

**ADDIS ABEBA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE**

**EVALUATION OF IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ‘PARADIGM
SHIFT’ IN EFL TEACHER EDUCATION IN ETHIOPIA**

BY

MULUGETA TEKA KAHSAY



**A Dissertation Submitted to
Department of Foreign Languages and Literature in
Institute of Language Studies of Addis Ababa University**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL)**

**JUNE 2009
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teacher education in Ethiopia.

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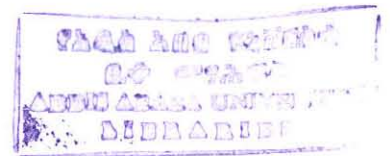
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ABSTRACT

In this study attempts were made to the extent to which EFL teacher education programme participants' hold a shared set of beliefs about the new EFL teacher education operation and practices, and to explore factors that affect the proper implementation of the EFL teacher education programme practices in six university based EFL teacher education programmes in Ethiopia in light of a constructivist paradigm by using both closed ended survey questionnaires involving 382 respondents (265 student teachers, 55 instructors and 62 cooperating teachers) and an open ended, discovery oriented qualitative method involving individual and group interviews, observations and document analyses in one of the six programmes as a case study.

In order to evaluate the implementation of the EFL teacher education programme, a conceptual framework was designed to gather and analyse data examining four broad areas: assumptions, goals, tasks, and roles, which are considered essential for critical regulation of an EFL teacher education programme within the context. Therefore, criteria were conceptualised within a constructivist perspective of teacher education and scales were developed to identify degrees of presence of the required attributes for assessing each area in the quantitative part of this study and essential questions were set to explore the required attributes for assessing each area in the qualitative part of this study.

The survey results showed that though the programme participants perceived the goals of the EFL teacher education programme positively, they held different levels of beliefs about basic assumptions and principles of constructivist pedagogy as well as about the goals of the EFL teacher education programme, proved to be statistically significant through a one-way ANOVA. As regards the tasks in the school-based component of the programme, the survey results revealed., however, the practical activities (such as practicum support system, reflective dialogues, and portfolio construction and action research experiences) were found inadequate. The survey results also showed that the roles of university supervisors in practicum were rated below the expected mean value and those of the cooperating teachers were rated still far lower, which signifies their diminished roles in the programme as co-educators.

However, the qualitative data disproved the participants' claimed beliefs about the basic assumptions and theoretical bases underlying constructivist pedagogy as the actual programme practices were found inconsistent with the espoused beliefs. Numerous things such as the absence of training for cooperating teachers and the absence of activities like reflective dialogues, portfolios and action research seminars to promote the student teachers' reflective habits, skills and attitude in the practical courses indicated that the programme was being implemented in an environment that did not support all the means to the end. The qualitative data supported the survey findings by showing that the tasks in the practicum courses have problems in terms of transparency, consistency, integration of theory and practice, and organization, and confirming that the non-existent roles of cooperating teachers and the same unchanged traditional roles of the university supervisors in the new practicum setting.

This study concluded that major conceptual and contextual factors (such as class size, the lower academic achievements of the student teachers and wrong assumptions of the context during the reform introduction) have affected the implementation of the programme.

TABLE OF CONTENT

Acknowledgements	iv
Abstract	v
Table of content	vi
List of Tables	ix
CHAPTER I.....	I
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. <i>Background of the Study</i>	1
1.2. <i>Statement of the Problem</i>	3
1.3. <i>Objectives</i>	5
1.4. <i>Research Questions</i>	6
1.5. <i>Conceptual Framework of the Study</i>	6
1.6. <i>Significance of the Study</i>	10
1.7. <i>The Scope of the Study</i>	10
1.8. <i>Limitation of the Study</i>	11
1.9. <i>Operational Definitions of Terms</i>	12
CHAPTER II	14
THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY	14
2.1. <i>The Need for Change</i>	14
2.2. <i>Status of English Language in Ethiopia</i>	16
2.3. <i>Overview of Review of EFL Teacher Education Curriculums</i>	17
2.4. <i>Mainstream debates during TESO curriculum introduction</i>	21
2.5. <i>Overlooked Contextual Factors during TESO Reform</i>	25
CHAPTER III.....	29
REVIEW OF LITERATURE	29
3.1. <i>Behaviouristic Learning Paradigm</i>	29
3.1.1. <i>Influence of behaviouristic learning paradigm on language teaching</i>	30
3.1.2. <i>Influence of behaviouristic learning paradigm on teacher education</i>	31
3.2. <i>Constructivist Learning Paradigm</i>	32
3.2.1. <i>Influence of Constructivist learning paradigm on language teaching</i>	36
3.2.2. <i>Constructivist framework for teacher education</i>	37
3.2.2.1. Prior Beliefs	41
3.2.2.2. Support and Challenge	43
3.3.3. <i>Acquisition of FL Teacher Pedagogical Knowledge</i>	45
3.3.4. <i>Reflection: a Means for FL Teacher Pedagogical Knowledge Growth</i>	47
3.5. <i>Psycho-Pedagogical Strategies to Promote Reflection in Student Teacher</i>	54
3.3.5.1. Extended Supervised Practicum	54
3.3.5.1.1. <i>School-University Partnership</i>	56
3.3.5.1.2. <i>Participants and their Roles</i>	59
3.3.5.1.2.1. <i>Cooperating Teachers</i>	60

3.3.5.1.2.2. University Supervisors	61
3.3.5.2. Teaching Portfolio	63
3.3.5.2.1. Learning Journal/ Diaries	64
3.3.5.2.2. Peer Reflective Groups.....	65
3.3.5.3. Action research	66
CHAPTER IV	71
METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY	71
4. 1. <i>Quantitative Method Used</i>	73
4.2.1. Population and Sampling	73
4. 1.2. Questionnaire as a Data Gathering Instrument	75
4.1.3. Instrument Development.....	78
4.1.4. Data Collection Procedure	79
4.1.5. Data Analysis Methods.....	80
4.2. <i>Qualitative Methods Used</i>	81
4.2.1. Site of the Study.....	81
4.2.2. Participants and Sampling.....	82
4.2.3. Instruments.....	82
4.2.4. Data Collection Procedure	85
4.2.5. Challenges to Data Collection	86
4.2.6. Data Analysis Methods.....	87
CHAPTER V.....	89
PILOT STUDY	89
CHAPTER VI	95
6.1. <i>FINDINGS OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS</i>	95
6.1.1. Respondents' Beliefs about Basic Assumptions Underlying the Constructivist Pedagogy	96
6.1.2. Respondents' Beliefs about the Goals of the EFL teacher education programme	97
6.1.3. Respondents' Perceptions of Tasks and Practical Activities in the EFL Teacher Education Programme.....	99
6.1.4. Roles of Participants in the EFL Teacher Education Programme	105
6.2. <i>DISCUSSION OF RESULTS</i>	108
CHAPTER VII	117
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN STUDY.....	117
7. 1. <i>FINDINGS OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY</i>	117
7.1.1. Overviews of Data from Observations and Material Reviews	117
7.1.2. Beliefs about Basic Assumptions of Constructivist Pedagogy	124
7.1.3. Beliefs about the goals of the EFL teacher education programme	129
7.1.4. Tasks and Activities in the EFL Teacher Education Programme	132
7.1.5.1. Tasks in Portfolio Construction	132

7.1.5.2. Tasks in Action Research.....	135
7.1.5.3. Tasks in Teaching Conferences	137
7.1.6. Roles of Participants in the EFL Teacher Education Programme	139
7.1.6.1. Roles of student teachers	139
7.1.6.2. Roles of cooperating teachers in the school–university partnership..	142
7.1.6.3. Roles of teacher educators	145
7.2. <i>INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS</i>	146
7.2.1. Beliefs about Basic Assumptions and principles	146
7.2.3. Beliefs about Goals	148
7.2.3. Tasks and Activities in EFL Practicum	150
7.2.4. Participants’ Roles	152
7.2.5. Major Factor Affecting the implementation Process	154
CHAPTER VIII.....	159
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	159
8.1. <i>SUMMARY</i>	159
8.2. <i>CONCLUSIONS</i>	161
8.3. <i>RECOMMENDATIONS</i>	163
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	165
APPENDICES	182

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 2-1: SUMMARY OF CONTENT AND CONTACT HOURS OF THREE EFL TEACHER EDUCATION COURSE CATALOGUES	18
TABLE 2-2: CONTENT OF THE PRACTICUM COMPONENT OF TESO PROGRAMME	20
TABLE 4-1: POPULATION OF THE SURVEY STUDY	73
TABLE 4-2: THE TARGET SAMPLES OF THE SURVEY STUDY	74
TABLE 4-3: ACTUAL SIZE OF RESPONDENTS.....	74
TABLE 4-4: INFORMATION ABOUT PART I AND II OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	75
TABLE 4-5: INFORMATION ABOUT PART III OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	76
TABLE 4-6: INFORMATION ABOUT PART II OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.....	77
TABLE 4-6: INTER-RATERS' RELIABILITY RESULT.....	79
TABLE 5-1: RELIABILITY TEST FOR PART I OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE (BELIEFS ABOUT BASIC ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING CONSTRUCTIVIST PEDAGOGY)	92
TABLE 5-2: RELIABILITY TEST FOR PART II OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE (BELIEFS ABOUT GOALS OF THE EFL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME).....	93
TABLE 5-3: RELIABILITY TEST FOR PART III OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	93
TABLE 5-4: RELIABILITY TEST FOR PART IV OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE (ROLES OF UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS AND COOPERATING TEACHERS IN PRACTICUM COURSES).....	94
TABLE 6-1: RETURN RATE OF THE SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE	95
TABLE 6-2: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' BELIEFS ABOUT BASIC ASSUMPTIONS AND PRINCIPLES OF CONSTRUCTIVIST PEDAGOGY AND ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS	96
TABLE 6-3: COMPARISON OF MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' BELIEFS ABOUT BASIC ASSUMPTIONS AND PRINCIPLES OF CONSTRUCTIVIST PEDAGOGY	97
TABLE 6-4: SCHEFFE POST-HOC MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF GROUP MEANS	97
TABLE 6-5: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' BELIEFS ABOUT GOAL OF EFL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME AND ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS	98
TABLE 6-6: COMPARISON OF MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' BELIEFS ABOUT GOAL OF EFL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME	98
TABLE 6-7: SCHEFFE POST-HOC MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF GROUP MEANS	99
TABLE 6-8: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF PRACTICUM SETTING AND ONE SAMPLE T-TEST RESULTS	100
TABLE 6-9: COMPARISON OF MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF PRACTICUM SUPPORT SYSTEM	100
TABLE 6-10: SCHEFFE POST-HOC MULTIPLE COMPARISONS MEAN OF PRACTICUM CONTEXT	100
TABLE 6-11: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF SUPERVISORS' ADVISORY STYLE AND ONE SAMPLE TEST RESULTS	101
TABLE 6-12: INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST RESULTS COMPARING OF MEANS OF STUDENT TEACHERS' AND TEACHER EDUCATORS' PERCEPTIONS OF SUPERVISORS' ADVISORY STYLES	102
TABLE 6-13: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF COOPERATING TEACHERS' ADVISORY STYLE AND ONE SAMPLE TEST RESULTS	102
TABLE 6-14: INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST RESULTS COMPARING MEANS OF STUDENT TEACHERS' AND TEACHER EDUCATORS' PERCEPTIONS OF COOPERATING TEACHERS' ADVISORY STYLES.....	103

TABLE 6-15: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF REFLECTIVITY OF PORTFOLIO COMPILING EXPERIENCE AND ONE SAMPLE TEST RESULTS	103
TABLE 6-16: INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST RESULTS COMPARING MEANS FOR PERCEPTION OF REFLECTIVITY OF PORTFOLIO COMPILING EXPERIENCE.....	104
TABLE 6-17: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF STUDENT TEACHERS' ACTION RESEARCH EXPERIENCES AND ONE SAMPLE TEST RESULTS.....	105
TABLE 6-18: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS' ROLES AND ONE SAMPLE TEST RESULTS.....	105
TABLE 6-19: MEANS OF RESPONDENTS' PERCEPTION OF COOPERATING TEACHERS' ROLES AND ONE SAMPLE TEST RESULTS.....	106
TABLE 6-20: PAIRED SAMPLE TEST RESULTS COMPARING PERCEPTION MEANS OF STUDENT TEACHERS' OF UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS' AND COOPERATING TEACHERS' ROLES.....	106
TABLE 6-21: INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST RESULT COMPARING UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS' AND COOPERATING TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR OWN ROLES AS REFLECTIVE COACHES.....	107
TABLE 6-22: PAIRED SAMPLES TEST RESULT COMPARING COOPERATING TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF THEIR OWN PROFESSIONAL AND COLLEGIAL ROLES.....	107

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study attempted to look into the nature of tasks and roles in the practicum process of the new EFL teacher education programme in faculties of education in Ethiopia. Identifying areas for improvement in the ongoing English language teacher education programme in faculties of education being the general purpose of this study, it attempted to study the extent to which EFL teacher education programme participants hold a shared set of beliefs about the new EFL teacher education operation and practices, and to explore factors that affect the proper implementation of the EFL teacher education programme practices in six university-based EFL teacher education programmes in Ethiopia from a perspective of a constructivist paradigm, which represents the desired paradigm shift in the country.

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A teacher education programme reform in Ethiopia, known as Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO), was initiated in 2002 and came into effect in 2003. The Ministry of Education called for a complete Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO), which produced a framework detailing five strategies to address the problems in the education system of Ethiopia and enhance the quality of teacher preparation (MOE, 2003: 6). One of the five strategies is a paradigm shift in the pre-service teacher education programme, which requires the presence of learning opportunities characterizing a constructivist paradigm.

TESO is a government initiated reform designed to realize the aims of the education and training policy (ETP), which was introduced in 1994. The TESO programme has proposed a change in teacher education institutions focusing mainly on professional courses with extended practicum experiences in a reflective approach incorporating portfolio compilation, action research and a strong partnership between teacher education institutions and schools; and on academic area courses (combination of content and method) characterized by active learning, student-centred instruction, cooperative learning and continuous assessment.

One major change proposed in the TESO programme is a focus on practicum, which not only has received greater attention in the number of hours allocated to it but also should be conducted along with the theoretical courses from near the beginning of the programme to ensure opportunities for student teachers to reflect on their experiences and to explore methods and practices for themselves (MOE, 2003:12). With regard to the approach, TESO favours a reflective practitioner approach and recommends the employment of strategies like portfolio compiling and action research experiences towards the trainees' development into reflective practitioners, which many scholars in the literature (e.g. Freeman, 1994; Fish, 1995; Korthagen and Kessels, 1999; Prawat, 1992; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Darling-Hammond, 2006) recommend from constructivist perspectives in pre-service teacher education programmes.

The very existence of the above features (active learning, student-centred instruction, cooperative learning, continuous assessment, reflection, extended practicum, portfolios, and action research) in the TESO programme document makes it constructivist oriented because these features, which are conceptually grounded in the constructivist paradigm, are not evidently available in the behaviourist paradigm. However, the TESO programme document does not explicitly state so, perhaps because teacher education has no unified conception of constructivism (Black & Ammon, 1992; O'Loughlin, 1992) due to numerous conceptualisations of constructivism (Abdul Haq, 1998).

During the introduction of the TESO change proposal, there were a number of controversies. Among them a point at issue was the content of teacher education programme which the teacher educators referred to as 'marginalisation of content knowledge', 'imbalance of the knowledge bases' and 'impracticalities' of practicum component of the programme. Most of the teacher educators argued that the theoretical component of the programme had been de-emphasised and that the practical component had been unduly over-emphasized. These arguments seemed to have been based on the fact that major area courses which constituted over 50% of the earlier programme covered only 30% of the TESO programme. Despite the implementation of the new programme, the debate has continued to date.

1.2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to the TESO framework, the secondary school teacher education programme breakdown shows that the practicum component covered 25 credit hours in five different sessions scattered in the three-year programme (MOE, 2003: 59-60).

The practicum component the TESO curriculum has indeed seen a radical shift because the preceding teacher education programme consisted of teaching practice with a three-credit-hour weight which was completely separate in time and space from the main programme and was regarded as less important than mainly theoretical courses in aspects of linguistics, literature, and pedagogical courses. Student teachers in such a programme had to wait three years before they could put into practice the things they were learning. Schon's (1987) "technical rationality", Elliot's (1991) "Rationalism" or Wallace's (1991) "applied science model" seem to be the principles behind this type of course design, according to which the student teacher is expected to learn given theories derived from university based research and study and then take this knowledge into the classroom to apply it in practice.

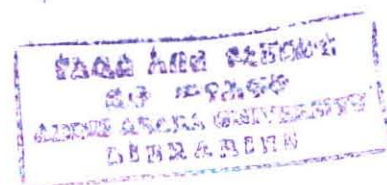
In the literature, constructivist educators agree that teacher development requires learning opportunities supporting in-depth examination of educational theories and practices in light of teachers' beliefs and experiences. Accordingly, these learning opportunities should encourage reflection, dialogue, critical thinking, knowledge ownership, and understanding in context and within learning communities (Black & Ammon, 1992; O'Loughlin, 1992; Zeichner & Gore, 1990). Thus, teacher education courses should provide space and means by which student teachers can bring up and examine their pre-training knowledge. In such a way, student teachers should be stimulated to transform the conceptual content of lectures, readings, and their classmates' reports with the purpose of discovering their opinions, perspectives, beliefs, values, principles, and applied approaches for controversial education issues (Tatto, 1998). Towards this end, reflective approach is recommended as a major means to help student teachers acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and disposition. There are many successful techniques for employing reflection in pre-service teacher education programmes. A wide variety of approaches have been employed in attempts to foster skills and habits of

reflection in student teachers through their school-based experiences. At least three broad strategies in the literature can be distinguished as follows:

- i) Supervised practicum experiences (Sparks-Langer & Colton, 1991; Zeichner 1986; Cruikshank, 1985)
- ii) Portfolio compiling and journal writing (Antonek, *et. al.*, 1997; Francis, 1995; Hatton & Smith, 1995; Pultorak, 1994; Sparks-Langer & Colton, 1991)
- iii) Action research projects (Ponte, *et. al.*, 2004; Altrichter, *et. al.*, 1993; Sparks-Langer & Colton, 1991; Elliot, 1991; Pugach, 1990; Carr & Kemmis, 1986; Zeichner, 1986)

However, though the extended practicum experiences, portfolio compilation and action research projects are included in Ethiopian teacher education programme as proposed by TESO, they do not seem consistent with their theoretical orientations. The supervisors' school visits during student teachers' placements are limited. The dialogues between student teachers and their supervisors and their cooperating teacher in teaching conference, which were expected to promote reflective skills and habits of reflection, have not materialized. The proposed strong school – university partnership has not proved practical and the participation of cooperating teachers in the process as co-educators is as little as ever. Despite the proposed paradigm shift, it seems very difficult to imagine that the tasks in the practicum courses are built on the basic assumptions and goals underlying the programme. The roles of student teachers, educators and cooperating teachers in the process of professional knowledge development do not seem to have changed at all from the roles they might have assumed in the traditional transmission model.

In fact, the teacher education faculties had initially doubted the practicality of the proposed practicum component of TESO for various reasons of their own. One is financial and logistical constraints due to the fact that a number of schools where student teacher could be placed are widely scattered over geographical distances. Another is the doubtful academic capacity of the candidates entering the programme and of the schoolteachers who can work as cooperating teachers in the programme. Still another reason is the heavy workload and class size that most teacher educators complain of.



However, though these reasons can affect the implementation process, there may be a major problem with conceptual clarity on behalf of the teacher educators and cooperating teachers as programme implementers.

The TESO programme document itself states that when a paradigm shift takes place, we see things from a different perspective as we focus on different aspects of the phenomenon (MOE, 2003). This is quite true because effective implementation of a paradigm shift requires the programme practices build upon the set of beliefs and basic assumptions underlying the new paradigm as a paradigm is a set of beliefs and assumptions shared by practitioners in a discipline to agree on the problems to be solved, the rules governing process, and the standards for measuring performance (Mertens, 2006).

As the TESO programme has been characterized by a process of adaptation from the current international orientation of teacher education, the implementers (teacher educators and cooperating teachers), as the literature suggests, would likely respond to this imposed curriculum change by either embracing change, resisting and ignoring the change or modifying the curriculum change (Donnelly, 2000; Jenkins, 2000; Cooper & McIntyre, 1996).

Inclusion of features identified as quality indicators of a reflective approach conceptualised in constructivist pedagogy (Lomax-Trapper and McGrath, 2001; Smith, 2001; Richardson, 1997; Williams and Burden, 1996; Abdul Haq, 1999; Fosnot, 1989; Good and Brophy, 1984) makes TESO appear theoretically acceptable. However, the implementation process, particularly the participants' beliefs and the actual practices and contexts, need to be investigated in light of a constructivist teacher education framework with reference to the attributes that make it constructivist and the factors influencing the implementation need to be explored.

1.3. OBJECTIVES

The study has the following two major objectives

- To explore the extent to which EFL teacher education programme participants hold a shared set of beliefs about the new EFL teacher education operation and practices

- To explore factors that affect the proper implementation of the new EFL teacher education programme practices.

To achieve these objectives, this study attempted to meet the following specific objectives:

- To investigate student teachers', teacher educators' and cooperating teachers' perceptions about the tasks and their roles in the programme
- To look into the extent to which the tasks and the participants' roles in the programme practices build on the assumptions and goals underlying the programme
- To explore factors (if there are any) contributing to incongruence between the programme practices and the assumptions and goals underlying the programme

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

As both an evaluative and exploratory study, this research project attempted to address the following two major research questions.

1. To what extent do EFL teacher education programme participants hold a shared set of beliefs about the new EFL teacher education operation and practices?
2. How are the tasks and participants' roles in the EFL teacher education practicum programme shaped by the constructivist paradigm?

To address the two major questions, the study also attempts to answer the following specific research questions:

- a) Do programme participants (student teachers, teacher educators and cooperating teachers) perceive the programme practices in the same way?
- b) To what extent do the programme practices reflect the assumptions and goals underlying the programme?
- c) Are there any factors that affect the congruence between the programme practices and the assumptions and the goals of the programme?

1.5. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Because all pedagogical practices in a FL teacher education programme are explicitly or implicitly based upon assumptions about the nature of teacher education and goals of L2

pedagogy, the basic assumptions and the goals of teacher education programme serve to provide a basis for the programme practices and roles.

In order to evaluate the implementation of the new EFL teacher education programme, and to determine whether or not the programme is running in the way it was initially intended and/or why and how the programme deviates from the initial plan, if it does, it is worth examining the *tasks, and participants' roles* in light of the basic philosophical underpinnings and goals underpinning the programme, which are believed both to provide a *direction* to practices and to establish a framework for *assessment* of the implementation process.

Therefore, for this purpose multi-item scales within a constructivist perspective of teacher education have been developed from the literature to identify degrees of presence of the required attributes for assessing the tasks and roles in the quantitative part of this study. Within the same perspective of teacher education, an exploratory set of criteria has been adopted from the work of Vieira and Marques (2002) for supervising reflective professional development practices. In order to be able to look into the extent to which the tasks and participants' roles in the programme build on the assumptions and goals underlying the programme and to explore factors (if there are any) contributing to incongruence between the programme practices and the assumptions and goals underlying the programme, essential questions have been set to explore the required attributes for assessing each area in the qualitative part of this study.

1. Assumptions and goals: The underlying assumptions and goals should be accepted as valid within the programme practices (both in the practicum activities or tasks and in the roles the programme participants assume in the process), so the main purpose of the evaluation would be to assess the extent to which these assumptions and goals are accomplished by looking at the tasks, and participants' roles. Basic assumptions within constructivist teacher education are the following:

- Knowledge is socially constructed through interaction and dialogue, usually between a learner and a more expert individual (Williams and Burden 1997).

- Learning of new ideas, or ‘appropriation’, takes place when concepts move from the interpsychological plane (in social interaction) to the intrapsychological plane (within the mind of the individual learner) (Randall and Thornton 2001).
- Learning activities in constructivist settings are characterized by active engagement, inquiry, problem solving, and collaboration with others (Abdul Haqq, 1999; Richardson, 1997; Fosnot, 1989; Good and Brophy, 1984).

These basic assumptions of constructivist pedagogy, orienting the goals, serve to provide a basis for organisation and management of the content and the process of EFL teacher education programme. A constructivist teacher education framework should aim primarily at the empowerment of student teachers towards the promotion of a reflective pedagogy, which includes ability to act, ability to self-regulate, ability to communicate and negotiate. The new EFL teacher education programme has been designed in a bid to produce competent, well-educated reflective practitioners who can implement the principles of constructivist pedagogy later when they teach in schools. Analysing the extant pedagogical practices (tasks and participants’ roles) requires inquiry into the assumptions in order to answer the following questions.

- *To what extent do teacher education practices build on the assumptions of a constructivist approach and the goals of reflective approach?*
- *To what extent do the tasks and roles in the new EFL teacher education programme promote a transformation of student teachers to well-educated reflective practitioners?*

2. Tasks: To achieve good integration of theory and practice and to help the student teachers acquire knowledge, skills, attitude and disposition, we need to put in place well-designed learning tasks and activities, which are compatible with the basic theoretical orientations of the programme. Accordingly, the tasks and activities in the EFL teacher education practicum programme include reflective dialogues, action research and portfolio compiling experiences to promote the student teachers’ reflective abilities. Therefore, to determine the nature of these tasks, **transparency, integration of theory and practice, consistency** and **organization** are seen as essential characteristics of the tasks, to be analysed in relation to the assumptions and goals. In this connection, the

following questions were used to provide important clues to the kind of tasks used in the programme.

- *To what extent are tasks in the new EFL teacher education (made) explicit as regards the assumptions and goals underlying them?*
- *To what extent do tasks in the new EFL teacher education focus on the integration of private and public theories and practices?*
- *To what extent do tasks in the new EFL teacher education reveal congruence between aims and processes?*
- *To what extent is the management of resources, space and time adequate to the assumptions, goals and roles of teacher development practices?*

3. Roles: The roles that student teachers and teacher educators assume vary according to the assumptions and goals that orient programme activities. In light of the basic assumptions and principles of constructivist pedagogy, the participants, i.e., student teachers, teacher educators and cooperating teachers, should assume new roles, which should be significantly different from those they may have in the traditional transmission model of teacher education programme. Therefore, **reflectivity**, **(inter)subjectivity**, **negotiation** and **regulation** are important qualities of roles to be assessed in the practicum courses to determine the extent to which a reflection-oriented approach has been pursued. In order to look into this, the following questions were considered to analyse the qualitative data in this study.

- *What kind of reflection do the new EFL teacher education practices promote?*
- *To what extent do the new EFL teacher education programme activities integrate the student teacher's self in interaction with others (peers, cooperating teachers and teacher educators)?*
- *To what extent do teacher development practices create opportunities for negotiation?*
- *To what extent do teacher development practices enable the individual and collaborative regulation of development/learning processes?*

1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The results of this research project are believed to be useful in many respects.

First of all, it is hoped that the findings of the evaluation of the current programme would help to recommend a closer examination and treatment of programme content, the nature of activities and the participants' involvement so that an exploration into a new way could be carried out to improve the programme, by providing a good picture of the EFL teacher education programme in the Ethiopian context. The report of this study, which might be able to see the actual implementation of the programme, would also serve as feedback to programme designers and the Ministry of Education to conduct further investigation to justify future courses of action.

Secondly, the results of this study would provide feedback to programme implementers: teacher educators and material developers at the faculty levels. These people would be able to use the feedback to have a clear understanding of the constructivist view of teacher education and thus to shape their beliefs and develop their motivation to explore further ways of implementing an inquiry oriented approach and justify decisions for change.

It is also hoped that this research project, would organize a body of knowledge that could serve as a basis for developing a set of guidelines for EFL-specific practicum in the Ethiopian context.

Finally, this study is hoped to result in developing a set of criteria for evaluating or supervising teacher development practices in pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes.

1.7. THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The list of possible areas of content of evaluation of a programme is very long as well as different for different programmes (Alderson and Scott, 1992). This implies that it is impossible for an evaluation to cover all the possible areas of content and that the person has to select aspects of content to concentrate on. Therefore, the scope of this evaluation study has been confined in the following terms.

This evaluation focused on the framework of participants' beliefs about the process and the quality of the practicum activities (tasks and roles) of the ongoing EFL teacher

education programme. Therefore, the concern of this study became what is happening inside the programme or description of the programme process rather than a focus on the programme outcome.

Though there are EFL teacher education programmes currently run in Ethiopia at different levels, this study was confined to evaluating implementation of the paradigm shift in EFL teacher education at B.Ed. level offered in education faculties of six universities; namely, Addis Abeba University, Bahir Dar University, Dilla University, Haramaya University, Jimma University, and Mekelle University. Even though the six universities work with numerous partner secondary schools where student teachers from these universities are placed for pre-service field based experiences, only sixty-two EFL cooperating teachers from thirteen partner secondary schools in the respective towns were involved in the study.

As this evaluation study mixed both quantitative and qualitative methods, the quantitative data were gathered from these six universities while the qualitative data were collected from Bahir Dar University as a case story for in-depth investigation.

1.8. LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

As the scope of this implementation evaluation was very broad, the researcher was forced to cut out some important points worthy of investigation. For example, the investigation into the content of the theoretical component of the programme and the nature of tasks in this component was not made to see how they would be addressed along the principles of the new paradigm.

Another limitation of this study is that it did not generate any confirming data from education officials from the Ministry of Education about the introduction and implementation of the TESO programme.

Owing to time and financial constraints, the initial plan to carry out multi-site qualitative case study was also abandoned. Had another case story been included to compare and contrast with the selected one, the study would have produced a better picture of the current EFL teacher education programme in the country.

Though a series of national workshops on teacher education in Ethiopia have been held in the last three years, the proceedings of these workshops are not yet accessible to researchers. Having no access to such papers on the local context has made the researcher resort to available literature on international teacher education culture.

1.9. OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

- **Task transparency** is a quality of tasks representing clarity of the aims to improve awareness and enhance a critical attitude of the learners towards practices. It can be promoted directly by the teacher educator/the task instructions (external explicitness), or achieved by student teachers' reflection on tasks (participatory explicitness).
- **Theory–practice integration** implies the activation of student teachers' experiential knowledge and/or practical experimentation, involving tasks such as real teaching (planning, developing, monitoring and evaluating pedagogical action), observation of other people's teaching, explaining own experiences, beliefs, opinions and commenting on others' experiences.
- **Consistency** refers to *congruence between aims and processes* of a given task, which increases meaningfulness, credibility, intentionality of a given task and impact on student teacher commitment.
- **Organization** refers to matters related to the management of resources, space and time which are necessary for accomplishing the basic assumptions and goals of the EFL teacher education programme practices and for redefining roles.
- **Reflectivity** refers to the content and quality of reflection the new EFL teacher education practices promote and levels of criticality (Van Manen, 1977; Valli, 1992; Hatton and Smith, 1995).
- **Intersubjectivity** refers to the quality of personal and social process construction of professional knowledge in which the learner assumes an active role in description, interpretation, confrontation and reconstruction of educational practice (Smyth 1989).

- **Negotiation** implies the involvement of student teachers in the collaborative construction of meanings as well as decisions to determine their own learning, at least to some extent.
- **Regulation** is the critical participation of learners in the supervision of their own learning and of the learning contexts.

CHAPTER II

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

In this chapter of the study an attempt was made to show the context in which the study was conducted. In line with the purpose of the study, attention was given to the following points: the need for change, the language policy and status of English in Ethiopia, content of curriculum changes, inputs for the change process, mainstream debate during the change introduction and some of the overlooked contextual factors.

2.1. The Need for Change

Numerous research undertakings had reported that there were major problems in Ethiopian education system, which would justify the need for change in the teacher education programmes in general and in the English language teacher education programme in particular. To mention but a few, Ambaye (1999) confirmed that methodology courses in Ethiopian teacher training institutes did not play a significant role in the school curriculum, as they were more academic than practical to help trainees develop professional skills. With regard to English language teacher preparation programmes in Ethiopia, a few researchers reported some problems. For example, Hailom (1993) identified several problems, among which lack of adequate practical teaching skills to promote effective teaching and low level of language skills are worth mentioning. Similarly, Awol (1999) reported that only 42% of the English language teachers who responded to the nation-wide questionnaire had satisfied the qualification criteria to become English teachers and that most of these qualified teachers believed that their pre-service training was not as relevant as it should have been because of emphasis on theory and linguistics rather than methodology and teaching practice.

The introduction of communicative oriented English language teaching in Ethiopian secondary schools and universities has been made possible partly by the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature of Addis Ababa University since 1989 (Hailom, 1993). Hailom refers to the curriculum revisions both in its undergraduate programme gearing it towards the training of EFL teachers by adding *Skill Development Methodology* courses

and in its M.A. programme in TEFL, focusing on the practical application of TEFL principles.

Due to the contribution of the institution, the English language teaching methodology courses in colleges and faculties of education in the country were reshaped; in fact, with different nomenclatures such as *Skill Development Methodology*, *ELT Methods*, and *Subject Area Methodology* in order to address pedagogical content knowledge of ELT trainee teachers. The ICDR (Institute for Curriculum Development and Research) also designed communicative oriented English Language textbooks for both elementary and secondary schools.

The Federal Government of Ethiopia has become aware of the various problems with teacher education practices and has shown a strong desire to reform the system (Ministry of Education, 2003). There is an increasing openness to new ideas and a greater willingness to learn from international experiences and developments in teacher education. Efforts at the national level were made to offer strategies for the long-existing problems of our schools and teacher education programmes. It was in this context that the Ministry of Education called for a complete Teacher Education System Overhaul (TESO). The Ministry has produced a national framework detailing strategies for the overhaul in five major areas: Pre-Service Teacher Education Programme, Pre-Service Selection Criteria, Teacher Educators, Continuous Professional Development and Special Upgrading Programmes. The Ministry has also launched English Language Improvement Programme (ELIP) to improve all subject teachers' ability to use English as a medium of instruction. Higher Diploma Programme (HDP) came in effect to help teacher educators upgrade their pedagogical skills, thereby licensing teacher educators.

Such efforts are likely to contribute to a favorable condition for revitalizing teacher education in general and to add momentum to earlier attempt by DFLL to innovate Ethiopian EFL teacher education in particular.

Given that teacher education in Ethiopia has been characterised for decades by a lack of clear policy guidelines (Adane and Dawit, 2002), TESO has given Ethiopian teacher education in general a solid framework, in which objectives are identified; training

guidelines are established; profiles for teacher educators and graduating teachers are formulated; adequate field experience is planned (Dawit, 2008).

Since 1991, the Ethiopian government has launched reforms in many sectors in Ethiopia. A new education and training policy, which was introduced in 1994, resulting in structural and conceptual changes at all levels of the education system, is a case in point. For example, the introduction of the new education and training policy in 1994 changed the structure of the education system in schools and universities. The four-year and the five-year undergraduate programmes were reduced to three-year and four-year study in university for a Bachelor's degree. University-based teacher education programmes were not exceptions to this structural change.

2.2. Status of English Language in Ethiopia

English is a foreign language in Ethiopia, where it is used dominantly for academic purposes as a medium of instruction in secondary and tertiary level. School children start to learn English at Grade One and pursue to study it up to Grade Eight as a school subject in the curriculum of government schools. However, in some private urban-based schools children are made to learn English as a school subject and to use it a medium of instruction for some of the basic school subjects. There has been a noticeable variation in a starting point for using English as medium of instruction in public schools from region to region. Some start at Grade 7 and many others start at Grade 9.

English is also used a means of international communication for Ethiopians. Some federal government offices which have transactions with foreigners and foreign offices use English side by side with Amharic for written communication. Most huge business firms or such as banks, insurance companies, Ethiopian Airlines, ETC and others use English as a working language.

As far as English language teacher education in Ethiopia is concerned, it plays a vital role in promoting effective teaching and learning at secondary and tertiary levels since a good command of English language by both the learners and the teachers is of paramount importance. Haile Michael (1994) reported that there had been a perennial complaint that instruction both in Ethiopian institutions of higher learning and in secondary schools had

been declining in standard. Some people are often heard to attribute this decline to the poor command of English language.

Therefore, the English language teacher education programme is expected to produce effective teachers who can work flexibly, creatively and effectively in the very complex English language classes in schools. In this respect, English language teacher educators have a fundamental responsibility for educating teachers in a way that empowers them to shoulder these delicate demanding responsibilities for helping their students effectively learn not only the language but also other subjects through this language of instruction.

Some EFL teacher educators argue that giving more emphasis on pedagogical practice does not sound logical in Ethiopia EFL teacher education context where the programme entrants cannot have a good level of proficiency in English after only having spent more years learning English as a school subject than using it for other purposes.

2.3. Overview of Review of EFL Teacher Education Curriculums

Compared with the restructuring of teacher education in recent years, very fast and unstable changes have been made in curriculum development for pre-service teacher education in the past few years. Prior to the introduction of the TESO programme, there was a similar curriculum for EFL teacher education programmes offered in these six universities (some of which were colleges at that time) as a result of the contribution of DFLL of Addis Abeba University, whose 1989 revised curriculum was adopted by the B.Ed EFL teacher education programmes in the country.

When the TESO programme was launched, these institutions were invited to outline only the subject matter knowledge domain within the then new framework in 30 credit hours. In response to the complaints from teacher educators about imbalance of components of teacher education knowledge base, the MOE produced a second version of the EFL teacher education curriculum incorporating different repairs or quick fixes to the earlier TESO curriculum. One of the quick fixes was reducing the weight assigned to the practicum experiences because of some impracticality of the practicum courses.

Table 2-1 below summarises the content and the contact hours of the three EFL teacher education programme by classifying the courses into four domains of knowledge base:

subject matter or content, pedagogical, pedagogical content and contextual knowledge domains, as outlined by Grossman and Richert (1988) and Johnson (1999).

