lesson.

APPENDIX B 4

Task : The researcher discussed the aims of lesson beginnings and ways of starting a lesson with teachers

Teacher responses:

Lesson beginnings

- attract students' attention
- prepare the students for what is to follow,

allow tuning in time. This may be especially important in situations where learners come directly from a different environment, e.g. PE class.

The researcher summarized each point and added the following: We can also start a lesson by

- describing the relationship between the lesson activities and a real world need
- describing what students are expected to do in the lesson,
- describing the relationship between the lesson and a forthcoming test or exam,
- stating that the activity the students will do is something they will enjoy,
- giving a short quiz at the beginning of class on material from a previous lesson or homework assignments or by having students prepare questions about previous lessons or homework.

By doing some of these we can assess relevant knowledge and inform the students about the aims of the specific lesson.

APPENDIX B 5

Task: The researcher asked the teachers how they could achieve silence

Teachers' responses:

- Not interrupting students unnecessarily while they are preparing something,
- Not dominating the class discussions,
- Not telling students what they want to say.

APPENDIX B 6

Task: The researcher asked the teachers to make groups and discuss the reasons for asking questions. Why are questions so commonly used in teaching?

Teachers' responses:

- They stimulate and maintain students' interest.
- They encourage students to think and focus on the content of the lesson.
- They enable a teacher to clarify what a student has said.
- They enable teachers to check students' understanding.
- They encourage student participation in a lesson.

APPENDIX B 7

Task: Teachers brainstormed on things they do when they don't receive any response from their students.

Teachers' responses:

- Sometimes we repeat our previous questions, sometimes we give four or five repetitions of the same question.
- Aiding the respondent with perhaps a clue to the expected answer, such as comparing or contrasting the expected response to something.

Researcher elaborated on these:

- It is claimed that the success rate of students responding to subsequent repetitions of questions is quite low. This of course may be an artifact of the difficulty of the question .
- A better alternative is to modify a question which has not been understood.
- Another modification of questions is by rephrasing with alternative or "or-choice" questions: "What would you like to drink?" (pause) "Would you like coffee, tea, beer?"

APPENDIX B 8

TASK: In this task, teachers are asked to reflect on their feelings and beliefs about mistakes.

Step 1: Work individually.

Complete these sentences about yourself learning a foreign language:

1. When my classmates made mistakes while speaking, I felt/I thought .....

2. When my classmates corrected my mistakes, I felt/I .....

3. When the teacher corrected my spoken language, I felt.....

4. The way I like a teacher to correct me is for her to .....

Teachers' responses:

1. the teacher should correct their mistakes

2. angry, didn't' like it

3. nothing, sometimes embarrassed, happy because of her interest

4. say the correct form or version

APPENDIX B 9

Task : Teachers work in pairs and they are given 5 situations.

Step 1: They discuss each situation .

Situation 1:

Your class is working in groups, describing a typical day at their school. A learner says, "*I liking Maths and English best*".

Situation 2

Your class is reading a dialogue aloud from the book in pairs. As you walk around the class and listen to them, you hear that a lot of them cannot pronounce the words *'ready'* and *'happened'* correctly.

Situation 3

Your class is working in pairs doing a speaking activity. One student is asking the other to go out for the evening. A student says *"I want go to a Chinese restaurant"*.

Situation 4

Your are revising tag questions before your class has a test. You are providing sentences; the students must provide the tag questions. You say, "*He went to the station..*" and point to a student, who says, *"Isn't it?"*

Situation 5

You are doing a grammar drill to practice the present perfect tense. You ask "Have your ever been to the beach?" A student responds, "*I've went to the beach on France last year*"..

Step 2: They answer the following questions:

1 Would you correct the error?

2. How exactly would you correct it?

3. When exactly would you correct it?

Some teacher responses

1. Except for situation 3, correction is necessary;

2. I would stop the student, ask him to repeat the sentence;

   In situation 2, I would ask the whole class to repeat the two words after me;

   I would ask the class whether the sentence was correct or not.

3. At time of the error.

APPENDIX B 10

Task : Teachers are asked to discuss the techniques of giving feedback.

Teacher responses:

- Acknowledging a correct answer: by nodding approval or saying "Yes",
- Praising a correct answer,
- Repeating a correct answer,
- Summarizing or paraphrasing,
- Requesting another answer.

The researcher elaborated on these and added others :

- Acknowledging a correct answer: The teacher acknowledges that a student's answer is correct by saying, for example, "Good", Yes", "That's right or fine".
- Indicating an incorrect answer by saying, for example, "No, that's not quite right" or "mmm",
- Praising: The teacher compliments a student for an answer, for example, by saying "Yes, an excellent answer."
- Expanding or modifying a student's answer. The teacher responds to a vague or incomplete answer by providing more information or rephrasing the answer in the teacher's own words. For example

  T Does anyone know the capital of the United States?

  S Washington

T Yes, Washington, D.C: That's located on the east coast

- Repeating: The teacher repeats the students' answer.
- Summarizing: The teacher gives a summary of what a student or group of students has said.
- Criticizing: The teacher criticizes a student for the kind of response provided. For example;

T Ali, can you point out the topic sentence in this paragraph?

S The first sentence.

T How can it be the first sentence? Remember, I said the first sentence is not always the topic sentence in every paragraph. Look again.

- Requesting: Teacher requests for clarification of the preceding utterance or for elaboration , i.e. for further information related to the subject matter of the preceding utterances.

APPENDIX B 11

Task: The researcher asked the teachers to brainstorm on their problems with pair and group work.

Teachers' problems:

1) How can I organize pair/group work most effectively?
2) What is the ideal group size?
3) Should there be a time limit?
4) How is evaluation achieved?
5) How about noise?

Researcher's responses

1) Set up group members together prior to the group work activity (maybe during the break). Only in doing so can you accomplish the transition from the whole-class activity to student groups and back again with a minimum of disruption.

A major issue in the management of group work is deciding on a policy for assigning students to groups. In some situations it may be natural to allow students to self select, in which case they will tend to work in friendship groups. A lot of teachers form groups where strong and weak students are mixed together. This is often a good thing for the weak students (although there is a danger that they will be overpowered by the stronger members of the group and will thus not participate) and probably does not hinder the stronger students from getting benefit from the activity. One student in each group can also be appointed as secretary writing out the answers or taking notes to report back to the whole group.

2) Group size is an important factor. When doing communicative tasks it is desirable to limit the number of students in a group to five or less.

3) Setting the time is very important. Set your time and keep it and don't keep the time too long.

4) Once group activities have been set up, it is necessary to monitor and evaluate the groups' dynamics and the contribution of individual members. Things to note include those who contribute and those who do not, those who facilitate and those who inhibit the group, whether the atmosphere is positive, negative or neutral, whether members are actively involved in the group work.

Group work must always be followed by a general class activity in which the results of the group work are reported to the whole group and commented on by the teacher.

5) Group work, by its nature, is designed to generate noise and in many classrooms this can be disruptive to other classes in adjoining rooms. Don't think it is impossible to equate noise with learning and don't be afraid of noise!

(You may believe that the quiet class is the good class. Such a belief raises obvious difficulties if we are concerned to teach the spoken language) If the standard teaching techniques involve the teacher questioning individual students, one by one, in every lesson no individual student will answer more than two or three questions, each lasting a few seconds; so carefully organized 'noise' does not mean disorder or that time is being wasted.

APPENDIX B 12

Task : Teachers work individually, they look at the statements in the table and give each an appropriate score according to their opinion L 1 or English?

Statement	Score
1. A teacher should translate all new vocabulary into L1.	
2. It is best to use English to teach grammar.	
3. A teacher should give instructions first in English and then in L1.	
4. It is not necessary for a teacher to insist on learners speaking English to each other or to the teacher.	
5. A teacher should only use L1 when it is obvious that there is absolutely no other way for learners to understand her.	
6. It is more effective to use English to discipline learners (for example, when asking a class to be quiet).	
7. A teacher needs to use L1 to be able to maintain a good relationship with a class.	
8. It is not possible, even with the use of gesture, body language, facial expressions, examples, etc. to communicate clearly in English with beginners.	
9. A teacher should always speak to learners in English in class.	
10. It's acceptable to speak L 1 to learners outside class.	

4 - totally agree 3 - partly agree 2 - partly disagree 1- totally disagree

Teachers' responses:

percentages differed from one school to another but the overall result showed that most teachers agreed with statements 5, 6, 8, 9, 10 and disagreed with 1, 2, 3, 4, 7.

APPENDIX C

SUPERVISING TEACHER- STUDENT TEACHER COLLABORATIVE DIALOGUE [6, 7]

Step 1: The researcher showed OHP 1, an outline of the main points of the training sessions (see Appendix C 2).

Step 2: The researcher lectured on general points related to student teaching in Turkey.

"Teachers' initial professional education used to be based mainly in universities. Schools had no formal obligation to participate in it and had no significant influence on the policies which shaped it . They were simply places to which student teachers were sent for 'teaching practice'. As a result, the part played by supervising teachers in the schools was often ambiguous and on a voluntary basis.

All this has now changed. Gradually universities have recognized the need for schools and teachers to play a fuller and clearer part in initial teacher education and in some cases they have developed stronger partnerships with schools for this purpose.

There are very good reasons why this is happening. It is clear that the complex practical work of classroom teaching is not something that can be learned by first learning theoretical ideas and then simply putting them into practice during the practicum.

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[6] Given to supervising teachers only

[7] The participating teachers were given the reference list at the end of this section (see Appendix C1).

The case for schools and practicing teachers' making a major contribution to initial teacher education is obvious. It should be understood, however, that the enthusiasm for school-based teacher education does not imply any lack of enthusiasm for the equally important contribution necessary from higher education institutions. Without university courses the quality of the thinking which student teachers would develop as professional educators would likely be more limited, as important kinds of arguments about good practice would be relatively neglected and not effectively learned. Thus, we should accept the contributions of both higher education institutions and primary and secondary schools to initial teacher education.

Classroom teaching is so complex and demanding that student teachers' learning cannot be left to chance. Planning of their learning is , therefore, essential. A significant part of the student teachers' learning will result directly from working with the supervising teacher. School placement provides the student teacher not only with the opportunity for practice teaching but also with the opportunity to learn from the expertise of experienced teachers- from you, as the supervising teacher and from your colleagues. If student teachers are to make effective use of this opportunity their learning needs to be carefully managed. Thus, you need to provide your student teachers with a program for their time at school that offers them more control and understanding in the early stages of their training and development once they become more competent as classroom teachers".

Step 3: The researcher focused on important aspects related to the student teaching period.

"The most important thing is that during the student teaching period you will be able to work with your student teachers for sufficient time to build a constructive working relationship with them and to be able to monitor and evaluate their progress with confidence. A timetabled period away from the classroom is an important element in the student teachers' program. It provides the opportunity to plan ahead, allocate tasks for the coming days and draw the student teachers into discussions of all that they have seen and done during the week.

Don't forget that student teachers are adult learners and are in a peculiar position in a school. They're adults but they are learners. Any newcomer to the school-especially someone in the insecure position of a student teacher-needs to understand how the school works. Student teachers need to know what is expected of them, even down to such details as what is the accepted standard of dress for teachers in that school. For them to feel secure in the school and in their learning, they also need to have clear ideas of what they are going to be doing from one day to the next. Time spent talking with your student teachers about teaching and the ways in which you will be working with them is a good investment. Sometimes problems can occur simply because you and the student teacher have never discussed the ways in which you will be working together in school.

Once student teachers have settled into the school you may easily forget that they are not experienced teachers. However, as beginners they need to

take some time in planning and evaluating lessons. It is tempting to give them a full teaching timetable, arguing that they need to know what it is like to be a real teacher. The demands of learning to teach - planning thoroughly, learning from other teachers, learning through reading, discussing, learning how to evaluate their work and exploring whole school issues are exhausting enough.

Finally, in drawing up a program for a student teacher, you will have to take account of a number of needs and interests. You have to give consideration to the learning needs of your pupils as well as those of the student teachers and the needs of your department and the school. This is a tall order. It is not always possible to satisfy everyone. Moreover, your own teaching commitments mean that you cannot necessarily always give the time to your student teachers that you would like to and feel they deserve. Most of the time people complain "there is always lots to talk about between lessons" but sometimes five minutes is all ycu have time for and five minutes is better than nothing.

Before we go on with the details of the student teaching period, I'd like to discuss the role of the supervising teachers in the collaborative dialogue. The researcher gives a handout on prescriptive and collaborative supervision (see Appendix C3).

Looking at figure 1, we see that in the prescriptive approach, the supervising teacher is seen as an authority figure. His/her role is to direct and inform the student teacher, model teaching behaviors and evaluate the student teacher's mastery of defined behaviors. She has expert status,

knows what ought to be done in a given teaching situation and is in a position to tell the student teacher what s/he has done wrong and what she can do to put it right. This kind of directive supervision brings some problems with it. First, there is the problem of how the supervising teacher defines 'good' teaching and secondly, this model may give rise to feelings of defensiveness and low self-esteem on the part of the teacher. On the other hand, within the collaborative approach, the role of the supervising teachers is to work with the student teachers but not direct them. The supervising teacher attempts to establish a sharing relationship with the student teacher. Instead of telling the student teacher what s/he should have done, he tries to understand the novice teacher's ideas, the problems he sees in the lesson and makes suggestions and shares his experience in a positive and non-judgmental way. Let's look at the traits which characterize a supervising teacher in the collaborative dialogue:

> She speaks in a pleasant tone, encourages the student teacher, refers to the essentials of the lesson and explains her opinions clearly and in order. She starts from the positive features and builds on them. She does not ignore the negative aspects of the lesson, but she expresses her opinion in a kind manner so that it is easy to accept. She makes suggestions and gives practical advice without trying to impose her opinion. She allows the student teacher to express herself and understand her.

When we analyze this description we see that the overall strategy may seem 'prescriptive', but as you can see the supervising teacher does not try 'to impose her opinion', she 'allows the teacher to express herself', 'understands her', 'speaks in a pleasant tone' etc. Although prescription, from time to time, may have its place and function, as student teachers welcome the authority of experience, it should be tempered by mutual respect, a pleasant manner, an organized presentation of one's point of view and a recognition of strengths as well as weaknesses".

Step 4: The researcher wrote 'STUDENT TEACHING PERIOD STARTS!' on the board and lectured on this topic.

"Before the teaching cycle starts, there is the orientation stage which deals with strategies for making them feel welcome at the school site. At this stage, the student teachers feel both very excited and hesitant as most of them do not know exactly where to start; usually they are somewhat overwhelmed by the reality of the profession they have chosen for themselves. Thus, the loss of precious time at the beginning of the term should be avoided; student teachers should be given directions by the supervising teachers as they do not know what to do. To alleviate some initial concerns, the student teachers may be given copies of the materials the students will be using. It is also known that as student teachers start observing the supervising teachers in actual teaching situations, their anxieties will decrease to a certain extent.

Let me give some information about the student teachers you are going to work with: The practice teaching period is actually the first school experience course the students will be having. They have had methodology courses in their 2nd, 3rd and this year in the first semester. But unfortunately, as there are too many students in a class, a few students have the chance to teach and be evaluated by their peers for several times. Moreover, the observations they carried out in the university were primarily descriptive ones. For this reason, the student teachers you are going to work with had additional training on focused observation. They also watched video cassettes of real classroom lessons and we had some discussions afterwards. But anyhow, it would be of real help if you start with the following points".

Step 5: The researcher showed OHP 2 and explained each point (see Appendix C 4).

Step 6: The researcher gave a checklist to every teacher about things to do on the first day (see Appendix C 5).

SESSION II

Step 1: The researcher showed OHP 1 and went over the points they discussed in the previous session and started talking on supervising teacher - student teacher dialogue.

"The supervising teacher-student teacher dialogue is a cyclical process. Although the stages are similar to each other, there is a distinction between the teaching cycle in which the student teacher observes the supervising teacher and the supervising teacher observes the student teacher. In the first weeks of the student teaching period, student teachers will observe the classes of their supervising teachers mainly and be assigned routine tasks. Let's discuss the details of this phase: the student teacher observing the supervising teacher".

Step 2: The researcher showed OHP 3, the cyclical process of the practicum (see Appendix C 6).

Step 3: The researcher lectured on the first step of the cycle: the pre-lesson discussion.

"Let's start with the pre-lesson discussion:
Planning is the major point of discussion as teaching is planned on the basis of a clear understanding of aims and context. The supervising teacher should first start demonstrating how important planning really is to the success of the teaching act. Before the student teacher starts teaching, sharing current lesson plans or tentative written plans would help the student teachers. Experienced teachers do not plan consciously. By seeming not

to plan you may confuse student teachers about their need to plan extensively and in detail. Unfortunately, some teachers are even disparaging about lesson plans and evaluations. 'You only have to do that to please the university supervisors' is a comment that student teachers frequently recall. However, student teachers need to plan. Experienced teachers do know what to do, so they already have a plan; a supervising teacher needs to identify where the student teachers are and when to collaborate with their plans. Over the course of time, the student teacher will take more and more responsibility for planning but the supervising teacher may always help with the process.