Table 2-1: Summary of Content and Contact Hours of Three EFL Teacher Education Course Catalogues

Knowledge Base Component		Courses	Total Contact Hours in		
			1989	2003	2005
Major Area Content	<i>English Language Proficiency</i>	Reading Skills	48	32	48
		Listening Skills,	48	32	48
		Spoken English I & II	96	96	96
		Intermediate Writing Skills,	48	48	48
		Advanced Composition / Writing Skills	96	48	48
		Advanced Speech,	48	---	---
		Oral Presentation	48	---	---
	Lang. Research Design & Report Writing	---	---	32	
	<i>Linguistics</i>	Intro. to Lang. & Ling. I & II	96	64	48
		Structure of English	48	---	---
		English Phonetics and Phonology	---	32	32
		English Morphology and Syntax	---	48	32
		Theory of Communication	48	---	---
		Language and Society	48	---	---
	<i>Literature</i>	Fundamentals of Literature	48	48	48
		Short Story	48	---	---
		Novel	48	---	---
		Prose-Fiction	---	32	32
		Poetry	48	---	---
		Verse and Drama	---	32	32
		Survey of World Literature	48	---	48
African Literature		48	---	---	
Pedagogical Content Knowledge	ELT Methodology I & II	96	96	96	
	Materials Analysis and Preparation	---	32	48	
	Literature in Lang. Teaching	---	32	32	
General Pedagogical <i>Professional Sciences or Education course:</i>	Developmental Psychology	48	--	--	
	Educational Psychology	--	48	48	
	General Methods of Teaching	48	48	48	
	Curriculum Studies	48	48	48	
	Educ. Measurement & Evaluation	48	48	48	
	Educ. Organization & Management	48	32	32	
	Educational Research	48	---	---	
	Action Research	---	32	32	
	Instructional Media	32	----	---	
	History and Philosophy of Education	64	----	----	
	Special Needs Education	---	32	32	
Contextual Knowledge	Practice Teaching	32			
	Practicum I – III	---		208	
	Practicum IV & V				
			T=32	T=400	T=208
			Total = 432	Total = 256	Total = 320
			Total = 240	Total = 144	Total = 112
			Total = 288	Total = 112	Total = 160
			T=96	T=160	T=176
			Total = 384	Total = 288	Total = 288
			T=32	T=400	T=208

As shown in the table, the overview of the curriculum reviewed showed that the courses are subsumed under four categories of knowledge base. The subject matter knowledge component has three different aspects: English language proficiency, linguistics and literature courses. This component formed the bulk of the curriculum, accounting for the largest percent of the total contact hours in each curriculum. The major area courses in the pre-TESO curriculum accounted for 65.21%, while it accounted for 37.64% in the first TESO curriculum and 46.84% in the revised TESO curriculum of the total contact hours allocated for the four domains of knowledge base. Within the subject matter content course component, language proficiency courses occupy a very prominent position. These courses are structured according to macro language skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Notably, in the pre-TESO curriculum 432 out of the 960 (45%), in the TESO curriculum 256 out of 512 (50%) and in the revised TESO curriculum 320 out of 592 (54.05%) contact hours allocated for the subject matter knowledge were given to English language proficiency courses devoted to improving students' knowledge of and skills in using English. However, across the three curriculum documents appeared almost the same courses with differing weights assigned to them.

When the weights assigned to clusters of linguistics and literature courses in each curriculum are compared, the cluster of linguistics courses, which received a larger weight only in the first TESO curriculum (28.31%), had a smaller weight in the pre-TESO curriculum (25%) and in the revised TESO curriculum (18.92%) than that of literature courses (30% in the pre-TESO curriculum and 27.03% in the revised TESO curriculum).

The weight given to the general pedagogical knowledge component appeared relatively stable in its position in the three curriculums (26.09%, 21.18% and 22.79%, respectively). There is a small change in its composition. However, some of the courses which were perhaps thought to have less direct relevance to teaching have been replaced by other new courses.

The weight of pedagogical content knowledge domain has almost doubled from 6.52% in the pre-TESO curriculum to 11.76% in the first TESO curriculum and 13.92% in the revised TESO curriculum.

The dramatic change observed in the curriculum content is the weight assigned to the contextual knowledge, which constituted only 2.17% in the pre-TESO curriculum was raised to 29.41% in the first TESO curriculum and lowered to 16.46% in the revised TESO curriculum.

According to the TESO framework, the secondary school teacher education programme breakdown shows that the practicum component covered 25 credit hours in five different courses. Below are the contents of the five sessions as presented in the document (MOE, 2003: 59-60).

Table 2-2: Content of the Practicum Component of TESO Programme

Course Title and Credits	Major Activities	Slot in programme breakdown
Practicum I (2 cr. Hrs.)	Observation of students and students' behaviour. Observation of school environment like libraries, facilities, school compound, etc Observation of classroom activities while major and minor subjects are taught Observation of extra-curricula activities helping the teacher by taking easy tasks such as preparation of teaching aids, lesson preparation, evaluation, etc. Writing a reflective report on the observation	Year I, Sem. I
Practicum II (2 cr. Hrs.)	Weekly visit to practice basic teaching skills Teaching with real students either supporting the teacher in the classroom and team-teaching or withdrawing small groups from the classroom Begin their research projects to be completed during practicum V	Year I, Sem. II
Practicum III (8 cr. Hrs.)	A block of six weeks teaching in real school setting subject teaching. Reflection and evaluation with peers and with teachers	Year II Sem. I
Practicum IV (9 cr. Hrs.)	A block of 8 weeks Teaching in a school setting putting into practice all they have learnt. Exploring their own teaching methods and developing teaching skills	Year III Sem. I
Practicum V (4 cr. Hrs.)	Complete and write up their action research projects	Year III Sem. II

However, when the teacher education faculties found this impractical because of financial and logistical constraints due to the fact that a number of schools where student teacher could be placed are widely scattered over geographical distances, a quick fix was made in some of the faculties by transforming the nine-credit hour Practicum IV course into

thirty-minute peer teaching sessions. Bahir Dar University is a case in point. Later, a new proposal was adopted nationally to minimize these twenty-five credit-hour practicum courses to thirteen-credit-hour practicum courses in three parts. What pushed this quick fix most was the implementation problem. The earlier proposed programme breakdown was functional for only two batches of entrants 2003/04 and 2004/05 entries. Then for the third batch, 2005/06 entries, a new programme breakdown was adopted at the national workshop, which included only three practicum courses with a total of fifteen credit hours.

2.4. Mainstream debates during TESO curriculum introduction

Among a number of debatable issues during the introduction of the TESO change proposal, the duration of training, as one of the input factors that affect the quality of teacher preparation (Buchberger and Byrne, 1995), was a point at issue. The literature on teacher education indicates that secondary school teacher education is usually a four-year or five-year programme (Cochran-Smith, 2001, Gimmestad and Hall, 1995, Feiman-Nemser, 1990). In most countries where degree programmes are offered for three years, graduates who want to be teachers have to attend teacher training for one or more additional years (Darling-Hammond, 2000a).

Within the given three-year programme, TESO aims at longer and continuous field experiences in a concurrent model in which student teachers take pedagogical courses and subject area courses side by side. Students have to undergo various field experiences spread along the three years while simultaneously attending classes on subject areas and method courses. Dawit (2008) contends that TESO's stance on the duration of teacher preparation neither matches with what it aims to achieve nor considers extant school realities.

If TESO's goal is the preparation of quality teachers, and if behind this goal the programme intends to provide student teachers with adequate field experience, professional and subject matter knowledge, then three years may be too short to accomplish these objectives. Indeed, secondary school teacher educators have voiced their concern that the programme is too over-loaded, and that proper provision of feedback and reflection are alien to the system. (Dawit, 2008: 289)

Another point of contention during introduction of TESO was the content of teacher education programme. Teacher education faculties of universities were filled with the

discussions about content/subject matter knowledge of the new programme. Teacher educators grappled with issues like marginalisation of content knowledge, imbalance of the knowledge bases of teacher education and impracticalities of practicum component of the programme. This debate was based on two issues. The first was the teacher educators' beliefs about competency of the programme entrants. Secondary school teacher candidates are selected from students who successfully completed Grade 12 and join higher education institutions. TESO presumes students who join teacher education programme after completing Grade 12 to be "competent in the required academic knowledge". In the TESO document this assumption has been stated as follows: "Students will already have learnt content to high level in their subject area in Grade 11 and 12, through new Secondary School courses implying that most of the subject content of the freshman courses are already taken in these grades" (MOE, 2003:58). Teacher educators, on the other hand, doubted that the programme entrants had the necessary academic qualities as high achieving students are avoiding the teaching profession and joining other social science and natural science programmes.

The other basis for the argument seemed to have been the fact that major area courses which had constituted over 50% of the earlier programme covered only 30% of the new programme. With regard to the content of the new teacher education programme in faculties of education, TESO Programme reduced subject matter courses to 30 credit hours from 50 credit hours in the previous curriculum. This reduction prescribes uniform course delineation across all fields of studies in the faculties, as shown below (MOE, 2003: 100):

Content area subjects in major area	30 credit hours
Content area subjects in minor area	18 credit hours
Professional courses	24 credit hours
Practicum	25 credit hours
Supportive courses	13 credit hours

Indeed, teacher education literature on the depth and breadth of subject area knowledge required for effective teachers is controversial. Controversies go on in the area of teacher education about the weight that should be given to the various knowledge bases of teacher education and which component of the knowledge bases best predicts teacher performance when measured in terms of student learning (Darling-Hammond, 2000b;

Wilson, Floden, and Mundy, 2002). Some argue that effectiveness in teaching is a matter of general ability and subject matter competence (Ballou and Podgursky, 2000), while others argue that pedagogical preparation not only enhances the performance of students but also contributes in retaining teachers in the teaching profession (Darling-Hammond, 2000b; Sultana, 2005). As some writers suggest that adequate knowledge of the content to be taught coupled with proper teaching methods suffices as far as teachers' subject matter knowledge is concerned, this minimalist view on content knowledge for schoolteachers seems to have oriented TESO's content delineation for the knowledge base to be taught to student teachers.

During the three consecutive consultative workshops organized by the Ministry of Education (March 2003, April 2003 and June 2003) to introduce the reform, the researcher witnessed strong resistance to the TESO programme from most of the participants representing faculties of education. Most of them argued that the theoretical component of the programme had been de-emphasized and that the practical component had been unduly over-emphasized. Despite the implementation of the new programme, the debate has continued to date. For example, the same issue was a point of argument during the recent similar workshops (June 2005 and October 2005). Some people also argued that they should not be expected to effectively carry out their duties in line with the reform as they did not have proper knowledge of the new paradigm.

Some EFL teacher educators also viewed the TESO programme as a move from one to the other end of the continuum. They argue that giving more emphasis on pedagogical practice may sound logical in ESL teacher education in a context where the incoming student teachers have a good level of proficiency in English, but not in Ethiopia, where the new EFL student teachers who have studied English as a foreign language for academic purposes may not have that much dependable command of English language when joining the programme.

The argument and the demands to modify the weight assigned to the components of TESO programme show the EFL educators' fear that the student teachers may not have the requisite degree of language proficiency which will enable them to handle their duty of teaching English in secondary schools. The counterargument of proponents of TESO was that subject matter courses should aim to cultivate prospective secondary EFL

teachers to have strong language proficiency and extensive linguistic and cultural knowledge to guarantee the successful delivery of communication-oriented language classes. Moreover, the maintenance and improvement of their language skills should be an ongoing process.

As a result, at the last meeting (October 2005) some universities came up with new proposals to change the content of the programme in terms of weight assigned to each component. For example, Department of English Language Education in College of Education of Addis Abeba University suggested as follows:

Content area subjects in major area	44 credit hours
Content area subjects in minor area	18 credit hours
Professional courses	24 credit hours
Practicum	13 credit hours
Supportive courses	13 credit hours

The other side of this debate refers to the emphasis on practicum component. One can also clearly see that the TESO programme for secondary schools gives more emphasis to the pedagogical and practicum courses of teacher education as shown in Table 2-1 of this chapter.

TESO's intentions for longer field experience and effective monitoring and practice were put into practice in a way that the implementation could be affected by a number of problems. This shows that situations of Ethiopian teacher education institutions have played a significant role in the re-invention of the project, i.e., the degree to which the innovation is modified by users in the process of adoption and implementation (Rogers 1983) by incorporating some theoretically ungrounded 'quick fixes', prescriptive changes introduced year after year, with no substantial assessment of how they fit into the education system and support each other.

Moreover, after the introduction of TESO, secondary schools have started using television programmes as the main form of instruction though TV programmes which is not part of TESO. This situation was not congruent with what the teacher educators felt necessary for student teachers' field experiences.

2.5. Overlooked Contextual Factors during TESO Reform

When we look into the process of the reform introduction, at least two things are worth considering: difficulties in introducing large-scale systemic curriculum change and the balance between top-down and bottom-up strategies.

The difficulties in introducing large-scale systemic curriculum change were underestimated. It would have been good to anticipate problems (e.g., resistance to change, lack of resources, and insufficient time for teacher training) in advance and to formulate strategies for tackling them. In this case, the Ethiopian teacher education faculties or colleges seemed largely unprepared for TESO implementation problems even though the change was overdue compared to the international teacher education experiences and what the ETP (1994) prescribed as a conceptual change of the country's education system.

Despite what the literature states about tendency of teacher response to innovation to be "slow, gradual, incomplete, partial, ongoing, evolutionary" (Bailey, 1992: 276), the Ministry of Education wished to keep a tighter control over the implementation schedule to satisfy administrative or political considerations as the new entrants were about to join the colleges and innovation timeframes were not planned according to the preparedness of stakeholders (teacher education institutions and partner schools). Given the complexity and unpredictability of the change process, the Ministry of education took a more ambitious and more radical approach to TESO change proposal. What made this situation unique was that, besides the large number of teacher education programme entrants after completing pre-university preparatory programme with a tag Preparatory Programme Origin, the then second year students were made to be included in the TESO curriculum, with a tag Freshman Programme Origin. Moreover, MOE (2003) describes TESO as a fundamental change in the culture of the Ethiopian teacher education system, pressing that the timeframe for such a profound change must necessarily be short.

Another unconsidered factor was trialability, the extent to which the innovation can be tried out and seen to be viable (Rogers 1983), and which might be a factor in engendering positive teacher attitudes towards the innovation. In the case of the TESO project, initial piloting of the innovation was not conducted to produce evidence of the success of or

sufficient support for the innovation which would have been be a powerful force in creating positive teacher educators' attitudes.

The literature also suggests in-service training as an essential preparation for a new curriculum. Teachers need to be retrained with new skills and knowledge, particularly when the required methodology is highly different from the existing one. Gross et al. (1971) indicate that if teachers are not equipped to deal with the implications of a new approach, they are likely to revert to the security of their previous behaviour and the desired change may not take place. Without sufficient retraining, even teachers initially enthusiastic about an innovation can become frustrated by problems in implementation and eventually turn against the project. In this case, a package of training known as Higher Diploma Programme (HDP) linked with professional development was put in place, though the training commenced much later for teacher educators. However, schoolteachers who are expected to assume new roles as a cooperating teacher were not given any training to prepare them for their new jobs.

The balance between top-down and bottom-up strategies should be considered in innovation. In a change process, the literature states both the advantages and disadvantages of bottom-up and top-down innovations. For example, White (1988: 133) writes that bottom-up innovations, "which are identified by the users themselves (rather than specified by an outside change agent), will be more effectively and durably installed than those which are imported from outside". On the other hand, Hurst (1983), however, notes that participatory decision-making can be a sham device to manipulate staff, is often excessively time-consuming and that, "if people are genuinely allowed to participate in decisions concerning innovations, then they may use this opportunity to express and win support for their opposition to the change, or even to veto it" (p. 20). As a solution to the problem that neither centralization nor decentralisation initiatives are particularly successful, Fullan (1993: 38) recommends that simultaneous top-down and bottom-up strategies are necessary in order to form "a different two-way relationship of pressure, support and continuous negotiation".

The balance between top-down and bottom-up strategies in innovation helps to secure a sense of ownership (Kennedy 1988), the degree to which an innovation "belongs" to the

implementers, which is another important factor that can considerably affect the likelihood of any innovation establishing itself. If successful curriculum implementation is to take place, it is necessary to engender a feeling of ownership amongst the teachers who will be involved in putting innovatory ideas into classroom practice.

With regard to TESO, the ministry organized a series of consultative national workshops to introduce the change. In these workshops, the expected results were interpreted by the Ministry and the participants in different ways. While the Ministry claimed that they were meant to make the development of the curriculum participatory in nature, the participants believed that they were meant to convince them about the change, and ultimately impose the change proposal. Dawit (2008) reports that the involvement of teachers has mainly been at a low level, with teams working on production of curriculum content under the guidance of the Ministry of Education on the series of consultative meetings.

This experience of teacher educators hardly tends to indicate that the teacher educators have developed any feeling of ownership towards TESO. TESO also seemed to create a perception in many teacher educators of being imported and entirely based on the Western curriculum regardless of its conceptual bases.

Dawit (2008: 301) comments on the change process as follows:

The problem of educational reform in Ethiopia, . . . , is that the imbalance between top-down and bottom-up reforms is so great that teachers and teacher educators feel alienated and deprofessionalized, putting at risk the very idea TESO is meant for.

Top-down reforms should have been coupled with serious consideration of teacher educators' concerns and the capacity of teacher education institutions. The failure to do this adequately for TESO can be said to have contributed to the initial negative responses from teacher educators. Although the relationship between attitudes and behaviour is often not straightforward (e.g. Kennedy and Kennedy 1996), innovation will invariably involve change in teachers' attitudes and practices (Nicholls 1983). If the innovation is incompatible with teachers' existing attitudes, resistance to change is likely to occur (e.g. Brown and McIntyre 1987). Teacher retraining programmes are unlikely to succeed unless they can bring about a shift in teachers' attitudes towards the nature of learning and their own role in that process (Young and Lee 1987). Teachers are at the sharp end of

most educational innovations, so it is axiomatic that their attitudes will play a significant role in the adoption, reinvention or rejection of a new curriculum.

Reformers need to give due attention to reality, respect teachers' professionalism, and demonstrate through their actions rather than rhetoric that change is a process that happens in classrooms with the interaction of teachers, students, resources, and programmes (Rogers, 1995; Fullan, 1993; Hopkins, 2000) and address conflicts of rhetoric and practice, intention and strategy. The notion that change will reach grassroots level by external regulation without 'real or internal' stakeholders' involvement and commitment is unrealistic (Goodson, 2001).

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter attempts have been made first to review the literature to compare the two major learning paradigms and their influences on language learning and teacher education programmes. By paying more attention to constructivism, then researcher has attempted to review the detailed nuances of this paradigm in order to show its framework for teacher education and the theoretical foundation of reflective approach in constructivism. Next the researcher tried to surf the literature to show how the psychopedagogical strategies (reflective dialogues, portfolio compilation and action research) are employed in the practicum setting, what learning opportunities they entail and how they redefine participants' roles in the process for fostering reflection in pre-service teacher education candidates.

3.1. BEHAVIOURISTIC LEARNING PARADIGM

The two contrastingly articulated major models of learning are behaviourism and constructivism. Behaviourism relies on an objectivist epistemology, which believes in the existence of reliable knowledge about the world and which assumes that learners gain the same understanding from what is transmitted. There is the idea that there is a fixed world of knowledge that the student must come to know. Jonassen (1991: 28) describes the assumptions of an objectivist approach to learning:

Learning (...) consists of assimilating that objective reality. The role of education is to help students learn about the real world. The goal of designers or teachers is to interpret events for them. Learners are told about the world and are expected to replicate its content and structure in their thinking.

From this perspective, classes are usually dominated by "teacher-talk" and depend heavily on textbooks for the structure of the course in which information is divided into parts and built into a whole concept. Teachers serve as pipelines and seek to transfer their thoughts and meanings to learners.

Since behaviourism centres on students' efforts to accumulate knowledge of the natural world and on teachers' efforts to transmit it, the mind is seen as an empty vessel, a *tabula rasa* to be filled with or as a mirror reflecting reality. It therefore relies on a transmission



approach which is largely passive, teacher-directed and controlled. As behavioural psychology is interested in the study of changes in manifest behaviour as opposed to changes in mental states, learning is conceived as a process of changing or conditioning observable behaviour as result of selective reinforcement of an individual's response to events (stimuli) that occur in the environment.

Since it relies almost exclusively on observable behaviour and does not account for individual thought processes, reference to meaning, and representation, the role of behaviourism in learning is necessarily limited to the types of learning which can be easily observed such as factual recall, rather than less clearly defined learning which involves internal conceptual change within the learner. Richardson (1997) argues against behaviourism that, when information is acquired through transmission models, it is not always well integrated with prior knowledge and is often accessed and articulated only for formal academic occasions such as examinations.

This objectivist model has resulted in somewhat of a stereotyped portrayal of teaching and learning which is a widely criticized and often evoked as the target of educational reform (Jonassen (1991).

3.1.1. Influence of behaviouristic learning paradigm on language teaching

The behaviourist paradigm had a great influence on not only the second or foreign language teaching but also the research contents and patterns in the field. The familiar themes that characterized audiolingual method (ALM) classroom instruction in the past were patterns/drills/ rules/accuracy/sequence, all of which reflected assumptions in Skinner's behaviourist stimulus-response theory that emphasized positive reinforcement of correct responses to form habits and in structural linguistics, which viewed language as an observable set of structures (Raimes, 1983). In this teacher-centred approach, feedback was direct and immediate, invariably coming from the teacher in a language class. In such classrooms, there was no explicit dialogue about learning problems because it was assumed that learning would take place if learners absorbed the knowledge delivered by the teacher (Anton, 1999). Research studies in TEFL, too, laid much emphasis on quantifiable data from these two fields. The prevailing assumptions of the discipline can

thus be summed up as rooted firmly in the positivist tradition, which prizes the empirical, the observable, the countable, and the verifiable data (Rames, 1983).

3.1.2. Influence of behaviouristic learning paradigm on teacher education

According to Fish (1995) and Ziechner (1983), one of the two differing views of what is involved in being a teacher dominating pre-service teacher education today is the competency based approach to pre-service teacher education arising from a view that teaching is a matter of mastering techniques, skills, procedures. The notion of competency-based teacher education can be traced to its origins in American research in education rooted in behavioural psychology (Fish, 1995; Schon, 1987). In this approach teachers are viewed as technicians who will simply apply what educational research has discovered (Fish 1995). Here the activity of teaching is seen as a collection of skills; it can be analysed, described and mastered. What matters most in training for this job is mastering specific and standardized skills and demonstrating that mastery. The skills are thus turned into competences and used as the means of assessing professional practice. Fish (1995) says that this rather glib explanation hides a series of problems and difficulties. It is possible to argue that the thrust to accept and focus on competences in pre-service teacher education comes from their apparent usefulness in ensuring quality, because they seem to offer simple measures of efficiency.

As in many professions a major aspect of the professionalisation process is the introduction of an extensive theoretical basis for the practitioners work. In traditional teacher education, the desire to use as much of the available knowledge as possible has led to a conception of teacher education as a system in which experts, preferably working within universities, teach this knowledge to prospective teachers who, in turn, also try to stimulate the transfer of this knowledge to the classroom. This is how teacher education became known as “teacher training” (Bullough & Gitlin, 1995). Schon (1987) critically called it the “technical rationality” model, the heritage of positivism, which is a model of professionalism that values the production of knowledge over its application and arranges institutional hierarchies accordingly. In the same vein, Wallace (1991) labelled it “applied science” model in second and foreign language teacher education.

Williams (2001), criticizing the attempts to transfer a predetermined, pre-selected and pre-sequenced body of knowledge from the teacher educator to the prospective teacher, attributes this essentially top-down approach to an artificial division between the theorist and the teacher: the theorist produces knowledge and the teacher consumes it. The traditional divide between theory and practice in teacher education programmes has a potential drawback in that these distinctions offer only limited possibilities for practicing teachers because in such a model teachers are not empowered to construct.

Studies have shown the tendency to focus on knowledge bases to be taught to prospective teachers has failed to strongly influence the practice of graduates of teacher education programmes. Some researchers (e.g. Almarza, 1996; Kagan, 1990, 1992; Peacock, 2001) suggest that teacher preparation programmes have less impact on some trainees than we might expect. Confirming this, Freeman (1994) argues that transferring appropriate knowledge to student teachers or imposing a proper model of language and language teaching does not work in teacher education programmes. Zeichner and Tabachnic (1981) showed that many notions and educational conceptions developed during teacher education were 'washed out' during field experiences. Korthagen and Kessels (1999) discuss three causes for the transfer problem: 1) not considering student-teachers preconceptions about learning & teaching, 2) feed-forward problem and 3) the nature of the relevant knowledge.

3.2. CONSTRUCTIVIST LEARNING PARADIGM

Constructivism is known as an epistemology or a learning or meaning-making theory that offers an explanation of the nature of knowledge and how human beings learn. It maintains that individuals create or construct their own new understandings or knowledge through the interaction of what they already know and believe and the ideas, events, and activities with which they come in contact (Richardson, 1997; Good and Brophy, 1984).

While constructivism does not necessarily deny the existence of an objective reality (Lincoln and Guba, 2000), it denies the existence of an objective knowledge since "there are many ways to structure the world, and there are many meanings or perspectives for any event or concept" (Duffy & Jonassen, 1992). It is this rejection of absolutism that

characterises constructivist approaches to learning, and it is a radical ontological departure from the behaviourist theories.

These ontological and epistemological differences have profound implications for all aspects of a theory of learning. The way in which knowledge is conceived and acquired, the types of knowledge, skills and activities emphasized, the role of the learner and the teacher, how goals are established are differently articulated in the constructivist perspective.

Rather than the transmission of knowledge, constructivist learning is an internal process of interpretation. Cunningham (1992: 36) wrote:

Learners do not transfer knowledge from the external world into their memories; rather, they create interpretations of the world based upon their past experiences and their interactions in the world. How someone construes the world, their existing metaphors, is at least as powerful a factor influencing what is learned as any characteristic of that world.

Richardson (1997) argues in favour of constructivism that, when information is acquired through transmission models, it is not always well integrated with prior knowledge and is often accessed and articulated only for formal academic occasions such as examinations. Most cognitive theories and the constructivist approaches that have grown out of cognitivism argue that learning should be durable, transferable and self-regulated (Di Vesta and Rieber, 1987). Mechanisms need to be in place to promote the deeper internal processing required for such learning to occur.

Good and Brophy (1994) state four principles guiding the constructivist learning. 1) Learners construct their own meaning, 2) New learning builds on prior knowledge, 3) Learning is enhanced by social interaction, and 4) Learning develops through 'authentic tasks'. These imply that learning moves from experience to knowledge and not the other way round. In a constructivist classroom, the activities lead to the concepts to help learners construct their meaning, i.e., constructivist learning is inductive, and it dictates that the concept follows the action rather than precedes it. Constructivist learning usually begins with a question, a case, or a problem. In typical constructivist sessions, the instructor presents a problem and lets the student go and as the students work on a problem the instructor intervenes only as required to guide students in the appropriate directions.

While there are commonly accepted attributes of constructivism, there are also different interpretations of it. In general, two broad interpretations can be found among contemporary educators: psychological or cognitive constructivism, most notably articulated by Piaget, and social constructivism, associated with Vygotsky. Richardson (1997) stresses two major issues shaping these interpretations: (1) education for individual development versus education for social transformation and (2) the degree of influence that social context has on individual cognitive development. We can distinguish between "**cognitive** constructivism" which is about how the individual learner understands things, in terms of developmental stages and learning styles, and "**social** constructivism", which emphasises how meanings and understandings grow out of social encounters.

Cognitive constructivism, as derived from the work of Piaget (1977), defines learning as a process of accommodation, assimilation, and equilibration. This is a dialectic process in which the subject resolves conflicts in the coherence of his or her structuring activities by coordinating and constructing new, more adequate cognitive structures (Saxe, 1991). Learning is primarily an individualistic enterprise. This is a child-centred approach that seeks to identify, through scientific study, the natural path of cognitive development (Vadeboncoeur, 1997). To a large extent, this approach assumes that development is an ingrained, natural, biological process that is pretty much the same for all individuals, regardless of gender, class, race, or the social or cultural context (Vadeboncoeur, 1997; Richardson, 1997). It is essentially a decontextualised approach to learning and teaching. Although the emphasis has been on the individual, Richardson (1997) notes that the Piagetian constructivist theory has been revised to add social construction of meaning.

On the other hand, social constructivism pays particular emphasis to the influence of the classroom culture and the broader social context in addition to what cognitive constructivism is concerned with. For the social constructivists, the social is central, rather than additive, to the learning process. It is through the social that meaning is made and knowledge is appropriated. The centrality of the social aspect of learning makes it more contextualized.

Abdul Haqq (1997) observes that the call for advocating social constructivist pedagogy in teacher education has its roots in the writings of John Dewey, the work of Piaget and that of Vygotsky. Dewey, (1933) suggested that knowledge and learning be conceived of as a process of construction and reconstruction of meaning, whereby the learner engages in active, systematic, informed and communal meaning-making of vicarious experiences. Piaget (1977) demonstrated empirically that children's minds were not empty, but actively processed the material with which they were presented, and postulated the mechanisms of accommodation and assimilation as key to this processing. Vygotsky [1896-1934] laid down the most significant bases of a social constructivist theory in his theory of the "Zone of Proximal Development" (ZPD) favouring a concept of learning as a social construct which is mediated by language via social discourse.

This approach assumes that theory and practice do not develop in a vacuum; they are shaped by dominant cultural assumptions. The formal knowledge, the subject of instruction, and the manner of its presentation are influenced by the historical and cultural environment that generated them. To accomplish the goals of social transformation and reconstruction, the context of education must be deconstructed, and the cultural assumptions, power relationships, and historical influences that undergird it must be exposed, critiqued, and, when necessary, altered (Myers, 1996).

Beyond the view of learning as an active process of knowledge construction and sense making, knowledge is understood as a cultural artefact of people (Vygotsky, 1978). As a result, learning should involve talk, public reasoning, and shared problem solving. Instead of a focus on individual achievement, learning involves social interaction that supports thinking, surfaces prior knowledge, and allows skills to be used in the context of content knowledge.

Teachers have to have open dialogue with the students to determine what and how they are thinking in order to clear up misconceptions and to individualize instruction as an understanding of the student's prior knowledge and abilities is crucial to successful scaffolding. The teacher must ascertain what the student already knows so that it can be connected to the new knowledge and made relevant to the learner's life, thus increasing the motivation to learn.

3.2.1. Influence of Constructivist learning paradigm on language teaching

The emergence and the growth this paradigm seems to have influenced foreign/second language education in many respects. The aspects of the paradigm shift in second or foreign language education are perhaps most popularly known as communicative language teaching as they include greater attention on learners' roles, process-oriented instruction, social nature of learning, individual differences, holistic learning, learner autonomy, importance of meaning rather than drills or rote learning and alternative assessment, and others (Jacobs and Farrell 2001). From various sources, we can quite easily compile a description of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as part of the constructivist paradigm, which sees language as communication, emphasises real language use, as opposed to usage (Widdowson 1978). CLT recommends a student-centred classroom, develops humanistic, interpersonal approaches, and considers the nature of the learner, the learning process, and the learning environment. The old familiar themes of patterns/drills/rules/ accuracy/sequence have been replaced by a new set: communication/functions/use/reality/ affective approaches (Raimes, 1983).

As a result, this shift has led to many changes in how second or foreign language teaching is conducted. Current foreign and second language teaching methodologies based on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) suggest that there is a benefit in switching from the traditional teacher-centred class to a learner-centred classroom setting. One of the main differences with traditional ways of teaching languages lies in the role of teacher and learner. The communicative approach shifts the focus to the learner in several aspects of classroom instruction: The curriculum reflects the needs of the learner, the activities engage learners in communication (involving information sharing and negotiation of meaning) and the teacher's role of facilitator in the communication process (Nunan, 1989).

Current pedagogical trends in second and foreign language teaching call for a learner-centred orientation in language classrooms. This is usually interpreted by language teaching practitioners as a call to include more pair and group communicative activities in their lessons. It is believed that communicative activities foster a great amount of linguistic production, thus providing language practice and opportunities for negotiation

of meaning and form during communicative exchanges, which has been claimed to be beneficial for language learning (Long, 1996; Spada, 1997; Swain, 1997).

Moreover, CLT advocates having students work in small groups in order to maximize their opportunities for communicative practices (Richards and Rodger, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Acting as a guide of procedures and activities during communicative activities, the teacher is responsible for establishing situations that are likely to promote communication. The role of the learner is that of a communicator: students interact with others, they are actively engaged in negotiation of meaning, they have an opportunity to express themselves by sharing ideas and opinions, and they are responsible for their own learning. CLT calls, then, for a very active role for learners in the classroom and increased responsibility for their own learning (Breen, 1991; Larsen – Freeman, 1986; Nunan, 1988). The new role of the student as “negotiator between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning” implies that “he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an independent way” (Breen & Candlin, 1980: 110).

Approaches to teaching different language skills, i.e., reading, listening, writing and speaking, in CLT appear to fit in the constructivist paradigm. The design of pre-listening and pre-reading activities to activate learners’ prior knowledge about the topic, to arouse learners’ curiosity in the material and to provide learners with reasonable support by pre-teaching some key vocabulary and careful selection of reading or listening texts exemplify a constructivist view of role of prior knowledge and real life experience to make learning new information possible. Similarly, the employment of higher level analysis, synthesis and evaluation questions in while- and post-reading or listening stages is consistent with a constructivist view of the role of challenge to promote higher order thinking. What is more, a process writing approach in CLT classes, the pair- and small group-work activities in CLT speaking or other skills lessons characterised by learners’ collaborative efforts are congruent with the tents of constructivism.

3.2.2. Constructivist framework for teacher education

It is often said that constructivism does not provide a methodology for teaching. However, teachers who view learning as a constructive process will shape their curriculum in order to challenge learners to actively build concepts and correct

misunderstandings (Regan and Osborn, 2002). Probably the best argument for a constructivist theory of learning is that it enables teachers to empower students to take control of their learning. Along this line, *Fosnot (1989:1) defines an empowered learner as one who is an autonomous, inquisitive thinker – one who questions, investigates, and reasons. An empowered teacher is a reflective decision maker who finds joy in learning and in investigating the teaching learning process - one who views learning as construction and teaching as a facilitating process to enhance and enrich development.*

Recognizing the inadequacy of knowledge transmission models of teacher preparation, educationalists have long been advocating a constructivist tradition which attempts to help student teachers deconstruct their own prior knowledge and attitudes, comprehend how these understandings evolved, explore the effects they have on actions and behaviour, and consider alternative conceptions and premises that may be more serviceable in teaching. Critical analysis and structured reflection on formal course knowledge and everyday practical experience are incorporated.

Fox (2001) observes that constructivism in its various forms now appears to dominate extant views of learning articulated in the educational literature and endorsed by teacher education programmes.

Many scholars argue for a reflective practitioners approach from constructivist perspectives in pre-service teacher education programmes. The main argument is that, as the world of professional practice is fast changing, professionals need to exercise and to continue to refine and develop not only simple skills, but their own dispositions, personalities, professionalism; abilities, capacities and understanding (Freeman, 1994; Fish, 1995; Korthagen and Kessels, 1999; Prawat, 1992; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Darling–Hammond 2006). According to this argument, many aspects of teaching a lesson cannot be pre-specified and professionals need to be able to think on their feet, to improvise, to respond to the uncharted and unpredictable problems. Furthermore, teaching is a moral and social practice requiring the ability to exercise moral decision-making and professional judgment. What is needed is an approach to teaching and to learning to teach which enables teachers to work at their practice, modify it and keep it under critical control (Eraut, 1994).

In this respect, educators must help, through a reflective practitioners approach, teachers theorize from practice and practice what they theorize (Kumaravadivelu, 2001; Richards, 2001). Pedagogic knowledge must emerge from the practice of every day teaching. It is the practicing teacher who is better placed to produce, understand and apply that kind of knowledge. Therefore, student teachers should be equipped with the knowledge, skill, attitude and authority necessary to become autonomous individuals.

In this paradigm, educators affirm that theory and practice are mutually informing and together constitute a dialectical praxis. Some believe the theory/practice divide is reflected in a useful distinction they make between 'professional theory' and 'informal theory' (Schon, 1987), formal theories and tacit knowledge (Shulman, 1987) or public and personal theories (Griffiths and Tann, 1992) as the practice of any teacher is the result of a private theory, whether this is explicit or not.

This is a well-established view in the current foreign or second language teacher education. For example, the informal or private theories are referred to as 'maxims' (Richards 1996) 'practical' theories (Sanders and McCutcheon, 1986; Richards, 2001) or 'subjective' theories (Grotjahn, 1991). Pennington (2001) suggests that teachers construct these maxims as an interaction of externally provided knowledge and classroom experience with personal characteristics. She then concludes that teaching must be recognized 'as a socially constructed activity that requires the interpretation and negotiation of meanings embedded within the context of the classroom through experiences in and with members of the teaching profession' (Johnson, 1996:24).

Korthagen and Kessels (1999) argue that the nature of the relationship between teacher cognition and teacher behaviour can offer a sound basis for a paradigmatic change in the pedagogy of teacher education in order to integrate theory and practice in such a way that it leads to integration within the teacher.

This implies that much of what teachers do in the classroom is the product of, or is accompanied by, some form of thinking (Calderhead, 1987; Clark and Peterson, 1986; Freeman, 2005). As a result, interest in teacher cognition, the nature of teacher knowledge and teachers' thought process, has constituted a major area of research in

general education since the mid-1970s and in FL teacher education since 1990s (Mullock, 2006).

Following the lead of their counterparts in the field of general education, teachers and scholars in the field of second language teaching have also begun to examine ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge and beliefs (Breen, 1991; Cumming, 1993; Freeman, Richards & Nunan, 1990; Woods, 1996). Here the focal issues includes the contents of and sources of ESL teachers' conception of the teaching task (e.g. Almarza, 1996), teachers' beliefs (e.g. Johnson, 1994; Woods, 1991), classroom decision making (e.g. Binnie-Smith, 1996; Johnson, 1992), and lesson planning strategies (e.g. Woods, 1996).

For example, Freeman (1994: 11) states that teaching is "more than simply putting knowledge into action; it is a fabric of interpretation." Pennington (2001) also asserts that teaching is not a closed body of information and skills, but a fuzzy set of content knowledge, working principles, and behaviours acquired top-down and bottom-up, deductively and inductively, by individual teachers.

Teacher education programmes in a constructivist framework inform teacher candidates about the importance of prior experiences and misconceptions while also having to deal with these candidates' own prior experiences and misconceptions about both teaching and content. Experiences that challenge student conceptions of schooling include provocative readings and discussion, simulations, and experiences in experimental schools that can give different vision of education. In their content studies, pre-service teachers' own misconceptions can also be challenged. Teacher education programmes to understand the preconceptions students bring to their classes can promote approaches that will challenge these preconceptions. Through both having their own conceptions challenged and learning about the prior knowledge of their students, teacher candidates will be better prepared to provide their students later on duty with content knowledge linked with student prior knowledge. Critical analysis and structured reflection on formal course knowledge and everyday practical experiences should be incorporated to challenge and support student teachers' prior beliefs and knowledge.

3.2.2.1. Prior Beliefs

As the goal of constructivism is to induce disequilibrium and cognitive conflict in the learner so that successful accommodation will occur (Piaget, 1977), constructivism seeks to change existing cognitive structures by allowing students to explore and discover new alternatives. The basic assumption is “the key constructivist idea that construction of new conceptions (learning) is possible only on the basis of already existing conceptions” (Duit, 1999: 275).

Constructivism stresses the importance of examining prior experiences and knowledge. Conceptual change is not only relevant to teaching in the content areas, but it is also applicable to the professional development of teachers. Even though existing knowledge (be it correct or incorrect) allows us to make our way through the world, we are not necessarily conscious of it. Thus, the first and most significant step in teaching in constructivist paradigm is to make students aware of their own ideas about the topic or phenomenon under study. Fixed beliefs often work against the epistemology of reflection, which stresses multiple viewpoints (Yost, et. al., 2000). To promote reflection, preservice teachers must have opportunities to understand how their beliefs measure against the philosophy of their teacher education programmes, so that cognitive change can occur.