Before the lesson, give the student teachers some background information about the class to be observed - the work they have been doing, individual pupils, aims of the lesson and so on, especially at the beginning stages of the student teaching period. That is the first stage of the supervision cycle. Now we'll start with the second stage: the observation. The student teachers will observe you".

Step 4: The researcher handed out the focused observation forms and went over each item by reminding them of the points they had discussed in the knowledge-transmission training (see Appendix C 7). The researcher asked the supervising teachers to tell their student teachers to focus on one aspect of their teaching while observing them.

Step 5: Teachers were given a situation and asked to reflect on how they feel about being observed. Teachers' responses were discussed (see Appendix C 8).

Step 6: Teachers were given a handout on the opinions of some experienced teachers about observation and asked to discuss these. Teachers' responses were shared with the class (see Appendix C 9).

Step 7: Teachers were asked to role-play a discussion between a teacher and an observer just after a lesson, then reflect on the experience. Teachers' reflections are discussed (see Appendix C 10).

Step 8: The researcher lectured on student teachers' observing supervising teachers' classes.

"It is common practice for student teachers to observe experienced teachers and their pupils at work, especially in the early stages of school practice before they start teaching themselves; but too often this observation has not been useful.

- Anyone learning a complex skill finds it helpful to observe highly skilled performances which can provide 'models' before going on to practice the skill. For many student teachers, however, observation turns out to be unhelpful and it is not unusual for them impatiently to dismiss it as a waste of time. What are the reasons for this ?

Student teachers only see what they already know and when they are first in schools they do not know enough to see how complex teaching is,

- Student teachers have already spent thousands of hours in classrooms as pupils. At first, still with this pupil perspective, everything in a classroom looks familiar and obvious and they can find it difficult to see things in the way that teachers do,
- Student teachers often have strong preconceptions about what kind of teachers they want to be. They are quick to judge the others they observe and therefore think they have little to learn from them,
- Student teachers are generally keen to prove themselves as teachers. They are eager to get on with teaching and to learn from their own practice rather than from observing others.

Given these obstacles, for observation to be useful it must be directed towards a clear purpose. Student teachers need guidance both about the purpose of any particular observation and about how to observe effectively. As mentioned before, for the purpose of this study, the student teachers with whom the supervising teachers will be working received training on observation skills. They were also reminded that they should play an active role in the collaborative dialogue and that asking them relevant questions is a crucial part of observing their supervising teachers effectively".

Step 9: The researcher told the teachers that guided observation skills would help student teachers in many ways, showed them the

main points on the OHP and went over each point (see Appendix C 11 for OHP 4).

Step 10. The researcher lectured on post-lesson conferencing as the last stage of the supervision process.

"After the lesson, for a short period of time, you will have a talk with your student teachers about the lesson; student teachers will ask questions based on their observations. These conferences should focus on the points you decide on in the pre-lesson conferences.

So, don't take them as critical evaluations. They are trying to learn the rationale for what you are doing. Student teachers have much to learn from observing you and your colleagues, but it seems that the more skillful the teaching, the easier everything looks and the more difficult it is for observers to appreciate the complexities of classroom life and understand how success is achieved. Student teachers can, however, achieve a much fuller understanding of a particular lesson, if, following the observation, they have an opportunity to discuss the lesson with the teachers. The teacher then has the opportunity to talk about the kinds of pupil activities and progress he or she was aiming to promote. One of the most valuable ways in which you can help student teachers to understand the complexities of classroom teaching and to learn more about teachers' skills, strategies and achievements in the classroom is through observation with follow-up discussion. When the student teacher takes over the teaching responsibility, the same procedure of conferencing should be carried on".

Step 11: The researcher lectured on the teacher's professional craft knowledge.

"Teachers are used to having conversations about teaching in general, their pupils, the school and so on, but they are rarely asked to talk about the knowledge and expertise acquired through experience that guides them in day-to-day practice. However, one of the most valuable sources of knowledge for student teachers is the knowledge embedded in the teacher's actual practice-the teacher's taken-for- granted craft knowledge. Student teachers, therefore, need opportunities to get behind the scenes of observed lessons, to find out how the teacher saw a particular lesson and why the teacher did what he or she did, that no two lessons are the same. The experienced teachers, therefore, will teach and maintain the pupils' interest in a way that suits the circumstance of a particular lesson. Thus, student teachers will gradually build up a repertoire of different ways in different circumstances.

Talking about your instructional practices is a very good opportunity for reflection at the same time. Having to think about your classroom teaching in this way will really make you appreciate the skills you have. It can also encourage you to build on those skills, to refine the techniques you use or to develop new ways of doing things.

Now, gradually you can involve the student teachers in the teaching situation by assigning them work with individuals who need help, with small groups, with portions of the days lesson with the entire class and then with the entire class or the entire period or lesson. Reading poetry or a story

aloud to a class, writing instructions on the board, leading a brief discussion may be excellent beginnings. Equally, during a lesson, giving out homework at the end of a lesson, preparing a worksheet and checking that pupils are clear about the exercises on the worksheet. These subject/management distinctions are rather artificial, but they do help students to focus and deal with lesson segments in distinct and meaningful ways".

SESSION III

Step 1: The researcher showed OHP 1 (see Appendix C 2) to remind the teachers of the points of the previous sessions and started lecturing on the second part of the cycle: supervising teachers observe student teachers.

Step 2: The researcher showed the supervision cycle on OHP 3 and gave a short explanation about the second stage.

"About three weeks later student teachers may start with micro teaching sessions and the supervising teachers will observe them at least three times informally. That is, you are not going to grade their performance but provide relevant feedback and support. The university supervisor will observe each student teacher twice or three times on scheduled times and after each observation, the university supervisor and the supervising teacher again will provide feedback to the student teacher and evaluate his/her performance.

So this is the second phase of the student teaching period: We follow the cycle of the first phase (figure 1.1.) but the content of the cycle will be different.

So now, the student teacher teaches and the supervising teacher observes the teaching. As you may remember, discussion before the lessons is needed to maximize the effectiveness of the observation and the student teachers' learning related to it".

Step 3: The researcher showed OHP 5: important things to do during the pre-lesson discussion and discussed each point in detail (see Appendix C 12).

Step 4 : The researcher showed OHP 6: the usual procedure of a post-lesson conference (see Appendix C 13).

Step 5:The researcher lectured about how to conduct a successful post-lesson conference.

"First of all we should consider, time and place; to be most useful the debriefing needs to take place as soon as possible after the observed lesson and preferably within 24 hours, away from other people and possible interruptions"

Unlike traditional supervisory acts, the purpose of collaborative dialogue is to provide the shared experience upon which both parties will reflect. Thus, it involves the supervising teacher's ability to see, record and "hold up the mirror" for the student teacher to see again or see differently the events of the lesson.

I think we should be clear on the concept of reflection. We are not talking here about a supervisor modeling or imposing 'good' teaching techniques on student teachers but rather about the supervising teacher and the student teacher working in parallel and mirroring thinking processes. It is the thoughtful discussion of the shared experience. The nature of the conferences is no longer one of evaluation or advice giving as it builds on the experiences and lesson interpretations of both parties.

For this reason it is very important to give the student teachers an opportunity to talk about the lesson. By finding out something about how they are feeling and how they saw the lesson, you can decide what they are capable of understanding and learning at that particular time. Therefore, it is helpful, to start the debriefing with a general open question such as

* What did you think of the lesson?
* How do you feel it went?
* What do you think went well?
* Did the students respond to you as expected?

Use 'focusing' questions, e. g. "How could you make your instructions a little clearer?" . At this point, avoid giving direct advice, e.g. "Here's what I would do if I were you". This will short-circuit the system. Encourage the student teacher to consider alternative lesson objectives and methods. If teaching were a straightforward physical skill, then viewing the performance and giving advice like "Keep your eye on the ball" would be effective. The purpose of the conference is to consider several alternatives.

Don't forget that student teachers can very easily feel battered. For many of them, learning to teach is very demanding and frustrating and is quite different from any other kind of learning they've done in the past. The comments of an experienced supervising teacher highlight the importance of emphasizing the positive building on strengths:

> You always have to find a strength in every lesson because morale is so important. If once they lose their self-confidence,

nerves come into play to such an extent that they just can't get over it and they become so nervous in the classroom that they're paralyzed. So, identifying strengths is very important.