The focus on beliefs follows considerable research into the importance that beliefs have in our personal and professional lives. Richardson (1996) defines beliefs as “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true.” Victori and Lockhart (1995) discuss differences between ‘insightful beliefs’ which successful learners hold, and the ‘negative or limited beliefs’ which poor learners hold.

Existing research suggests that learners’ beliefs have the potential to influence both their experiences and actions as learners, thus serving as a kind of strong perceptual filter (Anderson & Bird, 1995; Goodman, 1988; Nisbett & Ross, 1980; Pennington, 1996; Tillema, 1994; Weinstein, 1989, 1990; Zulich, Bean & Herrick, 1992; Holt-Reynolds, 1992, Puchga, 1990; Nespor, 1987; Schoenfeld, 1983). An individual's beliefs play an influential role in the appraisal and acceptance or rejection of new information and

memory processes such as the retrieval and reconstruction of an event. It is widely accepted that student teachers bring their professional education with well-established preconceptions and beliefs about teaching and learning.

In field of FL education, Brown and Mc Gannon (1998), Breen (1991) and Horwitz (1987) also assert foreign language learners often hold different beliefs on notions about language teaching, and that learner beliefs have the potential to influence both their experiences and actions as language learners. Stevick (1980) goes further asserting that success depends less on materials and techniques (and) more on what goes on inside (the learner). Kennedy (1987) hypothesizes that real and effective change in teaching practices can occur through a change in their beliefs and also adds that beliefs shape the way teachers behave.

In favour of this, Richards, Ho and Giblin (1996) proved in their study of five teachers doing an RSA Certificate course, which is built around a well articulated model of teaching, that the model was interpreted in different ways by individual trainee teachers as they deconstruct it in light of their teaching experiences and reconstruct it drawing on their own beliefs and assumptions about teachers, teaching and themselves. In similar vein, Almarza (1996) came up with the same conclusion in her study that the four language teachers at the end of the programme course left with different kinds of knowledge about the dynamics of teaching and learning languages, which they attributed to the variation in their pre-training knowledge.

The most significant pre-existing beliefs that trainees bring to courses are those formed during their schooling (Lortie, 1975). Student teachers arrive for their training courses having spent a great many hours (as schoolchildren) observing and evaluating what would be their chosen profession. He coined the term the "apprenticeship of observation" to describe this period of teacher watching which is likely to amount to thousands of hours. This apprenticeship, he argued, is largely responsible for many of the preconceptions that pre-service teacher trainees hold about teaching. Based on research conducted with language teachers, Freeman (1992: 3) notes that "the memories of instruction gained through their 'apprenticeship of observation' function as de facto guides for teachers as they approach what they do in the classroom".

Another major influence on the formation of beliefs and preconceptions about teaching and learning which pre-service teachers bring with them to their courses can be grouped under the heading "personal experience" which includes: informal learning experiences, including language learning (Almarza, 1996) and life experiences, such as raising children, previous work experience, and cultural, religious, and socio-economic upbringing (Feiman-Nemser & Buchman, 1986; Powell, 1992; Richardson, 1996).

3.2.2.2. Support and Challenge

For any practitioner, particularly beginning teachers, several criteria need to be met in order that naive belief systems are challenged. Firstly the professional must be dissatisfied with the beliefs in some way, secondly, a useful viable alternative needs to be presented and thirdly, the new set of beliefs must connect with earlier ideas about teaching (Prawat, 1992). Pre-service teacher education oriented to a constructivist tradition must provide the opportunity for such cognitive conflict to be set up and explored during training. It is only through such explicit reflection that student teachers will be able to develop the capacity to be responsive practitioners beyond pre-service teacher education and into professional training.

Several studies provide evidence that beliefs can be altered through a combination of constructivist practices, such as coursework directly related to field experiences, and discourse on practical experiences, readings, and class discussions (Beyer, 1991; Boyd, et. al., 1998; Tatto, 1998; Tran, Young, & DiLella, 1994; Yost, 1997; Yost, Forlenza-Bailey, & Shaw, 1999). By bringing preservice teacher trainees to acknowledge their beliefs, teacher educators can provide students with experiences that may produce cognitive change. The goal is to promote tension and uncertainty so that preservice teachers will focus on the multiple dimensions of a dilemma and subsequently choose from a wider assortment of options (Boyd et al., 1998; Nais, 1987; Phelan & McLaughlin, 1995).

According to Jones and Vesilind (1996) as long as learning is a self regulated process whereby learners construct knowledge through connecting new knowledge with prior knowledge and through organizing and reorganizing mental structures to accommodate new understandings, student teachers should typically experience conflicts between their

engendered by cognitive dissonance as essential to student teachers and says that “Without cognitive dissonance and the concomitant mitigation of pre-existing images, knowledge acquired during pre-service teacher education appears to be superficial & ephemeral.”

Russell, Mc Pherson, & Martin (2001) argue that even an extended practicum within a traditional program is not necessarily adequate unless the practicum situations are created that typically result in candidates being left to be aware of the pedagogical principles underlying effective classroom practice. Unless they are challenged to question their images and understanding of their role as classroom teacher, they fail to see past the actions of teaching to the pedagogical foundations that inform the ability to think like a teacher.

3.3. Acquisition of FL Teacher Pedagogical Knowledge

It is not sufficient for a teacher education program to be able to define an adequate knowledge base for teaching. A more important question is how student teachers can be helped through effective pedagogical practice to acquire the knowledge base (Zeichner, 1993).

Traditional pedagogical approaches to helping student teachers acquire the knowledge base for teaching are characterized by a transmission orientation. Various transmission models of instruction are still widely used in teacher education programmes around the world. A transmissive pedagogy, however, has been found to be problematic in several respects. First, it treats student teachers as *tabula rasa* and ignores the pre-existing knowledge, beliefs, and experiences that student teachers bring with them to a teacher education programme (Calderhead, 1991). Second, what transmission approaches aim at imparting to student teachers is invariably knowledge about “good teaching” generated by “experts” from outside schools (Schon, 1987) or the “generic principles of effective teaching” (Shulman, 1987). Such codified, decontextualised knowledge simplifies the complexity of teaching and gives rise to the theory/practice divide (Calderhead, 1991; Freeman & Johnson, 1998). Third, even when some value is granted to acquiring such knowledge, transmissive teaching forces students to stow away the transmitted

naïve ideas of teaching and learning and their experiences in practice. This conflict or sense of anomaly may be a perverse of cognitive growth.

Constructivist teaching is a model that emphasizes that learners need to be actively involved, to reflect on their learning and make inferences, and to experience cognitive conflict (Fosnot, 1989). Cognitive conflict has been used as the basis for developing a number of models and strategies for teaching for conceptual change. That is why it often proposed teaching strategy for conceptual change: revealing student preconceptions, discussing and evaluating preconceptions, creating conceptual conflict with those preconceptions and encouraging and guiding conceptual restructuring.

In the field of teacher education there is an increasing interest in the degree to which student teachers are challenged and supported in their learning during the school-based parts of their courses. The support and challenge student teachers receive from their mentors are believed to foster learning. Daloz (1986) conceptualizes how different amounts of support and challenge can combine to affect learning within a mentoring relationship by describing four different outcomes. When support is high but challenge is low, the learner will respond with feelings of confirmation but will not be prompted into further development. When support is low but challenge is high, the learner will retreat and withdraw from learning. When support and challenge are both low, the learner will face a standstill or stasis. When support and challenge are both high, the learner will grow and make progress.

Daloz (1986) describes support as an affirming activity. When a teacher supports a learner, the teacher lets the learner know that the learner is cared about. Daloz says the teacher attempts to bring her boundaries in congruence with those of the learner. However, when a teacher challenges a learner, the teacher might, for example, introduce ideas which contradict those of the learner to question the learner's tacit assumptions.

“The function of challenge’ in Daloz’s view (1986: 213) is ‘to open a gap between student and environment, a gap that creates tension in the student, calling for closure’. This definition of challenge as consisting in the revelation of a gap which calls for closure and thus triggering learning is found also in theories of the ways in which cognitive conflict stimulates learning. Kagan (1992: 147) regards the challenge

knowledge in an inert, static, isolated, and disjointed form which makes it difficult to apply in the real world (Dewey, 1966).

An alternative to transmissive teaching is constructivist pedagogy. In recent years, various constructivist approaches have been developed, implemented, and researched (e.g., Zeichner & Liston, 1987). Often these approaches advocate experience-based, student-centred, interactive, and inquiry-oriented instruction that stresses active discovery, reflectivity and cooperation. Typically, constructivist approaches aim at helping student teachers achieve some or all of the following:

- (a) constructing their own knowledge on the basis of mutual and teacher-provided scaffolding (Richardson, 1997);
- (b) building links between knowledge and practice through situated learning tasks;
- (c) integrating knowledge from different sources and drawing on collective expertise in group work, problem-solving tasks, and action research (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Zeichner & Liston, 1987);
- (d) overcoming the apprenticeship-of-observation (Lortie, 1975) effect by recognizing and making explicit student teachers' pre-existing beliefs, conceptions, experience, and knowledge in relation to new, challenging ideas and experience (Freeman & Johnson, 1998); and
- (e) developing autonomy, an inquiry stance, and reflectivity through self-regulating activities that encourage student teachers to self-determine their learning needs and to negotiate curricular contents (Zeichner & Liston, 1987).

Over the years, research has yielded strong evidence of the effectiveness of constructivist instruction in fostering knowledge growth.

A lecture-based pedagogical course might lead students to recognize these theories and to argue for or against them at some later point in time, but lecturing about such topics as student-centred learning and inquiry-based approaches seemed to be contradictory. To build the bridge between theory and practice, that is praxis, social constructivist theory suggests that learners need to be actively engaged if they are to learn effectively. Student teachers need an opportunity to do more than merely listen. In courses using social

constructivist approaches, instructors should provide students with opportunities for a variety of experiences and for interaction with other individuals, and instructors can create environments that support each learner's reconstruction of pedagogical knowledge. The re-design of university methods courses using a constructivist model becomes even more important if the methods to be taught differ from students' lived experiences. This seems to be the reason for the TESO project to recommend the inclusion of elements like active learning, student centred teaching, reflection, continuous assessment techniques in all courses to be offered.

Russell, McPherson and Martin, (2001) stress three critically important pedagogical cornerstones: coherence and integration, extensive well-supervised clinical experience and strong relationship with schools, on which powerful teacher education rests in addition to a deeper knowledge-base.

3.4. Reflection: a Means for FL Teacher Pedagogical Knowledge Growth

As the Ethiopian teacher education programme is oriented to a reflective practitioner philosophy, it is worth investigating what reflective teaching looks like in the literature. Reflection is theoretically grounded in the constructivist assumption that experiencing and introspection into the experience are complementary meaning-making processes (Yost, et. al. 2004). Reflection in teacher education programmes is a major means to examine one's own beliefs, values, and practices in light of new information. The end result of critical reflection in a constructivist paradigm for the individual is cognitive change. By bringing preservice teachers to acknowledge their beliefs, teacher educators can provide students with experiences that may produce cognitive change. The goal is to promote tension and uncertainty so that preservice teachers will focus on the multiple dimensions of a dilemma and subsequently choose from a wider assortment of options (Boyd et al., 1998; Nais, 1987; Phelan & McLaughlin, 1995).

Reflective thinking is not a new notion. It dates back to Dewey (1933), who considered reflection to be a special form of problem-solving thinking, an active and deliberative cognitive process, involving sequences of interconnected ideas that take account of underlying beliefs and knowledge (Hatton & Smith, 1995). Renewed interest in reflection came with Schon (1983, 1987) who developed his ideas about the reflective practitioner

in response to three criticisms: separation of means from ends (the outcome being more important), separation of research from practice (researchers not working with practitioners and practitioners not finding out about recent research) and separation of knowing from doing. According to Schon (1987:22) in his dominant epistemology of practice, “professional activity consists in instrumental problem solving made rigorous by the application of scientific theory and technique”.

In the literature of reflective teaching, it is possible to discover much variance in its definition. In the field of general education the definitions range from simply looking at the behavioural aspects of teaching, to the beliefs and knowledge underlying these acts of teaching, to the deeper social meaning the act of teaching has on the community. This variation might be attributed to the different conceptual orientations of teacher education programme. For example, Zeichner (1983) identified four areas of desired teacher reflection: academic, social efficiency, developmental and social reconstructionist traditions. Feiman-Nemser (1990) also describes five categories of teacher reflection representing five conceptual orientations: *academic*, *practical*, *personal*, and “*critical/social*” orientations.

John Dewey defined reflection as “an active, persistent and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusion to which it tends” (1933:9). Dewey (1933) contrasted reflective actions with routine actions as follows: the former involve willingness to engage in constant self appraisal and development which imply flexibility, rigorous analysis and social awareness whereas the latter are guided by factors such as traditions, habits, authority, and by institutional definitions and expectations, which imply relatively static and unresponsiveness to changing priorities and circumstances.

As defined by Schon (1996), reflective practice involves thoughtfully considering one's own experiences in applying knowledge to practice while being coached by professionals in the discipline. Woolfolk (2005: 5) describes reflective teaching as “thoughtful and inventive” with an emphasis on how teachers plan, solve problems, create instruction, and make decisions. Parsons and Stephenson (2005) also suggest that reflection is a process of dynamic action and learning that will enable students to develop their practice

in the light of their analysis and evaluation. Reflection does not simply involve deciding whether a lesson 'went well' or not but identifies reasons for success or failure. This identification of reasons should draw not just on past experience in the classroom but also on theoretical knowledge and understanding about children's learning and pedagogy. Reflection therefore combines 'experience with analysis of beliefs about those experiences' (Newell, 1996: 568).

Different scholars (e.g. Schön, 1987; Hatton and Smith, 1995; Van Manen, 1977; and Valli, 1997) outlined different types or levels of reflection.

Schön (1987) classified two types: **reflection-in-action**, which occurs when an individual experiences some form of surprise and then thinks about what he/she is engaged in during the activity; and **reflection-on-action**, which occurs when an individual reviews previous experiences and determines what led him/her to that point. Both forms of reflection involve demanding rational and moral processes in making reasoned judgements about preferable ways to act. Both require identifying and examining values, beliefs and emotions.

Van Manen (1977) distinguishes three levels of reflection: technical, practical, and critical. **Technical reflection** is centrally concerned with the efficient and effective application of educational knowledge for the purposes of attaining ends which are accepted as given (Zeichner & Liston, 1987). **Practical reflection** is what a reflective practitioner does: reflecting on the phenomena before him and on the prior understandings which have been implicit in his behaviour and carrying out an experiment which serves to generate both a new understanding of the phenomena and a change in the situation. Finally, **critical reflection** is active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends.

Hatton and Smith (1995) discuss four types of reflection: **descriptive writing**, referring to what novices do when they try to reflect on an experience or a teaching episode; **descriptive reflection**, referring to some attempts to provide reason/justification for events or actions but in a reportive or descriptive way; **dialogic reflection**, discourse with self and explaining the experience, events and actions using qualities of judgement and

possible alternative for explaining and hypothesising; and **critical reflection**, an awareness that actions and events are located in, explicable by and influence by multiple historical and socio-political contexts.

Valli (1997) also classified reflection into five types based on the content and quality. **Technical** reflection deals with general instruction and management based on research on teaching and its quality is assessed in terms of matching one's own performance to external guidelines. **Reflection-in and on-action** deals with one's own personal teaching performance and its expected quality is basing decision on one's own unique situation. **Deliberative reflection** consists of a whole range of teaching concerns, including students, the curriculum, instructional strategies, the rules and organization of the classroom and its quality is determined in terms of weighing competing viewpoints and research findings. **Personalistic reflection** deals with one's own personal growth and relationship with students and its quality is assessed in terms of listening to and trusting one's own inner voice and the voices of others. The content of **critical reflection** includes the social, moral and political dimensions of schooling and its quality is weighed by judging the goals and purposes of schooling in light of ethical criteria such as social justice and equality of opportunities.

This implies that critical reflection is the highest level of reflectivity and the acceptance of a particular ideology. The higher thought processes involve reflection on the assumptions underlying a decision or act and on the broader ethical, moral, political, and historical implications behind the decision or act. Yost, *et. al.*, (2000) say that a critically reflective teacher is one who makes teaching decisions on the basis of a conscious awareness and careful consideration of the assumptions on which the decisions are based, and the technical, educational, and ethical consequences of those decisions. This view of critical reflection in teaching also calls for consideration of moral and ethical problems (Adler, 1991; Gore and Zeichner, 1991; Van Manen, 1977) and it also involves "making judgments about whether professional activity is equitable, just and respectful of persons or not" (Hatton and Smith, 1995:35). Therefore, the wider socio-historical and political - cultural contexts can also be included in critical reflection (Zeichner and Liston, 1987; Schon, 1987).

Wallace (1991), based on the work of scholars in the field of general education, developed his reflective model, in which he showed the development of professional competencies through interaction between 'received' and 'experiential' knowledge for L2 teacher education. Wallace offers a visual model of reflective teaching, a key component of which is the reflective cycle, a term which Wallace explains as being "a shorthand way of referring to the continuing process of reflection on received knowledge and experiential knowledge in the context of professional action (practice)" (1991: 56). Received knowledge is that body of information and skills which the profession recognizes and promotes as valuable, whereas experiential knowledge is the often tacit understanding of teaching and learning which teachers develop through their own experiences.

However, in the field of foreign /second language teacher education, reflection and critical reflection seem to be used rather loosely and interchangeably. If we take a careful look at the following definitions of (critical) reflection, all of them do not take the broad aspect of society into consideration. Dong, (1998) observes that reflection on social and political context of schooling in language teacher education is often provided in a limited and artificial fashion in teacher preparation programme.

Writing in the area of language education, Pennington states that "the term reflective teaching has come to signify a movement in teacher education, in which student teachers or working teachers analyze their own practice and its underlying basis, and then consider alternative means for achieving their ends..." (1992: 48). She continues, "The use of the term reflection in the context of instruction can be interpreted in the sense of (1) thoughtful consideration, as well as in the sense of (2) mirroring, symbolizing or representing".

Reflection or critical reflection refers to an activity or process in which an experience is recalled, considered and evaluated, usually in relation to a broader purpose. It is a response to a past experience and involves conscious recall and examination of the experience as a basis for evaluation and decision making and as a source for planning and action (Richards, 1991). Farrell (2003) also says reflection in teaching refers to teachers subjecting their own beliefs and practice of teaching to a critical analysis.

Richards & Lockhart (1994: 1) state that a reflective approach to teaching is "one in which teachers and student teachers collect data about teaching, examine their attitudes, beliefs, assumptions and teaching practices, and use the information obtained as a basis for critical reflection about teaching." Because such reflection involves a critical component, reflective teaching can serve as a means of contributing to one's professional development. Writing on a similar theme, Nunan and Lamb (1996: 120) state that "reflecting on one's teaching, and, in the process, developing knowledge and theories of teaching, is an essential component" in the lifelong process of professional growth. They add that reflective teachers "are capable of monitoring, critiquing and defending their actions in planning, implementing and evaluating language programs".

Nevertheless, Bartlett (1990: 204) sees a need to include the broader society in any definition of critical reflection. He says that in order for teachers to become critically reflective, they have to "transcend the technologies of teaching and think beyond the need to improve our instructional techniques". He sees critical reflection as "locating teaching in its broader social and cultural context."

The dominant theme in recent teacher education literature is the preparation of reflective teachers. To emphasise the importance of reflection in teacher education, Zeichner and Tabachnick (1991) note that there is not a single teacher educator who would say that he/she is not concerned about preparing reflective teachers. Different scholars have written about the importance of reflection both in preservice teacher education and in in-service professional development programmes.

- to develop capacities fundamental to competent professional practice in problematic, complex world of practice (Elliot, 1991)
- vital to intelligent practice, as opposed to routine practice (Richert, 1990)
- to facilitate the linking of theory and practice and connect experience and theoretical knowledge in order to use each area of expertise more effectively (Calderhead, 1988)
- to reconcile inconsistencies between beliefs and practices (Thompson, 1984)

- to help teachers challenge their assumptions about why they do and help themselves identify weaknesses (Yvonne, 2002)
- to transform teachers' assumptions and to apply knowledge to fit a new paradigm or reconstruct meaning in a given situation (Copeland, et.al., 1993)
- to make teachers care about teaching, and become aware of the values they have incorporated during their socialization into the profession (Korthagen, 1993)
- to help teachers, experiencing dissonance in their daily professional practice, to frame their understanding of the world in new ways and potentially to change their professional actions (McBride and Skau, 1995)

Thus, reflection is one means of investigating practice and of theorizing about it. Basically it involves systematic, critical and creative thinking about action with the intention of understanding its roots and processes and thus being in a position to refine, improve or change future actions. Arguably also, it unearths issues that are the very centre of understanding and refining practice.

This appears to be the reason why Schön (1987) Schulman (1998) called for teacher educators to help their learners make this tacit knowledge explicit through reflection upon practical experience and theoretical understanding. It is believed that the reasons for our decisions and actions as teachers are within us, but it is difficult to articulate how we know what we do when we teach, which Schulman (1998) refers to as 'tacit knowledge'. Richards (1990) also argues that without reflection, teaching is guided by impulse, intuition or routine and subsequently kept within the realm of tacit knowledge. Our informal theories have little likelihood of developing into "good practice" if they are not critically examined and tested. If we reflect critically, we can begin to formulate propositions from our own personal, informal theories which then become public and testable, we can then begin to advance both our practical and theoretical knowledge, taking into account the important interplay between what is happening in practice and what sense is being made of our practice by others.

3.5. Psycho-Pedagogical Strategies to Promote Reflection in Student Teacher

In order to investigate the EFL teacher education programme practices (tasks and roles), the researcher finds it important to surf the literature in a constructivist paradigm to show what strategies are kept in place to help student teachers become competent reflective practitioners. Given the importance attached to the development of reflective skills, a range of teaching tools for this purpose has emerged in the literature. In order to stimulate student teachers to think, react, discuss and discover their own position, and ultimately the emergence of cognitive dissonance or disequilibrium and attitude change; different psycho-pedagogical strategies within the philosophy of reflective teaching should be used. There are many successful techniques for employing reflection in pre-service teacher education programmes. A wide variety of approaches has been employed in attempts to foster reflection in student teachers and other intending professionals. Along the line of the new Ethiopian EFL teacher education programmes as postulated by the TESO document, the following three broad strategies have been major focal points in reviewing the teacher education literature:

1. Supervised practicum experiences
2. Portfolio compiling and journal writing
3. Action research projects

It is claimed these activities allow students to find their voice (Freidus, 1997) and foster reflection by deliberately making explicit their own thoughts and actions. The effectiveness of such techniques may depend very much on prior structuring.

3.5.1. Extended Supervised Practicum

It is quite important to investigate the literature on how to organize practicum sessions in teacher education programmes in a constructivist fashion as long as the TESO project aims at extended practicum experiences in EFL teacher education programme to foster reflectivity in student teachers.

Practicum is a major opportunity for the student teacher to acquire practical skills and knowledge needed to function as an effective language teacher (Richards and Crookes, 1988). The pre-service teachers value their practicum experiences in schools and

classrooms because of their opportunities to gain the necessary skills as a professional (Sutherland, Scanlon and Sperring, 2005). Yarrow (1992: 2) reports that students in pre-service courses commonly regard the practicum component as the most important part of their course. They maintain that from the practicum they gain the most useful knowledge to assist them when they begin working in the "real world". Several studies have explored the varying degrees to which FL education coursework and field experiences influence teacher pedagogical knowledge. This research has demonstrated a link between coursework, field experiences, and the ability of pre-service teachers to use professional terms and theoretical models to analyze and discuss student learning (Golombek, 1998; Johnson, 1996; Numrich, 1996).

Richards and Crookes (1988) say the objectives for a practicum course reflect how the nature of teaching is viewed as well as how teacher development is thought to occur. This means they reflect the approach or philosophy implicit in the programme. In essence, there appear to be two somewhat different views regarding the purpose of the practicum within a curriculum. One, the more common or 'traditional' view, is evident in this statement about the practicum in teacher education made by Price:

While it is difficult to provide a universally acceptable synthesis statement of purposes, there is considerable agreement that the major purpose of the practicum is to link theory with practice by providing regular structured and supervised opportunities for student teachers to apply and test knowledge, skills and attitudes, developed largely in campus-based studies, to the real world of the school and the school community. (Price, 1987: 109)

Authors such as Price view the practicum as an opportunity to apply theoretical knowledge previously gained in campus-based activities. On the other hand, Schon (1990) argues that the role of the practicum is to raise problems and issues which are used to trigger the investigation of related theory and knowledge. Schon's idea of a reflective practicum is radically different to the notion of practicum in a transmission model. In the literature, it reverses the traditional relationship between theory and practice, making professional practice the core organiser of the curriculum. Some programmes, influenced by Schon, place constructions of professional practice at the core of the curriculum; and use these as the integrating factor to bring together the theoretical and practical components of a course.

An alternative approach is that of Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985) who question what it is that turns experience into learning and enables learners to gain the maximum benefit from the situations in which they find themselves. The factor that they identify as crucial is the opportunity to reflect on or to examine experience in the light of the individual's current knowledge and understanding. Many of the programmes now build in this requirement for reflection and critical analysis.

Although field-based programs are viewed as having great potential, attention is needed to ensure that they are indeed high quality learning experiences where participants are exposed to desirable and exemplary practices.

In an argument for revision of the teacher education practicum, it is suggested that a practicum curriculum should incorporate the following key features:

- a strong inter-relationship between the ideas about teaching espoused by the teacher education program and the experiences of student teachers in schools (Russell, Mcpherson, and Martin, 2001, Goodlad, 1988);
- an increased amount of time that students are engaged in planned experiences under supervision (Darling-Hammond, 2000a; Cochran-Smith, 1992;);
- an increased interest in cooperating teachers' role to engage student teachers in planned experiences under their close supervision (Boud, Keogh and Walker, 1985).

The student teachers' practicum experiences need to be reshaped in such a way that they require the participants' roles to be redefined in constructivist perspectives, which demand for strong school-university partnership or collaboration.

3.5.1.1. School-University Partnership

The inadequacy of theory-practice models of teacher education (Goodlad, 1990) and the increased adoption of reflective practice approaches to teacher education (Schon, 1987) concentrate attention on the work of schools in pre-service teacher education. Recent research into how student teachers learn to teach has increasingly emphasized the need for student teachers to recognize previously constructed images and beliefs about teaching and examine the impact of these history-based personal beliefs on their professional development (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Cole & Knowles, 1993; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Johnson, 1993).

Today, schools and teacher education settings are being drawn more closely together. Roles and responsibilities are being merged and restructured in clearly articulated endeavours to reject the former artificial separation and to replace it with genuine collaboration between the school and tertiary teacher educators. This reshaping has produced an environment designed, to link what students learn about teaching from their field-based school experiences with what they learn from their university experiences through mutually-constructed learning communities resulting in opportunities that are both different from and richer than the opportunities either the school or the university can provide alone. In this conception, the goal of teacher educators is more than teaching students how to teach. It is teaching them how to continue learning in diverse school contexts by prolonging and intensifying the influences of university and school experiences, both of which are viewed as ‘potentially liberalising’ (Cochran-Smith, 1992: 109)

Collaboration is proposed as a way to “increase quality, bridge the gap between theory and practice, and improve communication between universities and schools” (Johnston, 1990: 173).

Goodlad (1988) and the Holmes Group (1986) advocated for a newly defined school-university partnership that would bring about “simultaneous renewal” of both schools and universities. The literature today is filled with accounts of professional development schools and the importance they may have to improvement of schools and teacher education (Darling-Hammond, 1999, 2000; Teitel, 1997; Lieberman & Miller, 1990; Miller et al., 2000; Johnston, 2000; Goodlad, 1994).

Arguing from a constructivist point of view that meaning is constructed in a flexible way by negotiation and collaboration with others to show multiple perspectives, Maloy (1985) discusses the notion that school and university social interactions are based on multiple realities and not necessarily mutual perspectives. He contends that when planning collaborative efforts, these multiple realities need to be planned for and understood. These “unrecognized cross purposes” (1985: 349) will arise during school-university partnerships and their collaborative projects.

Teachers form their identity in the social context of schooling and in the ways those contexts enable and overpower meaning (Bullough, 1997). From this perspective, Britzman (1991), explaining that teachers bring to their work with others a multiplicity of identities they use to create meaning to situations as a result of their work, confirms that these multiple social interactions occur within an effort to collaborate. Based on this, Britzman (1991: 33) argues that collaborative efforts within teacher education should begin with a “recognition that multiple realities, voices, and discourses conjoin and clash in the process of coming to know”.

Research conducted on the interplay of FL education courses and field experiences supports the potential of collaborative approaches to enhance knowledge construction, exploration, and understanding about teaching and learning (Bailey et al., 1996; Knezevic & Scholl, 1996; Nyikos & Hashimoto, 1997; Pennington, 1996).

Strong partnership between schools and university is believed to impact pre-service teacher education programmes in some or all of the following ways:

- contextualising of pedagogical learning which allows student-teachers to involve themselves more fully in the life of the school, to observe learner development over time, to share long-term curriculum planning, and to experience the rhythm of the school year, in addition to opportunity for planning, teaching, observation, discussion and reflection
- a more balanced input into the process as a result of the increased opportunity for the establishment of personal and professional relationships between student-teachers, teachers and lecturers
- to facilitate communication between teachers and lecturers- who were, in theory, to work together for a common goal: to provide a programme shaped to meet the specific needs of the groups of student-teachers
- the provision of structured seminars for teachers and lecturers (Bennett *et al.*, 1994; Gaffey, 1994; Moore, 1994; Thornley & Wasley, 1995) which enable them to share ‘perceptions, beliefs, and practices’ and form the basis of collaborative reflection.

The literature also reveals the challenges in such school-university collaboration. Recently, writers have attempted to address the challenges in collaboration. Much of the work revealed the confusion and uncertainty of the situation. Though many articles and texts, for example, commenced with opening paragraphs welcoming the long-overdue opportunity for improved school/tertiary relationships, they concluded with a litany of barriers to genuine partnership. Smedley (2001) divided the concerns that emerged into four categories: organization, division of labour, time constraints and apprenticeship orientation.

3.5.1.2. Participants and their Roles

In such improved school- university partnerships, the main participants (teacher educators and student teachers) are expected to assume their newly redefined roles as advisors to help student teachers benefit a lot from their school-based experiences. The ultimate goal in the advisory process in teacher education programmes is to create in student teachers the ability to be self evaluative and autonomous (Randall & Thornton, 2001). In order to attain this goal, participants need to assume new roles in the programme during practicum placements in pre-service teacher education programmes.

According to Schon (1987: 37), the role of the coach or advisor is to structure the learning of the student by deciding which areas they should work on (emphasizing intermediate zones of practice) and to guide the teacher in to a critical dialogue concerning their current practice. From this point of view, the coach is essential in providing the student teacher with the framework to examine the teaching experience, and from that framework to provide explicit targets for the next experience. In support of this, Randall and Thornton (2001: 41) have the following to say: “In addition to the process of individual target-setting within a teaching practice setting, we also need to consider the role of the advisor in setting the framework for independent teacher development.”

A further role for advisor within the reflective practitioner movement is to help teachers articulate and refine their views of the teaching process and their own learning. The advisor has also to play a role to help the teacher in training to externalize mental process (the values and beliefs held by teachers) and the processes they use to make sense of

teaching, i.e. in teacher cognition (Calderhead, 1987; Breen, 1991; Burns 1996; Woods 1996). The advisee is promoted to ‘uncover’ incidents which are important, ‘reflect’ on these incidents and to discover new meanings for these incidents and then ‘prepare’ to put the learning from experience and reflection back in to new experience. (Randall 2001: 120).

3.5.1.2.1. Cooperating Teachers

The involvement of cooperating teachers in such new programmes provides excellent opportunities for the development of teaching skills and reflective understanding, both within subjects and more generally. This is the essential rationale for establishing a relationship between a trainee and an experienced teacher. Edwards and Collision (1996) argue for their partnership as follows:

We recognize a constant and creative interaction between learners and contexts. The meanings of teaching and learning are constantly created, negotiated and tested by those who are acting and learning in those contexts. (Edwards and Collision, 1996: 7)

Cooperating teachers play a critical role in the preparation of the student teachers in their care (Lane, Lacefield-Parachini, and Isken, 2003; Beck and Kosnik, 2002; Hamilton and Riley, 1999; Mason 1997; Young 1996).

To maximize the benefits for all participants, agreement about roles and relationships is obviously crucial. Different scholars tried to study the typology of help that cooperating teachers and mentors render to practicing student teachers and novice teachers.

Sampson and Yeoman’s (1994) identified three different dimensions of their role: **structural** – working across the school as planner, organizer, negotiate or, inductor for the student placement, **supportive** – working with the student as host, friend and counsellor, and **professional** - working with the student as trainer, educator and assessor further emphasis on providing analysis of performance, both generally and in relation to particular subjects and in offering both advice and challenge.

Randall and Thornton (2001) classify the role of mentors into **technical/assessment** roles which include coaching the teacher in classroom-based skills, informing the teacher of wider curriculum issues, helping in goal formation and clarification and evaluating classroom performance and **personal/ development** roles which include motivating the

teacher, confidence boosting, counselling –listening to problems: helping to reduce feelings of anxiety, helping the teacher settle in to the school and problem-solving.

Student teaching is a key event in the lives of future educators; it can make or break their success in their own classrooms. The selection of qualified cooperating teachers with whom these students will work is accordingly imperative.

Drawing on the work of different researchers, it is possible to postulate the necessary conditions for effective and efficient contribution.

1. Trust and communication between student teachers and cooperating teachers (Stanulus and Russell, 2000; Graham, 1997 and 1999; Lane, Lacefield-Parachini, and Isken ,2003)
2. Sufficient knowledge base (Beck and Kosnik, 2002; Koerner, Rust, and Baumgartner, 2002; Osunde, 1996)
3. A good degree of cooperation between cooperating teachers and university supervisors (Hawkey, 1998)
4. A clear and shared vision (Hargreaves, 1994).

3.5.1.2.2. University Supervisors

One of the major practicum supervision problems lies in supervisors' traditionally embedded model of supervision in which supervisors tend to use a decontextualised checklist approach to classroom observation. In such a model, a supervisor arranges classroom visits and observes teachers' behaviour to rate behaviours on a standard scale of measure. Hargreaves (1994) and Schon (1983) criticise this approach as an attempt to reduce teaching to a technical act that can be measured by a set of prescribed criteria. Along with the change of conceptions of teaching, different models of supervision have been proposed and come into effect. In the field of second or foreign language teaching, Freeman (1982) outlined three approaches to teacher supervision: 1) the supervisory approach (with the supervisory as an authority figure), 2) the alternatives approach (with the supervisor as a provider of alternative perspectives) and 3) the non-directive approach (with the supervisor as "understander"). Later, Gebhard (1984) expanded this idea into five models: directive, alternative, collaborative, non-directive and creative supervision.



As long as teacher education programmes have adopted reflective practitioner approach, it has become mandatory to incorporate the models of supervision that are based on the idea that teachers should be guided through a process of learning, reflection and exploration to become more aware of their beliefs and behaviours. Schon (1987) proposes reflective supervision, which he likens it with the use of a lens or personal framework to view a newly encountered situation. According to Schon, a supervisor may help a student teacher with a dilemma through an alternative lens, by asking questions, avoiding judgements and guiding the supervisee through a process of inquiry. In this respect, the supervisor's major roles will be 1) to help the supervisee make sense of learning and teaching issues, 2) to engage in discourse about the teacher's way of thinking about the issues, and 3) to accomplish the first two tasks in a way that minimises threat to the supervisee. Within this shift from technical to reflective approaches, descriptions of the supervisors shift from an 'expert' or 'evaluator' to a 'facilitator'. In this way, Gebhard and Oprandy (1999) view supervision as one of the activities that can lead to a deeper awareness of teaching not only for the teacher but also for the supervisor. Recognising the need for both to be more comfortable talking about teaching, Gebhard and Oprandy (1999) proposed an exploratory approach which calls for a less supervisor-dominated pattern of communication in the conversations and for the need for the teacher to assume more responsibilities for the entire process and the nature of the discussion. The supervisor-student teacher relationship which is built during mentoring and during lesson conferences is important and dynamic. The practicum supervisor has to take into consideration student teachers' perceptions, feelings, and justifications. To put these ideas into practice, the supervision process is expected to involve three basic steps: the *planning* or *pre-teaching conference*, a meeting between the supervisor and the supervisee about the focus of the forthcoming classroom visit; the classroom *observation*, during which the supervisor observes a lesson systematically and non-judgementally, collecting data related to the objectives agreed upon; and the *feedback* or *post-teaching conference*, during which the supervisor meets with the teacher to analyse the data collected during the classroom observation. The data in their basic form should provide a mirror-like reflection of classroom reflection of the classroom activities in order that the teachers can see their actual practices and reflect upon their underlying beliefs.

3.5.2. Teaching Portfolio

Teaching portfolios have recently received increasing attention as tools to promote reflection among both experienced and novice teachers. A portfolio is an organized collection of documents that represent student teachers' preparation for teaching. The documents they select for their portfolio illustrate their unique personal and professional growth, a portrait of their abilities and skills. Theoretical support for portfolios as reflective tools is strong. Proponents claim portfolios provide an opportunity and a structure for teachers to document and describe their teaching; articulate their professional knowledge; and reflect on what, how, and why they teach (e.g., Loughran & Corrigan, 1995; Wolf et al., 1995; Zubizarreta, 1994; Antonek, McCormick and Donato, 1997).

In their article, Antonek, *et. al.*,(1997), arguing that student teachers' portfolios are a viable, effective and appropriate tool in documenting teacher growth and development and promoting reflective thoughtful practice, discuss the theoretical bases of portfolios in social constructivist paradigm in terms of three important constructs of Vygotskian theory: mediation, history and consciousness.

In the literature, we can see a variety of ways in which portfolios assist teachers. First, they allow teachers to select and document activities and behaviour in their classrooms. Empirical supports for these claims are numerous, to mention but a few:

- to encourage beginning teachers to gather in one place significant artefacts representing their professional development (Antonek, et al, 1997; Hurst et al, 1998).
- to hold the potential to describe teachers' work "whole and in context" (Bird, 1990: 249).
- to help student teachers to remember classroom events more fully and accurately, and focused their reflections on content and contents specific aspects of their teaching (Richert, 1990)
- to create a need for student teachers to systematically examine their practice and create a meaningful context in which to link the university and its research-based

knowledge with the classroom and its practical demands (Lichtenstein, Rubin, & Grant, 1992).

Second, teacher portfolios are a tool for developing decision-making skills. Teachers refine and adjust instruction based on the contents of their portfolios provide for responsive instruction. Hurst et al, (1998) argue that student teachers must reflect on which teaching practices worked well and why, when they decide which materials to include. According to Wolf (1991), portfolios provide a connection to the contexts and personal histories of real teaching and make it possible to document the unfolding of both teaching and learning over time. The portfolio is anchored in practice; thus they reflect the changes that occur over time in the teaching experience. Wilcox (1996: 172) asserts that portfolios hold the potential to "enhance [teacher's] learning and improve thinking"

Third, portfolios provide an alternative form of assessment, in part because they offer evidence of the preserves teacher's development as a professional (Loughran & Corrigan, 1995; Wolf, 1994; Darling-Hammond and Snyder, 2000).

In the context of a foreign language teacher education programme, we can analyse the portfolio for the theme of target language use. This analysis can reveal issues related to the target language use (e.g. student teachers language proficiency and their use of the target language in the classroom). The portfolios can be used as a forum for reacting to their abilities to conduct English language classes in the target language. If student teachers are promoted to audio tape or video tape their classes, their reflection on target language use would be the result of mediation from a source outside the student teacher themselves. (Source)

3.5.2.1. Learning Journal/ Diaries

One of the three types of portfolio Tallima and Smith (2000) distinguish is a reflective portfolio, which contains both a course-related account of learning performance and a personal learning diary, representing the student's goals and achievement.

A student journal may be defined as "a learning exercise in which students express in writing their understanding of, reflections on, response to or analysis of an event, experience or concept" (Ballantyne and Packer, 1995) Teacher educators can most effectively coach student teachers in reflective practice by using students' personal

histories, dialogue journals, and small and large-group discussions about their experiences to help students reflect upon and improve their practices.

Student journals are used extensively in university contexts as a means of facilitating reflection, deepening personal understanding and stimulating critical thinking (Ballantyne & Packer, 1995). This is particularly so in the field of teacher education, where reflection has come to be widely recognised as a crucial element in the professional growth of teachers (Calderhead and Gates, 1993) and as a means of stimulating reflective learning (Yinger & Clark, 1981; Walker, 1985; Thornbury, 1991; LaBoskey, 1993; Hatton and Smith, 1995).

LaBoskey (1993) provides a useful conceptual framework for understanding the nature of reflection in preservice teacher education which can also be applied to guide research and practice in the use of reflective tools such as journal writing. Her framework incorporates four dimensions or aspects of the act of reflection: purpose, context, procedure and content.

3.5.2.2. Peer Reflective Groups

Inherent in the process of building a student-teacher portfolio is the social nature of its construction. Though it is written by an individual student teacher, its contents are derived from the individual's interaction with other pre-service teachers, university personnel, administrators, and cooperating instructors and learners in the schools. Therefore, portfolio allows the student teacher to join multiple perspectives in a cohesive and coherent document.

The literature suggests that the opportunity to share reflections with a partner, group or supervisor maybe an important factor in supporting a high level of reflection in journal writing. Hatton and Smith (1995) found that a higher proportion of dialogic (as opposed to descriptive) reflection was achieved when students based their writing on interactions with critical friends. This, corroborated by students' perceptions, led Hatton and Smith to conclude that discussion with another person is a powerful strategy for fostering reflective action. Hatton and Smith infer that this occurs through processes of modelling and coaching (Pugach, 1990). Further evidence is provided by Francis (1995) who suggests, on the basis of extensive work with journal writing, that students perceive

individual reflection to be enhanced by group and paired collaboration. Her interpretation is that articulating to others helps to shape and clarify ideas. Data gathered by Ballantyne and Packer (1995) indicate that students perceive one of the main weaknesses of journaling to be its essentially solitary nature. They conclude that this weakness may be overcome, and the reflective nature of journaling enhanced, by sharing and discussing journal entries with peers or supervisors. Despite this strong 'circumstantial' evidence, the actual effects of supportive dialogue on the process and outcomes of reflective journal writing have not been systematically tested.

3.5.3. Action research

Reflective practice has also been defined in terms of action research. In the literature, action research, a term first used by Kurt Lewin (1948), refers to research on immediate practical problems with a goal of improving practice as different scholars define it.

Elliott (1991: 69) provided a working definition, “as the study of a social situation with a view to improving the quality of action within it. It aims to feed practical judgment in concrete situations”. Similarly, Hopkin (1993: 224) defined action research as research “in which teachers look critically at their own classrooms primarily for the purpose of improving their teaching and the quality of life in their classrooms”. From this perspective, Altrichter, Posch and Somekh (1993) also argue that action research is intended to support teachers, and groups of teachers, in coping with the challenges and problems of practice and carrying out through innovations in a reflective way.

The literature also confirms that action research is research on immediate practical problems with a goal of not only improving practice but also contributing to knowledge and theory. The latter goal of introducing action research into teacher education and teacher development programmes has its theoretical basis in the new paradigm that values the practitioners’ or “insiders” knowledge as important as that of researchers’ or “outsiders”. Researchers have long argued that traditional research paradigms that view teachers as objects of study—rather than viable creators of their own research—are ‘exclusionary and disenfranchising’ (Cochran Smith and Lytle, 1993: 42). Elliott, (1991) stresses that classroom teachers are in a unique position to provide specific information about their own classroom contexts and practices and they can contribute invaluable

research insights into the 'goings on' in classrooms from their perspectives as 'insiders' in their own classrooms. Furthermore, Burns (1999), Altrichter, Posch and Somekh (1993) and Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1999) argue that teacher research has the potential to transform educational practice in significant ways by making important scholarly contributions to the knowledge base in education. Altrichter, Posch and Somekh (1993) confirmed that teachers do not restrict their work to adopting a set of practical routines, but act as professionals precisely in developing new theories about their practice, including a critique of its educational and social context.

In this way, action research has become a standard concept in teacher education programmes. Woodward (1991) traces the "teacher-as-researcher" denotation back to its 1967 origin which aimed at enabling teachers to become more effective. Since then, terms like *teacher research*, *classroom research*, and *action research* have been pervasive in language learning literature.

In general action research in most teacher education programme is based on four key assumptions (Carr and Kemmis, 1986; Elliott, 1991; Altrichter *et al.*, 1993; Dadds, 1995; Sachs, 1999):

- Action research is geared to teachers' own practice and the situation in which they are practising.
- In action research teachers engage in reflection based on information they have systematically gathered themselves.
- Action research is carried out through dialogue with colleagues within and outside the school.
- In action research students (or other target groups of teachers) are an important source of information.

Ponte *et al.* (2004), emphasising the interactive nature of the development of knowledge through action research, discuss three forms of interaction involved: (1) interaction between theoretical and practical knowledge; (2) interaction between the application and development of professional knowledge; and (3) interaction between individual and collective knowledge.

First, the development of knowledge through action research can be said to be interactive because teachers are expected to continually link knowledge gained from their own

practice to general academic knowledge or theory. Interaction between practical and theoretical knowledge comes about when teachers develop insight into the 'complexity, artistry and demandingness' (Clark, 1988, p. 11) of their practice and, based on that, make a judgement on what situations they can use specific knowledge in, how they can use or extend that knowledge and to what purpose. This idea fits in with a growing understanding that teachers can contribute not only to improving teaching in the school but also to the knowledge base of the profession as a whole. Central to this is the idea that teaching is an intellectual and practical activity in ongoing and cumulative need of refinement, development and growth of teachers' professional knowledge. This means that teachers' practice—as Schon (1983) argued—does not consist solely of problem situations that can be resolved by the mechanical application of rules. Education typically involves constantly changing situations, in which teachers have to take well-thought-out decisions on what is the best course of action in a particular situation.

Second, the development of knowledge through action research can be said to be interactive because teachers are expected to continually make a connection between the application and the development of knowledge. The interaction between the development and use of professional knowledge is a cyclical process that teachers take responsibility for themselves: they apply knowledge and based on that application they develop new knowledge, which they then apply again, and so on. This fits in with Kemmis and McTaggart's (1982) four-step model of the action research spiralling cycle: planning, action, and observing and reflecting.

Third, the development of knowledge through action research can be said to be interactive because teachers are expected to continually make a connection between individual and collective development of knowledge. Teachers are seen as leaders, not only with regard to their teaching in their classroom, but also with regard to the whole school policy. Initiating dialogue with colleagues and using a model for how to communicate effectively when reflecting on improving teaching performance benefits all participants. One inexpensive and effective way to do this is by collaborating with colleagues and observing each other's classes to reflect on teaching. Hargreaves (2000) indicates that part of the "Age of the Collegial Professional" is that:

The role of the teacher has expanded to embrace consultation, collaborative planning and other kinds of joint work with colleagues. In a world of accelerating educational reform, this kind of working together can help teachers to pool resources, and to make shared sense of and develop collective responses towards intensified and capricious demands on their practice. (p. 162).

Though action research is seen as a strategy for continuing professional development in teacher development programmes, it is argued that student teachers should be prepared during programmes of pre-service teacher education: For example, Smylie *et al.* (1999) contend that the role of pre-service teacher education is to prepare teachers for a good start and for later learning. Moreover Rudduck (1992: 164) said on this:

'If students are not introduced to the excitement and power of action research during the period of initial teacher education they may not turn voluntarily and readily to such a way of learning later in their career. The likelihood of teachers opting to learn from the thoughtful and critical study of their own practice is greater if such activity has been legitimized during initial education'.

While being assisted in conducting research on their own practice, student teachers reflect on what they are doing and what is going on in their classroom in order to engage in some direct action to improve the conditions of learning. In due course, they use problem-solving strategies. They are often helped in defining and redefining problems they want to address. After determining what kinds of information would help them understand their problems better and how to collect that information, they are expected to generate various ideas for changing the situation, decide what actions to undertake, justify those actions according to sound criteria, and evaluate their act.

Ponte *et al.* (2004) state that the complexity of implementing action research in teacher education is connected with the need to embed action research in the total infrastructure of the education programme. They argue that action research needs to be embedded in the objectives, course content, procedures and organization. The need for embedding should also be applied to the schools with which the institutes collaborate.

Ponte *et al.* (2004), criticizing inserting action research as a separate module into a curriculum based on traditional assumptions, contend that embedding in the total infrastructure requires the development of a shared culture which, in turn, requires: (1) continuity in the teaching team and in the management team; (2) communication between management, educators, researchers, students and mentors about individual and collective

insights relating to reflective, research-oriented practice as part of the course; and (3) commitment on the part of educators and managers in the institutes and the schools.

Contributions in the literature emphasise that the desired interaction between the application and development of professional knowledge can only be achieved when school experiences are built into the programme from the start of the course. They also emphasize that good coordination is necessary between the discourses or reflections during the university-based courses and what can be tried out in school placements and visa versa. These propositions are in keeping with a growing belief, 'that field experiences that have been long-standing components of teacher education programmes be linked more tightly to the college or university components' (Griffin, 1999: 18).

It is this framework that the researcher used to develop the data gathering instrument (the questionnaire), to interpret both the quantitative and qualitative data analysis results, by comparing and contrasting the ongoing EFL teacher education programme with the international experiences.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

This chapter attempts to discuss the methodology of the study, in which the two types methods applied for the study are illustrated by explaining the sample size and sampling techniques, data gathering tools, instrument development procedure, data collection procedure and data analysis method for each quantitative and qualitative part of the study.

This evaluation study focuses on the implementation of the new EFL teacher education programme, which tries to investigate the programme process as defined in the conceptual framework of the study.

Though the quantitative approach traditionally has dominated evaluation efforts in logical positivist (Guba and Lincoln, 2000) positivist-quantitative paradigm (Reeves, 1997) or classical viewpoint (Cervero and Wilson, 1994), the qualitative approach recently has gained popularity in the constructivist-interpretive-qualitative (Guba and Lincoln, 2000) and critical theory-postmodern paradigm (Reeves, 1997).

This evaluation study mixes both quantitative and qualitative approaches which Guba and Lincoln (2000) term 'pragmatic' or Reeves (1997) terms 'eclectic-mixed methods-pragmatic paradigm,' as many others (e.g. Lynch, 1996; Patton, 2002; Cresswell, 2003; Mertens, 2006) argue that a combination of methodologies is most effective.

This mixed method approach has been chosen for this study for three major reasons.

1. As one purpose of the study is to produce a general picture of the new EFL teacher education programme implementation in the country, the quantitative part of the study has been designed to survey the actual practices and the participants' perceptions of the implementation process in six universities. Therefore, the survey includes a cross-sectional study using questionnaires for data collection with the intent of generalizing from a sample to a population.
2. In an attempt to understand study outcomes in programme evaluation, quantitative methods are insufficient to explain why the programme is or is not successful. However, the pragmatics associated with the qualitative method emphasise that it

adds depth to quantitative study (Mertens, 2006) and that the use of mixed methods can provide breadth and depth to give a more complete picture of the phenomena under study (Patton, 2002). This encourages the researcher to use it. The qualitative method is expected to offer explanations about the programme operation as outlined in the conceptual framework.

3. Under real world conditions where programmes are subject to change and redirection, naturalistic inquiry replaces the fixed treatment/outcome emphasis of the controlled experiment with a dynamic, process orientation (Slyton and Llosa, 2005). As a dynamic evaluation focuses on the actual operation process, the evaluator sets out to understand and document the day-to-day realities of the settings under study, making no attempt to manipulate, control, or eliminate situational variables or programme development, but accepting the complexity of a changing programme reality.

To do so, the mixed method has been preferred. The data of the evaluation include whatever emerged as important to understanding the setting in addition to the designed framework of analysis. Therefore, this mixed method approach follows a transformative procedure (Creswell, 2003) in which the researcher uses a theoretical lens (borrowed from a pragmatic paradigm) as an overarching perspective with a design that contains both qualitative and quantitative data. This lens provides a framework for methods of data collection. Within this lens is the data collection method that involves a sequential approach (Creswell, 2003) in which the researcher seeks to elaborate or expand the findings of the quantitative method with the qualitative method. Thus the study began with a quantitative method in which the application of theories or concepts was investigated, to be followed by a qualitative method involving detailed qualitative, open-ended interviews and document analysis to collect detailed views from participants and programme activities within a selected programme as a case.

Therefore, this implementation evaluation involved different sizes and techniques of sampling and different data sources and data collection instruments for the quantitative and the qualitative part as discussed in the following sub-sections.

4. 1. QUANTITATIVE METHOD USED

As one purpose of the study is to produce a general picture of programme implementation, the quantitative part of the study is designed to survey actual practices and the student teachers', teacher educators' and cooperating teachers' perceptions of the implementation process of the new EFL teacher education programme at B.Ed. level in six universities that embrace EFL teacher education programmes in the country. This study has employed a cross-sectional survey that is used to gather information on a population at a single point in time.

4.2.1. Population and Sampling

Three groups of subjects were involved in this study; namely, student teachers, instructors, and cooperating teachers. In order to choose a sample, the researcher had to obtain and evaluate carefully lists of people from which a sample can be drawn (called a sampling frame) from English Departments of the six universities to ensure that they are correct and complete. The information gathered for this purpose showed the size of population of graduating EFL student teachers and EFL teacher educators on duty in 2007 as follows.

Table 4-1: Population of the Survey Study

Institution	Student population	Instructor population
Addis Abeba University	156	21
Bahir Dar University	165	36
Debu University	112	20
Haramaya University	78	23
Jimma University	97	28
Mekelle University	65	24
Total	673	142

Toward the goal of being able to predict accurately the thoughts of the two groups of people, as it sometimes makes sense to attempt to survey the entire population of interest for reasons of fairness to allow every individual the opportunity to respond, as is the case with student course evaluations if the population is small, this survey tried to include fifty percent of the two populations as sample groups, depending on the assumption that every increase in sample size would increase accuracy and that "sampling error" can be reduced by obtaining a sample of sufficient size.

Simple random sampling was employed to ensure that every member of a chosen population had an equal chance of being included in the sample. This was accomplished by selecting every other person on the list after randomly choosing the odd number on the list of the population a starting point.

Table 4-2: The Target Samples of the Survey Study

Institution	Student Teachers	Teacher Educators	Cooperating Teachers	Total
Addis Abeba	78	11	12	101
Bahir Dar	83	18	12	113
Dilla	56	10	12	78
Haramaya	39	12	12	63
Jimma	49	14	12	75
Mekelle	33	12	12	57
Total	338	77	72	487

However, the departments did not have clear information about the actual sizes of cooperating teachers working in different high schools. It was the practicum coordinators who gathered the information about the number of classes and schoolteachers before placing student teachers for their field-based experiences. Therefore, having found out that there were no clearly identified differences between urban and rural-based cooperating teachers in terms of training, selection and remuneration, the researcher decided to employ an available sampling technique to include seventy-two cooperating teachers as a sample from high schools in the six towns where the universities are located. So from each town, the researcher tried to meet twelve cooperating teachers who were working in nearby thirteen partner high schools in which the samples of student teachers had been placed for practicum courses.

Though the researcher attempted to meet the above target samples, the number of respondents whose responses were analysed was 385. The details of respondents have been summarized in Table 4-3.

Table 4-3: Actual Size of Respondents

Institution	Student Teachers		Teacher Educators		Cooperating Teachers	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Addis Abeba University	34	12.8	7	12.7	11	17.7
Bahir Dar University	74	27.9	12	21.8	12	19.4
Dilla University	51	19.2	8	14.5	8	12.9
Haramaya University	36	13.6	8	14.5	10	16.1
Jimma University	41	15.5	11	20.0	11	17.7
Mekelle University	29	10.9	9	16.4	10	16.1
Total	265	100.0	55	100.0	62	100.0

4. 1.2. Questionnaire as a Data Gathering Instrument

For this part of the study, quantitative data were collected through questionnaires to generate the necessary information to answer the major and the minor research questions. The main data gathering instrument for this part of the study was written questionnaires. The reasons were the following. First, as the study involved large sample sizes and large geographic areas, written questionnaires were cost effective to gather more comprehensive data from the respondents as compared to face-to-face interviews. Second, they are easy to analyze as data entry and tabulation for nearly all surveys can be easily done with many computer software packages. Third, they are familiar to most people because nearly everyone has had some experience completing questionnaires and they generally do not make people apprehensive. Fourth, they reduce bias as there is uniform question presentation and no middle-man bias, and the researcher's own opinions would not influence the respondents to answer questions in a certain manner.

As there were three groups of respondents in the survey, three sets of questionnaires which had four parts in line with the conceptual framework of the study were developed. The first set was administered to the student teachers (Group 1); the second set, to the teacher educators (Group 2); and the third set, to the cooperating teachers (Group 3). Their details have been summarized in Table 4-4, 4-5 and 4-6.

Table 4-4: Information about Part I and II of the Questionnaire

Part	Respondent Group	No. of Items
I. Beliefs about basic assumptions	1, 2 & 3	10
II. Beliefs about goals of the programme	1, 2 & 3	7

The first part of the three sets of questionnaire consisted of ten items which were constructed to assess the respondents' awareness of the basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying constructivist pedagogy. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of seven items to investigate the respondents' awareness of the goals of the ongoing EFL teacher education programme they were involved. In both parts, the items were close-ended requiring respondents to rate on a five-point scale, ranging from 5 (*Strongly Agree*) to 1 (*Strongly Disagree*). The response categories for the items were developed in order to facilitate the process of coding and analysis. The

"Neither Agree nor Disagree" option allows respondents to state that they have no opinion or have not thought about a particular issue.

The third part of the three sets of the questionnaire aimed at investigating the nature of tasks and activities in the practical courses of the EFL teacher education programme.

Table 4-5: Information about Part III of the Questionnaire

Part III	Subpart	Respondent Group	No. of Items
Perceptions of tasks and activities	A. Practicum context	1, 2 & 3	11
	B. University supervisor' support and advising style	1 & 2	9
	C. Cooperating teachers' support and advising style	1 & 3	9
	D. Portfolio compiling experience	1, 2 & 3	8
	E. Action Research	1, 2 & 3	7

As shown in Table 4: 4, this part had five sub-parts to deal with tasks and activities in the practicum courses:

- a) *Practicum support system* (11 items to rate the frequency of support system in a five point scale ranging from "Always" to "Never") to examine the frequency of the availability of the support system to help student teachers benefit a lot from their practicum experiences
- b) *University supervisor' support and advising style* (9 items referring to the type of discussions between practicing student-teachers and university supervisors) to measure the extent to which the teacher educators' supervisory style during the post- or pre-teaching conferences
- c) *Cooperating teachers support and advising style* (9 items referring to the type of discussions between practicing student-teachers and cooperating teachers during practicum sessions) to measure the extent to which the cooperating teachers' supervisory style during the post- or pre-teaching conferences
- d) *Portfolio compiling experience* (7 items dealing with the nature of portfolios that student-teachers were supposed to do during practicum sessions) to measure how useful student teachers' portfolios compiling experiences were
- e) *Action research experience* (8 items dealing with the nature of action research that student teachers were supposed to do during practicum sessions) to measure how useful student teachers' action research experiences were.

All these sub-parts, with the exception of the first one (a) which had five-point scale items, involved nine-point scale items (ranging from 1 ‘*Not Useful At All*’ to 9 ‘*Very Useful*’) as shown in the sample below.

Please rate how useful those **Portfolio Compiling Experiences** have been to student teachers in terms of opportunities to the following:

		Not useful at all	Very Useful
A	To refine their reflective capacity	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

The response categories for these items were developed for two major reasons. Firstly, since the purpose of the items was to make respondents rate the usefulness and relevance of an activity of the programme, it was necessary to avoid the position of neutrality in their responses which would produce meaningless data for analysis. Most survey research suggests that the "don't know" option should not be included in factual questions. Secondly, it would be more advisable to provide a wider range of response options to make more precise evaluation of the content of the programme.

The final part of the questionnaires aimed at investigating the roles of university supervisors and cooperating teachers during school placement of student teachers along scaffolded instruction as envisioned by constructivism. This part, too, included close-ended items in a nine-point scale.

Table 4-6: Information about Part II of the Questionnaire

Part IV	Subpart	Respondent Group	No. of Items
Perceptions of Roles in practicum	A. Supervisors’ Roles	1 & 2	10
	B. Cooperating teachers’ roles	1 & 3	10
	C. Cooperating teachers’ collegial roles	3	7

This part of the student teachers’ questionnaire had two sub-parts, each consisting of ten similar items: the first referring to the roles of university supervisors and the other to cooperating teachers. This part of the teacher educators’ questionnaire consisted of ten items referring to their roles as supervisors in practicum sessions, whereas that of the cooperating teachers’ questionnaire consisted of seventeen items ten of which referred to their professional roles and seven of which were about their collegial roles as a cooperating teacher in practicum sessions.

4.1.3. Instrument Development

The questionnaire as a data gathering instrument was developed from the review of literature. The development and refinement of the questionnaire items began with having the questionnaire items commented on by my advisors and my colleagues. This step helped to improve the items in many respects. Initially, the comments were useful to rephrase some of the items so that they could be easily understood by the respondents. They were also helpful in reducing the number of the items by avoiding numerous redundancies. The total number of items included in the questionnaire for student teachers, for example, reduced to 79 from 102.

The comments also reminded the researcher of using appropriate rating scales for different parts of the questionnaire. Accordingly, the five-point Likert scale remained unchanged for the first two parts of the questionnaire because the items were intended to measure the respondents' beliefs about basic assumptions or theoretical basis underlying a constructivist pedagogy and beliefs about the goal of the new EFL teacher education programme, in which case the respondents could take a neutral position. However, a nine-point rating scale was applied for the last three parts of the questionnaire, in which the respondents were supposed to rate the absence or the degree of presence of the stated traits, opportunities or qualities in evaluating the content, tasks or activities and roles of participants in the programme. This was done for two major reasons. Firstly, since the purpose of the items was to make respondents rate the usefulness and relevance of and degree of availability of opportunities for their development as competent and reflective language teachers, it was necessary to avoid the position of neutrality in their responses which would produce meaningless data for analysis. Secondly, according to semantic differentiation, it would be more advisable to provide a wide range of response options to make more precise evaluation of the content and process of the programme.

Afterwards, an attempt was made to improve the validity of the instrument by getting the questionnaire rated by ten judges, colleagues in Pedagogical Science and English Department before a pilot study was conducted to check the reliability of the questionnaire. Towards this end, one prototype questionnaire was prepared to be rated by giving necessary information about the items in each group. This information included what the items in each group were set for, how they were to be responded and who would

respond to them. The judges were requested to rate each item on a three-point scale (1= Good, 0= Not Sure, and -1 = Bad) and to write any comments when necessary in the space provided against each item. In response to the request, all of the ten colleagues rated the items and some wrote useful comments on some of the items they rated “Bad” or “Not Sure”.

The results were tabulated on a spreadsheet and fed into a computer. The data was then statistically analysed using Cronbach alpha coefficient of SPSS 12.0 software to see the internal consistency of the rating, which determines the reliability of the instrument. The results of the analysis have been presented in the following table.

Table 4-6: Inter-raters’ Reliability Result

Group of Items	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Beliefs about Constructivist Pedagogy	10	.766
Beliefs about Goals of the EFL Teacher Education Programme	7	.771
Tasks and Practical Activities	35	.794
Roles of Supervisors and Cooperating Teachers in Practicum	17	.841

All the observed alphas in the tests of internal consistency of participants’ responses, being greater than 0.76 according to Shaw and Right’s (1967) suggestion, indicate that the instruments have an acceptable degree of reliability.

Then a pilot study was conducted to check the reliability of the instrument, i.e., the questionnaire for the quantitative part of the study, to identify items that could be difficult for respondents to understand or that could have vague meanings for respondents and to check the appropriateness of the rating scales before the administration of the questionnaire in the main study. See the procedure and the results in Chapter V.

4.1.4. Data Collection Procedure

First of all, the student-teacher questionnaire was administered some time towards the end of Practicum IV because the subjects, having gone through all practicum and theoretical courses, were believed to be able to give complete information about the whole programme. Relying on the cooperation of course instructors in allowing their class time, the researcher himself, in some places accompanied by data collecting assistants, made the student teacher respondents fill in the questionnaire under his

supervision to give any necessary help and to secure high return rate of the questionnaires. But the second and third questionnaires were given out to the 77 teacher educators and 72 cooperating teachers as they were expected to have no difficulties in understanding the items and to assume a lot of responsibility for returning the filled-out questionnaire.

4.1.5. Data Analysis Methods

Different quantitative data analysis techniques were employed to analyse the collected data. The information obtained through the questionnaire was tabulated and quantitatively analysed using inferential statistics.

As each part of the three sets of the questionnaire, being a multi-item scale which consists of a cluster of differently worded items focusing on the same target, the participants' responses to each cluster of closed-ended items had to be analysed to determine the internal consistency of the obtained responses to the multi-item scale. For this purpose, the researcher used Cronbach Alpha to see how consistently the respondents responded to these items and to make sure the dependability of the data for making further analyses and drawing a conclusion. The SPSS 12.0 software analysed the reliability of the data in the method mentioned.

As a multi-item scale whose underlying assumption is that any idiosyncratic interpretation of an item would be averaged out during the summation of the item scores, the grand mean would enable us to judge the degree or level of beliefs or perceptions of the respondents about a given issue. Towards this end, the means of the scale for the responses to each item were calculated and the grand mean for the group of the items was found by summing each item mean in the scale and averaging them to obtain a complete score that could range from 1.00 to 5.00 for the five-point scale items or that could range from 1.00 to 9.00 for the nine-point scale items. These statistical procedures were applied to analyse the data gathered through each part of the questionnaires. To discuss levels of awareness and perceptions of the participants, means and standard deviations were applied. To compare the observed means, inferential statistical methods, particularly one-sample t-test (in cases of comparing each observed mean with expected mean value), paired samples t-test (in cases of two means for one same group), independent samples t-

test (in cases of two means for two different groups), and F-tests (in cases of three group means) with Scheffe post-hoc multiple comparisons where it was necessary tell clearly which group mean(s) was/were significantly different.

4.2. QUALITATIVE METHODS USED

Qualitative methods have been used in this evaluation study because they tell the programme story by capturing and communicating the participants' stories as Patton (2002) stresses that evaluation case studies have all the elements of a good story because they tell what happened when, to whom, and with what consequences. The primary purpose of the use of the qualitative methods for this study was to gather information and generate findings that are *useful* to illuminate the processes and implementation problems of the programme.

As qualitative methods pose the questions of how and why a programme is or is not implemented in a proper way and not simply whether a programme is running in the intended way (Patton, 2002), the qualitative methods were an essential part of this programme evaluation study to determine and understand the effectiveness of the implementation of the programme.

The qualitative part involved multiple data sources and data gathering instruments to produce a wealth of detailed data from a much smaller number of people and cases.

4.2.1. Site of the Study

As one of the strengths of qualitative analysis is looking at programme units holistically, the qualitative part involved selection of one case programme. Bahir Dar University was selected as a representative case for two major reasons. The first reason is its difference in its organizational settings. Bahir Dar University, which has been upgraded from a Teachers' College, is believed to have had a strong tradition in teacher education programme in the country since 1973. It is also a university where Department of Pedagogical Sciences exists in the country and where M.Ed. degrees in science, language and general education are offered.

The second reason is that the researcher's easy access to detailed information about the programme, as Merriam (1988) says, the researcher's presence within the case

programme and interaction between the researcher and participants would make the qualitative study have the potential to reveal rich contextual findings of a personal, social and pedagogical nature which cannot easily be obtained by other methods.

This selection of one university teacher education programme as a representative case, which Stenhouse (1981:5) refers to '*as a return to close observation*', in order to study a programme of EFL teacher education was believed to enable the researcher to use multiple data sources, collect adequate amounts of data with a range of typical examples over time (Stenhouse, 1981; Merriam, 1988; Johnson, 1993).

4.2.2. Participants and Sampling

As qualitative inquiry typically focuses in-depth on relatively small purposefully selected samples, even single cases (N=1), because of its logic and power in selecting information rich cases (Patton, 2002), the selection of the subjects for this part of study was based on a purposive sampling technique on the basis of their placement in the three partner secondary schools (Tana Haik, Ghion, and Fasilo Secondary School) in the town of Bahir Dar. Among student teacher respondents of the questionnaire in Bahir Dar University, eight student teachers who were placed to these three schools for Practicum IV were first selected. Then their respective eight supervisors from the university and six cooperating teachers from the three schools were identified in order to gather people's views on similar situation. However, one of the selected student teachers later disappeared during the focus group discussion and was not willing to hand in his documents.

Moreover, in order for the researcher to gather additional information about the process of the practicum courses, the faculty practicum co-coordinator, whose responsibility included facilitating school placement, preparing different formats, organizing a training for school coordinators, was involved in this part of the study because the English Department did not have a practicum programme coordinator of its own when the data was collected for this study.

4.2.3. Instruments

As most scholars (e.g. Stenhouse, 1981; Merriam, 1988; Alderson and Scott, 1992; Johnson, 1993; Lynch, 1996; Patton; 2002) recommend, the qualitative methods to collect information about the programme from multiple perspectives include three kinds

of data gathering instruments: (1) in-depth, open-ended interviews; (2) non-participant observations; and (3) document analyses.

4.2.3.1. Interview

For the purpose of triangulation and gathering in-depth information, two types of interview were conducted.

A. Focus Group Discussions

Focus group discussions (FGDs), in essence, are group interviews that rely, not on a question-and-answer format of interviews, but on the interaction within the group (Krueger and Casey, 2000). This reliance on interaction between participants is designed to elicit more of the participants' point of view than would be evidenced in more researcher-dominated interviewing.

Using focus group discussions as a research strategy was found appropriate because the researcher was interested in how individuals form a perspective of a problem. The focus group interaction allows the exhibition of a struggle for understanding how others interpret key terms and their agreements or disagreements with the issues raised. FGDs have been preferred to gain the advantage that the participants can question and clarify each other's responses so as to have a more balanced portrait of the programme evaluated. The challenges to extreme statements/ exaggerated opinions by peers and the clarifications to such extreme statements/ exaggerated opinions in this type of interview, as Lynch (1996) suggests, are expected to provide a rich and dynamic set of interview data for the study. They could provide evidence of ways that differences are resolved and consensus is built.

There were three different focus group discussions. Seven student teachers participated in the first FGD, which took an hour and a half. Eight English language teacher educators participated in the second one, which lasted for two hours. In the third FGD, which lasted for an hour and a quarter, six cooperating teachers with whom those seven selected student teachers had been working during their practicum experiences in Tana Haik Secondary School took part.

B. Individual Interview

An unstructured format of interview was used to gather information from the practicum coordinator at faculty level. This format has been preferred to allow the researcher to seek clarification and elaboration of the interviewee's comments and responses instead of attempting to identify or confirm some facts, and this is assumed to have maximized the amount and quality of relevant information for the study.

4.2.3.2. Observation

A series of six passive observations were conducted during practicum conferences between the interviewed student teachers and educators to see how well the proposed reflective model is implemented in the practicum courses. The data obtained in these observations are believed to be helpful in crosschecking the information gathered through the interviews.

Another series of six passive observations were supposed to be conducted during practicum conferences between the interviewed student teachers and cooperating teachers to see how well the proposed reflective model was implemented in the practicum courses. However, there were no pre- or post-teaching conferences between these groups, so these were not done.

4.2.3.3. Document Reviews

Different documents were investigated to see the implementation of the change in the programme.

4.2.3.3.1. Sample Portfolios

Seven portfolios compiled by the seven student teachers were reviewed to see what they were doing in light of the assumptions and goals of the ongoing programme.

4.2.3.3.2. Practicum Evaluation Checklist

With regard to the practicum course evaluation, the practicum evaluation checklist applied for Practicum IV was collected and analysed in light of the assumption and goals of the programme.

4.2.3.3.3. Cooperating Teachers' Report

Though the cooperating teachers were supposed to write reports on the performance of the practising student teachers and to send to the department, the researcher found the reports written by the school coordinators, not by the respective cooperating teachers. So seven reports, written by the three school coordinators in the three partner schools, about the same seven student teachers' performance were collected and their contents investigated in light of the proposed features of the paradigm shift in the TESO document and in the literature review.

4.2.3.3.4. Sample Action Research Reports

Similarly, action research reports written by the seven student teachers were reviewed to see what they were doing in light of the assumptions and goals of the ongoing programme.

4.2.4. Data Collection Procedure

Initially, the observations in the selected practicum conferences were video-recorded. Prior to entering the field, I decided that as much information as possible should be gathered about each classroom in the context of different course instructions and student teacher – university supervisor post-teaching conferences. Instead of using checklists, the researcher turned to videotaping the whole conferences in order to have a holistic feeling of the whole activities and behaviours and to overcome the limitations of checklists and summaries and then selecting the useful data later in the analysis stages. This allowed the researcher to have sufficient information to quantify those items that would be captured in a checklist and to provide the details of student teacher – university supervisor conferences that would be essential to understanding the activities and roles of participants in the conferences as well as the types of discussion.

A briefing session was conducted to orient a facilitator for focus group discussions. While the facilitator chaired the discussions, the researcher had to take notes of the discussion and acted as a catalyst to probe the observed views during the discussion.

Secondly, as the researcher tried to benefit from multiple sources of data, the seven selected student teachers were interviewed in a group and the discussion was video-

recorded. Similarly, a set of eight instructors from English Department participated in a focus group discussion that lasted for about two hours and the discussion was video-recorded. The focus group discussion of the six cooperating teachers from the three partner secondary schools was audio taped.

In the meantime, for critical review, the researcher collected the following programme documents: Practicum IV evaluation checklist, seven school teachers' reports, seven student teachers' portfolios for Practicum IV and seven student teachers' action research reports.

4.2.5. Challenges to Data Collection

Both the requirement to involve multiple data sources in order to validate the findings and the desire to incorporate rich narrative data created significant challenges to the overall management of the evaluation in all its stages, particularly qualitative data collection. The major difficulty confronted in incorporating qualitative data into this evaluation study was related to executing the data collection. In terms of data collection, challenges included guaranteeing confidentiality and anonymity.

The researcher was presented with a series of obstacles to begin to observe their post-teaching conferences. Many of the instructors would have preferred to exclude their feedback sessions from being observed probably because of their fear that the report would affect them in some way. A lot of efforts had to be made to persuade them to allow the researcher to video-record the conferences. In the informal conversations with most instructors in the department, the researcher informed them that the sole purpose was to observe programme implementation and not to evaluate a particular teacher and explicitly explained that he would not use the participants' names when reporting findings. Despite all this, they often felt uncomfortable by his presence in their classrooms. Had it not been for the fact that the researcher has good rapport with the department staff as a member, it would not have been possible to capture so much data from the teacher educators through the FGD and video-taping the post-teaching conferences.

4.2.6. Data Analysis Methods

As qualitative data analysis process is systematic and comprehensive, and occurs throughout the data collection process (Tesch, 1990), there was no test of statistical significance unlike quantitative data analysis to tell that the data analysis is at an end.

The qualitative data analysis had to focus on a number of separate but related sets of data. Because guiding research questions were formulated at the beginning of the process for the quantitative part of the study, the general approach to qualitative data analysis was mainly deductive analysis (Patton, 2002) as the data were classified and reduced using category system developed in the conceptual framework of the study. Then the classified data was interpreted and conclusions drawn. To do so, different steps were followed.

1. The data were organized to check for their completeness and quality and to systematize them. The first step in the data analysis procedure was transcribing and reading and re-reading all the data. To be able to analyze the tremendous amount of data collected, the researcher created a research team and hired two graduate students to work closely with him on transcribing data. Each member of the team was responsible for transcribing the data. Members of the team exchanged their work and checked the data for completeness.
2. The second step was giving codes and dividing the data into smaller and meaningful units. By doing so, it was made possible to sort and sift through the data drawn from an individual interview, focus group discussions, observations and programme document reviews to identify similar relationships between the themes already pre-specified in the quantitative part of the study.
3. As the basis for guiding the quality of analysis in a qualitative study rests on corroboration to be sure the research findings reflect people's perceptions (Tesch, 1990), the third step was triangulation which required the convergence of multiple data sources from a variety of participants and a variety of conditions. As I moved forward through the coding process, the researcher organized the data segments in a system and gave the work out to two colleagues to examine the data in order to verify the presence or absence of a given theme or category and to ensure consistency in the process.

4. The next main step in the analysis process was comparison to refine categories and define conceptual similarities and discover patterns.
5. Then, elaboration of a small set of generalisations that covered the consistencies discerned in the database was done. Finally, examination of the generalisations in light of the constructivist theories of learning was made. At the end, the results of the analysis became some type of higher-order synthesis in a form of descriptive pictures.

CHAPTER V

PILOT STUDY

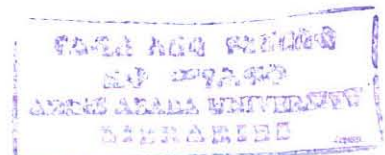
This short chapter of the study reports the pilot study procedure and findings of the quantitative part of the study, which was conducted after having the questionnaire commented by advisors and friends to further check its dependability and to identify potential problems by administering it to small groups of respondents who were later excluded from the main study.