If a specific point that may seem rather harsh needs to be shared with the student teacher, the supervising teacher may use the 'sandwich' technique : sandwiching the criticism between two compliments. Student teachers need help in breaking down teaching into its component parts. They tend to make blanket judgments about their teaching. Thus lessons are 'brilliant', or 'chaotic' or 'disastrous' or 'awful'. As an experienced supervising teacher commented

Student teachers are often in a hurry. If the lesson's gone well, they are relieved and don't want to examine it; if it is gone badly, they're embarrassed and don't want to dwell on it.

A critical part of your task as supervising teacher is to help the student teacher adopt a more analytical approach to classroom teaching , to move away from sweeping judgments about the whole lesson and to focus on particular skills".

Step 6: The researcher told an anecdote to illustrate the point about helping the student teacher to analyze teaching.

"The focus of the observation in an English lesson had been the student teacher's reading of a story to the class with a follow-up question and answer session. The supervising teacher and the student teacher were

Observation with a follow-up interview can help to demystify classroom teaching, break it down in such a way that various skills become learnable. Giving student teachers access to the why, can help them to understand the what and the how.

Unlike traditional supervising teacher/student teacher relationships where the supervising teachers observe and evaluate student teachers from time to time, collaboration requires on going support. Thus, in such a model student teachers should be seen as a valued part of the profession, not a nuisance to be tolerated".

APPENDIX C 1

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APPENDIX C 2

Task : The researcher showed the teachers the outline of the topics of the training sessions.

OHP 1

- General points on student teaching
- Things to do on the first day
- Student teacher-supervising teacher dialogue

A) Student teacher observes the supervising teacher

- Pre-lesson conference
- Observation
- Post-lesson conference

B) Supervising teacher observes the student teacher

- Pre-lesson conference
- Observation
- Post-lesson conference

APPENDIX C 3

Task: The researcher gave a handout on two types of approaches towards supervising student teachers [8] and went over each point.

Prescriptive Approach	**Collaborative Approach**
1. Supervising teacher as authority figure,	Supervising teacher as colleague,
2. Supervising teacher as the only source of expertise,	Supervising teacher and student teacher as sharers of expertise,
3. Supervising teacher judges,	Supervising teacher understands,
4. Supervising teacher applies a blueprint of how lessons ought to be taught.	Supervising teacher has no blueprint; accepts lesson in terms of what student teacher is attempting to do.
5. Supervising teacher preserves authority.	Supervising teacher attempts to help the student teacher develop autonomy, through practice in reflection and self-evaluation.

[8] adapted from Wallace (1991).

APPENDIX C 4

Task: The researcher showed OHP 2 and went over the points.

FACILITIES AND RESOURCES

- Show them around the departmental block, explaining the use of any departmental offices and work areas,
- Show them where resources are stored and take them through the procedures for the use of such things as class sets of books, photocopier and tape-recorders.

EXPECTATIONS AND PLANS

- Go through what you expect of the student teachers in terms of commitment and enthusiasm,
- Go through the preliminary program prepared by you and the university supervisors with them and discuss ways in which they will be working with you and your colleagues.

CURRICULUM

- Give them a brief introduction to the school policy on such matters as grouping of pupils, assessment, recording and reporting,
- Provide them with schemes of work to help them get a feel of the department's work.

APPENDIX C 5

Task : The researcher gave the teachers a checklist to be used at the end of the first day.

At the end of the induction day check that your student teachers are clear about

⇒ the nature of the school day

⇒ the time they need to arrive

⇒ any unwritten rules about staff appearance

⇒ areas where they can work during unstructured time

⇒ coffee, lunch and staffroom procedures

⇒ any work they need to do before their next day in school

⇒ understand rules and procedures concerning their absence

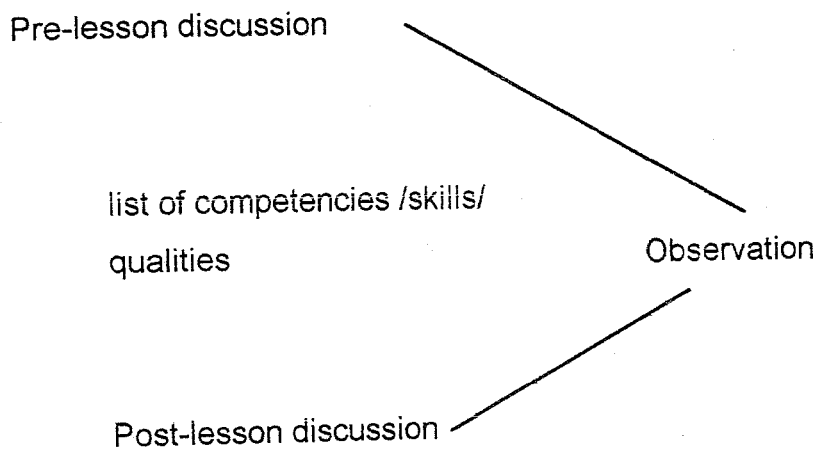
⇒ their program for the week

APPENDIX C 6

Task:The researcher showed OHP 3 to the teachers.

OHP 3

The process of supervision is a cyclical process as illustrated in figure 1.1. (The process of supervision)



APPENDIX C 7

Task: The researcher gave the focused observation form to every teacher and went over it.

Classroom observation form (COF) (adapted from Cullan (1997) and Nunan (1989).

Teachers' instructional practices	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Articulating objectives or warm up activities					
Teacher talk					
Questioning patterns					
Prompting					
Wait time					
Turn distribution					
Feedback					
Instructions					
Group or pair work					
The use of L1					
The use of teaching aids and blackb.					
Checking understanding					
Teacher position					
Teacher voice and language					

APPENDIX C 8

Task: The researcher gave a handout with a situation on it and asked the teachers to reflect on it.

Step 1. Teachers work individually and read the following situation. Imagine you have been teaching English in a school for two months now. At the beginning of the week, the head of your school tells you that she is going to observe your lessons during the next two weeks. Some days pass and now it is the evening before the observation.

Step 2. Teachers work in pairs and make notes of their answers to the focus questions.

Focus questions:

1. How do you feel about being observed? (Think of two or three adjectives to describe your feelings).
2. What expectations do you have of the person observing you?
3. Why is the observer coming?
4. What will the observer focus on?
5. When will the observer talk to you about the lesson (how soon afterwards, for how long, etc.)?
6. What kinds of topics might she touch on?

Teachers' responses:

1. Nervous, depends on the kind of observation, nothing.
2. To inform me about the aim of observation, to share his/her ideas with me after the observation.
3. Mostly for evaluation.

4. The way I teach, the way I deal with students in my class, if I use Turkish in my lessons.

5. If s/he talks it may be after the lesson or during the lunch break maybe , about 5 minutes.

6. Use of L1, use of visual aids, monitoring the class.

APPENDIX C 9

Task: Teachers were asked to work individually.

Step 1: Teachers read other teachers' remarks about observation and make notes on their answers to the following questions:

ALİ

In some ways I am not quite myself when I am being observed. I try to do my best and that means that I try to make sure both my English and my teaching are just perfect. I always hope that my learners will be on their best behavior too, but you can't count on that.

AYFER

I dislike being observed. I felt like the person is judging me. It's usually one of the more experienced teachers who observes my classes and I feel he's only looking at what's wrong with my lesson. Maybe he's just trying to help me, but I resent his criticism: Why can't he spend an equal amount of time telling me about what is positive in my lesson?

HAKAN

Observing other teachers is something I began to do many years ago. At the very beginning I think I tended to be rather critical and constantly see the lesson in comparison to the way I think I'd teach it.

But the more I did it, the better I became at it. Doing observations well is definitely something that takes some practice, but you can gain a lot from them, if you' re willing to put in the effort.

BERİL

I don't really mind when another teacher comes in to my class to observe my lesson. It's a great way to get new ideas about how to teach a particular point or handle a situation I usually find awkward or difficult. But I do feel as though our privacy is being invaded. I mean, I feel I have a certain rapport with my learners and my classes have a positive atmosphere. When an outsider enters our classroom, there is always a chance that the special atmosphere we have created will be upset.

Step 2: Teachers answered the following questions:

1. Whose opinion(s) do I agree with the most? Why?

2_Whose opinion(s) do I disagree with the most? Why?

Teachers' responses:

1. Most teachers agreed with Ali's opinions and partially agreed with Ayfer and Beril because

- they usually get neither positive nor negative feedback after the observation (Ayfer's remarks)

- teachers observing each other is not something very common

2. Teachers did not disagree with any of the teachers' opinions but they said Hakan's opions were nice but not practical.

APPENDIX C 10

Task: The researcher asked the researchers to role-play a discussion betweeen a teacher and an observer.