This pilot study was conducted for various specific purposes. The first was to identify items that could be difficult for respondents to understand or that could have vague meanings for respondents. The second reason was to know how much time the questionnaire would require the student teachers to complete so that a strategy could be designed as to how to administer it for the main study. The third one was to check how appropriate the rating scales were before the administration of the questionnaire in the main study. The fourth reason was to check the reliability of the instrument, i.e., the questionnaire for the quantitative part of the study. The fifth reason was to try out the data analysis methods mentioned in the methodology section of the study and to see if there might be unforeseen trends which could be incorporated in main study, particularly in the qualitative part of the study.

This pilot study was conducted in Bahir Dar University and in two of its partner high schools (Tana Haik Secondary School and Ghion Secondary School). The people involved in this pilot study were 43 third-year English major students-teachers, 15 instructors in English Department in Bahir Dar University and 15 English language teachers who work as cooperating teachers in Tana Haik and Ghion Secondary School.

Among 165 third-year English major student teachers in four sections from the English department, 45 students from one section were chosen as subjects for the pilot study.

By making arrangements with instructors in the department, suitable time was fixed to meet the student teachers in their class time. The group met in the English language laboratory. The questionnaire was given out to 43 student teachers with the assistance of the lab technician and one course instructor. The subjects were told to fill in the



questionnaire as carefully as possible and to ask for clarification about any vague items they might not easily understand. The items for which the respondents sought help or clarification were carefully recorded in order for possible modification to be made for the main study.

During this process, the first two of the purposes of the pilot study were achieved. As the subjects were told to ask for clarification about any vague items they might not easily understand, some student teachers reported difficulties in giving response to items referring to theoretically assumed practices which they had never seen in the programme, for example, compiling teaching portfolios and having dialogues with cooperating teachers. Some of the respondents also had difficulty in understanding the instructions given to different subgroups of items.

Fearing that the amount of time required for student teachers to respond to such a large number of items in the questionnaire would affect the quality of data to be collected, the researcher made an attempt to know how much time the questionnaire would require the student teachers to complete. It took the fastest respondents about 45 minutes and slowest ones an hour, but the great majority used between 50-55 minutes to complete and return the questionnaire.

Drawing on these experiences, the researcher decided that it would be safer to do two things for the main study. The first one was, beyond rephrasing the items for which the respondents were seeking help or clarification, including a prelude item to check whether or not the respondents have that type experience before responding to the group of items and to tell them to respond to them only if they confirmed they did. Therefore, the following items were included for revising the questionnaires.

Have you compiled portfolios to reflect on your practicum experiences?

① Yes ② No

*If your answer to the above item is **Yes**, please rate how useful the **Portfolio Compiling Experiences** have been to you in terms of the following opportunities.*

Have you conducted action research in the programme? ① Yes ② No

If your answer to the above item is Yes, please rate how useful this Action Research Experience has been to you in terms of the following opportunities.

The second thing was planning how to administer the questionnaire for student teachers. Given that the number of items were large enough to create boredom and that the student teacher respondents' proficiency in English is doubted by their instructors, the researcher decided to rely on the cooperation of their course instructors to allow him their class time so that the student teachers would fill out the questionnaire under his supervision to give any necessary help and to secure high return rate of the questionnaires.

In order to achieve the third objective of the pilot study, the researcher had to take a look at the tabulated data just before detailed analysis of the data. Thus, after collecting the data for the pilot study, the researcher tabulated the data on a spreadsheet to feed it on the computer. Just before the main data analysis, a preliminary analysis was made to see how much each point on the nine-point scale was scored in order to decide whether the rating scales were appropriate. The analysis proved that all the points on the scale were rated in varying frequency counts for almost all items except a few that tended to confirm complete agreement on the absence or presence of a given feature. For example, items referring to inclusion of personal philosophy of teaching and daily journals in student teachers' portfolios, video-recording student teachers' teaching for later discussion and cooperating teachers' meeting with the university supervisor and student teachers for three-way conferences were rated 1 on the scale by almost all respondents with very few exceptions who rated them 2 or 3. So, the responses shown on the data table proved the usability of each point on the nine-point scale for most of the items. This indirectly shows the rating scale is doing its job.

After administering the questionnaire to the student teachers, instructors and cooperating teachers, the results were analysed to examine the reliability of the questionnaire. Among various statistical methods for checking reliability of instrument, a method of internal consistency was applied because this method is often preferred to be used with one administration of an instrument, unlike coefficient of stability (*test-retest*) or alternate form coefficient (*parallel forms*). Moreover, this method was preferred because the

questionnaires were designed for the study to measure particular attributes such as respondents' awareness of basic assumptions underlying constructivist pedagogy, their awareness of the goals of the new EFL teacher education program, their perceptions of the content of the programme and perceptions of tasks and activities as well as perceptions of the roles of participants, which are expected to manifest a high degree of internal consistency in the subjects' responses. The internal consistency of the responses of each independent group was calculated for each of the four parts of the questionnaires.

The responses, given by 43 student-teachers, 15 instructors and 15 cooperating teachers to those 10 items in their respective first part of the questionnaires constructed to assess the respondents' beliefs about the basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying constructivist pedagogy, were statistically analysed, using Cronbach coefficient alpha. The results of the analysis have presented in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1: Reliability Test for Part I of the Questionnaire (Beliefs about Basic Assumptions underlying Constructivist Pedagogy)

Respondents	N	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Student teachers	43	10	.573
Instructors	15	10	.606
Cooperating Teachers	15	10	.651

As reliability coefficients range between 0 and 1, 0 indicating unreliability and 1 perfect reliability, the above observed Cronbach alphas, being smaller than 0.75, as Shaw and Right (1967) suggested, did not indicate a good degree of internal consistency of the information gathered through the instrument, though it is possible to argue that the observed coefficient alphas can be affected by the nature of the items in this part, i.e., referring to respondents' beliefs about the assumptions underlying constructivist pedagogy, which are likely to vary according to the respondents' conceptualisations of the attributes.

However, this has suggested using another strategy in handling the main study data. As this type of reliability test offers an opportunity for data cleaning through identifying items with weak inter-item correlation coefficients in the scale, the main study data involved item analysis and avoiding items reported to have weak correlation coefficients.

The responses, given by 43 student teachers to the 7 items in the second part of the questionnaire for the three groups of respondents to measure the respondents' beliefs

about the goals of the new EFL teacher education program, were analysed using the same statistical package. The results of the analysis have been presented in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2: Reliability Test for Part II of the Questionnaire (Beliefs about Goals of the EFL Teacher Education Programme)

Respondents	N	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Student teachers	43	7	.683
Instructors	15	7	.692
Cooperating Teachers	15	7	.667

Here also the items in this part for the three groups of respondents deal with their beliefs about the goals of the programme, which may not be so explicitly observable as the actual practices of the programme. Due to this fact, some variations are likely to occur in their responses, which can affect the degree of the coefficients to be observed. Nevertheless, the above observed Cronbach coefficient alphas, being smaller than 0.75, as Shaw and Right (1967) suggested, could not be accepted as valid indicators of a good degree of reliability. Therefore, the same technique, inter-item analysis was carried out to sort out items with weak inter-item correlation coefficients in the main study data.

The third part of the questionnaires for the three groups of respondents was constructed to investigate the nature of tasks and activities in both the theoretical and practical courses of the EFL teacher education programme. The internal consistency of the responses given to the items by the three groups of respondents was checked by using the same statistical package – Cronbach coefficient alpha; however, the responses given to the 11 items in third sub-part were calculated separately for they had a different five-point rating scale. The results of the analysis have been presented in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3: Reliability Test for Part III of the Questionnaire

Respondents	N	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Student teachers	41	44	.883
Instructors	15	35	.883
Cooperating Teachers	15	35	.798

The internal consistency of the student-teachers', instructors' and cooperating teachers' responses to the items proved very good, as the observed Cronbach coefficient alphas, 0.88 and 0.80, were reasonably greater than 0.75. This made the researcher accept the reliability of the instrument with confidence. The internal consistency of the participants' responses to the third part of the items was found much greater than that of either Part I

or Part II, perhaps partly because of the nature of the items in this part; i.e., they refer to the actual observable practices, which the respondents can clearly perceive and which can elicit more stable responses.

Following the same statistical procedure, the responses of the three groups of respondents to the final part of the questionnaire were checked for internal consistency. The results of the analysis have been presented Table 5-4.

Table 5-4: Reliability Test for Part IV of the Questionnaire (Roles of University Supervisors and Cooperating Teachers in Practicum Courses)

Respondents	No. of Respondents	No. of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Student teachers	42	20	.771
Instructors	15	10	.743
Cooperating Teachers	15	17	.917

The internal consistency of the participants' responses to the fourth part of the items was also found quite reliable as the observed coefficient alphas were very close to and greater than 0.75, as Shaw and Right (1967) suggested.

CHAPTER VI

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN STUDY

In this chapter the findings of the survey study and the discussions of the results are presented. First the results of the data analysis will be presented in accordance with the order of the four parts of the questionnaire: beliefs about constructivist pedagogy, perceptions of goals of the programme, tasks and practical activities and roles of university supervisors and cooperating teachers in the EFL teacher education programme. Then the discussions of the results follow.

6.1. FINDINGS OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Before discussing the findings of the survey, it is worth mentioning the response rate of the questionnaires, distributed to three groups of the sample, i.e., 337 student teachers, 71 EFL teacher educators in six universities and 72 EFL teachers in high schools in the towns where the universities are located. Despite all the efforts of the researcher to achieve high response rate of the questionnaires, some respondents did not return the questionnaire and some of the returned questionnaires for student teachers were discarded because of invalidity of the responses, which were identified through their responses to the negatively worded items in Part I and II of the questionnaire. The proportion of respondents and non-respondents has been summarized in Table 6-1 below.

Table 6-1: Return Rate of the Survey Questionnaire

Respondent Group	Target sample	Actual sample	Return rate
Student Teachers	337	265	78.64%
Teacher Educators	71	55	77.46%
Cooperating Teachers	72	62	86.1%

As shown in Table 6-1, among 337 student teachers to whom the questionnaires were given out, thirty-two of them did not return the questionnaire at all and among the 305 returned questionnaires, forty were discarded for their invalid responses, Therefore, only 265 student teachers returned the questionnaire responding to the items in a proper way, which resulted in the return rate of 78.64%. Among seventy-one teacher educators and seventy-two cooperating teachers to whom the questionnaires were given out, only fifty-

five teacher educators and sixty-two cooperating teachers returned the questionnaires, which accounted for 77.46% and 86.1% return rate of teacher educators' and the cooperating teachers' questionnaires, respectively.

6.1.1. Respondents' Beliefs about Basic Assumptions Underlying the Constructivist Pedagogy

The results of the analysis to compare the responses of the three groups of respondents to the first group of ten items in terms of group means showed that the total respondents' mean of their responses has measured 3.56 on a five-point scale. As can be seen in Table 6-2, the group mean score of the 265 student teachers is 3.46 with a standard deviation 0.385, which is slightly higher than that of the sixty-two cooperating teachers ($X = 3.43$) and relatively lower than that of the fifty-five teacher educators ($X = 4.19$).

To determine the level of the respondents' beliefs about the constructivist pedagogy, the observed means were tested for their differences from the expected mean value (3.00) in a one to five scale. The results of the one-sample t-test have been presented in the following table.

Table 6-2: Means of Respondents' Beliefs about Basic Assumptions and Principles of Constructivist Pedagogy and One Sample T-test Results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	T-Value	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	3.46	.3847	3.00	19.464	264	.000
Teacher Educators	55	4.19	.3093	3.00	28.556	54	.000
Cooperating Teachers	62	3.43	.2534	3.00	13.434	61	.000
Total	382	3.56	.440	3.00	24.916	381	.000

Table 6-2 portrays that there is a significant difference between the expected mean value and the actual belief mean score of each respondent group at 0.05 alpha level.

When the results of the analysis of the responses were compared within the three groups of respondents, it was found that the participants of the programme have different levels of beliefs, proved to be statistically significant through a one-way ANOVA. The result is presented in the following table.

Table 6-3: Comparison of Means of Respondents' Beliefs about Basic Assumptions and Principles of Constructivist Pedagogy

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Student Teachers	265	3.46	.385	100.557	.000
Teacher Educators	55	4.19	.309		
Cooperating Teachers	62	3.43	.253		
Total	382	3.56	.440		

The table also shows that the F-test ($F=100.557$, $df = 381$, $P<005$) has proved that there is a statistically significant difference between the group mean scores. To tell clearly which group mean(s) is/are significantly different, it was necessary to carry out a post-hoc analysis of the F-test result. Towards this end, the Scheffe post-hoc method was applied to perform multiple comparisons. Its results are provided in the following table

Table 6-4: Scheffe Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons of Group Means

(I) Respondent Group	(J) Respondent Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Student Teachers	Teacher Educators	-.73091(*)	.05282	.000
Teacher Educators	Cooperating Teachers	.75865(*)	.06603	.000
Cooperating Teachers	Student Teachers	-.02774	.05029	.859

* Significant at the .05 level.

As can be seen in the table, the Scheffe Post-hoc test proved that the group mean score of the teacher educators was significantly different from that of the cooperating teachers and that of the student teachers, and there was no significant difference between the group mean scores of student teachers and cooperating teachers. This indicates that the teacher educators had higher level of belief about constructivist pedagogy than both the student teachers and the cooperating teachers.

6.1.2. Respondents' Beliefs about the Goals of the EFL teacher education programme

The results of the analysis of the responses of the three groups of respondents to the second group of seven items in the scale to measure their perception of the goals of the new EFL teacher education programme showed that the participants rated the goals of the new EFL teacher education 3.31 on a one to five scale. As reported in Table 6-5, the group mean score of the fifty-five teacher educators ($X= 4.07$) is considerably higher than that of the sixty-two cooperating teachers ($X = 3.06$) and that of the 265 student teachers

($X = 3.21$). To determine whether or not the observed means of each group of respondents' perception of the goals of the programme are statistically greater than the expected mean value (3.00) in a one to five scale, the one-sample t-test was applied. The results of the test are presented in Table 6-5.

Table 6-5: Means of Respondents' Beliefs about Goal of EFL Teacher Education Programme and One Sample T-test Results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	T-Value	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	3.21	0.854	3.00	4.008	264	.000
Teacher Educators	55	4.07	0.702	3.00	11.334	54	.000
Cooperating Teachers	62	3.06	0.983	3.00	.461	61	.646
Total	382	3.31	0.912	3.00	6.639	381	.000

Table 6-5 displays that there is a significant difference between the expected mean value and the actual belief mean score of the first two respondent groups at 0.05 alpha level whereas the cooperating teacher respondent group mean ($X = 3.06$) is not. That is to say that the cooperating teachers' perception of the goals of the ongoing EFL teacher education has remained undecided.

A further analysis was conducted to compare the observed mean scores of the three groups of respondents and to determine whether the observed mean differences are statistically significant, using a one-way ANOVA, are presented in Table 6-6.

Table 6-6: Comparison of Means of Respondents' Beliefs about Goal of EFL Teacher education Programme

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	Sig.
Student Teachers	265	3.21	.857	26.165	.000
Teacher Educators	55	4.07	.702		
Cooperating Teachers	62	3.06	.983		
Total	382	3.31	.914		

Table 6-6 shows that the F-test ($F = 26.165$, $df = 381$, $P < 0.05$) proved that there is a statistically significant difference between the group mean scores. To tell clearly which group mean(s) was/were significantly different, it was necessary to carry out a post-hoc analysis of the F-test result. Towards this end, the Scheffe post-hoc method was applied to perform multiple comparisons. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 6-7: Scheffe Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons of Group Means

(I) Respondent Group	(J) Respondent Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Student Teachers	Teacher Educators	-.86248(*)	.12723	.000
Teacher Educators	Cooperating Teachers	1.01512(*)	.15905	.000
Cooperating Teachers	Student Teachers	-.15264	.12114	.453

* significant at the .05 level.

As can be seen in the table, the Scheffe Post-hoc test proved that the group mean score of the teacher educators was significantly different from that of the cooperating teachers and that of the student teachers, and there was no significant difference between the group mean scores of student teachers and cooperating teachers. This indicates that the teacher educators perceived the goals of the programme as constructivist ones better than the student teachers who were about to graduate soon and the cooperating teachers who were supposed to help the EFL teacher education programme as co-educators.

6.1.3. Respondents' Perceptions of Tasks and Practical Activities in the EFL Teacher Education Programme

The responses of the three groups of respondents to the third part of the questionnaire, which consisted of 44 items in five sub-parts for student teachers, 35 items in four sub-parts for instructors and cooperating teachers, attempting to investigate the participants' perceptions of usefulness of tasks or practical activities to goal of the programme, were analysed using the same statistical procedure. The results of the analysis of the responses have been presented in this sub-section, dealing with results of the sub-scales.

A. Participants' Perceptions of Practicum Support System

The first sub-scale, designed to examine the frequency of the availability of the support system to help student teachers benefit a lot from their practicum experiences, generated responses from the three groups. The results of the analysis of the responses of the three groups to these items confirmed that the practicum support system was perceived lower than the expected average because all the three groups of respondents rated the opportunities 2.33 on a one-to-five scale of frequency, lower than the expected mean value (3.00) on the one to five scale, which indicates that the support system was not as satisfactory as expected. The summary of the results are presented in Table 6-8.

Table 6-8: Means of Respondents' Perception of Practicum Setting and One Sample T-test Results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	T-Value	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	2.35	0.485	3.00	-21.973	264	.000
Teacher Educators	55	2.51	0.658	3.00	-5.570	54	.000
Cooperating Teachers	62	2.12	0.631	3.00	-11.027	61	.000
Total	382	2.33	0.548	3.00	-23.852	381	.000

As shown in the table above, the teacher educators rated the frequency of the support system in the practicum experiences 2.51, slightly higher than the student teachers' and the cooperating teachers' ratings (2.35 and 2.12, respectively) on the same scale, all lower than the expected mean value – 3.00. However, it was necessary to compare the mean to see whether there is a statistically significant difference. To do so, a one-way ANOVA was run and its result is presented below in Table 6-9.

Table 6-9: Comparison of Means of Respondents' Perception of Practicum Support System

Respondents	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	F	Sig.
Student Teachers	265	2.35	.485	7.960	.000
Teacher Educators	55	2.51	.659		
Cooperating Teachers	62	2.12	.631		
Total	382	2.33	.548		

As shown in the table, the F-test ($F = 7.960$, $df = 381$, $P < .005$) has proved that there is a statistically significant difference between the group mean scores. It was necessary to carry out a post-hoc analysis of the F-test result to know which group mean score is significantly different. Towards this end, the Scheffe post-hoc method was applied to perform multiple comparisons. Its results are presented in the following table.

Table 6-10: Scheffe Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons Mean of Practicum Context

(I) Respondent Group	(J) Respondent Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Student Teachers	Teacher Educators	-.15999	.07972	.135
Student Teachers	Cooperating Teachers	.22996(*)	.07591	.011
Teacher Educators	Cooperating Teachers	.38995(*)	.09966	.001

*Significant at the .05 level.

Table 6-10 shows that the Scheffe Post-hoc test proved that the group mean score of the teacher educators ($X = 2.51$) and that of the student teachers ($X = 2.35$) were significantly different from that of the cooperating teachers ($X = 2.12$) and there was no significant

difference between the group mean scores of student teachers and teacher educators. This means the EFL teacher educators and the student teachers in those six universities perceived the practicum support system in a significantly different way than cooperating teachers saw it.

B. Student Teachers’ and Teacher Educators’ Perceptions of Teaching Conferences

The next sub-scale was designed to measure the extent to which the teacher educators’ supervisory style fits a reflective approach during the conferences. So the responses of the two groups to these items showed that the nature of the dialogue with university supervisor was rated 4.71 by student teachers and 5.33 by teacher educators on a one to nine scale. The results of the analysis of the responses of the two groups were tested through one-sample t-test to determine the difference between the observed mean scores and the expected mean value (5.00). The results are shown in the following table.

Table 6-11: Means of Respondents’ Perception of Supervisors’ Advisory Style and One Sample Test Results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	T-Value	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	4.71	2.021	5.00	-2.377	264	.018
Teacher Educators	55	5.33	2.074	5.00	1.183	54	.242
Total	320	4.81	2.040	5.00			

Table 6-11 portrays that the student teachers’ perception of the dialogue with their supervisors during their school-based experiences significantly lower than the expected mean value at 0.05 alpha level, whereas the teacher educators’ perception of the dialogues remained the same as the expected mean value. As shown in the above table, one can easily calculate a difference of 0.62 between the two observed mean scores and this difference had to be examined whether that is statistically significant. The results of the independent-samples t-test are presented in the following table.

Table 6-12: Independent Samples Test Results Comparing of Means of Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perceptions of Supervisors' Advisory Styles

Respondent Group	N	Mean	S.D.	Mean Difference	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Student Teachers	265	4.71	2.021	-.62	318	-2.081	.038
Teacher Educators	55	5.33	2.074				
Total	320	4.81	2.040				

As can be seen in the table, the student teachers rated, on a scale one to nine, their university supervisors' advisory support 4.71, while the teacher educators rated their own advisory support 5.33, both of which constitute a total rating 4.81. The t-test value ($T = -2.081$, $P < .05$) has proved that there is a statistically significant difference between the group mean scores.

C. Student Teachers' and Cooperating Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching Conferences

Similarly, the same items were included in the next sub-scale to measure the extent to which the cooperating teachers' supervisory style in light of a reflective approach during the conferences. The results showed that the nature of the dialogues with cooperating teachers as reflective coaches was rated 2.56 in aggregate and 2.18 by student teachers and 3.72 by teacher educators, which is extremely low on a one to nine scale. The results of the analysis of the responses of the two groups to these items were tested through one-sample t-test to determine the difference between the observed mean scores and the expected mean value (5.00). The result of the one-sample t-test is displayed in the following table.

Table 6-13: Means of Respondents' Perception of Cooperating Teachers' Advisory Style and One Sample Test Results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	T-Value	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	2.28	1.579	5.00	-27.990	264	.000
Cooperating Teachers	62	3.72	1.534	5.00	-6.582	61	.000
Total	327	2.56	1.666	5.00	-26.519	326	.000

Table 6-13 shows that both the student teachers' and cooperating teachers' perceptions of the dialogue they held during their school-based experiences were significantly lower than the expected mean value at 0.05 alpha level. This means that either very few conferences were conducted with the cooperating teachers or their conferences were

characterized by traditional type oriented to a prescriptive approach, not by the features indicated in the scale. Moreover, the table shows that there is a clear difference between the two observed mean scores of the two groups, i.e., the student teachers ($X=2.28$) and the cooperating teachers ($X=3.72$). The results of the independent-samples t-test are presented in the following table.

Table 6-14: Independent Samples Test Results Comparing Means of Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perceptions of Cooperating Teachers' Advisory Styles

Respondent Group	N	Mean	S. D.	Mean Difference	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Student Teachers	265	2.28	1.579	-1.44	325	-6.467	.000
Cooperating Teachers	62	3.72	1.534				
Total	327	2.56	1.666				

Table 6-14 depicts that the t-test ($T = -6.4333$, $P < .05$) proved that there was a statistically significant difference between the group mean scores, which means both parties perceived the nature of the dialogues in meaningfully different ways.

D. Participants' Perceptions of Portfolio Compiling Experience

Another sub-scale in the questionnaires was included to measure the usefulness of student teachers' portfolio compiling experiences during their school placements. So the responses of the two groups to these items showed that the role of student teaching portfolio construction/compiling experiences to promote student teachers' reflective skills was very low on the nine-point scale, when compared to the expected mean value (5.00). While the student teaches rated the role 4.51, the teacher educators did 3.71 on the same scale. The observed mean scores of the two groups were tested through one-sample t-test to determine the difference between the observed mean scores and the expected mean value. The result of the one-sample t-test is displayed in the following table.

Table 6-15: Means of Respondents' Perception of Reflectivity of Portfolio Compiling Experience and One Sample Test Results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	T-Value	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	4.51	1.509	5.00	-5.313	264	.000
Teacher Educators	55	3.71	1.128	5.00	-8.454	54	.000
Cooperating Teachers	--	--	---	--	--	--	---
Total	320	4.37	1.480	5.00	-7.602	319	.000

Table 6-15 shows that both the student teachers' and teacher educators' perceptions of the role of student teaching portfolio construction/compiling experiences to promote

student teachers' reflective skills were significantly lower than the expected mean value at 0.05 alpha level. Moreover, the table shows that there was a clear difference between the two observed mean scores of the two groups, i.e., the student teachers' mean score 4.51 was greater than the teacher educators' mean score 3.71. The results of the independent-samples t-test are presented in the following table.

Table 6-16: Independent Samples Test Results Comparing Means for Perception of Reflectivity of Portfolio Compiling Experience

Respondent Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Mean Diff.	t	df	sig
Student Teachers	4.51	265	1.509	.79317	3.688	318	.000
Teacher Educators	3.71	55	1.128				
Cooperating Teachers	-----	-----	-----				
Total	4.37	320	1.4780				

Table 6-16 shows that a mean difference of 0.80 proved to be significant at 0.05 alpha level. The table depicts that student teachers perceived their own portfolio compiling experiences as more useful than the teacher educators reported being aware of, though the ratings of both student teachers and teachers showed that student teachers' portfolio compiling experiences did not match up to expectations of the respondents.

E. Respondents' Perceptions of Student Teachers' Action Research Experiences

In an attempt to measure the usefulness of student teachers' action research doing experiences during their school placements, the last sub-scale in the third part of the questionnaire generated information that disclosed that not all of the EFL teacher education faculties included an action research component in their programmes. Table 6-17 below shows the results of the analysis of responses of student teachers (N=108) and teacher educators (N=18) from Bahir Dar and Addis Abeba University. The results of analysis of responses obtained from only two university teacher education programmes revealed the greatest mean difference in the ratings of the student teachers and teacher educators.

Table 6-17: Means of Respondents' Perception of Student Teachers' Action Research Experiences and One Sample Test Results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	108	6.28	1.978	5.00	6.740	107	.000
Teacher Educators	18	3.90	2.111	5.00	-2.219	17	.040
Total	126	5.94	2.158	5.00	4.898	125	.000

Table 6-17 shows opposing levels of perception about student teachers' action research experiences, i.e., that the student teachers rated the usefulness of their action research experiences 6.28, significantly higher than the expected mean value; while the teacher educators rated it 3.90, significantly lower than the expected mean value.

Student teachers those from Dilla, Haramaya, Mekelle, and Jimma University did not respond to this scale, as they were not introduced to these experiences during the collection of this data.

6.1.4. Roles of Participants in the EFL Teacher Education Programme

The responses to the fourth part of the student teachers' questionnaire, which consisted of twenty items, the first half of which referred to their educators' and the second, cooperating teachers' roles, were analysed using the same quantitative method. The responses of the teacher educators and of the cooperating teachers to the corresponding ten items in their questionnaire and the responses of the cooperating teachers to the additional seven items in their questionnaire about their roles in practicum courses were analysed separately in the same method.

The results of the analysis of student teachers' and teacher educators' responses about teacher educators' roles are presented in Table 6-18.

Table 6-18: Means of Respondents' Perception of University Supervisors' Roles and One Sample Test results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	4.57	2.278	5.00	-3.100	264	.002
Teacher Educators	55	5.95	1.588	5.00	4.434	54	.000

Table 6-18 shows opposing levels of perception about university supervisors' roles in practicum experiences, i.e., that the student teachers rated their supervisors' roles 4.57,

significantly lower than the expected mean value; while the teacher educators rated their own roles 5.95, significantly higher than the expected mean value (5.00).

The results of the analysis of student teachers' and cooperating teachers' responses about cooperating teachers' roles are presented in Table 6-19.

Table 6-19: Means of Respondents' Perception of Cooperating Teachers' Roles and One Sample Test results

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Expected Mean	T-Value	df	Sig. (2-way)
Student Teachers	265	2.51	1.480	5.00	-27.375	264	.000
Cooperating Teachers	62	4.07	1.491	5.00	-4.939	61	.000

Table 6-19 shows that the student teachers rated the cooperating teachers' roles 2.51 while the cooperating teachers rated their own roles 4.07, both lower than the expected mean value (5.00). The table also shows the one-sample t-test results ($T = -27.375$, $P < 0.05$ and $T = -4.939$, $P < 0.05$), which proved that both observed mean scores were significantly lower than the expected mean value.

The results of the analysis to compare student teachers' responses about their teacher educator' and cooperating teachers' roles are presented in Table 6-20.

Table 6-20: Paired Sample Test Results Comparing Perception Means of Student Teachers' of University Supervisors' and Cooperating Teachers' Roles

Student Teachers' (N=265) Perception Mean of	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean Diff.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Supervisors' Roles	4.57	2.278	2.06	12.999	264	.000
Cooperating Teachers' Roles	2.51	1.480				

Table 6-20 compares how the student teachers perceived the roles of their university supervisors and their cooperating teachers during their practicum experiences. The table depicts both that the student teachers rated the roles of both supervisors and cooperating teachers below the expected mean value (5.00) and that they perceived the roles of supervisors and cooperating teachers in a significantly different way as proved by the t-test result ($T = 12.999$, $P < 0.05$), which would likely indicate that the cooperating teachers played very little roles during the student teachers' school-based experiences.

Table 6-21 below also compares the results of analysis of the responses of both teacher educators and cooperating teachers to the ten items about their own roles as advisors.

Table 6-21: Independent Samples Test Result Comparing University Supervisors' and Cooperating Teachers' Perceptions of their Own Roles as Reflective Coaches

Respondent Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Diff.	t	df	sig
Teacher Educators	55	5.95	1.588	1.89	6.618	115	.000
Cooperating Teachers	62	4.07	1.491				

As shown in the table, the teacher educators rated their own roles, on a one-to nine scale, 5.95, whereas the cooperating teachers rated their own roles on the same scale 4.06. The t- value ($T = 6.618, P < 0.05$) indicates that the difference between the perceptions of the two groups is statistically significant. These self-ratings confirm the trend that the university supervisors assumed the roles of advisors slightly better than the cooperating teachers did.

When the cooperating teachers' responses to the two groups of items in their questionnaires, (Items A-G, referring to their roles as a colleague, a host and a guide during the student teachers school placement, and Items H-P, referring to their roles as co-educators) were compared after having analysed the responses into two separate sections. Table 6-22 below presents the paired samples test results comparing responses to the two groups of items.

Table 6-22: Paired Samples Test Result Comparing Cooperating Teachers' Perceptions of their Own Professional and Collegial Roles

Cooperating Teachers' (N=62) Perception Mean of	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean Diff.	t	df	sig
Professional Roles	4.07	1.491	-.64	-6.232	61	.000
Collegial Roles	4.71	1.783				

As can be seen in the table, the cooperating teachers rated their collegial roles ($X = 4.71$) higher than their professional roles ($X = 4.07$) and paired samples test result ($T = -6.232, P < 0.05$) proved that the observed mean difference was significant, even though both ratings are lower than the expected average mean score (5.00). This may indicate that the cooperating teachers embarked on the activities of collegial roles relatively more easily than on those of their professional roles perhaps because they had been used to helping student teachers in this way even in the earlier teacher education programme.

6.2. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The findings show relatively different levels of beliefs of the programme participants about the constructivist pedagogy, i.e., the teacher educators having significantly different level of beliefs from both student teachers and cooperating teachers. These findings reveal that participants who are supposed to work towards the same goal have held significantly different orientations. In particular, the rating of the cooperating teachers, who had the lowest level of beliefs, shows that they are involved in the programme without clear knowledge of the principles and basic assumptions underlying the programme. This is just contrary to what Calderhead (1989) says about the need for a clear conceptual grasp to effective implementation of a programme. One explanation of these findings might have been that school teachers involved in student teachers' school-based experiences are working in the new programme with an orientation that they had in earlier teacher education programmes, oriented to the transmission model. This, in turn, indicates that there was no induction session to help the cooperating teachers reconceptualise the process of learning to teach in the new perspective of constructivist pedagogy. As many researchers (e.g., Hill, 2000; Pennington, 1996; Tillema, 1994; Zulich, Bean & Herrick, 1992; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Claxton & Carr, 1987; Handal & Lauvas, 1987) confirmed that our actions are always shaped by our thoughts, the contribution of these cooperating teachers is certainly informed by their belief systems, shaped by traditional transmissive pedagogy which they are familiar with and have confidence in.

The teacher educators' stronger beliefs about principles and basic assumptions underlying the programme can be attributed to their exposure to different theories through their graduate studies in TEFL, personal readings and their training in the higher diploma programme (H.D.P) as part of the TESO package. This is in line with the literature's general tendency to discern better level of awareness of teacher educators about theories, principles and assumptions underlying a programme than that of student teachers and cooperation teachers.

However, the student teachers' lower level of beliefs suggests that they are still unable to conceptualize the constructivist pedagogy after having passed through the programme for

three years. This means these prospective teachers have not yet changed their beliefs about teaching and learning to the required extent. These findings point up to the fact, which the literature generally (e.g. Hill, 2000; Yost *et al.*, 2000; Richardson, 1996; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Zulich, Bean & Herrick, 1992) confirms, that teacher candidates whose beliefs remain unchallenged may perpetuate current practices, thus maintaining the *status quo* in their practice.

This in turn shows the little likelihood of the success of the programme, introducing a paradigm shift in teacher education and producing, through strong school – university partnership, well-educated competent reflective practitioners who would rely on the basic principles and assumptions of constructive pedagogy to help their learners in schools to be critical thinkers and to help themselves examine their own practice in collaboration with their colleagues. As long as the cooperating teachers are not empowered to an extent to which they can effectively discharge their responsibilities in the programme, the success of the programme cannot solely depend on the teacher educators' beliefs and action.

The findings that the general perception of the total respondents, rated 3.31 on a one-to-five scale, and that the participants have perceived the goals of the new EFL teacher education at significantly different levels show that the goals of the programmes are not that much clearly perceived. Indeed, the student teachers' rating may indicate the fact that they are able to see or to perceive the goals of the programme less clearly than their teacher educators report being aware of. However, the lowest rating of the cooperating teachers indicates the big deficiency of the programme in a sense that the cooperating teachers are assumed to work in partnership as co-educators in it. As awareness of goals facilitates the process of programme activities by maximizing intentionality, explicitness and meaningfulness of programme activities, the observed level of the cooperating teachers' perceptions of goal can be regarded as a threat to the success of the programme.

The possible explanations for the observed significant differences in perceptions of the goals of the programmes can be numerous. The first one might be that the teacher educators have been aware of the goals because of their involvement as a primary stakeholder in designing objectives and contents of different courses in the programme in

addition to their orientation through different ways. The second one is that student teachers might not have been able to see the programme goals so clearly because the actual programme activities may not have been developed on these goals, oriented to constructivist pedagogy, for different implementation problems, or perhaps because they have been giving more emphasis to their struggle with the survival issues in the programme, which requires most of the prospective teachers' attention. The third explanation for the lowest level of cooperating teachers' rating could be that the absence of proper induction or training for school teachers which could have enabled them to reconceptualise the goals of teacher education programmes in a new perspective, different from the goals of teacher education at the time of their own training.

Even if we think that student teachers will probably be able to improve themselves through life-long experiences of learning to teach, their efforts in the programme are likely to be affected heavily as there is a sense of loss of direction for their efforts. This can also be attributed to the less concern of the teacher educators in orienting /informing their students about the goals of the programme. However, the least level of cooperating teachers' perceptions of the goal of the programme, in which they are supposed to assume the role of co-educators can be interpreted as a threat to the successful implementation of the programme. This may indicate that their redefined roles as co-educators are non-existent.

The findings that the three groups of respondents rated the opportunities in the practicum settings 2.33 on a one-to-five scale of frequency, which signifies a lower frequency of the support system than the expected average frequency (3.00) and that the three groups had the different levels of the perception of the practicum context indicate that the context is not as carefully thought out as required in the literature in which the student teachers should undergo their field-based experiences. Numerous critical voices doubting the effectiveness of learning processes during practicum (Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1985; Sacher, 1988; Borko & Mayfield, 1995) seem to agree that practicum should not only create practice opportunities but also professional learning environments which also foster advanced theoretical knowledge, for instance for reflection on the teaching process which is a necessary precondition for improving teaching and modifying epistemological beliefs.

The different levels of perceptions about the support system in the practicum setting suggest the real deficiency in the implementation process. In particular, the significantly lowest cooperating teachers' rating of the practicum support system confirms their lowest level of participation in the programme as stakeholders.

The findings that student teachers and teacher educators rated, on a one-to-nine scale, the nature of the dialogue with university supervisor 4.71 and 5.33, respectively was reveal that the dialogues with university supervisors during practicum placements were not up to the expectations of the participants in line with dialogic reflection between advisors and advisees or supervisors and supervisees. Instead, this indicates that there were limited attempts of supervisors to engage student teachers into reflective dialogue (Randall & Thornton, 2001).

The finding also indicates that the supervisors' practice in this respect is contrary to their claimed awareness about the principles, theories and basic assumptions as well as the goals underlying the new teacher education programme. This contradiction may be explained by either the contextual factors inhibiting the reflective dialogues or conceptual factors leading to misinterpretations of the nature of the dialogues between the two parties.

Similarly, the nature of the dialogues with cooperating teachers as reflection coaches was rated differently by student teachers ($X = 2.28$) and by cooperating teachers ($X = 3.72$) and their aggregate rating being 2.56 on a one to nine scale. Though the nature of the dialogues with university supervisors and that of the dialogues with cooperating teachers were rated in a similar trend, the perception of the student teachers being lower than their counterparts', the ratings of the nature of the dialogue with cooperating teachers, being extremely lower, indicates that they had little or no role to play during the student teachers' school- based experiences. This finding is quite consistent with the cooperating teachers' lowest level of awareness about the goals of the programme and the principles and theoretical bases underlying the programme.

When the student teachers' ratings of nature of their dialogues with their university supervisors ($X= 4.71$) and with their cooperating teachers ($X= 2.28$) on the nine-point scale are compared, the significant difference clearly points up to the very little roles of

the cooperating teachers and the student teachers' reliance on the insufficiently rated dialogues with teacher educators, which makes the responsibility appear skewed towards university supervisors. However, though the trends show that the supervision styles of the instructors are slightly better than those of the cooperating teachers, it is hardly possible to say that the instructors have met the requirements of modern supervision in the light of reflective teacher education.

These results, in general, indicate that there is almost an unsatisfactory support system in student teachers' practicum experiences and that there seems to be a condition of unguided apprenticeship (Lave and Wenger, 1991), which imagines conditions supporting the learning of meanings and the means for fuller participation to be 'naturally' present in a social environment. This means that the EFL teacher education environment should have given careful attention to the conditions to ensure a fruitful interaction of practice and theory, action and reflection, all geared to facilitating professional growth. In other words, the less structured practicum context, which seems unguided apprenticeship, might have led student teachers to confusion as noted by Lave and Wenger (1991), who strongly warn that a trade-off between offering labour and gaining access to a work environment 'does not by itself hold a guarantee for the learning of the apprentice' (p. 76) because 'the ordering of learning and of everyday practice do not coincide' (p. 96).