Step 1: Teachers work in groups. The researcher asks them to make three groups and gave each group a different role card. They read the role card for their group and then examine the lesson transcript they read about. As they experience the lesson, they stay in role.

The role cards are:

Group 1: Critical observer

Group 2: Supportive observer

Group 3: Negative observer

Teachers take notes on their experience and write in role!

Step 2: Teachers work in pairs. One person acts as the teacher, the other as the observer. They role-play a short discussion about the lesson, remembering to stay in role as they talk to each other.

Transcript

T: Is anybody else coming or is this.....?

(Several students name a student who is missing)

Today we're going to have discussions, in I think two or three small groups. This discussion is going to be about one of the topics which is on the list here (T shows worksheets he is holding) and the first activity we're going to do today is.... I'm going to give you this piece of paper and in pairs I would like you to make notes for each statement. I'll hand it out and discuss it with you.

(T hands out worksheets, one to each student; on the worksheets is a list of controversial statements. The late student arrives; students laugh at her jokes as she enters the class)

Erm. This is for forming opinions. You have to read carefully through the instructions; you have to make marks. If ... you're reading the statements.. you say I strongly agree, you put two crosses; if you agree but not very strongly, put one; if you have no opinions, put a circle, and two minuses and one minus if you disagree or strongly disagree.

(Students discuss statements in pairs; some confusion about what signs they should put next to each statements; students explain in L1 to each other. T goes around class and listens as students discuss statements; he also makes a quick list of students in preparation for dividing the class into smaller groups. Some laughter. About 10 minutes pass while pairs of students discuss statements. T returns to sit at front)

I'm going to divide you up into three groups, so listen for your group. Group 1 is.....

(T reads out three list of names which he prepared while the students were discussing the statements. One name appears on two lists)

Who am I missing? Well, we'll find out. Am I missing somebody? What I want you to do in smaller groups is to decide on one of these topics to talk about; or possibly two, and choose one which you differences about so that you can actually talk about it. Then find arguments for or against the statements and then later on you have to do the discussion in the group. So first decide which topic you are going to talk about and then carry it out. OK? So let's have groups 1 over here (points to back of room) and group 2 here (points to back of room) and group 3 there (points to left of room).

(Students move to their groups position, calling out the names of the people in their group or the number of their group. Some laughter. Students start to discuss which statements to talk about).

APPENDIX C 11

Task: The researcher showed the teachers ways to improve their observation skills on the OHP 4 (the bold ones) and elaborated on each.

The student teachers need to :

- **Be helped to shift from a pupil to a teacher perspective**

They need to get a realistic awareness of what pupils do and can do, and at the same time learn to see a classroom from the perspective of a teacher.

- **Learn to analyze what is happening in classrooms**

Student teachers, unused to detailed analysis of what is happening in lessons, tend to see things in very broad terms. They will obviously recognize that a particular lesson has involved teacher exposition, question and answer as pupil work in small groups, for example. They are, however, unlikely to appreciate that during the question and answer session the teacher used a variety of questioning techniques or that different demands were made on different pupils as they began their group work. Focused observation requires student teachers to analyze what is happening - to make distinctions between open and closed questions, for example, or to record the different type of attention that pupils receive from the teachers (disciplinary, support, opportunity to perform etc.) This kind of analysis can help equip them with new ways of thinking about teaching. By observing teachers in this way they can begin to understand the kind of fine distinctions that they will need to apply in analyzing and refining their own teaching.

- **Get a sense of the standards which teachers set**

Through observing different teachers with different classes, student teachers can see what the teachers in a school find appropriate and acceptable in the way of pupils' behavior- noise levels, punctuality, concentration and effort. They can also see how the standard and amount of work teachers expect from pupils are affected by the age and ability of the class.

- **Discover different ways of doing things**

Through observation of different teachers, student teachers can learn different ways of doing those things that have to be done by all teachers - beginning and ending lessons, setting tasks, setting up groupwork.

- **Learn to monitor the progress of a lesson**

Student teachers often find pacing and timing in lessons very difficult. Observation of a lesson focusing on the length and variety of activities, and the amount of time pupils spend on given tasks, can help them to understand how a lesson progresses. Knowledge of the teacher's plans can also help them to see how a teacher responds to developments and adapts plans in the light of pupil responses.

- **Identify things which they do not understand and which provide a basis for discussion with the teacher after the lesson**

Student teachers need to recognize that teachers have their own rationale for what they are doing. To uncover what the teacher was thinking they need to ask questions, such as: 'How did the teacher get that group at the back to work so hard?' and 'What made her use a game to introduce that topic?'. Instead of supplying their own answers to such questions, they

need to talk with their teacher after the lesson to find out what was in his or her mind.

APPENDIX C 12

Task : The teachers were shown OHP 5 (the bold ones) and the researcher elaborated on each point

- **Go through the plans for the lesson**

In the early days the lesson may well have been jointly planned by you and your student teachers: in the pre-lesson discussion therefore, you will merely be checking that they are fully prepared for the lesson.

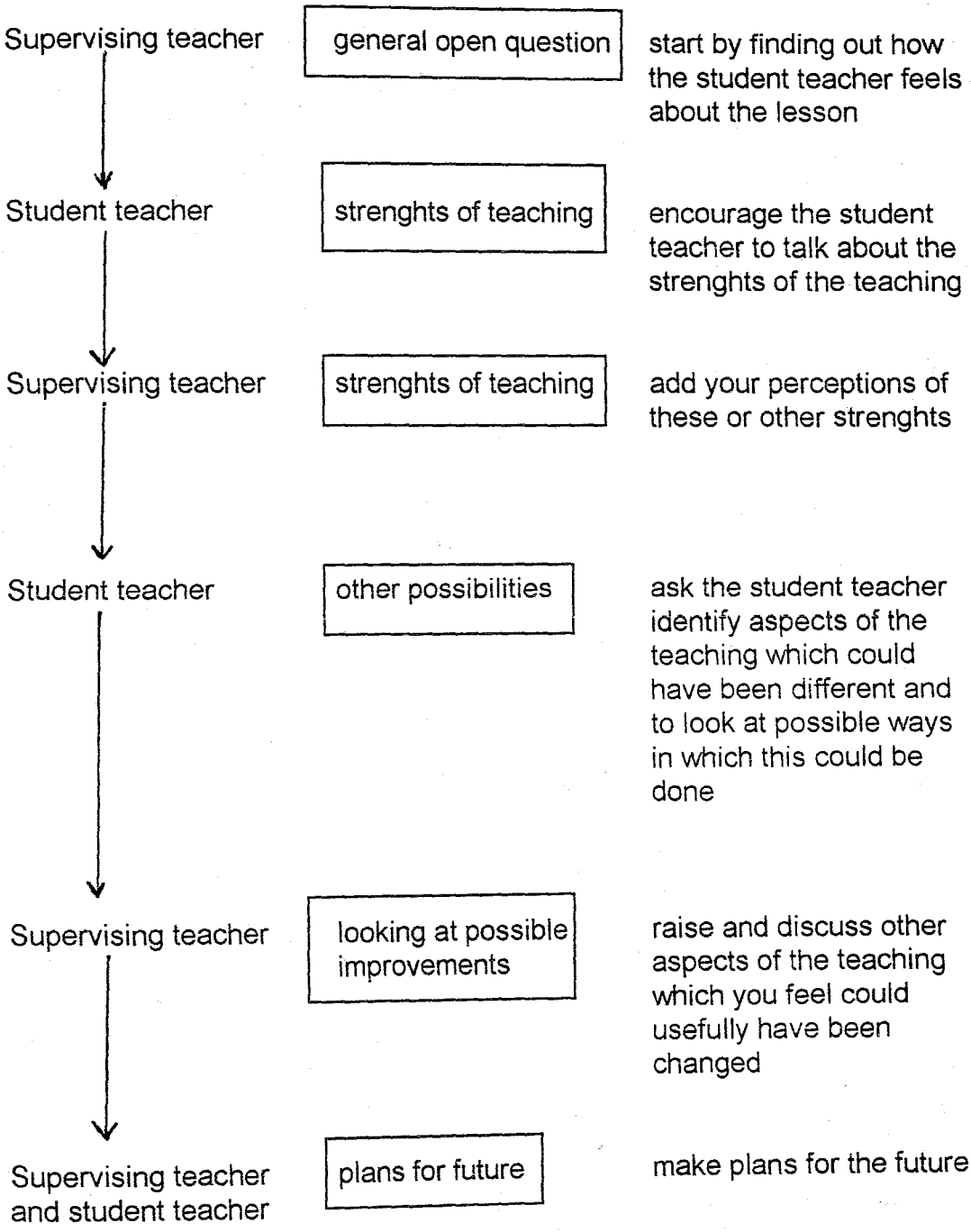
- **Sort out the timing of the post-lesson debriefing**

The post-lesson debriefing should be carried out as soon after the observed lesson as is possible: Student teachers are always anxious to find out what their supervising teachers think of the lesson. Moreover, so much happens in an 'ordinary' school day that the details of the lesson could become 'blurred' in your mind. It is worth considering choosing a lesson because it is followed by a free period, break or lunch time to guarantee time for debriefing.

APPENDIX C 13

Task: The researcher showed the figure on OHP 6

Figure 2. Content and stages of the post-lesson conference



APPENDIX D

Classroom observation form (COF) (adapted from Cullan (1997) and Nunan (1989).

Teachers' instructional practices	1	2	3	4	5
Articulating objectives or warm up activities					
Teacher talk					
Questioning patterns					
Prompting					
Wait time					
Turn distribution					
Feedback					
Instructions					
Group or pair work					
The use of L1					
The use of teaching aids and blackb.					
Checking understanding					
Teacher position					
Teacher voice and language					

APPENDIX E

STUDENT TEACHER TRAINING [9,10]

SESSION I

Step 1: The researcher showed OHP 1, an outline of the main points of the training sessions (see Appendix E 1).

Step 2: The researcher lectured on general points related to student teaching.

"Teachers' initial professional education used to be based mainly in universities. Schools had no formal obligation to participate in it and had no significant influence on the policies which shaped it . They were simply places to which student teachers were sent for 'teaching practice'. As a result, the part played by supervising teachers in the schools was often ambiguous and on a voluntary basis.

All this has now changed. Gradually universities have recognized the need for schools and teachers to play a fuller and clearer part in initial teacher education and in some cases they have developed stronger partnerships with schools for this purpose.

There are very good reasons why this is happening. It is clear that the complex practical work of classroom teaching is not something that can be learned by first learning theoretical ideas and then simply putting them into practice during the practicum. Learning which ideas are worth putting into practice, which ideas are possible to put into practice and under what

[9] Given to student teachers only.
[10] This training is a shortened version of the collaborative training; therefore, the same reference list is used for both (see Appendix C1).

circumstances any particular aids are useful are closely related to experience in schools.

The case for schools and practicing teachers' making a major contribution to initial teacher education is obvious. It should be understood, however, that the enthusiasm for school-based teacher education does not imply any lack of enthusiasm for the equally important contribution necessary from higher education institutions. Without university courses the quality of the thinking which student teachers would develop as professional educators would likely be more limited, as important kinds of arguments about good practice would be relatively neglected and not effectively learned. Thus, we should accept the contributions of both higher education institutions and primary and secondary schools to initial teacher education.

Student teaching is designed to be a very rewarding experience for student-teachers. Each of you will be placed in a public or private school under the direct and continuous supervision of a supervising teacher. The university supervisor will come only on the pre-determined dates. The supervising teacher, because of experience and background, will be the first person who will assist you in becoming a competent and caring teacher.

You are already familiar with the responsibilities of teaching but student teaching period will provide you with realistic evaluations of your strengths and weaknesses as prospective teachers and help develop your competencies in classroom management skills.

A significant part of your development will result directly from working with your supervising teachers. Thus, student teaching will provide you not only with the opportunity to practice teaching but also to learn from the expertise of experienced teachers, that is, from your supervising teachers mainly and the other teachers whose classes you will observe from time to time.

The purpose of a student teaching program is to provide a situation in which you practice varied techniques of teaching while working with "real students under the direction of a regular teacher in a public or private school". The general atmosphere in every school differs. In most schools, I hope you will receive a warm welcome from the staff. But if a supervising teacher is assigned without having the opportunity to volunteer, problems can result that may affect you. Let's hope things like that won't happen. Normally, supervising teachers working in the schools we have chosen are quite eager to work with you.

I'm sure you have some questions in mind. Will I be able to complete the assignment satisfactorily? Will I perform satisfactorily for my supervising teacher and university supervisor? Will we have a personality conflict? Will I be able to be myself or must I become a clone of my supervising teacher? Will I be able to control a classroom full of students? Will my supervising teacher assist me in filling in the gaps? Will the students accept me as another teacher or see me as a student? Well, all these questions are normal.

OK: Let's start with the basics of the student teaching period!"

Step 3: The researcher showed OHP 2, guidelines for student teaching and went over each point (see Appendix E 2).

Step 4: The researcher lectured on supervising teacher-student teacher dialogue.

"Supervising teacher-student teacher dialogue is a cyclical process. Although the stages are similar to each other, I'd like to make a distinction between the teaching cycle in which the student teacher observes the supervising teacher and the supervising teacher observes the student teacher. Let's start with the first one. The student teacher observing the supervising teacher".

Step 5: The researcher showed OHP 3 , the cyclical process of the practicum (see Appendix E 3).

Step 6: The researcher lectured on the first step of the cycle: the pre-lesson discussion.

"Let's start with the pre-lesson discussion. Planning is the major point of discussion as teaching is planned on the basis of clear understanding of aims and context. The supervising teachers will first start by showing you their plans, either current lesson plans or tentative written plans. As you will notice, experienced teachers do not plan consciously because they know what to do, so they already have a plan in their mind. However, you, as an inexperienced teacher, need to plan. Over the course of time, you will take more and more responsibility for planning but the supervising teacher may

always help with the process. Before the lesson, ask for some background information about the

class to be observed - the work they have been doing, individual pupils, aims of the lesson".

Step 7 : The researcher handed out the focused observation forms prepared by MU and went over each item by reminding them of the points they had discussed previously (see Appendix E 4). The researcher told the student teachers that they are supposed to focus on one aspect of their supervising teacher's teaching while observing him/her.

Step 8: The researcher showed the student teachers two video cassettes filmed in two different classes and evaluate the class teachers using the focused observation form.

Step 9: The researcher lectured on student teachers' observing supervising teachers' classes.

"It is common practice for student teachers to observe experienced teachers and their students at work, especially in the early stages of school practice before they start teaching themselves; but too often this observation has not been useful.

You spend time observing but see very little and observation turns out to be unhelpful. Thus, it is not unusual for many student teachers impatiently to dismiss it as a waste of time.

What are the reasons for this ?

- Experienced teachers' teaching is often so fluent that it looks easy: the skill, which cannot be seen by the observer. It is an expert information-processing and a-decision-making that is going on.
- Student teachers only see what they already know and when they are first in schools they do not know enough to see how complex teaching is.
- Student teachers have already spent thousands of hours in classrooms as pupils. At first, still with this pupil perspective, everything in the classrooms looks familiar and obvious and they can find it difficult to see things in the way that teachers do.
- Student teachers often have strong preconceptions about what kind of a teacher they want to be. They are quick to judge the others they observe and therefore think they have little to learn from them.
- Student teachers are generally keen to prove themselves as teachers. They are eager to get on with teaching and to learn from their own practice rather than from observing others.

Given these obstacles, for observation to be useful it must be directed towards a clear purpose. So you need guidance both about the purpose of any particular observation and about how to observe effectively.

In student teaching, classroom observation plays a significant role, so your program will be basically like this: You will observe the classes of your supervising teachers and on their day off you will observe the lessons of other teachers. Either your supervising teachers or the university supervisor will make the necessary arrangements for you. But do not

expect to be ushered into the 'best' teachers classroom to observe; all teachers have some strong and weak points".

Step 10: The researcher told the student teachers that guided observation skills would help them in many ways, showed them the main points on the OHP and went over each point (see Appendix E 5).

SESSION II

Step 1: The researcher showed OHP 1 to remind the teachers of the points of the previous sessions and started lecturing on post-lesson conferencing as the last stage of the supervision process.

"After the lesson, for a short period of time, you will have a talk with your supervising teachers about the lesson, you'll ask questions based on your observations. These conferences should focus on the points you decide on in the pre-lesson conferences.

Remember, that you are not evaluating your teachers and their lessons, you are just trying to learn the rationale for what they are doing because you have much to learn from observing them. Post-lesson conferencing is a very valuable part of the practicum so in order to make full use of it, you should know what to ask after the lesson you observed".

Step 2: The researcher showed OHP 4, suggestions for the post-lesson conferences and discussed each point (see Appendix E 6).

Step 3: The researcher lectured on the second part of the cycle: supervising teachers observe student teachers.

Step 4: The researcher showed the supervising cycle on the OHP and gave a short explanation about the second stage.