The aim of the collaboration seemed to have provided merely practice opportunities, rather than enable deeper thinking about practice in an atmosphere of supportive and constructive but honest feedback. In this vein, the existing school-university partnership has failed in fostering construction of meaning in a flexible way by negotiation and collaboration with others to show multiple perspectives for which many scholars (e.g., Duit, 1999; Merrill, 1992; Duffy & Jonasson, 1991; Brown, 1989; Smyth, 1989; and Resnick, 1989) argue from a constructivist point of view.

Factors which Duquette (1994) and Grimmett & Ratzlaff, (1986) have identified such as poorly defined roles and inadequate preparation for the task of supervision can be cited as reasons for limitations, particularly in the case of cooperating teachers.

The other findings that the role of student teachers' portfolio compiling experiences to promote their reflective skills was rated very low on the scale, though the student

teachers' rating being significantly higher than the teacher educators' rating, indicate that their portfolio compiling experiences did not match up to expectations of both groups of respondents. Similarly, the absence of the expected responses from the cooperating teachers to the items about their help with portfolio compiling experiences confirms their non-existent roles in the teacher preparation programme in which they are assumed to play an invaluable part.

The difference between the student teachers' and teacher educators' rating, the former being significantly higher than the latter, would represent a difference in view of the teacher educators and student teachers, which can be acceptable for one possible reason. In the eyes of former party, whatever they do in the process is likely to hold water because of their own limited background experiences, whereas in the eyes of the latter party, they may disregard the little work done by student teachers. However significantly both parties differed in ratings, they seemed to agree that role of what the student teachers did during the portfolio compiling process was unsatisfactory in light of the seven items, in the questionnaire, which are concerned about the content of their teaching portfolios. This means the low ratings of both student teachers and teacher educators indicate that the actual content of their portfolios is quite different from what the literature generally tends to recommend about inclusion of personal philosophy of teaching, daily journals, observations of other teachers or peers and artefacts representing teaching materials produced (Hurst et al, 1998; Antonek, *et. al.*,1997; Borko, *et. al* 1997; Loughran & Corrigan, 1995; Ballantyne & Packer, 1995; Francis, 1995; Zubizarreta, 1994; Richert, 1992) If so, the teacher portfolios student teachers constructed were very unlikely to cover a range of experiences ranging from teaching strategies (how and when to use them) to views on student learning and how these might influence their approach to teaching.

Moreover, the absence of the expected cooperating teachers responses to the seven items about their help with student teachers' action research experiences in their questionnaire confirms their non-existent roles in the teacher preparation programme as well as their possible view that action research is a peripheral assignment to the central task of the traditional practice teaching (Calderhead, 1989). They might have perceived their roles as confined to providing practice opportunities for student teachers.

The absence of the expected responses from the respondent from the four universities mentioned in the findings report section also suggests that all mechanisms supposedly to promote student teachers' inquiry skills or reflection habits were not put in place. In the field visit to these universities, the researcher came to know that Jimma and Haramaya University were about to embed the action research component in the following year and that Mekelle University had left the choice between action research and basic research to the discretion of the student teachers until the time of data collection, but it would enforce action research in the following year. What forced these people to include action research in the following year could be the bureaucratic imposition rather than their conceptual change. If so, the fact that the teacher educators in these universities were hesitant to embed action research as a programme component could be attributed to a conceptual problem. In line with this, Ziechner (1983) points up to cultural factors such as the technical rationality, individualism, and instrumentalism that dominate educational thinking are among many reasons for not promoting reflective teaching through action research. The observed hesitation of some of the teacher education institutions to embed action research as a programme component might have been based on the argument that preservice teachers cannot take on 'critical' issues because they are not ready or because their focus is narrowly and understandably on the classrooms in which they are placed. However, many scholars (e.g., Ponte et al., 2004; Smylie *et al.*, 1999; Borko and Mayorfield, 1997; Rudduck, 1992; Ziechner, 1983) counterargue for the inclusion of action research in preservice teacher education as a strategy for preparing teachers for a good start and for later learning or continuing professional development.

Moreover, the obtained data from the other three university teacher education programmes revealed a very big mean difference in the ratings of the student teachers ($X = 6.28$) and teacher educators ($X = 3.92$). This big difference can be attributed to the differences in background experiences between the two parties. For the student teachers, who have utilised their maximum potential to carry out their action research projects, what they have produced may appear noble, complete and outstanding, whereas for the teacher educators, who have had a wide exposure to different research papers both in quantity and quality, what the student teachers attempted as a novice cannot hold water.

Another possible reason could be the teacher educators' distrust of the authenticity of the student teachers' work, as mentioned in the qualitative part of this study.

So it is possible to suggest that the reflection in the programme activities as a process of dynamic action and learning have not enabled student teachers to develop their practice in the light of analysis and evaluation. This means the activities, particularly those in the portfolio compiling process, action research and the teaching conferences, are part of routine practice, rather than vital to intelligent practice, as opposed to what Richert (1990) suggested.

The observed mean scores for student teachers' perceptions of the roles of university supervisors and cooperating teachers also denote the low level of scaffolded instruction in the practicum settings as envisioned by constructivism (Williams and Burden, 1987; Randall & Thornton, 2001). This means there are limited efforts from the teacher educators to structure student teachers' learning by deciding what areas they should work on, to provide them with a framework to examine the teaching experience and to explicitly set target for the next experience, to guide them into a critical dialogue concerning their current practice, and to help them articulate and refine their views of teaching process and their own learning.

Moreover, the observed difference in the student teachers' ratings of their university supervisors' and cooperating teachers' roles as reflective coaches indicates the low participation of the cooperating teachers in the process, which in turn confirms their unpreparedness for the assumed duties. The low participation of the cooperating teachers in the process also reveals that the teacher educators a dominant role to play and wield all the power in the process, which is in a stark contrast with the reality which necessitates the involvement of cooperating teachers in the programme. The reality is that these university supervisors cannot pay more than two visits to the schools to see the practicing student teachers, i.e., there is simply no way that university supervisors can be readily available in classrooms as frequently as cooperating teachers, nor is there any way for them to have the ongoing conversations that are possible between student teachers and cooperating teachers. Despite this structural constraint associated with the university supervisor's role (Dunne and Dunne, 1993), the absence of empowerment training for the

cooperating teachers and collaborative dialogues between them on the process may show either that the supervisors are not willing to share the responsibilities or that the conceptual problem lying in the programme, i.e., the belief that such extended practicum experiences are kept in place just to create practice opportunities only, rather than as learning grounds where scaffolded instruction takes place through the practice opportunities.

From these findings we can conclude that the current EFL teacher education programme has met a serious conflict between discourse and practice. On the one hand, there is theoretically heavy emphasis on extended school-based practice for developing reflective practitioners. On the other hand, practically the increased time in schools is not fully utilized for the purpose it was set.

As long as the disempowered cooperating teachers have little or no role to play in the programme, it is less difficult to imagine the practicum as apprenticeship imitating their mentors' craft skills without any need for reflective teaching and discussing alternatives, than to acknowledge the practicum as professional development involving reflection on the teaching situation and the individual learning process, and analysis of subjective theories and experiences. This conflict of rhetoric and practice would give the practicum component a picture of a return to the ancient atheoretical form of teacher education, a practice-without-theory model (Hargreaves, 1998; McNally *et al.*, 1994; Edwards, 1992; Eltis, 1994; Harris, 1994).

CHAPTER VII

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS OF THE QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN STUDY

In this chapter the findings of the qualitative case study and their interpretations are presented. During the discussions of the findings, some intermittent references to the findings of the quantitative study in the preceding chapter are made to produce a more complete picture of the programme under study and to answer some questions which remain uncovered in the quantitative part of the study.

7. 1. FINDINGS OF THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

Because enormous qualitative data have been collected from document reviews, observations and individual and group interviews, using the procedures described in Chapter IV, this chapter begins with overviews of the data, particularly those collected through programme document reviews and observations, to help readers follow the discussions of the results easily.

7.1.1. Overviews of Data from Observations and Material Reviews

In this section overviews of the data collected from English Department of Faculty of Education of Bahir Dar University through practicum conference observations and document reviews, i.e., portfolios, action research reports, practicum evaluation checklist, and school reports, are presented.

A. Post-teaching conferences

The conferences the researcher observed varied greatly in length. The shortest conference lasted less than 5 minutes; the longest was approximately 15 minutes in length. Although similar domains and topics were addressed across conferences, there were large differences in the depth and specificity of conversations. Conference length was related to the specificity of comments offered by the university supervisors. The longest conference observed was between one supervisor and one student teacher who was exceptionally diligent and fluent, whereas the shortest conference was between a supervisor and the student teacher who was exceptionally too apprehensive to utter a word in response to the questions raised. For example, the longest conference was also

that in which the university supervisor offered the most specific suggestions about the student teachers' lessons.

For all six dyads but two the researcher was able to observe conferences that occurred after an English lesson taught by the student teacher and observed by the university supervisor and the researcher. For the two exceptions, conferences were held not shortly after the observation on the site, but after two and three days in the university supervisors' offices.

The conferences seemed to share the same pattern of presenting comments beginning with positive comments, moving on to the negative ones and concluding with confirmatory remarks on the positive side (Please see a sample in Appendix N).

Four domains of teacher knowledge were addressed in the six conferences: pedagogy, paperwork, ELT-specific pedagogy, and English language. These patterns are explored as follows.

Pedagogy. The aspect of pedagogy discussed most often in university supervisor-student teacher conferences was classroom management. Topics addressed most frequently included whether or not the student teacher moved around the room, did a good job of getting and keeping students' attention, had control of the situation, and utilized audible voice. Lesson plans and behavioral objectives were also discussed frequently in the conferences. These topics are related to the Student Teacher Observation Form.

Paperwork. One of the most prominent themes, occurring in six of the conferences, was paperwork. On one level, paperwork was simply a bureaucratic aspect of the university supervisor/ student teacher relationship that had to be handled. Lesson plans needed to be reviewed.

On a deeper level, paperwork - especially lesson plans and observation forms - created a focus for the teaching conferences. The Student Teacher Observation Form was a major source for determining student teaching grades.

Not surprisingly, it appeared to direct both what the university supervisors looked for during lessons and what they commented on during conferences. The form listed the areas in which the supervisors rated their student teachers. There was also a space for comments at the bottom. Conferences often started with the university supervisor asking the student teacher to explain his strength and weakness. Most of the student teachers did

not seem to want to talk about their strengths, perhaps thinking that the supervisors knew everything very well as the longstanding culture dictates. Supervisors referred to the observation form and their notes during conferences to remember lessons and their reactions to them, but they did not try to elaborate on ratings.

English and ELT-specific pedagogy.

English and ELT-specific pedagogy came up as topics in all of the six conferences. Though the evaluation form did not spare any space for subject-specific pedagogical issues, the supervisors used their notes to discuss these issues. The discussions generally were broad enough to delve into the nature of the English and ELT-specific pedagogy and focused on strategies for presenting particular topics to students, for example, procedure in teaching listening skill, importance of certain teacher questions at different stages of the lesson, and use of L₁ in English classes. On two occasions, the reference to English was simply a question about how to spell and pronounce a certain word and ELT-specific pedagogy.

It was my impression that the university supervisors did not have the discussions they wanted because they did not want to be confrontational. Student teachers probably also wanted to avoid confrontation, given that the supervisors assigned their grades at the end of each placement. One important pattern in the data, then, is that both sides tried to avoid confrontation and open disagreement. This situation led to superficial conferences in which university supervisors primarily praised student teachers and worked to build their self-confidence; student teachers readily agreed (at least, while in the conference) with whatever suggestions the university supervisors made. Though the evaluation form spares a separate space in which action to be taken by the student teacher for next lesson, the student teacher's general comments on the evaluation and amount of time spent on post-observation discussion have to be recorded, in none of the conferences these actions were observed, except the supervisors' oral advice to improve the points mentioned.

B. School Report

Despite the researcher's expectation to examine the content of the cooperating teachers' reports on the performance of the practicing student teachers under their guidance and supervision, the attempt found out that the performance of the practicing student teachers

was rated by only the school coordinators whom the report format requires to rate the student teachers' participation in school activities other than teaching, using a five-point scale checklist. The school report checklist consists of six items about

- sensitiveness to school problems,
- willingness to assist others,
- willingness to carry out tasks after school hours,
- suggesting concrete ideas for improving school management,
- willingness to provide help to students with special needs, and
- significance of the extracurricular activity/activities performed.

The report form also requires the school coordinators to indicate two things as additional remarks:

- (1) if there is anything that a student teacher, either individually or in a team, has done on a voluntary basis other than teaching, and
- (2) if there is any effort made by the student teacher to help students at different academic achievement levels outside the classroom (Please see Appendix O).

The required report from the school coordinators does not invite the actual cooperating teachers to say anything on pedagogical issues; neither the generic skills and ELT-pedagogic skills are addressed.

C. Practicum Evaluation Checklist

The attempt to review supervisor's evaluation tool has shown that there is a visible inconsistency between what the ELT methodology courses teach and what is emphasised in the practicum evaluation tools. The document reviewed for this study was student teaching evaluation form used by the supervisors for Practicum IV. This document has four parts: *teaching practice evaluation form*, *lesson plan evaluation checklist*, *teaching material evaluation checklist* and *student teacher's lesson observation report evaluation checklist* (please see the details in Appendix P).

The first part, i.e., *teaching practice evaluation form* has twenty-eight items in a five-point scale ranging from 0 - 4, in five sub-parts. The first four items refer to objectives of the lesson. The second five items refer to the nature of the activities. The next eight items deal with teacher behaviours. The last six items refer to students' behaviour.

Having rated the practicing student teacher on this five-point scale checklist, the supervisor is expected to write specific comments on the lesson by identifying two

successful things in the lesson and one or two suggestions for improvement and general comments. Perhaps this is the only section where the pedagogical content knowledge comes into play in the supervision process. Having done this, the supervisor has to conduct post-observation discussion with the supervisee. For this purpose, in the evaluation form is a separate space in which action to be taken by the student teacher for next lesson, the student teacher's general comments on the evaluation and amount of time spent on post-observation discussion have to be recorded.

The second part of this document is a checklist for lesson plan evaluation. Here also the supervisor is expected to rate on a five-point scale the lesson plan using eleven items and to write general comments.

In the third part of this document, i.e., teaching material evaluation form, the supervisor is expected to evaluate the quality of teaching materials used during team teaching, using a six-item checklist on a five-point scale. Finally he/she is expected to write some general comments in the space provided beneath the checklist.

The final part of this document is also a checklist for evaluating student teacher's observation report. The checklist consists of seven five-point scale items. These seven items are based on the requirements in the student teacher's lesson observation.

So, the employment of these evaluation tools suggests that generic teaching skills are emphasised and pedagogical content knowledge is totally ignored in the programme as far as the same tools are used by all departments regardless of the differences in pedagogical content knowledge domains.

D. Student Teaching Practicum Portfolios

One of the documents reviewed for this study was the material that student teachers used for practicum IV. This material is believed to be part of their portfolio for the course. It consisted of three parts: *classroom observation report form*, *lesson plan form with self evaluation form* and *annual lesson plan evaluation form*. All the portfolios reviewed consisted of a collection of short declarative written phrases or statements as replies to the prompts given in the format, presented in a five- or six-page form (Please see the details in Appendix Q)

In the first part, *classroom observation report form*, student teachers were expected to observe the cooperating teacher while teaching the major area subject during the first week of the school placement, and to write an observation report in which they should include their reflective comments. So they were expected to mention these things: teacher activities, student activities two successful things about the lesson, one or two suggestions for improvement and general comment. In the reflection section, they were expected to identify type of method used and questioning techniques employed, to describe activities students engaged in and assessment techniques used, to estimate the amount of time used by the teacher and students and to write general comments.

In the second part, *lesson plan form with self evaluation form*, student teachers were expected to prepare a lesson plan following a given format and to evaluate their own lesson using the following guides: two successful things about the lesson, one suggestion for improvement, and reflection on achievement of objectives, balance between teacher and student activity, teaching/ learning method chosen, the most successful activity, and the reason, timing/place of the lesson and effectiveness, advantages and the purpose of assessment techniques used.

In the third part, *annual lesson plan evaluation form*, student teachers were expected to collect an annual or unit plan from the cooperating teachers and to evaluate it using a twelve-item checklist in a five point scale.

The portfolios are collections of answers to the given stimuli in the classroom observation report form, the lesson plan form with self evaluation form and the annual lesson plan evaluation form. They do not contain any artefacts, sequentially organized around key concepts from the L2 pedagogy, with explanations or conceptual structure and represent teaching as an eclectic set of discrete and generic skills, beliefs, and activities. They hardly require student teachers to include a philosophy statement, or a quotation reflecting their beliefs about language learning, teaching, or education, artefacts presented under each of the L2 theories, sections, or themes. The portfolios do not include any student learning journal/diaries which are used extensively in university contexts as a means of facilitating reflection, deepening personal understanding and stimulating critical thinking (Ballantyne & Packer, 1995), particularly in the field of

teacher education, where reflection has come to be widely recognised as a crucial element in the professional growth of teachers (Calderhead & Gates, 1993). This has not been found to be a case in the reviewed student teachers' portfolios for this study.

E. Action Research Report

The seven research reports reviewed for this study have followed the same organizational format which the practicum coordinator at the faculty level had distributed for helping the student teachers use as a model. Thus, all the faculty student teachers had to follow that format regardless of differences in the problems under study and the backgrounds of the participants. Following the format, the seven reports reviewed had the following headings: *Introduction, What was my concern? Why was I concerned? What could I do? Who could help me? What did I do? How can I evaluate my work? What have I learnt from doing my action research?* (Please see the details in Appendix R)

Under the first heading "*Introduction*" the student teachers gave brief information about themselves regarding their school placements and how they could come across the problems they would like to study in the school. Most of them mentioned that they were keenly observing the teaching-learning process in their first two weeks of observation during the six-week practicum experience. All of them made a brief mention of the problems they wanted to study in this section. Under the second heading "*What was my concern?*" the student teachers discussed the problems they had identified. Of these seven reports, two dealt with the problem of writing skills; two, with students speaking problems (in fact one of them, with a particular reference to female students); one, with students listening problem; and two, with students' problem of participation in group discussions during English classes. So the focus of the five reports was ELT-specific whereas that of the two was pedagogical issues in English classes. Under the heading "*Why was I concerned?*" the student teachers stated the magnitude of the problems according to their observation and the objectives of their projects. (In fact, one of these student teachers included sub-headings "the rationale" and "objectives".) All of them discussed in the section "*What could I do?*" their alternative course of actions to alleviate the problems they stated. All the alternative courses of action in the reports came from TEFL and general education literature. For example, the first two projects dealing with writing skill problems mentioned that they would design and use activities of controlled,

guided and free writing, and the fourth project dealing with students' listening skill problems attempted to address the problem through teaching listening strategies and discourse markers.

In the section "*Who could help me?*" all the seven reports mentioned different people like learners, peer student teachers, cooperating teachers, department heads, directors and supervisors from whom they received help and with whom they cooperated. Nevertheless, none of them clearly showed how the cooperation enhanced their inquiry and process of examining their practice. Most of them merely acknowledged the administrative assistance they received, for example, allowing them to do the project, getting students to cooperate with them, distributing questionnaires, etc. In the section "*How can I evaluate the work?*" they mentioned different strategies like collecting comments from the learners and the cooperating teachers, interviews, observations, tests, questionnaires to know the impact of their alternative courses of action.

The same set of three different things were reported to have been useful to these seven student teachers in the section "*What have I learnt from doing my action research?*" as the impact of their action research: (a) it helped them solve the problems under study, (b) it helped them become more aware of their own practices and of the gaps between their beliefs and their practices, and (c) it helped them be more thoughtful about the complexity of teaching. While these gains are valuable, a major concern about the reflective teaching remains questionable in its strictest sense. It seems that the reports have followed the given format at the faculty level as the above commonalities in the seven reviewed reports showed as well as the common way of phrasing of the title of the action research because the titles of the seven reports begin with "*How can I improve...?*"

7.1.2. Beliefs about Basic Assumptions Underlying the Constructivist Pedagogy

The qualitative data gathered through multiple instruments from various sources have confirmed that the beliefs about participants about basic assumptions and theoretical bases underlying constructivist pedagogy were more or less unsatisfactory. The following points drawn from the qualitative data confirm the lower level of participants' awareness about the basic assumptions and theoretical bases underlying constructivist pedagogy.

1. Personal explanations about basic assumptions

2. Requiring minimization of the practicum courses and relegation of practicum courses towards the end of the programme
3. Viewing group work activities as a waste of time
4. Viewing the change as a matter of vogue in a form of political decision
5. Little concern for the absence of TEFL elements in the field experiences of student teachers

Both in the instructors' and cooperating teachers' focus group discussions (FGDs) and in the individual interview with the practicum coordinator, an attempt was made to explore the participants' awareness about the basic assumptions and theoretical bases underlying constructivist pedagogy. From the discussions, it was possible to see the level of their awareness. For example, in response to the question, "How well aware are cooperating teachers about nature of programme? ... Do you, as cooperating teachers, know the philosophical underpinnings of the programme?" one of the instructors in the FGD said the following:

Well, I am not acquainted with the philosophy of TESO but I feel that they have introduced this programme in order to relate theoretical issues or theoretical points given in the universities or in colleges with the [practical] that could be found within the high schools. This objective should be to link theoretical and practical aspects [...] in high schools.

In the cooperating teachers' FGD, all participants remained silent when the issue of their beliefs about the basic assumptions and theoretical bases underlying the new EFL teacher education programme was raised. It was after a moment of silence that one of them responded as follows:

I don't think so. Maybe we can mention some of the objectives because we did such kinds of practice while we were in colleges. So, as I think, the objective is to enable students to practice to ... I mean, experience for teaching. And after [sic. beyond] that we don't know, as far as I am concerned, we don't know any theoretical assumptions or conceptions regarding this programme. That's all.

From this quote, we can see that these stakeholders are living with the philosophy underpinning the earlier teacher education programme that they were familiar with as indicated in the clause *because we did such kinds of practice while we were in colleges*. It does not seem possible to expect these people to know how practice informs learning in the constructivist perspective.

The practicum coordinator, in his interview, remarked the following in response to the question about the philosophical bases of the programme.

Ok, but what I'm going to tell you is from my personal reading. I think the theoretical foundation of the programme is a constructivist theory. The learner can construct knowledge by himself. ...the theoretical basis [of the programme] is constructivist theory. Research has proved this. In order to produce well-educated competent teachers, educators must present theory and practice side by side. A student teacher learns about learning theories in the university and observes and experiments them during practicum settings. Eventually, he will develop his own theories.

Though his response was consistent with the theories of constructivism, his introductory sentence, *Ok, but what I'm going to tell you is from my personal reading*, indicates that others in the programme may not be in a position to have the same level of awareness. This inference has been made because of the other remarks the same person made in the interview. Here are some of the remarks.

I strongly believe that this (Competency Based Approach) is the foundation for our practices. This is the dominant assumption living with the university instructors and with the school teachers. This must be changed. Unless it is changed, no one listens to you even when you try to explain things in the new perspective. These underlying assumptions attract them to that end.

In another instance, this same person made this remark on the threat of the ongoing programme. "Perhaps lack of awareness. I have come to see all these issues these days as I read the literature because of my assignment to this position..."

Moreover, from the responses to other items in the FGDs, we can see a lot of things that could show their low levels of awareness about principles and theories underlying constructivist pedagogy. One instance could be that, in the instructors' FGD, some of the participants raised the issue of weight given to practical component of the programme. They also suggested that the weight given to the content area should be raised and that of the practicum should be lowered. For example, one of the participants in the instructors' FGD stated:

So I think there was uhh...uhh. .. the credits are exaggerated too much. Minimizing the credits is also important and this gives us the room to have more content area courses. The most important content area courses were not included. They were excluded. . . . When you see the old curriculum, we had so many courses that were very important to improve the proficiency. For example, when we come to language teaching, language teaching is not only the teaching

aspects. . . . It has also gone to the other extreme. The content area courses were highly affected because of having more practicum courses.

Another participant also echoed the above idea, which would imply the relegation of the practical component towards the end of the programme.

I would like to say that they [student teachers] are very weak to [sic for] the other students (in the high schools) [sic to teach]. We have weak students and we take them to the school. We have to see the other side. We have students at high school. So they are taking them as laboratory [sic subjects]. Because inexperienced teacher [sic teachers] as we see in a month, two or three go out to practice teaching. So we shouldn't put ... students in the schools, as [sic] experiment [sic subjects] because this is...it is not a good thing to me.

Though the statements quoted above sound suggesting that early field experiences are unethical, they show, on the other hand, the speaker has mistaken them for real classroom teaching by taking over classes from cooperating teachers while having little or no content or subject matter knowledge.

This belief was also evident in the documents reviewed. In the series of workshop, this issue appeared to be contentious. Different universities proposed the reduction of the weight given to practicum and its relegation towards the end of the programme, which makes it appear to be oriented by the technical-rationality (Schon, 1987) or rationality (Elliot, 1984) or Wallace's (1991) applied science model, in which student teachers acquire theoretical knowledge driven from outsider researcher and try to apply it later.

According to the minutes of the forum held to standardize the English Education Curriculum at Curriculum Standardization (Revision) National Workshop conducted on May 3 and 4 2007, an agreement was reached among the participants representing the English Departments of the six universities that the content area courses should be raised to 51 credit hours and the practicum courses should be lowered to 13 credit hours and relegated towards the end of the programme as the given course codes (FLEE 382, FLEE 481 and FLEE 482) indicate.

Some of the instructors in the FGD also mentioned that the change (paradigm shift) was a government imposition as a result of following the Western trends as a fad/vogue, which might imply some form of resistance despite their knowledge of its being the order of the day in the world. For example, one instructor said the following:

Many are actually aware but they consider it as imposition because it was not originated from the right people, actually it was from the policy makers. It was not the people who work as experts in higher institution, the experts. It did not emanate from them. ... When it was implemented they didn't consider their own ideas, their concerns. Because of this, they were not happy then it was more of imposition than just participatory.

Though what has been said above is true about the change initiative, it is often unlikely for people with adequate conceptual awareness to accept a change proposal if it fits the education system. The major question for people having a good level of awareness about theoretical and philosophical bases of a proposed change is often how to make the ideas work in a given context. Another instructor also added his view on the change in the following way.

I don't understand why the government had to introduce such changes only because it has got a good fund from donors. Why do we have to copy everything from the rich countries? "Different countries in the world are using this way" can't be a justification for a change.

Another important point depicting low level of belief about constructivist pedagogy is that most instructors in the FGD seemed to worry a lot about coverage of content in the syllabus. This seems to stem out of the belief that teaching is more telling or transmitting than doing, which is deep-rooted in the traditional and cultural attitude towards education or teaching. The following extracts from the instructors' FGD illustrate these points.

If I have to do my work in the same way as suggested in the course modules, I can't cover the syllabus. So, I often tell my students to do the group discussions with their friends out of the class time because the most important thing is giving the highlights of the lesson to cover the designed content of the course. It is time wasting for me to get students to work in pairs and groups, and also they have nothing to learn from each other because all the students are very weak and know nothing.

The first two statements show that the teacher's role is to transmit the designed content of the course material and the learners' role is to receive knowledge from a teacher and to work hard to retain that knowledge. The last statement also shows that using group and pair work activities in a classroom is a waste of time as little can be learned in this process as compared to the teachers telling students all the required information. So from this, it can be inferred that the instructors had a different epistemological belief that their most important duty is their teaching rather than the students learning and that it is up to the students to master what the teachers covered in their lectures by putting extra efforts.

In fact, there seems to be another factor that underlies the above quote, i.e., the actual contents of old courses were not practically reduced except reducing their weight in terms of credit hours when the courses were redesigned in the new programme.

All the arguments support the absence of conceptual deliberations among the teacher educators. Despite the fact that the English department has good expertise in ELT methodology, all the practicum courses are tuned to principles of general methodology as the reviewed documents revealed. For example, the evaluation checklist and the portfolio formats as well as the school reports on student teachers' performance showed disregards to pedagogical content knowledge domain.

The portfolios reviewed for this study also confirm the lack of conceptual grasp, i.e., the student teachers were expected only to respond to the stimuli given in the format. This means that the student teachers were hardly expected to articulate their professional thinking to describe what they did and how and why they did it. Moreover, the inherent social nature of learning in the professional practices was not addressed at all. They were not told to keep learning journals both in their portfolios and action research.

The evaluation checklist, being primarily concerned with the generic pedagogical skills, addresses only one point in relation to specific subject matter knowledge, i.e., ability to deliver knowledge, which itself is the major concern of transmission model.

7.1.3 Beliefs about the goals of the EFL teacher education programme

The qualitative data gathered from multiple sources seem to confirm that the participants have a low level of awareness about the goals of the new EFL teacher education programme despite their claimed awareness. This has been evidenced by the different focus group discussions, the observation of activities in both post-teaching conferences and classrooms and documents reviewed, especially the course materials and portfolios compiled by student teachers.

As confirmed in the cooperating teachers' FGD, they are not in a position to know their responsibilities clearly in the new programme. For example, all the participants in the FGD agreed completely when one of the cooperating teachers said the following.

... I think this (the selection of cooperating teachers) is based on simply we are teachers in the high school. Student teachers come to our school and simply take

over our classes. In some cases there may be some organized efforts. For example, if you are a unit leader, you will be selected and be given training [...], and then you will collaborate and organize things over. But there is no as such organized selection and training for all teachers. We are included simply because we are teachers here.

In contrast, the instructors in their FGD claimed that they are quite aware of the goals of the new EFL teacher education programme.

But they confessed that they are not doing their best of attain these goals for different reasons. The first reason they mentioned is that the students are too weak to achieve the far-fetched goals of the programme.

How can we expect these students to write well-organized reflective reports? It would be foolish to expect our current students to do so. They can't even spell their names correctly, let alone to express themselves in English. All the reports they submit to us a carbon copy of fellow friends' work.

Another instructor attempted to explain the nature of the students in such a way.

I think the problem is with student placement by the Ministry. All competent candidates are placed in other faculties like medicine, engineering, law, economics, and so on. The least scorers in the preparatory programme are placed in education faculties and the students are incapable. They wouldn't have joined the university at all if it had been three or four years before.

According to the instructors, the second reason is that the actual context does not allow them to apply the strategies leading to the goals.

We have a large number of students in a class. All the principles in the programmes can be put into practice in classes of a small size. In my class for ELT methodology, there are about 52 students.

The third reason is that these goals require them to exert more energy and time, which is scarce due to other demanding responsibilities. One of the instructors in the FGD, for example, said the following:

I would like to mention the teachers (instructors) do not have interest in their profession. For this reason, they don't want to implement active learning methods in the classroom, because active learning methods ask a lot. You have to consider your students learning, you have to follow and study their drawbacks, and you have to do something [sic. to] activate this problem [sic. to accomplish this undertaking]. Present teaching involves concerns for all these problems. They have to do a lot to enter into [sic. ...] the class

Another instructor in the FGD also complained about the tight schedule that instructors had because of the load of demanding responsibilities on their shoulders.

ut uh...uh..still there is also a problem with the..uh..the overall programme of the university when we are going out to implement the practicum programme. We teach other students in the university and we teach other batches also within the department. When we are out of campus to supervise the practicum courses, other courses will be affected because we do not teach about a month. So we have to give these make-up classes and there would be a lot of problem.

Some of the documents reviewed and the classroom observations also indicate that the tasks or activities in the ongoing programme and the assumed roles of the participants are not related to or based on the goals of the programme. This will be discussed in the following sections.

Though the teacher educators claimed that they are quite aware of the goals of the current EFL teacher education programme, i.e. to produce well-educated reflective English language teachers, so many things indicate that the programme is being implemented in an environment that does not support all the means to the end. Among these, one is the absence of training for cooperating teachers. The nearby high schools were told to host student teachers and so were the schoolteachers to help the practicing teachers by the concerned authoritative bodies through an administrative circular. The university organized a workshop for school coordinators, who were unit leaders and directors in the partner schools. These people became responsible for placing student teachers in each class. This shows that the university worried much about the management of the practicum programme, leaving aside the main task (how the student- teachers could benefit a lot from the programme). This means there seems to be an assumption that every teacher in school can be a good mentor to help these practicing students. Because of the large number of student teachers in the university, no selection of cooperating teachers based on experience, commitment and teaching skills, was made. The practices show a lack of conceptual clarity, which affects the quality of the student teachers' practicum experiences and the goal of the programme.

Another means to the end was placing activities to promote the student teachers' reflective habits, skills and attitude. However, the programme has failed to keep these activities in place in the practicum courses. Though they were expected to reflect on their experiences in their portfolios and action research during their field-based work, very little was witnessed in the process. For example, the portfolios did not require them to include personal philosophies or theories of language teaching, nor did they instruct them

to keep diaries of their experiences. There were no elements of collaborative work with either the cooperating teachers or with their peers in the process. What were observed in the action research reports are the attempts to verify the application of some theories to solve the problems they had absorbed. Even the post-teaching conferences, which were primarily based on the practicum evaluation checklist, were supervisor-dominated as the student teachers had very little to talk in relation to proper application of theoretical knowledge, characterized by a traditional model of supervision.

7.1.4. Tasks and Activities in the EFL Teacher Education Programme

The multiple data sources in this study generated data that the tasks and activities in the ongoing programme are not related to or based on the basic assumptions underlying the constructivist pedagogy and the goals of the programme. The four criteria used in the analysis to assess the qualities of the tasks and activities were transparency, consistency, theory - practice integration and organizations.

Just to show how the tasks or practical activities did not build on the basic assumptions underlying the constructive pedagogy and the goals of the programme, it would be sensible/reasonable to classify the types of tasks and activities involved in the programme and to organize the data in an iterative process from multiple data sources. There were three types of tasks studied in the EFL teacher education practicum programme: tasks of portfolio compiling, tasks of action research and the reflective dialogue or communication in teaching conferences. While the last one is an oral practice, the others are in written forms.

7.1.4.1. Tasks in Portfolio Construction

The data sources used to investigate the tasks in portfolio construction are the interviews (FGDs) and reviews of the sample of portfolios.

Transparency: The documents reviewed showed that what the student teachers wrote in their 'portfolios' (if at all they are called so) were mere responses to the questions in the teacher observation and self-evaluation form. The portfolios reviewed for this study do not provide any opportunity and structure for the student teachers to document and describe their teaching; articulate their professional knowledge; and reflect on what, how,

and why they teach. They did not create a need for student teachers to systematically examine their practice; to gather information on their practice, their students, and their schools; nor did they create a meaningful context in which to link the university and its research-based knowledge with the classroom and its practical demands (Lichtenstein, Rubin, & Grant, 1992).

There appears to be a lack of conceptual bases for the faculty's reasons and purposes for using portfolios. The actual practice appears to define their purposes in programmatic (i.e., as a requirement in a programme), rather than in pedagogical (development of student's understanding) terms. The teacher education programme does not seem to regard the development of teaching portfolios for understanding as a primary purpose of the portfolio, yet paradoxically the programme document considers that one of the most beneficial aspects of the process is to think critically about their own teaching.

Consistency: The content of the reflection, as observed in the format and sample reports are likely to belong to technical-rationality model as long as the student- teachers are encouraged to rate their observations or experiences using the knowledge they had acquired in the programme - even when they were expected to reason out their ratings, there was an underlying assumption that they would be using that knowledge to depend on. So this shows a sizable gap between the actual practice and the theory underlying the programme. The mental reactions to the perceived issues and willingness to challenge personally held values, beliefs and assumption, which can be taken as a primary purpose of the portfolio construction in constructivist teacher education, were not evident.

Even the existing tasks of portfolio construction lack consistent enactment, as confirmed by what the practicum coordinator said:

We advise them, we give them guidelines and we tell them to compile every single piece they do (during school placement). But some supervising instructors require their supervisees to do all that they were told to, while some others focus only on teaching evaluation. The advisees of the latter, consequently, do not worry about their portfolio.

Theory-Practice Integration: No attempt was evident in the 'portfolios' to include personal theories, explanations, or personal reactions to any challenges faced. The reports that student teachers wrote after completing the practicum session, which are referred to as 'portfolios' in the programme, are merely a collection of short declarative written

phrases or statements as replies to the prompts given in the format, presented in a five- or six-page form.

In light of what the literature states about uses of teaching portfolios (e.g., Loughran & Corrigan, 1995; Wolf et al., 1995; Zubizarreta, 1994; Ballantyne & Packer, 1995; Calderhead & Gates, 1993), the materials compiled as portfolios in the programme can hardly deserve the name itself because they did not serve as a way of initiating dialogue, be it with self or with others, about the problematic nature of teaching and learning from their own perspective. Therefore, it is difficult to consider them such a valuable tool in understanding the individual student teacher's insight into his/her perspective of teaching and learning, as Loughran and Corrigan (1995) suggest.

Scholars also suggest that the opportunity to share reflections with a partner, group or supervisor maybe an important factor in supporting a high level of reflection in journal writing, when students base their writing on interactions with critical friends (Hatton and Smith, 1995; Ballantyne and Packer, 1995; Francis, 1995). Despite the inherent social nature involved in the process of building student-teacher portfolio, the reviewed portfolios appeared to be written individually by student teachers, and their contents have not been derived from the individual's interaction with learners in the schools, and perhaps with observed cooperating teachers to rate certain features during the practice teaching experiences. Therefore, these portfolios never allow the student teachers to join multiple experiences and insights in line with the basic assumption that knowledge is a social construct.

Organizations: The portfolios reviewed for this study were used independently for Practicum IV session to see the organization of the activities. The FGD of student teachers confirmed that they were not clearly informed that development of the portfolio should begin during the first year and continue until graduation, even though the TESO document recommends doing so. While the recommendation of TESO and the attempt of the EFL teacher education programme to implement portfolio compilation as component indicate the good side of the organization, the lack of information how to manage the process and the inconsistent enactment of portfolio compilation as explained by the practicum coordinator show its poor management, which affects its quality organization.

7.1.4.2. Tasks in Action Research

The data sources used to investigate the tasks of action research are the interviews (FGDs) and reviews of action research reports.

Transparency: An uncritical look at the reports gives the impression of the procedures used by the student teachers: observing their classroom in order to define and redefine problems they want to address; determining kinds of information to be collected; engaging in some direct action to improve the conditions of learning; observing their own actions as problem-solving strategies, justifying those actions according to their own criteria, and evaluating their act. The main reason for this impression is the format that the reports followed.

Consistency: Action research has been regarded favorably because it can help teachers develop in-depth perspectives about the process of teaching and learning (Lacorte & Krastel, 2002). However, when the action reports reviewed for this study are seen, they are found to be the same as those which Allwright (2003) criticizes for prioritizing the search for more effective instructional techniques. Most of them seemed to have sought to solve problems which they had been thinking about before observing the classrooms by reading the literature.

Theory - Practice Integration: The instructors in the FGD commented that the reports are merely fictitious and carbon copies of other fellows' work. The instructors also condemned the student teachers for writing fictitious observation reports or copying reports from friends. It is possible to see how serious the problems are from the following comments made by two participants in the FGD:

TE 4; Anyway the problem with reflective teaching was that we haven't had the right way of monitoring. For example, one student has been ordered to write reflections on something. Then other students copy it, rephrase it, and then bring it to us and we correct those papers. We lack ways of monitoring. And in most cases, we are not able to correctly evaluate their reflections. We make them write reflection activities, we give grades in the form of assignment but we will not be confident about it.