"The same cycle but the content will be somewhat different. As we discussed before, during the student teaching period you need regular assessment of and feedback on your teaching. At the end of this cycle, your

supervising teacher will assess your competence as a classroom teacher and as a result, offer strategies to improve and develop your knowledge and skills.

So, now you teach and your supervising teacher observes you. Following this, the supervising teacher and you will discuss the observed teaching. As a result of this discussion, targets are set for you.

Before you teach your first lesson, provide your supervising teacher with a thorough lesson plan. Be as prepared as possible. Be sure your plans are workable and realistic in terms of time. Discuss these with your supervising teachers.

This plan not only shows your supervising teacher that you are aware of the importance of planning but also provides information for constructive feedback. After you begin teaching full schedule, your lesson plans will be shorter, but still they should be clear-cut and concise.

Keep in mind that the major purpose of student teaching for you is to demonstrate you teaching competence. You should realize, however, this area is one in which you are continually growing. Noone ever reaches the highest plateau of any teacher competency. Even experienced teachers of 20 years or more are working toward improving teaching techniques. After the lesson, develop a creative attitude toward suggestions and criticism. If errors are to be avoided and /or corrected, you must be receptive. However, it doesn't mean that you'll become a duplicate of your supervising teacher. It is a unique opportunity to get feedback concerning your teaching style from a professional teacher" .

Step 5: The researcher finished the session with some comments on collaborative dialogue.

"During the student teaching assessment, it is critical for you to listen to the supervising teacher and to the university supervisor. Suggestions by either of these two individuals should be considered imperative. You should understand the professional suggestion and implement it immediately. Seek evaluative comments from your supervising teacher and build on them in developing your personal style.

Self-evaluations are important during student teaching. As you begin to openly analyze your objectives during student teaching , you have already begun an important professionalisation process. Honest self-appraisal is a real asset of any teacher. Through reflective thinking, which you will improve with the help of your journals, you will undoubtedly make a great amount of professional growth.

Develop your professional portfolio. Maintain samples of your professional work such as unit plans, lesson plans, tests, activities and media materials.

Do not appear to profess beliefs that run counter to those generally accepted by the school community. By expressing unpopular ideas or by appearing crude, or hostile, you will probably lose any opportunity of being offered a permanent position in that school.

There may be some activities that you discover while observing that

you wish to pursue further, and this is an excellent time to expand your general teaching repertory.

Of major importance in your developing professional development is your gratitude. After the observation, thank the teacher for allowing you to observe his classroom. Interpersonal relations are very important. You may wish to comment favorably about something you observed.

Collaboration can prove a highly effective means of helping student teachers to develop various kinds of new skills or understanding. This type of observation with follow-up interview focusing on the specifics of the lesson observed can give you rich insight into the fine grain of teaching. Observation with a follow-up interview can help to demystify classroom teaching, break it down in such a way that various skills become learnable.

Unlike traditional supervising teacher/student teacher relationship where the supervising teachers observe and evaluate student teachers from time to time, collaboration requires on going support. Thus, in this model you are seen as a valued part of the profession, not a nuisance to be tolerated".

APPENDIX E 1

Task: The researcher showed OHP 1, an outline of the main points of the sessions.

OHP 1

General points on student teaching

Student teacher-supervising teacher dialogue

A) Student teacher observes the supervising teacher

- Pre-lesson conference
- Observation
- Post-lesson conference

B) Supervising teacher observes the student teacher

- Pre-lesson conference
- Observation
- Post-lesson conference

APPENDIX E 2

Task : The researcher showed OHP 2 (the bold ones), guidelines for student teaching and went over each point.

OHP 2

1. Show positive attitude and determination.

Go into student teaching with a positive attitude and a determination to do your very best. Although you still consider yourself a student, you are well on your way to becoming a professional.

2. Show enthusiasm.

Be determined to show enthusiasm and that you have definite contributions to the teaching profession. If you do not feel good about yourself, chances are your impression on others will be negative.

3. Consider student teaching a full-time task.

Part-time jobs, heavy social engagements should be avoided if at all possible. On your supervising teachers' days off, you are to visit the classes of other teachers who are willing to accept you in their classes. Your supervising teachers and we will make this arrangement for you. Make the most of each day's opportunities.

4. Look like a professional.

By all means, be neat and clean. As a teacher-to-be, you must be an example to your pupils.

5. Try to learn the names of your pupils.

They will be impressed if you call them by name the first few days. It will also work to your advantage if you learn the names of the school staff.

6. Follow the rules of the school.

Be punctual and call if you will be tardy or absent. Under normal conditions, it would be good to remain at school until your supervisor is ready to leave.

7. Attend all required meetings.

Meetings, such as grade level, can be informative and help give you the total picture of the teaching profession.

8. Become familiar with institutional materials,

9. Look interested and be curious.

Look for ways to be helpful in the classroom. Volunteer special assistance for individual students or small groups. Your involvement should be active (but not overactive!) .

APPENDIX E 3

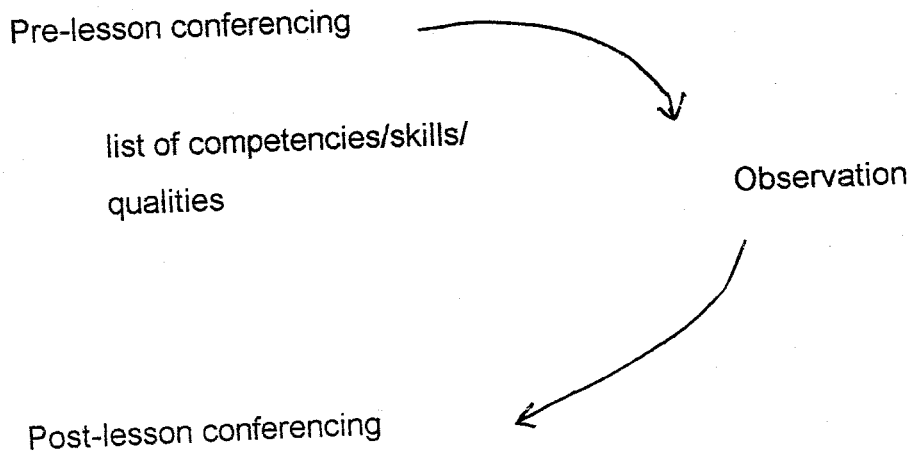
Task: The researcher showed OHP 3 to the student teachers.

OHP 3

The process of supervision is a cyclical process as illustrated in figure 1.1.

(The process of supervision)

Figure 1.1. The process of supervision



APPENDIX E 4

Task: The researcher gave the focused observation form to every student teacher and went over it.

Classroom observation form (COF) (adapted from Cullan (1997) and Nunan (1989).

Teachers' instructional practices	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
Articulating objectives or warm up activities					
Teacher talk					
Questioning patterns					
Prompting					
Wait time					
Turn distribution					
Feedback					
Instructions					
Group or pair work					
The use of L1					
The use of teaching aids and blackb.					
Checking understanding					
Teacher position					
Teacher voice and language					

APPENDIX E 5[11]

Task: The researcher showed the student teachers ways to improve their observation skills on the OHP (the bold ones) and elaborated on each.

You, as student teachers, need to :

- **Be helped to shift from a pupil to a teacher perspective**

You need to get a realistic awareness of what pupils do and can do, and at the same time learn to see a classroom from the perspective of a teacher.

- **Learn to analyze what is happening in classrooms**

Student teachers, unused to detailed analysis of what is happening in lessons, tend to see things in very broad terms. You will obviously recognize that a particular lesson has involved teacher exposition, question and answer as pupil work in small groups, for example. You are, however, unlikely to appreciate that during the question and answer session the teacher used a variety of questioning techniques or that different demands were made on different pupils as they began their group work. Focused observation requires you to analyze what is happening - to make distinctions between open and closed questions, for example, or to record the different type of attention that pupils receive from the teachers (disciplinary, support, opportunity to perform etc.) This kind of analysis can help equip you with new ways of thinking about teaching. By observing teachers in this way you

[11] Appendix C on page overlaps with Appendix E 5 because the researcher believed that this part of the lecture was necessary for both the student and cooperating teachers.

can begin to understand the kind of fine distinctions that you will need to apply in analyzing and refining your own teaching.

- **Get a sense of the standards which teachers set**

Through observing different teachers with different classes, you can see what the teachers in a school find appropriate and acceptable in the way of pupils' behavior- noise levels, punctuality, concentration and effort. You can also see how the standard and amount of work teachers expect from pupils are affected by the age and ability of the class.

- **Discover different ways of doing things**

Through observation of different teachers, you can learn different ways of doing those things that have to be done by all teachers - beginning and ending lessons, setting tasks, setting up groupwork.

- **Learn to monitor the progress of a lesson**

Student teachers often find pacing and timing in lessons very difficult. Observation of a lesson focusing on the length and variety of activities, and the amount of time pupils spend on given tasks, can help you understand how a lesson progresses. Knowledge of the teacher's plans can also help you see how a teacher responds to developments and adapts plans in the light of pupil responses.

- **Identify things which you do not understand and which provide a basis for discussion with the teacher after the lesson**

You need to recognize that teachers have their own rationale for what they are doing. To uncover what the teacher was thinking they need to ask questions, such as: 'How did the teacher get that group at the back to work

so hard?' and 'What made her use a game to introduce that topic?'. Instead of supplying your own answers to such questions, you need to talk with your teacher after the lesson to find out what was in his or her mind.

APPENDIX E 6

Task: The researcher showed OHP 4 (the bold ones), suggestions for the post-lesson conferences and discussed each point.

OHP 4

Ask questions that focus on:

- **the teacher's achievements and the actions taken by the teacher to achieve those things**

  e.g. You said that you were pleased that a lot more people than usual contributed to class discussion today. What did you do to bring that about?

- **the teacher's reasons for taking the action he or she did**

  e.g., "Can you tell my why you asked the groups to report back in that way?"

- **the conditions, circumstances, etc., that led to the teacher's making a decision to take a particular action**

  e.g. " You said that they had had enough of the reading and so you moved on to the questions. How did you know that they'd had enough, how could you tell?"

- **Try not to ask your questions in a generalized way.**

You are more likely to get answers of interest to you if the questions are related to the particular lesson observed,

e.g. How did you manage to get Ali and Ahmet to work?

rather than

What do you do to persuade unwilling pupils to work?

The first question is much more likely to lead to the teacher talking about their actual practice, in the lesson observed. Most teachers are not used to being asked questions about what they did in a lesson and why, and they may feel a little anxious at first.

- **Don't ask a closed question**

Closed questions invite a yes/no answer and do not help a respondent to give an informative reply. More important, they may also convey implications of what the teacher should or should not have done and so have undertones of criticism. A question such as, 'did you have a lesson plan?' would tend to put any teacher on the defensive.

- **Never ask 'Why didn't you .....?'**

This is almost guaranteed to lead teachers to justify their teaching rather than to reveal their thinking

- **Be a good listener.**

You will be learning a great deal about your class during a short period of time. The more you learn about the goals and objectives and your students, the better you will do when you being your teaching.

DONT' FORGET

A successful discussion is one in which:

- the teacher does not do most of the talking
- the teacher explains her/his actions,
- the questions are rooted in the observed lesson
- the focus is on what went well in the lesson.

APPENDIX F[12]

Areas focused on in semi-structured interviews with supervising teachers

- The frequency of pre- and postlesson conferences,
- The content of these conferences,
- General opinions about effective supervision,
- Opinions about collaborative dialogue,
- Possible effects of collaborative dialogue,

Areas focused on in semi-structured interviews with student teachers

- Frequency and length of the conference between supervising teachers and student teachers,
- Opinions about conferences,
- Feelings about feedback,
- Opinions about supervising teacher's supervisory techniques.

[12] The above mentioned points were discussed with the supervising teachers in Turkish with the aim of obtaining more detailed information through the use of native language (see Appendix F1).

APPENDIX F1

1. Stajyer öğrenci ile ne sıklıkta görüşmeler yaptınız? Bu görüşmelerin içeriği neydi?
2. Sizce yararlı gözlemleme nasıl olmalıdır?
3. Stajyer öğrencilerin gelişimine faydanız oldu mu? Olduysa ne ölçüde oldu?
4. Stajyer öğrenci ile çalışmanın sizin mesleki gelişiminize yararı oldu mu?
5. Stajyer öğrenci ile çalışırken herhangi bir sorun yaşadınız mı?

APPENDIX G

COLT Observation Scheme: Definition of Categories

Part B: Communicative features

1. Use of target language

a. Use of L1

b. Use of L2

2. Information gap

This feature refers to the extent to which the information requested and/or exchanged is predictable. The two main categories designed to capture these features are:

a. Requesting information

1 Pseudo requests (display requests) The speaker already possesses the info requested (e.g. "Who is the author of the book that we are reading today?").

2. Genuine information (referential questions). The information requested is not known in advance by the questioner (e.g. Where did your parents come from?).

b. Giving information

1. Predictable : The information given generally follows a request, is easily anticipated and is known to the questioner. The information given in such instances by different respondents is identical, although there may be different ways of saying it (e.g. the teacher asks about the weather and the students answer "Its nice" or "It's warm').

2. Unpredictable: The information given is not easily anticipated in that there is a wide range of information that can be provided (e.g. in response to the question "What did you do on the weekend?" a variety of unpredictable information is possible).

3. Sustained speech

This feature is intended to measure the extent two which speakers engage in extended discourse or restrict their utterances to a minimal length of one sentence, clause or word.

a. Ultraminimial: Student turns which consist of one word only or two-word speech fragments such as article plus noun, preposition plus noun etc. It is not coded for teacher turns.

b. Minimal

Teacher and student turns which consist of more than one or two words, long phrases, one or two main clauses for sentences. For the teacher, one word responses or speech fragments are coded as minimal.

c. Sustained: Teacher and student turns which consist of at least three main clauses.

4. Reaction to form or message:

This feature is intended to measure whether teachers and/or students react to the form or the meaning of an utterance

a. Form: reaction to form; that is, to the linguistic form of the preceding utterance/s.

b. Message: Reaction to message; that is, to the meaning/content of the preceding utterance/s.

5. Incorporation of student/teacher utterances

This feature refers to the various ways in which teachers and students react to each others' utterances. To allow coding for a limited selection of reactions to preceding utterances, seven categories have been identified.

a. Repetitions: Full or partial repetition of previous utterance/s

Student: I went to the movies last weekend.

Teacher: Hm, to the movies. (partial repetition)

b. Paraphrase: Reformulation of previous utterance/s (including translation).

Student: I say movie on Sunday

Teacher: Oh, you saw a movie on Sunday.

c. Comment: Positive or negative response (not correction) to previous utterance/s. Comments can either be message-related or form-related

Message-related comment

Student: I think the rich should give money to the poor.

Teacher: Now that 's an interesting idea.

Form-related comment

Teacher: Give me the past tense of 'to be'.

Student : I was,

Teacher : Very good.

d. Expansion: Extension of the content to the preceding utterance/s or the addition of information that is related to it.

Teacher : What's the capital of Canada?

Student : Ottawa.

Teacher: Right, and Ottawa is in the province of Ontario.

e. Clarification request: Request which indicates that the preceding utterance was not closely understood and repetition or reformation is required.

Student: I helped my Dad to build a .... (inaudible)..

Teacher: Sorry, what did you help Dad with?

f. Elaboration: Requests for further information related to the subject matter of the preceding utterance/s. Included are also requests for explanations (not requests for clarification).

Student : I had a swim-meet last weekend..

Teacher: Did you do well?

Student: I did OK.

Teacher: How often do you it during the week?

Student: Five times, two hours each time.

6. Discourse initiation

This feature measures the frequency of self-initiated self-turn by students.

7. Form restriction

This feature refers to the degree of linguistic restriction imposed on the students' utterances.

a. Restricted: This category refers to the relatively restricted use of linguistic forms by individual students. That is , there is an expectation imposed by the teacher, the textbook or the tasks that the students produce a particular form(s). Either all or most of the language expected to be produced is restricted.

b. Unrestricted: This category refers to relatively unrestricted use of linguistic forms. That is, there is no expectation by the teacher textbook or tasks to use a particular form (s). Either all or most of the language expected to be produced is unrestricted.

APPENDIX H

COLT- PART B: Categories used for coding teacher and student talk.

Teacher talk:

1. Use of target language
2. Giving unpredicted information
3. Asking genuine questions
4. Reaction to message
5. Incorporation of students' utterances
    a. clarification request
    b. repetition
    c. expansion request

Student talk

1. Use of target language
2. Giving unpredicted information
3. Asking genuine questions
4. Incorporation of teachers'/students' utterances
    a. comment
    b. expansion
    c. paraphrase
5. Sustained speech
6. Unrestricted speech

APPENDIX I

Sample coding of COLT Part B

(Teacher looks at the calendar)

T: What's the date today?	L2/Pseudo req. /min.
S1: April 15th.	L2/Pseudo.info/Ultram./Restr
T: Good	L2/Form-comment/Min
(Turning to another student)	
What day is it?	L2/Pseudo req./Min
S2: Monday	L2/Pred.info/Ultr./rest