TE 7: . . . Yeah, even there is another way. They pay money to write their portfolio. So they take it into the class. And for the whole group [. . .] the whole portfolio is the same; the same content, the same area. So it is difficult to give even grades to that portfolio. In some cases, the portfolio passes down even from last year to the

present students. They copied and came up with the same portfolio. So something should be done to protect such hindrance.

Moreover, one major issue to be critically examined through content analysis of the action research reports reviewed for this study is the presence or absence of an element of collaboration through the research process. The reports reviewed for this study do not show that the action research involves working together with at least one colleague and possibly with faculty teams. Even though all the reviewed reports mentioned that different people helped the writers in the process, no mention was made about collaborating with colleagues and observing each other's classes to reflect on teaching. Initiating dialogue with colleagues and using a model for how to communicate effectively when reflecting on improving teaching performance has not benefited other participants. The missing of this important element makes the teacher education programme lack in the inherent nature of reflective practices to integrate theory and practice through collaboration.

Organizations: The good rationale for introducing action research into the pre-service EFL teacher education is a piece of evidence representing the new paradigm that values the practitioners or “insiders” knowledge as important as that of researchers or “outsiders”. It is assumed that, if pre-service student teachers are endowed with such opportunities, student teachers will be able to lay a good foundation for later professional growth. As it is argued that the role of action research in pre-service teacher education should be to prepare teachers for a good start and for later learning, the inclusion of action research as a strategy for continuing professional development is worth appreciation. In connection to complexity of implementing action research in teacher education, the need to embed action research in the total infrastructure of the education programme seems to have been achieved. This means that action research has been embedded in the objectives, course content, procedures and organization.

The need for embedding should also apply to the schools with which the institutes collaborate. However, this has been done not through awareness raising orientations to introduce their conceptual bases, but through bureaucratic imposition. This was evident in the type of help that cooperating teachers should have provided. Furthermore, the

teacher educators' complaints about authenticity of the action research reports indicate the poor management of the task.

7.1.4.3. Tasks in Teaching Conferences

The data sources used to investigate the tasks in teaching conferences are the interviews (FGDs), post-teaching conference observations and the reviews of student teaching evaluation checklist.

Transparency: The student-teaching evaluation checklist required the university supervisors to hold a discussion (reflective dialogue) with the student teachers observed and to include the reaction of the observed student teachers and the amount of time spent on the discussion. However, the observed teaching conferences did not produce data confirming this occurrence. Despite the aim of these dialogues supposedly to enhance the student teachers reflectivity, they were characterized by giving feedback in a traditional way. Therefore, the presence of the element in the evaluation checklist enables one to say that the tasks have external transparency. On the other hand, its impracticality shows a lack of transparency.

Consistency: In light of the evaluation checklist content, anyone would expect the post-teaching conferences to focus on the generic teaching skills and knowledge like lesson planning, students' activity and classroom management. Nevertheless, the teaching conferences made mention of important ELT-specific pedagogy as well. This shows that the ELT university supervisors were not actually satisfied with the existing evaluation tool.

The attempt to review supervisor's evaluation tool has disclosed that there is a visible inconsistency between what the ELT methodology courses teach and what is emphasised in the practicum evaluation tools. So, the employment of these evaluation tools suggests that generic teaching skills are largely emphasised at the expense of pedagogical content knowledge as far as the same tools are used by all departments regardless of the differences in pedagogical content knowledge domains.

The absence of teaching conferences between cooperating teachers and student teachers and the supervisor-dominated conferences between teacher educators and student

teachers indicate a lack of consistency between the aims and the practices of the component.

Theory - Practice Integration: The FGDs also confirmed that there are no observations of video-taped lessons to encourage critical analyses, nor are there stimulated recall discussions in post-observation conferences between supervisor and supervisee during practicum sessions.

The student teachers in the FGD disclosed that most of their supervisors, let alone to have stimulated recall discussions, do not spare any time to allow them to describe, explain, examine and evaluate their own teaching after the supervision. The instructors also said that they were too busy to do things as suggested in the programme. One of them in the FGD blamed his fellow instructors for their selfishness in this way.

Everybody knows that some of us are too busy to supervise student teachers on their field experiences and to advise them on their action research projects. It is clear that they are not doing things in the right way. But they strongly claim the work because they don't want to miss the money paid for the job. I remember one case in which one practicum supervisor finished supervising eight student teachers within two hours in eight classes. What does it mean? He used around 10 – 15 minutes for supervising each student. He didn't even have time to talk to them after his observation. He told them to see him later in his office. Then I don't know what he did. But finally he gave grades to the students. I'm sure he wouldn't have taken the responsibility if there had been no payment for it.

This blame shows the teaching conferences are sometimes held for namesake only because they are established as requirements. Such practices cast some doubt about the existence of reflective dialogues in a proper way. The student teachers' complaints about their university supervisors' inability to spare enough time for the conferences also show that the conferences do not support the opportunities for integration of theory and practice as long as the student teachers to describe, explain, examine and evaluate their own teaching. This means the dominant practices maintain the traditional theory-practice divide.

Organizations: First of all, the requirement of post-teaching conferences between student teachers and supervisors has made the programme appear somewhat organized in a sense that it has spared time and space in the programme. However, the observed few attempts to hold reflective dialogues between the two parties and the absence of teaching conferences between student teachers and cooperating teachers indicate the poor

management that has decoloured the organization of the task to enhance student teachers' reflectivity.

7.1.5. Roles of Participants in the EFL Teacher Education Programme

The qualitative data analysis revealed that the roles of participants have not changed as much as the conceptual framework of programme requires the participants to assume. The data have been arranged from multiple data sources to show the findings in terms of roles of the programme participants' background: student teachers, cooperating teachers and teacher educators.

7.1.5.1. Roles of Student Teachers

The criteria used in the data analysis to assess the roles of the student teachers are reflectivity, intersubjectivity, negotiation, and regulation. The data sources used to investigate their roles in the programme process were the interviews (FGDs), classroom and teaching conference observations, portfolios and action research reports.

Reflectivity: With regard to reflectivity, the term *reflection* is frequently used in different tasks and activities in the programme.

The portfolio format supports opportunities for student teachers' reflection. In the part of the portfolio, they are expected reflect on their observations of cooperating teachers' class using the prompts to identify type of method used and questioning techniques employed, to describe activities students engaged in and assessment techniques used, to estimate the amount of time used by the teacher and students and to write general comments.

In the second part of their portfolios they are expected reflect on their own teaching using the given prompts such as achievement of objectives, balance between teacher and student activity, teaching / learning method chosen, the most successful activity, and the reason, timing/place of the lesson and effectiveness, advantages and the purpose of assessment techniques used.

The portfolios are collections of answers to the given stimuli in the classroom observation report form, the lesson plan form with self evaluation form and the annual lesson plan evaluation form.

In their action research projects, they are expected to reflect what they have learnt from doing the action research. (a) it helped them solve the problems under study, (b) it helped them become more aware of their own practices and of the gaps between their beliefs and their practices, and (c) it helped them be more thoughtful about the complexity of teaching.

However, the type of reflection to be fostered through these activities is difficult to identify. None of the reflective activities in the practicum portfolio work encourage or require student teachers to write their personal reflections on their observations or teaching experiences. Thus, the reports seemed to be no more different from descriptive writing as Hatton and Smith (1995) identified even though the expected reflections are at a technical, and in some cases, a practical level. The action research reports that the student teachers wrote barely included the critical reflections. What can be observed in these reports is mere descriptive reflection.

(Inter) Subjectivity: In terms of (inter)subjectivity which is involved in personal and social process in the construction of knowledge, limited opportunities have been provided in the practicum sessions. Most tasks in the practicum courses do not require students to work in pairs and small groups during their portfolio and action research projects to encourage interactions fostering individual and collective commitment. The instructors in the FGD confirmed that they do not give such assignments in pairs or groups for fear that some students might depend on others in the group work.

Negotiation: As regards negotiation, which concerns involvement of participants in collaborative construction of meaning and decision making, the programme lacks this quality at different levels. First of all, in the curriculum design, the main debate was about the issue of the weight assigned to content knowledge and practicum. Despite the fact that both reflective/inquiry oriented and personalistic teacher education paradigms, which are both shaped by constructivist learning paradigm, attempting to respond to the self-perceived needs and concerns of trainees rather than defining the content in advance (Ziechner, 1983), this issue has been debatable to date even at the department level. All the arguments are based on the teacher educators' intuitions and no attempt has been

made to hear from the students to assess what student teachers would say regarding the content and the process of their learning experiences.

Secondly, the absence of pre-teaching conferences between supervisors and student-teacher also deprives the student teachers of their right to negotiation because the *pre-teaching conference* would have created an opportunity for the student teachers both to know about the focus of the forthcoming classroom visit and justify or modify their plans, perceptions and feelings through negotiations.

The evaluative tones dominating the post-teaching conferences have also left student teachers disempowered to defend their own ideas, feelings and values. Let us what one student teacher said in the FGD:

When my supervisor, for example, gives his feedback, he does not begin with your strengths; he tells you your weaknesses or focuses on the negative side. When I tried to raise a question, we tended to enter into confrontation. Then he said, “ I have finished, that is all.” He never allows anyone to question his comments. Trying again to explain my reason, I told him that I followed the textbook and the teacher’s guide. But he refused to listen to me saying that the book is not the bible. Sometimes, he tended to call you bad names such as ‘keshim” (Amharic slang meaning ‘silly/awkward’).

Such types of conferences carrying evaluative tones when coupled with the existing power relation are likely to leave the student teachers passive recipients of information, rather than empowering them to negotiate their beliefs and perceptions.

Regulation: The FGD of the instructors confirmed that there were no attempts by the staff to get their students keep learning journals. Though the programme document recommended the use of different mechanisms for learners’ self-regulation, the actual absence of the use of reflective journal, which provides a vehicle for student teachers to evaluate their actions and experiences in classroom during their field-based learning (Ross, 1987), and the absence of action research seminars denied them the opportunities of regulating their actions and developing greater awareness of discrepancies between their goals and practices.

Despite the questionable authenticity of the reports, the action research process seemed to provide the student teachers with opportunities to engage in self-monitoring of practice as long as they were involved in the process, which would potentially improve their reasoning and decision-making skills and ability to be analytical about their practices

when selecting a topic, defining a problem, designing and experimenting alternative actions, gathering information on the impact of the alternative actions and reflecting on the process and result of their projects.

The observed attempts on behalf of some of the university supervisors to hold a reflective dialogue in haste with student teachers also deprived the student teachers of their chance to develop awareness of mismatch between their beliefs and practices.

7.1.5.2. Roles of Cooperating Teachers in the Existing Partnership

The data sources used to investigate the roles of cooperating teachers in the existing school – university partnership are the interviews (FGDs), conference observations and the school report reviews.

Cooperating teachers' roles

As confirmed in the cooperating teachers' FGD, all high school teachers of English language, regardless of their qualifications, experiences and commitment, in the high schools where the student teachers are placed for practicum, were made to take part in the programme. Moreover, they also disclosed that they were not given any training or induction to prepare them for this duty.

This seems the reason why the non-existence of the cooperating teachers' role to support, guide and advise them during their school placement has been confirmed by all other parties in the process. For example, one student teacher in their FGD remarked in this way:

I remember seeing the school teacher only in the first week of the placement in which I had to observe his classes. I observed him only for two periods. Then he gave me the book and a duster and disappeared.

The instructors in the FGD seemed to agree when one of them commented as follows:

For example, when the student teacher is practicing teaching, they (cooperating teachers) need to be in class to assist the practicing teacher. Most of them give the class and go away. They won't be around, they won't help the student. This is one. Another thing is the evaluation itself. They are giving full marks to the student teachers. They don't want to be strict, though [sic because] they haven't been attending.

Moreover, the interview with a practicum coordinator confirmed the non existence of the cooperating teachers' role to support, guide and advise student teachers during their school placement.

I would rather say there is nothing as such. When our student teachers arrive at schools where they are assigned, the school teachers hand in their classes to them and disappear from the schools. So it is better to say the cooperating teachers [sic. Their roles] are non existent. It is the coordinators who assign student teachers, follow their attendance and help them if they have some problems. But these people cannot assist the student teachers with pedagogical issues.

This shows that student teachers, as a result, find themselves caught in a situation in which the 'immediate supervisor' of their day-by-day progress has not formally prepared for educating them, while the supervisor with 'formal preparation' in teacher education is not readily available.

On the other hand, the cooperating teachers had something to say in response to the blames. One of them said the following:

... There is no interaction between the university and high school teachers about this teaching learning process. Before six or five years, we were But now we don't do this. I think the teachers (instructors) come one or two times and evaluate and give marks. Even the teachers (instructors) themselves don't ask what were the mistake of the students (student teachers) [sic what the mistakes of the students were]. . . . Even we don't interact with them. Even they do not give us any reading, any training about this. So there isn't any help ...

The absence of their roles was also evidenced in the field visit when the researcher tried to capture data from their pre- and post-teaching conferences with the student teacher. It was observed that supervision of practicing student teachers is facilitated by a site-coordinator or a lead teacher who helps coordinate placements and serves as a liaison officer between the school and the university. This was also further confirmed by the review of the school reports on the performance of the practicing student teachers. These reports, which should have been written by the actual classroom teacher, were filled out by the school coordinators who acted as lead teachers. As shown in the overview of the school reports the issues included in the report format are all related to the student teachers outside classroom experiences in the school. It is even difficult to say that the classroom teachers act as a cooperating teacher with no preparation for the role other than

preparation for classroom teaching as there is no evident attempt to integrate students' experiences through discussions.

The student teachers in their FGD mentioned the type of help that these cooperating teacher rendered, i.e. they gave the material needed, they allowed to be observed during the first week of the placement and some of them lent a hand when requested. This fact was also corroborated by the cooperating teachers themselves in their FGD.

The practicum coordinator at the faculty level also admitted that much of the help expected from schools, which was related to administrative rather than pedagogical issues came from the school coordinators, usually one or two people, to whom a sort of workshop had been organized at the beginning of the year.

The student teachers' action research reports, though they stated the names of some cooperating teachers in the section "*Who could help me?*", none of them mentioned the type or the degree of collaboration in the process.

This diminished role of cooperating teachers also clearly depicts not only the weak or ineffective school-university partnership, despite the proposed strong collaboration among these institutions and their members but also the little concern of both the department and the faculty for integration of students' experiences to specific course content through the existing collaboration because the school reports on student teachers' performance have got anything to do with general and subject-specific pedagogy, in this case ELT-specific pedagogy.

The existing school-university partnership

The existing school university partnership lacks a genuine and effective communication, common frame of reference and shared vision. As opposed to the promised benefits of the strong partnership recommended both in the TESO document and in the literature, the prevalent partnership does not allow students teachers to draw on different experiences and perspectives.

Despite the real need for establishment of partnerships based on collegiality and mutual recognition of the importance of the roles of student teachers, cooperating teachers, schools and the teacher education faculties (Cameron & Wilson, 1993; Gendall, 1997; Goodfellow, 1998), the prevalent partnership has not been facilitated and shared

understandings have not been developed by providing cooperating teachers with the opportunity and skills to work closely with pre-service teacher educators through secondment as tutors into the programme (Russell & Chapman, 1999). It seems to be one reason for which the reported problems of writing fictitious reports and copying from friends have flourished. If cooperating teachers were given proper training and equal responsibilities, they could definitely control the problems because they would be able to work more closely than the university supervisors with the student teachers.

Because the knowledge base required to be an effective cooperating teacher which includes personal knowledge, the craft knowledge of a skilled teacher, knowledge of educational theory, knowledge gained from classroom research and a good understanding of the dimensions of teaching that need to be considered in planning effective strategies to work with student teachers (Cameron & Wilson, 1993; Gibbs, 1996; Goodfellow, 1998; Korthhagen & Kessels, 1999) have not been planned and enacted before placement of cooperating teachers, all the practicum sessions would appear to be shaped by the craftsman apprenticeship model.

7.1.5.3. Roles of Teacher Educators

The data sources used to investigate the tasks in theoretical courses are the interviews (FGDs) and classroom observations.

The multiple data sources confirmed that the teacher educators had assumed all the duties and responsibilities of the programme activities. For example, the teacher educators in their FGD disclosed that they were working in a very tight schedule both in the campus based and field based activities. They also pointed out about student teachers copying from each other or writing fictitious school observation reports in their portfolios. So it will not be surprising to discover as numerous cases of student teachers' copying and cheating or writing fictitious reports as possible when one consider the circumstance under which the teacher educators are working in a tight schedule, being solely responsible for every activity of the programme. No wonder their feedback becomes more evaluative than clinical given that the partnership with schools scattered in a wide geographical distance with poor infrastructure resulted in a limited number of teacher educators visits to schools during the practicum placements.

This situation, in turn, has led to the existing mode of supervision which contributes to complaints by student teachers that university instructors are not readily available and not helpful when they are available. These complaints can be understood easily when one considers the circumstances under which the task of supervision is conducted. The university supervisor has responsibility for several students placed in a distant school within a short period of time. As university instructors, they direct their primary efforts and attentions toward the campus where they primarily work and where they are too busy to pay full attention to supervision of student teachers in widely scattered schools.

Therefore, it is difficult to imagine that these supervisors can adequately help student teachers with continuous development of appropriate teaching styles when they observe only small segments of teaching performances in relatively unfamiliar classrooms. Therefore, the supervision seem to result in barely more than a public relations gesture rather than a substantial attempt to enhance student teachers' professional development.

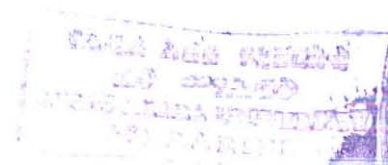
7.2. INTERPRETATION OF THE RESULTS

In this section, the findings of the qualitative part of the study reported in the preceding section will be discussed and some attempts will be made to relate these findings to those of the quantitative part of the study reported in the preceding chapter.

7.2.1. Beliefs about Basic Assumptions and principles

In Section 7.1.2 the findings show that there are numerous pieces of evidence that indicate low level of beliefs about the theories, principles and basic assumptions underlying constructivist pedagogy.

First of all, the finding showed that cooperating teachers' diminished roles in the programme as co-educators. They were not found participating in helping student teachers with their portfolio and action research projects, nor were they seen presenting challenge and support to help student teachers deconstruct their prior beliefs and reconstruct new meanings in any teaching conferences. The only type of help they rendered to student teachers in the practicum programme was supplying some materials and allowing student teachers to observe their classes. These findings are consistent with those of the quantitative part which revealed that they self-rated their collegial roles



higher than their professional roles and their ratings of the practicum support system, and their dialogues with student teachers were significantly lower than their counterparts' ratings.

All these findings confirming their diminished roles can be related to the fact that they were not empowered in any way to take the responsibility and to assume their new roles. The absence of training or induction, or even briefing sessions can be attributable to their lack of conceptual clarity with the principles and assumptions underlying the new programme which perhaps has negatively impacted their participation as co-educators. As the quantitative part of the study showed that they had the least strong beliefs about constructivist pedagogy, the qualitative part also confirmed that their little participation might be the result of their lived philosophy which they have not yet modified.

Secondly, the proposed strong school-university partnership has not come true. The findings indicate that existing school-university partnership has remained unchanged in a sense that it is in effect for the benefits of the teacher education faculty to create practice opportunities for its student teachers. This weak or ineffective school-university partnership can also be related to the belief that the practicum is primarily for practice opportunities, as it is true for an applied science model in which the traditional theory-practice divide prevails. These findings point up to the conceptual problems with the implementers as well as the policy makers.

Thirdly the criticism upon the cooperating teachers for contributing little to the process is another piece of evidence demonstrating the conceptual problems in the university teacher education programme because the university teacher education programme and the teacher educators had unjustly expected the cooperating teachers to play their roles without any training or induction for their preparation. This shows that the teacher education faculty in general and the English Department in particular failed to critically examine why such an extended practicum and the related tasks are needed and how effectively they could be managed.

On the other hand, though the findings of the quantitative part of the study showed that the teacher educators had strong beliefs about principles, theories and basic assumptions of constructivist pedagogy, their actual practices have not been found supporting their

claims. As shown in the nature of the tasks of the programme, the proper implementation of the programme activities like portfolio and reflective dialogue was not consistent with the teacher educators' espoused beliefs about the principles and theories. The content of EFL student teachers' portfolios and their process, for example, were not made consistent with the basic assumptions that brought them in effect in the programme. The findings that the teaching conferences did not help student teachers enter into reflective dialogues as much as expected are inconsistent with the espoused beliefs about the basic assumptions of reflective approach.

Besides, the emphasis of general pedagogical knowledge over pedagogical content knowledge in the field-based experiences of student teacher such as the content of the school reports, the evaluation checklist and the portfolios do not support the espoused strong beliefs of teacher educators. Such inconsistencies are likely to serve as evidence of problems with conceptual awareness because all these findings point up to the fact that deep-rooted beliefs of the implementers do guide their actions in the programme.

7.2.3. Beliefs about Goals

The findings show that the cooperating teachers are not aware of the goal of the programme in any way. Their placement as cooperating teachers in the programme without any training or induction confirms not only their bare-handedness but also the conceptual problem of the policy makers and the teacher education programme owners, who seem to hold an assumption that any schoolteacher can act effectively as a mentor. This may appear as if expecting to reap what one has not sown. In other words, this tends to be an attempt to deprofessionalize teacher education, as Tripp (1990) remarked, which views that both learning to teach and teaching to teach as simple as anything. This in turn indicates the insufficient conception of educational theories and vague understanding of the major goals of the programme.

The finding also showed that the EFL teacher educators' claimed awareness of the goals of the programme to produce well-educated, competent and reflective practitioners, but they pointed out three contextual factors (large number of student teachers, poor academic background of the candidates and heavy workload) affecting the proper implementation of the various programme activities leading to the goals.

Even if these conditions have the potential to affect the motivation and commitment of implementers, they cannot totally wipe them out if the teacher educators really have strong beliefs about the goals of the programme and strong beliefs about their efficacy to implement the change which they clearly perceived the need for. These factors can be real excuses for not putting any effort for implementing a change if the implementers felt coerced when entering into the process. The findings of this part of the study revealed that some of the educators did not seem to have felt the need for the change introduced by TESO.

These kinds of people are often heard complaining about the contextual factors and failure of programmes rather than contributing their own part to the solutions of the problems of which they are part. If they are asked for solutions to the problems, their most likely answer is a return to old practices, which they are confident in and familiar with.

The finding that the programme is being implemented in an environment that does not support all the means to the end indicates that most of the activities are kept in place in programmatic (as a program component) rather than pedagogical or developmental terms (as component of professional development). The greatest worry of the university about the management of the practicum programme, leaving aside the main task (how the student teachers could benefit a lot from the programme) can be one indicator of weaker beliefs about the goals of the programme.

If the portfolios not requiring to include personal philosophies or theories of language teaching, the absence of ELT-specific issues in the practicum evaluation checklist, and the traditional supervisor-dominated teaching conferences have not become the part of their agenda as EFL teacher educators to produce reflective practitioners, what other major concern can they have on their agenda as long as they claim strong beliefs in this goal.

The actual practices such as the portfolio construction, the action research projects and reflective dialogue during teaching conferences seem to have been tuned to the applied science model. This feature indicates the insufficient conception of educational theories and vague understanding of the major goals of the programme.

As Ziechner (1983) observes that reflection can be incorporated in every teacher education paradigm in attempt to update their programmes, the current programme practices are all old practices redressed in features of the new paradigm. Thus, this situation can be explained by different factors. Primarily, the acceptance of these new elements and modifying them by features of old paradigm shows that the programme implementers have weak conceptual bases to argue on and have accepted the elements to be incorporated in programmatic terms. All teacher educators in the department seem to struggle to attend to the external requirements which might indicate that the low level of awareness about theory of teaching, the role of cooperating teachers in teaching to teach, and of the purpose of portfolio compiling and action research leaves many teacher educators with few conceptual tools to analyze reform movements and appears to render them more willing to cooperate and comply to external mandates. In other words, they do not question the purpose because they do not have a framework within which to do so, and they succumb to the accountability pressure by attending to the most pressing needs to comply with the requirements without a critical analysis of their work.

Secondly, the modification of the elements in the old paradigm has been made in light of what the teacher educators are confident in and what they are familiar with, which is referred to as *pitfall of familiarity* in the literature. This is also consistent with what Kuhn (1970) says about the struggle of the old paradigms for survival by incorporating some features to address the anomalies in the old paradigm.

The general pedagogical knowledge has been found predominating in the practicum courses as observed in the evaluation checklist and the portfolios. This seems to have its roots in the conceptual problems of the EFL teacher educators who may not have adequate conceptual orientation to resist the dominancy of the pedagogical science educators or in the little interest /motivation of the EFL teacher educators to take the responsibility and to tailor the practicum experiences in ELT-specific issues.

7.2.3. Tasks and Activities in EFL Practicum

In section 7.1.5 the reported findings show that the tasks in the practicum courses have problems in terms of transparency consistence, integration of theory and practice and organization. The inclusion of the portfolio compiling task, for example, appears to be programmatic rather than developmental/pedagogical, because what the student teachers

did in the process is not adequate to portray their professional development in terms of articulating their beliefs ideas and their developments and making the tacit explicit (Freese, 1999). This finding can explain the finding of the quantitative part of this study that revealed that the teacher educators rated the usefulness of student teachers' portfolio compiling experiences in the programme.

The absence of teaching conferences between cooperating teachers and student teachers and the supervisor-dominated conferences between teacher educators and student teachers are indicators of incongruence between the programme practices and the assumptions and goals underlying them. These findings are consistent with the finding of the quantitative part of this study that revealed low rated dialogues with the cooperating teachers.

The finding revealed that the tasks of action research have qualities of external transparency and organization in a sense that the task has been embedded in the programme as a component, even though the alleged non-authenticity has cast doubt about their quality of theory-practice integration and consistency, This finding can explain the finding of the quantitative part of this study that revealed a remarkable difference between the teacher educators' and student teachers' ratings of the usefulness of action research experiences in the programme.

Moreover, the observed qualities of external transparency and organization in all the three types of tasks in a sense that the programme has spared time and space for the tasks despite their poor management and in a sense that student teachers are clearly instructed to do these tasks to promote reflectivity despite their inconsistent and inefficient enactment suggest the prevalence of more rhetoric than practice in the programme.

The major focus of the TESO programme, the extended practicum experience, has been taken for only practicing or acquiring teaching skills for the student teachers. But this component has always been kept in place not merely for practice opportunities to try out theories learned in the university based courses, as it were in the applied science model, but also for learning ground where student teachers are encouraged to integrate theory and practice by practicing theories and theorizing from their practices. So this component is very essential to acquire teaching skills, reasoning and decision making skills and knowledge of the context (school, school culture and society) as Richards' (1998)

classification. Reflection through portfolios compiling, action research and teaching conferences could have been effectively achieved through these tasks. However, the existing extended practicum experience has been criticized for not being as fruitful as the amount of attention given to it primarily because the related activities like action research, portfolio and dialogic reflection in the teaching conferences have been taken as peripheral to the central work of teaching practice, as Zeichner (1993) commented. All the debates to minimize the weight given to practicum seem to stem out of this misconception.

7.2.4. Participants' Roles

The findings showed that the practicum activities, at least theoretically, supported opportunities for student teachers' roles in the knowledge construction process in terms of reflectivity, negotiation and regulation except intersubjectivity. In terms of reflectivity, the portfolio format created opportunities for student teachers' reflection on their classroom observations, their own teaching, and so did the action research project and the teaching conferences on the general process of their projects and on their own teaching, respectively. However, the content of the reflection are limited in scope and quality. The action research also had a potential to provide the opportunities for student teachers' roles in terms of negotiation and regulation despite the dubious authenticity.

However, student teachers' roles in terms of intersubjectivity are found very scant. This is related to the supervisor-dominated post-teaching conferences, the absence of portfolio groups, action research seminars and journal.

The absence of conferences (both pre- and post-teaching) between cooperating teachers and student teachers, and the supervisor-dominated post-teaching conferences seemed to have impacted the process of knowledge construction through learners' exposure to cognitive conflicts. This in turn affected the expected new roles of teacher educators, cooperating teachers and student teachers. This finding confirmed the findings of the quantitative part of the study that revealed the low rated roles of teacher educators and cooperating teachers in general and even lower rated roles of cooperating teachers in particular.

The findings also showed that cooperating teachers had very little role in the programme even though both the TESO document and the literature insist on their indispensable roles. The findings also showed the faculty frequently suggested that the schools were not doing an adequate job of working with student teachers though the fact was that the classroom teachers acted as cooperating teachers with no preparation for the role other than preparation for classroom teaching, as opposed to the constructivist standpoint. This criticism appears to be groundless for the following facts.

1. Student teachers' school placement is conducted on a basis of *a priori* assumption is that every classroom teacher effectively supervises student teachers.
2. The university supervisors seem to have considered student teachers their primary responsibility. Their contact and communication have been focused toward only student teachers but not cooperating teachers.
3. The university is not in a position to use its specialized knowledge of teacher education to help classroom teachers work more effectively with student teachers by directing their efforts toward developing experiences for cooperating teachers and promoting a willingness and helpful attitudes, knowledge, and skills to enhance a teacher's ability to guide student teachers.

Theoretically, it is believed that the school- university collaboration or partnership is meant for mutual benefits. Other than the intended benefits for student teachers to gain from the partnership, cooperating teachers and their schools are expected to benefit from it. Genuine school-university partnership is likely to provide teachers with greatly enhanced opportunities and more time to reflect on their teaching while working with student teachers and to be immersed in the literature and on-going dialogue with other teacher educators, which would likely have an impact on the professional development.

However, this has not materialised in our context as long as the university has not created the opportunities for the cooperating teachers to be empowered to the required level to have both the knowledge base and the confidence to actively assist the student teachers in their professional development. This situation can be said to contribute to the persistent dichotomy between theory and practice.

Moreover, it seems that the faculty has the academic culture in education that tends to marginalise school teachers, to which Tripp (1990) refers as an ideology that denigrates and de-professionalises teachers as long as the opportunity for the establishment of personal and professional relationships between student-teachers, schoolteachers and lecturers has not yet led to a more balanced input into the process. This in turn means that the new approach has not recognised and legitimised the teacher education role of classroom teachers in spite of a sharp expansion in practicum courses involving a series of school experiences in the EFL teacher education programme, meant to allow the contextualising of pedagogical learning.

The situation of the current partnership has been observed to be essentially partnership of institutions, not people, in which the participants were entered into being forced upon the participants by administrative decree. The evident problems of the partnership can be attributed to insufficient educational concepts, as the existing school-university partnership is used as imposed structure of curriculum reform, provoking 'contrived collegiality' as Rudduck (1992) and Grimmett & Crehan (1992) term it in their studies because the cooperating teachers are not beneficiaries in any way from the programme.

As opposed to the fact that in many teacher education programmes, supervisors at the university monitor the practicum, but the responsibility for the practicum is handed to the mentors in school (Hascher, Cocard and Moser, 2004), what has been clearly observed in the practicum setting is that the perceived higher status has made teacher educators assume more responsibility in the process of teacher preparation.

7.2.5. Major Factor Affecting the implementation Process

From all the findings reported and discussed so far, it is possible to conclude that the programme implementation has been heavily affected by r conceptual problems as a major factor as these findings are related to mainly conceptual problems in the implementation process. It might be good to discuss how this major factor manifests itself in the implementation problems.

These problems can be attributed to various possible factors interrelated to each other. Among them, the following are believed to be explanatory.

- 1. Absence of attempt to address the role of beliefs in the learning process*

When the actual practicum experiences are examined from a perspective that cognitive psychology offers on both how important student teaching is and how its potential can be realized, the tasks and the practical activities have not yet taken any constructivist shape. In light of cognitive psychologists' assumptions about the roles that beliefs play in thinking, acting, and learning, the EFL teacher education programme activities have not helped student teachers to examine and revise their belief systems through the reflections the student teachers carried out. The absence of portfolio groups, learning journals, and action research seminars has not changed the beliefs about knowledge, learning, and teaching that underlie new forms of practice to differ from those that underlie more traditional pedagogy.

To facilitate fundamental changes in teaching practice through these dual roles of beliefs - as both targets of change and filters through which change occurs - cooperating teachers and university supervisors should have been actively present in student teaching (Feiman-Nemser & Buchmann, 1987) to challenge student teachers' existing beliefs and practices (McDiarmid, 1990) as well as to model pedagogical thinking and actions. Likewise, the nature of the portfolios should have enabled them to articulate their personal beliefs and theories to be modified through seminars and workshops. This means the student teachers are denied the opportunities for good integration of theory and practice according to constructivist theories of learning.

2. Not recognizing the role of collaboration in the process of learning to teach

If one accepts Vygotsky's arguments that thinking begins on a social plane before it becomes internalized, collaboration can provide social support for reflection and a basis for dialogue between the learner and "more knowledgeable others" or opportunities to learn from peers. Be it in peer group discussions or in teaching conferences with either a university supervisor or a cooperating teacher, defending one's ideas in a group encourages consideration of the underlying reasons and principles for one's beliefs. Members of a group encourage their peers to back up their arguments. This requires elaboration and extension of ideas and provides those ideas with more coherence. Opposing arguments from some members require rethinking original statements and thus encourage further elaborations (Brown & Palinscar, 1989).

So when the collaborative aspects of the tasks in the programme are investigated in this critical lens, the social nature is not evident at all in most of the programme tasks. Analysis of the data showed that the partnership with peers and experienced colleagues had not enabled them to gain more understanding of their teaching.

Firstly, if the programme accepts action research as a means to promote reflective skills and habits, the action research projects should have equally addressed the two components (a) researching one's own practice and situation, and (b) doing so collaboratively. The collaboration could have been achieved by, for example, creating a forum for a seminar and working collaboratively to improve that practice/situation (e.g., Altrichter, 1985). Secondly, accessing the student teachers thinking about their teaching and learning during portfolio construction may be through such things as portfolio groups. In any case, reflecting on these experiences is important so that student teachers have an opportunity to reconsider their point of view and to see situations in new or different ways. Portfolio group sessions offer student teachers a safe, trusting, and non-judgemental environment in which to explore their views and to reflect on their teaching and learning. These sessions form the basis of the processes that are the precursors to portfolio item production. The process involves learning about teaching, as well as learning about learning.

3. Lack of structure and guidance for reflection

Another possible explanation for the major difficulty observed in the student teachers' reflective reports is that the identification of a suitable knowledge base as a starting point was not made for helping student teachers first understand concepts of reflection and then apply especially the more demanding forms to their own teaching. There seemed to be dangers of requiring individuals to reflect without learning, as opposed to the emphasis of the literature on the need for support, guidance and direction for student teachers. For example, Parson and Stephenson (2005) stress on support in developing specific metacognitive analytical skills on experiences with which they are quite familiar and in which they are confident. A well-structured reflection framework (Boud & Walker, 1998; Edwards and Collison, 1996; Reiman, 1999) with explicit prompts to help students to regulate and monitor their cognition (Schraw, 1998) is believed to give the trainee teachers experience of the process of reflection through clearly defined situations

(Korthagen, 1999). Hatton and Smith (1995) also mention the need to consider time and opportunity for development to foster effective reflection.

Despite this, there seemed to be not only an emphasis upon reflection too soon in their preparation, which may be alienating to neophytes, but also a requirement for reflection without clear guidance. In such cases, it can become difficult to sustain, for both the student teachers and the instructors may see it as a rather esoteric and useless diversion from mastering the technical skills and content of teaching which they regard as essential, especially early in their training (Zeichner, 1990). In teaching preservice teachers to develop reflective habits of mind, it is wise of the teacher educators to determine the content for and quality of reflection as Valli (1997) recommended. While the content of reflection requires furnishing neophytes guidelines about what to look for as they think back on their teaching, the quality of reflection involves guiding preservice teachers to use all aspects and types of reflectivity as they think about their teaching.

In constructivist perspective, student teachers explore their beliefs and knowledge, often with the guidance of the 'more knowledgeable other' (MKO), i.e., a university supervisor and a cooperating teacher in the school-based experiences, with an intent of helping them to analyze their own experiences so that they may become aware of their own contextual knowledge and their practical reasoning about classroom situations. This is often done by analyzing videotapes of one's own teaching, observing peers while teaching, holding recall stimulated discussions, keeping reflective journals, sharing ideas with a 'critical peer' and participating in action research seminars, which are all alien to the existing programme. The absence of such carefully structured reflective tasks for critical analysis in the practicum experiences has left the student teacher disempowered to construct their own understandings, theories or personal philosophies.

4. Viewing practicum as merely practice opportunity

A further possible explanation for the difficulty in the inconsistent enactment of the strategies for helping student teachers develop reflective skills and habits is that the teacher educators could not see the activities such as reflective dialogues, portfolio development, learning journal, action research, and peer reflective groups as important as the central task of learning to teach through practical classroom experience.

All these factors are directly related to the problem of conceptual clarity in the programme. There seems to be an assumption on behalf of the programme designers that every one in the programme, especially the teacher educators, the cooperating teachers and the concerned experts in the Ministry of Education, would have a clear conceptual grasp of the modern teacher education rhetoric.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1. SUMMARY

The objective of this evaluation was to investigate the implementation process of the new EFL teacher education programme. To specifically address the problem of how well, by what process and in what context the EFL teacher education programme was implemented, and to identify factors that affected the implementation of the new programme, this implementation study aimed at describing the process of the new EFL teacher education programme in faculties of education in Ethiopia by using both closed ended survey questionnaires and an open ended, discovery oriented qualitative method

The two major objectives of the study were to explore the extent to which EFL teacher education programme participants' hold a shared set of beliefs about the new EFL teacher education operation and practices, and to explore factors that affect the proper implementation of the new EFL teacher education programme practices in light of the constructivist paradigm.

In order to evaluate the implementation of the new EFL teacher education programme, a conceptual framework was designed to gather and analyse data examining the *content, tasks, and roles* in light of the basic philosophical underpinnings and goals underpinning the programme, which are believed both to provide a *direction* to practices and to establish a framework for the *assessment* of the implementation process. Therefore, criteria were conceptualised within a constructivist perspective of teacher education and grouped into four broad areas: *assumptions, goals, tasks, and roles*, which are considered essential for critical regulation of an EFL teacher education programme within the context. Scales were developed to identify degrees of presence of the required attributes for assessing each area in the quantitative part of this study and essential questions were set to explore the required attributes for assessing each area in the qualitative part of this study.

As this evaluation study mixed both quantitative and qualitative methods, quantitative data were gathered from the six universities while the qualitative data were collected from Bahir Dar University as a case programme for in-depth investigation. Thus the study began with a quantitative method in which the application of theories or concepts was investigated, to be followed by a qualitative method involving detailed qualitative, open-ended interviews and document analysis to collect detailed views from participants and programme activities within a selected programme as a case.

The survey results showed that the participants of the programme had different levels of beliefs, proved to be statistically significant through a one-way ANOVA, which indicated that the teacher educators had stronger beliefs about constructivist pedagogy than either the student teachers who were about to graduate soon or the cooperating teachers who are supposed to help the EFL teacher education programme as co-educators.

However, the qualitative data disproved the participants' claimed beliefs about the basic assumptions and theoretical bases underlying constructivist pedagogy as the actual programme practices have been found inconsistent with the espoused beliefs.

The survey results also showed that, though the programme participants perceived the goals of the EFL teacher education programme positively, the group mean score of the teacher educators was significantly different from that of the cooperating teachers and that of the student teachers, and there was no significant difference between the latter groups' mean scores.

The qualitative data gathered from multiple sources seem to disconfirm that the participants had a good level of awareness about the goals of the new EFL teacher education programme despite their claimed awareness. Though the teacher educators claimed that they were quite aware of the goals of the current EFL teacher education programme, i.e. to produce well-educated reflective English language teacher, numerous things such as the absence of training for cooperating teachers and the absence of activities like reflective dialogues, portfolios and action research seminars to promote the student teachers' reflective habits, skills and attitude both in the theoretical and practical

courses indicated that the programme was being implemented in an environment that did not support all the means to the end.

The results of the survey study revealed that the tasks and practical activities in practicum courses were not equally perceived by the three groups of respondents and that in some cases they were found less effectively employed in the programme. For example, the practicum support system, the reflective dialogues during teaching conferences, teaching portfolio compiling experiences and action research component were not implemented in a satisfying manner. The qualitative data supported these findings by showing that the tasks in practical activities had problems in terms of transparency, consistence, integration of theory and practice and organization, which are related to mainly conceptual problems.

The survey results also showed that the student teachers rated the roles of both supervisors and cooperating teachers in practicum below the expected mean value and that cooperating teachers rated their own collegial and professional roles in the practicum experiences below the expected mean value. However, the university supervisors rated their own roles no more different from the expected mean value. The qualitative case study also confirmed that the non-existent roles of cooperating teachers and the same unchanged traditional roles of the university supervisors in the new practicum setting.

8.2. CONCLUSIONS

Based on these findings, it is possible to draw the following conclusions.

1. The ongoing EFL teacher education programme is operating in the condition in which the teacher educators and cooperating teachers, allegedly working towards the same goal, do not seem to hold shared beliefs about the basic assumptions and goals underlying the programme.
2. There is a sizable inconsistency between the practicum activities and the assumptions and goals underpinning them. Though attempts have been made to include those features of constructivist paradigm, the actual practices are not shaped by the constructivist conceptions. The activities or the tasks have not fully developed upon the basic principles, theories and assumptions of constructivist

pedagogy and the overall goals underlying the new EFL teacher education programme.

3. The roles of the programme participants have not changed at all in line with the constructivist epistemology, which addresses the role of beliefs, collaboration and structure and guidance in the learning process.
4. The enormous conceptual problem on behalf of the programme implementers is mainly responsible for deficiency in employing the suggested psycho-pedagogical strategies to promote student teachers' reflective skills in the extended practicum experiences. This is attributable to the fact that the aims of the activities were not clearly conceptualized as the evident problems in the school – university partnership, supervisory styles employed in student teaching, content of student teaching portfolio and reflection.
5. No attempt seemed to have been in place to clearly communicate the conceptual bases of the programme to cooperating teachers and empower them to exploit their better opportunities to help student teachers with school-based learning experiences.
6. The suggested strong school – university partnership has not yet evolved as university-dominated power relation characterizes the prevailing partnership.
7. There is a tendency to take a simplistic point of view about learning to teach and teaching to teach in a reflective approach, as it was evident in the involvement of every schoolteacher in nearby schools through administrative decrees and in expecting school teachers to work effectively as cooperating teachers without promoting a willing spirit and a helpful attitude, knowledge, and skills.
8. Finally, there is an enormous mismatch between rhetoric and practice in the implementation process of the programme. Thus it is possible to say that the paradigm shift has not yet emerged so far. Instead, all the efforts have been concluded in incorporating the jargons of constructivist pedagogy and attempting in labeling the traditional practices, which the participants are familiar with and confident in.

8.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings and the conclusions drawn from the study, the following recommendations are suggested in line with the identified factors affecting the proper implementation of the paradigm shift in EFL teacher education in Ethiopian context.

1. **Forums for conceptual deliberations:** Different forums should be held at various levels for conceptual deliberations to help change implementers develop their level of awareness about theories, their role, and the purpose of programme activities and to equip them with conceptual tools to analyze reform movements. If so, everyone will be in a position to question the purpose of every component of a programme because they have a framework within which to do so.
2. **Guidelines and structured activities:** As long as the EFL teacher education programme subscribes to constructivist approach, the learning tasks should take into account the roles that beliefs play in thinking, acting, and learning. The EFL teacher education programme should help student teachers to examine and revise their belief systems through the reflections the student teachers carry out in the programme activities like portfolios, learning journals, and action research, which must be carefully guided and structured. The English Department should develop guidelines to help student teachers clearly know what, why and how to do in their school-based experiences.
3. **Building small learning communities:** As recent research in teacher preparation indicates that learning is enhanced through a sense of community, the cohort structure can be used to model community building within the teacher socialization process. If students working in small groups, mutually observing each other, acting as ‘critical friends’ to each other in their portfolio groups and their action research seminars, this may encourage dialogue and discussion that will help students to identify, articulate and exchange ideas and views about their practice and with help, devise strategies for change or development. It is possible that students can act as a scaffold for each other’s thinking and that the interaction of peers at various stages in the development of reflective thinking in activities that require questioning, joint decision making and negotiation.

Ultimately, this effort can lead not only to student teachers' active engagement in the learning to teach process requiring them to assume their new roles in terms of negotiation and inter(subjectivity) in social constructivist perspective but also to a good learning opportunity for practicing using the language in an authentic manner and improving their proficiency as they work on the tasks, requiring an extensive use of English language as a tool in both written and spoken forms.

4. ***Empowering cooperating teachers:*** To make the student teaching a more fruitful experience for practicing students, teacher education programmes should reconceptualize the roles of the university supervisor and cooperating teacher in a way that university supervisors use their limited time in schools to help cooperating teachers become teacher educators. Rather than providing feedback on specific lesson characteristics, it is much better if the university supervisor empowers the cooperating teachers to the required level by modeling ways of observing student teachers and strategies for conducting conferences that focus on teaching and learning and help student teachers to become reflective about their practice. If so they can hand down the responsibility of supervision to cooperating teachers, who are always readily available for the practicing student teachers. The university supervisor can also provide support and guidance for student teachers to integrate theoretical and research-based ideas from their university courses into their teaching.
5. ***Mechanisms to support and encourage self-study:*** EFL teacher education programmes should devise mechanisms to support and encourage teacher educators to carry out action research in order to find solutions to the numerous problems in their own context. This can be helpful to the programme in two ways. Firstly, they may develop new insight into their profession and be able to solve the problems in their own situation. Secondly, they will be able to practice what they preach, i.e., if they can put into practice what they teach to their students about action research to solve problems in their immediate contexts, and then they will be modeling self-study for their students for further professional development.

6. *Genuine partnership*: To improve the situation of the current partnership, in which the cooperating teachers were entered into being forced upon by administrative circulars without any induction, the university should recognize their roles and empower them professionally through short term training to equip them with the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and dispositions. It should also pay compensation for their time and energy so that they can handle their responsibilities effectively.

7. *Further studies*: To investigate the content of theoretical courses and the effects of contextual factors, further studies should be conducted.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: STUDENT TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE.....	1
APPENDIX B: INSTRUCTORS' QUESTIONNAIRE.....	5
APPENDIX C: COOPERATING TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE.....	9
APPENDIX D: STUDENT TEACHERS' FGD GUIDE	13
APPENDIX E: INSTRUCTORS' FGD GUIDE.....	13
APPENDIX F: COOPERATING TEACHERS' FGD GUIDE	13
APPENDIX G: PRACTICUM COORDINATOR INTERVIEW GUIDE.....	14
APPENDIX H: SUMMARY OF THE DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF THE RESPONDENTS IN THE SURVEY PART OF THE MAIN STUDY.....	15
APPENDIX I: SUMMARY OF THE QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS IN TERMS OF RESPONDENTS' INSTITUTIONAL BACKGROUND	17
APPENDIX J: TRANSCRIPT OF TEACHER EDUCATORS' FGD	21
APPENDIX L: TRANSCRIPT OF COOPERATING TEACHERS' FGD IN TANK HAIK SEC. SCHOOL.....	25
APPENDIX L: TRANSLATED TRANSCRIPT OF STUDENT TEACHERS' FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION.....	27
APPENDIX M: TRANSCRIPT OF INTERVIEW OF PRACTICUM COORDINATOR	28
APPENDIX N: SAMPLE OF SUPERVISOR-SUPERVISEE POST-TEACHING CONFERENCE TRANSCRIPT.....	30
APPENDIX O: SAMPLE SCHOOL REPORT ON STUDENT TEACHER'S PERFORMANCE.....	31
APPENDIX P: STUDENT TEACHER EVALUATION CHECKLIST.....	32
APPENDIX Q: SAMPLE STUDENT TEACHING PORTFOLIO.....	35
APPENDIX R: SAMPLE ACTION RESEARCH REPORT	42



Appendix A: Student Teachers' Questionnaire

ADDIS ABEBA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND LITERATURE

Student Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Respondent:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information about implementation of the new ELT teacher education programme you have already completed. The information you provide will be used only for a research purpose and will remain highly confidential. There is no need to write your name. Your genuine responses contribute the most valuable part to the successful completion of this study, which leads to a doctoral degree. You are therefore kindly requested to provide genuine information. Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

Thank you very much.

Personal Information

Institution: _____ Sex : Male Female Age: _____

Minor Area of Study _____

Year of Admission : 1995 E.C. 1996 E.C. 1997 E.C. 1998 E.C.

Type of Admission: Regular Advanced Standing

Did you have any prior teaching experience before joining this programme? Yes No

If *yes*, How long? _____ year(s)

At what level? Primary school first cycle

Primary school second cycle

Secondary school

1. Assumptions

Please read the following statements and for each statement select the response that best represents your agreement or disagreement.

SA: Strongly Agree A: Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

The English language teacher education programme I am currently attending is based on the assumption that

		SA	A	N	D	SD
A	Students' learning can be best enhanced when they work together and share ideas in pairs or small groups.					
B	Knowledge can be best acquired when learners are engaged in meaningful activities related to their prior knowledge.					
C	Activities should precede concepts to help learners construct concepts by themselves in a meaningful way.					
D	Learners can learn best when they are engaged in problem solving tasks.					
E	Knowledge is something objective which can be cut up and transmitted to learners.					
F	The most important duty of a good teacher is to transmit his/her knowledge to learners.					
G	A best teacher is the one who works in collaboration with colleagues to better reflect, deliberate and understand practice.					
H	A best teacher is the one who examines his/her practice to identify values, assumptions, beliefs and personal theories.					
I	Knowledge is something that is represented and organized in an individual learner's mind through social interaction.					
J	The most important duty of a good teacher is to help learners master a lot of information related to the subject.					

2 Goals

Please read the following statements and for each statement select the response that best represents your agreement or disagreement.

SA: Strongly Agree A: Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

The overall goal of the English Language teacher education programme I am currently attending is to help me

		SA	A	N	D	SD
A	Become a well-educated reflective teacher.					
B	Build links between knowledge and practice through situated learning tasks.					
C	Develop autonomy and reflectivity through self-regulating activities.					
D	Examine my pre-existing beliefs, conceptions, experience and knowledge in relation to new challenging ideas and experience					
E	Become an expert in my subject area.					
F	Become a good teacher who can transmit his/her knowledge to learners.					
G	Master a set of pre-specified teaching techniques and skills					

3. Tasks and Learning Activities

3.1. Practicum Support System

Please rate on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 = Never at all, 5 = Always) the frequency of the following opportunities for you during your practicum placement in the programme.

		Never	Always				
A	Video- recording student teachers' teaching for later discussion	①	②	③	④	⑤	
B	A specific set of guidelines organizing their practical experience in schools.	①	②	③	④	⑤	
C	A detailed outline of the cooperation between the school and the university.	①	②	③	④	⑤	
D	A description of how their relationship with the cooperating teacher would be organized.	①	②	③	④	⑤	
E	Information on what their duties and rights in the schools would be.	①	②	③	④	⑤	
F	Advice and guideline on how they would monitor and reflect on their experience.	①	②	③	④	⑤	
G	Scheduled sessions for sharing ideas with peers	①	②	③	④	⑤	
H	Belonging to portfolio work groups.	①	②	③	④	⑤	
I	Compiling a portfolio during practicum experiences.	①	②	③	④	⑤	
J	Attending pre-teaching conferences	①	②	③	④	⑤	
K	Attending post-teaching conferences	①	②	③	④	⑤	

3.2. Dialogues with a university supervisor Post-teaching Conferences

Please rate the frequency of the following opportunities for you during the meeting or discussion you hold with a university supervisor after his/her observation of your student teaching in Practicum Courses in the programme.

		Totally Absent	Very Frequent
A	Discussing events/incidents in your own teaching stimulated by a recorded data	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	Describing what you have done	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	Explaining why you have done certain things	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	Commenting on how you would like to improve	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	Discussing the highlights in terms of your development as a teacher	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	Discussing some of the obstacles which seem to impede your progress	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	Discussing the breakthroughs you have had that foster your knowledge and teaching practice	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
H	Discussing any self initiated action that has scared, worried, pleased or affected you	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
I	Discussing anything you wish you did differently and the reasons why you wish so	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

3.3. Dialogues with a Cooperating Teachers at Post-teaching Conferences

Please rate the frequency of the following opportunities for you during the meeting or discussion you hold with a cooperating teacher (school teacher) after his/her observation of your student teaching in Practicum Courses in the programme.

		Totally Absent	Very Frequent
A	Discussing events/incidents in your own teaching stimulated by a recorded data	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	Describing what you have done	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	Explaining why you have done certain things	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	Commenting on how you would like to improve	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	Discussing the highlights in terms of your development as a teacher	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	Discussing some of the obstacles which seem to impede your progress	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	Discussing the breakthroughs you have had that foster your knowledge and teaching practice	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
H	Discussing any self initiated action that has scared, worried, pleased or affected you	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
I	Discussing anything you wish you did differently and the reasons why you wish so	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

3.4. Portfolio Compiling Experience

Have you compiled portfolios to reflect on their practicum experiences? ① Yes ② No

If your answer to the above item is *Yes*, please rate how useful the **Portfolio Compiling Experiences** have been to you in terms of the following opportunities:

		Not useful at all	Very Useful
A	To refine your reflective capacity	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	To document and to describe your teaching experiences	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	To articulate your professional knowledge	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	To reflect on what, how and why you have taught	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	To include your own philosophy of teaching	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	To include your daily journals	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	To include your observation of other teachers/ friends	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

3.5. Action Research

Have you conducted action research in the programme? ① Yes ② No

If your answer to the above item is **Yes**, please rate how useful this **Action Research Experience** has been to you in terms of the following opportunities:

		Not useful at all										Very Useful
A	To observe what was going on in the classroom.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		
B	To define and redefine the problem you wanted to address.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		
C	To generate various ideas for changing the situation and decide what action to undertake.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		
D	To justify your actions and evaluate them and the decision making process.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		
E	To refine your observational skills.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		
F	To refine your data-collecting skills.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		
G	To refine your problem solving skills.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		
H	To refine your reflective skills.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨		

4. Roles and responsibilities

A. Please rate frequency of your *instructors'* actions which might represent their roles and responsibilities as advisors in the programme.

		Totally Absent					Very Frequent			
A	Structuring your learning by deciding what areas they should work on	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
B	Guiding you into a critical dialogue concerning you current practice	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
C	Providing you with a framework to examine the teaching experience and to explicitly set target for the next experience	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
D	Setting a framework for you for independent development as a teacher	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
E	Helping you to articulate and refine their views of teaching process and their own learning	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
F	Helping you to externalize the mental processes they use to make sense of teaching	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
G	Helping you to create in you the ability to be self-evaluative and autonomous	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
H	Listening to and valuing your histories and experiences to help them for the transition	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
I	Imposing on you what they thought to be correct.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
J	Encouraging you to devise new ways of teaching rather than conforming to tradition	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨

B. Please rate frequency of your *cooperating teachers' (school teachers')* actions which might represent their roles and responsibilities as advisors in the programme.

		Totally Absent					Very Frequent			
A	Observing you at work.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
B	Providing you with constructive feedback.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
C	Orienting you to the school.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
D	Co-planning lessons with you	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
E	Guiding them throughout your placement.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
F	Modeling effective teaching strategies	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
G	Allowing you to teach and take risks in new methods.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
H	Meeting with the university supervisor and them for three-way conferences.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
I	Consulting with a university supervisor about your grade.	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨
J	Guiding you into a critical dialogue concerning the current practice	①	②	③	④	⑤	⑥	⑦	⑧	⑨

Appendix B: Instructors' Questionnaire

ADDIS ABEBA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUGES AND LITERATURE

Instructors' Questionnaire

Dear Respondent:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information about implementation of the new ELT teacher education programme you are currently involved in as a teacher educator. The information you provide will be used only for a research purpose and will remain highly confidential. Your genuine responses contribute the most valuable part to the successful completion of this study, which leads to a doctoral degree. You are therefore kindly requested to provide genuine information. Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

Thank you very much.

Personal Information

Institution: _____

Sex : Male Female

Highest Academic Degree: B.A./B.Ed M.A./M.Ed PhD

Position: Graduate Assistant Assistant Lecturer Lecturer Assistant
Professor Associate Professor Professor

Field of Specialization _____

Number of Years Served as a teacher and/or teacher educator _____

1. Assumptions

Please read the following statements and for each statement select the response that best represents your agreement or disagreement.

SA: Strongly Agree A: Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

The English language teacher education programme I am involved as a teacher educator is based on the assumption that

		SA	A	N	D	SD
A	Students' learning can be best enhanced when they work together and share ideas in pairs or small groups.					
B	Knowledge can be best acquired when learners are engaged in meaningful activities related to their prior knowledge.					
C	Activities should precede concepts to help learners construct concepts by themselves in a meaningful way.					
D	Learners can learn best when they are engaged in problem solving tasks.					
E	Knowledge is something objective, which can be cut up and transmitted to learners.					
F	The most important duty of a good teacher is to transmit his/her knowledge to learners.					
G	A best teacher is the one who works in collaboration with colleagues to better reflect, deliberate and understand practice.					
H	A best teacher is the one who examines his/her practice to identify values, assumptions, beliefs and personal theories.					
I	Knowledge is something that is represented and organized in an individual learner's mind through social interaction.					
J	The most important duty of a good teacher is to help learners master a lot of information related to the subject.					

2 Goals

Please read the following statements and for each statement select the response that best represents your agreement or disagreement.

SA: Strongly Agree A: Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

The overall goal of the English Language teacher education programme I am involved as a teacher educator is to help student teachers

		SA	A	N	D	SD
A	Become well-educated reflective teachers.					
B	Build links between knowledge and practice through situated learning tasks.					
C	Develop autonomy and reflectivity through self-regulating activities.					
D	Examine their pre-existing beliefs, experience and knowledge in relation to new challenging ideas and experience					
E	Become experts in their subject area.					
F	Become good teachers who can transmit his/her knowledge to learners.					
G	Master a set of pre-specified teaching techniques and skills					

3. Tasks and Learning Activities in Practicum Experiences

3.1. Practicum support System

Please rate on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 = Never at all, 5 = Always) the frequency of the following opportunities for student teachers in the Practicum Courses in the programme.

		Never					Always				
A	Video- recording student teachers' teaching for later discussion	①	②	③	④	⑤					
B	A specific set of guidelines organizing their practical experience in schools.	①	②	③	④	⑤					
C	A detailed outline of the cooperation between the school and the university.	①	②	③	④	⑤					
D	A description of how their relationship with the cooperating teacher would be organized.	①	②	③	④	⑤					
E	Information on what their duties and rights in the schools would be.	①	②	③	④	⑤					
F	Advice and guideline on how they would monitor and reflect on their experience.	①	②	③	④	⑤					
G	Scheduled sessions for sharing ideas with peers	①	②	③	④	⑤					
H	Belonging to portfolio work groups.	①	②	③	④	⑤					
I	Compiling a portfolio during practicum experiences.	①	②	③	④	⑤					
J	Attending pre-teaching conferences	①	②	③	④	⑤					
K	Attending post-teaching conferences	①	②	③	④	⑤					

3.2. Dialogues in Post-teaching Conferences

Please rate the frequency of the following opportunities for student teachers during the meeting or discussion you hold with them after your observation in Practicum Courses in the programme.

		Totally Absent	Very Frequent
A	Discussing events/incidents in students' own teaching stimulated by a recorded teaching	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	Describing what they have done	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	Explaining why they have done certain things	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	Commenting on how they would like to improve	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	Discussing the highlights in terms of their development as a teacher	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	Discussing some of the obstacles which seem to impede their progress	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	Discussing the breakthroughs they have had that foster their knowledge and teaching practice	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
H	Discussing any self initiated action that has scared, worried, pleased or affected them.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
I	Discussing anything they wish they did differently and the reasons why they wish so	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
J	Complying with my expectations as a supervisor	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

3.3. Portfolio Compiling Experience

Do student teachers compile portfolios to reflect on their practicum experiences?

- ① Yes ② No

If your answer to the above item is *Yes*, please rate how useful those **Portfolio Compiling Experiences** have been to student teachers in terms of opportunities to the following:

		Not useful at all	Very Useful
A	To refine their reflective capacity	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	To document and to describe their teaching experiences	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	To articulate their professional knowledge	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	To reflect on what, how and why they taught	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	To include their own philosophy of teaching	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	To include their daily journals	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	To include their observation of other teachers/ friends	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

3.4. Action Research

Do student teachers conduct action research in the programme? ① Yes ② No

If your answer to the above item is *Yes*, please rate how useful this **Action Research Experience** has been to student teachers in terms of opportunities to the following:

		Not useful at all	Very Useful
A	To observe what was going on in the classroom.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	To define and redefine the problem they wanted to address.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	To generate various ideas for changing the situation and decide what action to undertake.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	To justify their actions and evaluate them and the decision making process.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	To refine their observational skills.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	To refine their data-collecting skills.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	To refine their problem solving skills.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
H	To refine their reflective skills.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

4. Roles and responsibilities

Please rate frequency of your own actions which might represent your **roles and responsibilities** as an **instructor** in the programme.

		Very Low	Very High
A	Structuring student teachers' learning by deciding what areas they should work on	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
B	Guiding them into a critical dialogue concerning their current practice	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
C	Providing them with a framework to examine the teaching experience and to explicitly set target for the next experience	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
D	Setting a framework for them for independent development as a teacher	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
E	Helping them to articulate and refine their views of teaching process and their own learning	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
F	Helping them to externalize the mental processes they use to make sense of teaching	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
G	Helping to create in them the ability to be self-evaluative and autonomous	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
H	Listening to and valuing their histories and experiences to help them for the transition	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
I	Imposing on them what I thought to be correct.	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨
J	Encouraging them to devise new ways of teaching rather than conforming to tradition	①	② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨

Appendix C: Cooperating Teachers' Questionnaire

ADDIS ABEBA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
INSTITUTE OF LANGUAGE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUGES AND LITERATURE

Cooperating Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear Respondent:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information about implementation of the new ELT teacher education programme you are currently involved in as a teacher educator. The information you provide will be used only for a research purpose and will remain highly confidential. Your genuine responses contribute the most valuable part to the successful completion of this study, which leads to a doctoral degree. You are therefore kindly requested to provide genuine information. Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

Thank you very much.

Personal Information

School: _____

Sex : Male Female

Highest Academic Qualification: Diploma 12+3 B.A./B.Ed M.A./M.Ed

Position: Beginning Teacher Junior Teacher Teacher Senior Teacher Associate Teacher

Field of Specialization _____

Number of Years Served as a teacher _____

Number of Years Served as a cooperating teacher (helping student teachers during practice teaching) _____

1. Assumptions

Please read the following statements and for each statement select the response that best represents your agreement or disagreement.

SA: Strongly Agree A: Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

The English language teacher education programme I am involved as a cooperating teacher is based on the assumption that

		SA	A	N	D	SD
A	Students' learning can be best enhanced when they work together and share ideas in pairs or small groups.					
B	Knowledge can be best acquired when learners are engaged in meaningful activities related to their prior knowledge.					
C	Activities should precede concepts to help learners construct concepts by themselves in a meaningful way.					
D	Learners can learn best when they are engaged in problem solving tasks.					
E	Knowledge is something objective like universal truths which can be cut up and transmitted to learners.					
F	The most important duty of a good teacher is to transmit his/her knowledge to learners.					
G	A best teacher is the one who works in collaboration with colleagues to better reflect, deliberate and understand practice.					
H	A best teacher is the one who examines his/her practice to identify values, assumptions, beliefs and personal theories.					
I	Knowledge is something that is represented and organized in an individual learner's mind through social interaction.					
J	The most important duty of a good teacher is to help learners master a lot of information related to the subject.					

2 Goals

Please read the following statements and for each statement select the response that best represents your agreement or disagreement.

SA: Strongly Agree A: Agree N: Neutral D: Disagree SD: Strongly Disagree

The overall goal of the English Language teacher education programme I am involved as a teacher educator is to help student teachers

		SA	A	N	D	SD
A	Become well-educated reflective teachers.					
B	Build links between knowledge and practice through situated learning tasks.					
C	Develop autonomy and reflectivity through self-regulating activities.					
D	Examine their pre-existing beliefs, experience and knowledge in relation to new challenging ideas and experience					
E	Become experts in their subject area.					
F	Become good teachers who can transmit his/her knowledge to learners.					
G	Master a set of pre-specified teaching techniques and skills					

3. Practicum Experiences

3.1. Practicum Support System

A. Please rate on a scale from 1 to 5 (1 = Never at all, 5 = Always) the frequency of the following opportunities for student teachers in the Practicum Courses in the programme.

		Never					Always				
		①	②	③	④	⑤	①	②	③	④	⑤
A	Video- recording student teachers' teaching for later discussion										
B	A specific set of guidelines organizing their practical experience in schools.										
C	A detailed outline of the cooperation between the school and the university.										
D	A description of how their relationship with the cooperating teacher would be organized.										
E	Information on what their duties and rights in the schools would be.										
F	Advice and guideline on how they would monitor and reflect on their experience.										
G	Scheduled sessions for sharing ideas with peers										
H	Belonging to portfolio work groups.										
I	Compiling a portfolio during practicum experiences.										
J	Attending pre-teaching conferences										
K	Attending post-teaching conferences										

3.2. Dialogues in Post-teaching Conferences

Please rate the frequency of the following opportunities for student teachers during the meeting or discussion you hold with them after your observation in Practicum Courses in the programme.

		Very Low	Very High
A	Discussing events/incidents in students' own teaching stimulated by a recorded teaching	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	Describing what they have done	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	Explaining why they have done certain things	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	Commenting on how they would like to improve	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	Discussing the highlights in terms of their development as a teacher	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	Discussing some of the obstacles which seem to impede their progress	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	Discussing the breakthroughs they have had that foster their knowledge and teaching practice	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
H	Discussing any self initiated action that has scared, worried, pleased or affected them.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
I	Discussing anything they wish they did differently and the reasons why they wish so	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
J	Complying with my expectations as a supervisor	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

3.3. Portfolio Compiling Experiences

C. Do you help student teachers while they **compile portfolios** so that they reflect on their practicum experiences?

① Yes

② No

If your answer to the above item is *Yes*, please rate how useful the **Portfolio Compiling Experiences** have been to student teachers in terms of opportunities to the following:

		Not useful at all	Very Useful
A	To refine their reflective capacity	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	To document and to describe their teaching experiences	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	To articulate their professional knowledge	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	To reflect on what, how and why they taught	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	To include their own philosophy of teaching	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	To include their daily journals	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	To include their observation of other teachers/ friends	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

3.4. Action Research Experiences

Do you help student teachers while they conduct **Action Research** in the programme?

① Yes

② No

If your answer to the last item above is **Yes**, please rate how useful this **Action Research Experience** has been to student teachers in terms of opportunities to the following:

		Not useful at all	Very Useful
A	To observe what is going on in the classroom.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	To define and redefine the problem they want to address	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	To generate various ideas for changing the situation and decide what action to undertake	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	To justify their actions and evaluate them and the decision making process	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	To refine their observational skills	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	To refine their data-collecting skills.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	To refine their problem solving skills.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
H	To refine their reflective skills.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

4. Roles and responsibilities

Please rate frequency of your own actions which might represent your **roles and responsibilities** as a **cooperating teacher** in the programme.

		Very Low	Very High
A	Observing them at work.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
B	Providing them with constructive feedback.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
C	Orienting them to the school.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
D	Co-planning lessons with them	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
E	Guiding them throughout their placement.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
F	Modeling effective teaching strategies	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
G	Allowing them to teach and take risks in new methods.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
H	Meeting with the university supervisor and them for three-way conferences.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
I	Consulting with a university supervisor about grade.	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
J	Structuring student teachers' learning by deciding what areas they should work on	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
K	Guiding them into a critical dialogue concerning their current practice	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
L	Providing them with a framework to examine the teaching experience and to explicitly set target for the next experience	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
M	Setting a framework for them for independent development as a teacher	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
N	Helping them to articulate and refine their views of teaching process and their own learning	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
O	Helping them to externalize the mental processes they use to make sense of teaching	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
P	Helping to create in them the ability to be self-evaluative and autonomous	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	
Q	Listening to and valuing their histories and experiences to help them for the transition	① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ ⑧ ⑨	

Appendix D: Student Teachers' Focus Group Discussion Guide

1. What do you think are the basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying the reform introduced by TESO project? What do you think are the overall goals of the new programme?
2. How do you view the nature of the learning activities and tasks in relation to learner-centeredness, active learning, reflectivity and cooperative learning? What strategies are employed to foster reflective capacity of student teachers? What types of reflective experience does the programme provide for student teachers?
3. What opportunities do you think student teachers' portfolio compiling provides for them? How do the portfolios student-teachers compile for practicum courses help them to refine their reflective capacity?
4. Did your experience of doing action research influence your reflections on your teaching? How does the action research conducted in the programme provide student-teachers with the opportunity to refine their reflective capacity?
5. What do you think the school-university collaboration in the programme is like? What are the factors you perceived as facilitators and hindrances in the process for student teachers' practicum experiences? Is there a match between the practices applied in the practicum settings and the practices being emphasized in faculty classes?
6. What are the roles and responsibilities of cooperating teachers? How effectively do you think they are discharging their responsibilities?
7. Describe the relationship you share with your mentor teacher. In what way(s) has your mentor teacher been particularly helpful? What criticisms do you have of her as a mentor? How has she met your expectations about how a mentor teacher would (or should) be? How has she contradicted your expectations about how a mentor teacher would (or should) be?

Appendix E: Instructors' Focus Group Guide

1. What are the underlying reasons for the introduction and implementation of the new TESO programme? How can you explain the basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying the reform introduced by TESO project?
2. What do you think are the overall goals of the new programme?
3. How do you view the nature of the learning activities and tasks in relation to learner-centeredness, active learning, reflectivity and cooperative learning? What strategies are employed to foster reflective capacity of student teachers? What types of reflective experience does the programme provide for student teachers?
4. What are the factors you perceived as facilitators and hindrances in the process for student teachers' practicum experiences? Is there a match between the practices applied in the practicum settings and the practices being emphasized in faculty classes?
5. What opportunities do you think student teachers' action research provides for them? How does the action research conducted in the programme provide student teachers with the opportunity to refine their reflective capacity?
6. How do the portfolios student-teachers compile for practicum courses help them to refine their reflective capacity? What opportunities do you think student teachers' portfolio compiling provides for them? How do the portfolios student-teachers compile for different courses help them to refine their reflective capacity? Did the experience of constructing a portfolio influence their reflections on their teaching? Are there portfolio work groups during the practicum placements? Why or why not?
7. What do you think the school-university collaboration in the programme is like? How do you explain the opportunities for collaborative enterprise in the programme? Do cooperating teachers meet with department faculty to discuss how to best organize the practicum experience?
8. What are the roles and responsibilities of cooperating teachers? How effectively do you think they are discharging their responsibilities? In what way(s) have the cooperating teachers been particularly helpful to student teachers? What criticisms do you have of them as cooperating teachers?

Appendix F: Cooperating Teachers' Focus Group Discussion Guide

1. Why did you agree to become a cooperating teacher? How did you become a cooperating teacher? Did you receive any training to become a cooperating teacher?
2. Are you aware of basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying the new practicum programme?
3. What are your responsibilities of a cooperating teacher?
4. What kind of help do you give to student teachers assigned to you?
5. Are university supervisors committed to developing strong collaborative relationship and ongoing communication among each other to ensure that linkages among courses and between courses and field experiences are clearly evident? Do you as a cooperating teacher meet with department faculty to discuss how to best organize the practicum experience?

Appendix G: Practicum Coordinator Interview Guide

1. What are the underlying reasons for the introduction and implementation of the new TESO programme? How can you explain the basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying the reform introduced by TESO project?
2. What do you think are the overall goals of the practicum component of the new programme?
3. Can you explain your personal views of the strengths, weaknesses opportunities and threats of the practical component of the new TESO programme?
4. What types of reflective experience does the programme provide for student teachers? What opportunities do you think student teachers' portfolio compiling provides for them? How does the action research conducted in the programme provide student teachers with the opportunity to refine their reflective capacity?
5. What do you think the school-university collaboration in the programme is like? How do you explain the opportunities for collaborative enterprise in the programme? Do cooperating teachers meet with department faculty to discuss how to best organize the practicum experience? Is there an ongoing communication between university instructors and cooperating teachers to ensure that linkages between courses and field experiences are clearly evident?
6. Do cooperating teachers meet with department faculty to discuss how to best organize the practicum experience? Is there a structure that allows both partners to gain understanding of each other and how their respective experiences in areas of expertise can enrich both the teacher candidates and the school? Is there an ongoing communication between university instructors and schoolteachers to ensure that linkages between courses and field experiences are clearly evident?
7. What is student teachers supervision like? Are there any perceived problems?

Appendix H: Summary of the Demographic Background of the Respondents in the Survey Part of the Main Study

Table 1: Student Teacher Respondents' Background

Characteristic	Category	N	Percent
Institution	Haramaya University	36	13.6
	Jimma University	41	15.5
	Dilla University	51	19.2
	Mekelle University	29	10.9
	Bahir Dar University	74	27.9
	Addis Abeba University	34	12.8
	Total	265	100.0
Sex	Male	210	79.2
	Female	55	20.8
	Total	265	100.0
Age Group	20-22 years	170	64.2
	23-25 years	69	26.0
	26 & above years	26	9.8
	Total	265	100.0
Minor Area	Amharic	124	46.8
	Afan Oromo	50	18.9
	Geography	14	5.3
	History	19	7.2
	Civics & Ethical Ed.	47	17.7
	Tigreña	11	4.2
	Total	265	100.0
Year of Admission	1995	7	2.6
	1996	16	6.0
	1997	242	91.3
	Total	265	100.0
Admission Status	Regular	252	95.1
	Advanced Standing	13	4.9
	Total	265	100.0

Table 2: Teacher Educator Respondents' Background

Characteristic	Category	N	Percent
Institution	Haramaya University	8	14.5
	Jimma University	11	20.0
	Dilla University	8	14.5
	Mekelle University	9	16.4
	Bahir Dar University	12	21.8
	Addis Abeba University	7	12.7
	Total	55	100.0
Sex	Male	51	92.7
	Female	4	7.3
	Total	55	100.0
Qualification	B.A. or B.Ed	14	25.5
	M.A. or M.Ed	39	70.9
	PhD	2	3.6
	Total	55	100.0
Rank	Graduate Assistant	11	20.0
	Assistant Lecturer	3	5.5
	Lecturer	39	70.9
	Assistant Professor	1	1.8
	Associate Professor	1	1.8
	Total	55	100.0

Specialisation	TEFL	40	72.7
	Linguistics	8	14.5
	Literature	7	12.7
	Total	55	100.0
Experience years of teaching experience	1 - 10 years	29	52.7
	11 - 20 years	20	36.4
	21 or more years	6	10.9
	Total	55	100.0

Table 3: Cooperating Teacher Respondents' Background

Characteristic	Category	N	Percent
Partner Institution	Haramaya University	10	16.1
	Jimma University	11	17.7
	Dilla University	8	12.9
	Mekelle University	10	16.1
	Bahir Dar University	12	19.4
	Addis Abeba University	11	17.7
	Total	62	100.0
Sex	Male	47	75.8
	Female	15	24.2
	Total	62	100.0
Qualification	12 + 2	5	8.1
	12 + 3	24	38.7
	B.A. Degree	33	53.2
	Total	62	100.0
Status	Junior Teacher	3	4.8
	Proper Teacher	12	19.4
	Senior Teacher	20	32.3
	Associate Teacher	27	43.5
	Total	62	100.0
Teaching Experience	1 - 5 years	1	1.6
	6 - 10 Years	2	3.2
	11 - 15 Years	7	11.3
	16 - 20 Years	20	32.3
	21 - 25 Years	18	29.0
	26 - 30 Years	11	17.7
	31 Years and above	3	4.8
Total	62	100.0	
Experience as a Cooperating Teacher	0 - 3 Years	20	32.3
	4 - 6 Years	20	32.3
	7 - 10 Years	11	17.7
	11 Years +	11	17.7
	Total	62	100.0

Appendix I: Summary of the Quantitative Data Analysis in terms of Respondents' Institutional Background

Table 1: Respondents' Beliefs about Basic Assumptions and Principles Underlying Constructivist Pedagogy

Institutions	Respondents											
	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Cooperating Teachers			Total		
	N	Mea	S. I	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya Uni.	36	3.42	.290	8	4.15	.307	10	3.37	.236	54	3.52	.386
Jimma Uni.	41	3.42	.292	11	4.12	.376	11	3.37	.220	63	3.52	.400
Dilla Uni.	51	3.44	.461	8	4.20	.385	8	3.23	.117	67	3.51	.500
Mekelle Uni.	29	3.43	.347	9	4.10	.173	10	3.54	.284	48	3.58	.397
Bahir Dar Uni.	74	3.53	.375	12	4.31	.305	12	3.53	.202	98	3.62	.433
Addis Ababa Uni.	34	3.47	.490	7	4.28	.264	11	3.49	.311	52	3.58	.506
Total	265	3.46	.385	52	4.19	.309	62	3.43	.253	382	3.56	.440

Table 2: Respondents' Beliefs about the Goals of the EFL Teacher education Programme

Institutions	Respondents											
	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Cooperating Teachers			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	2.98	.987	8	3.91	.887	10	2.89	0.938	54	3.10	1.007
Jimma	41	3.03	.722	11	3.96	.557	11	3.04	0.869	63	3.19	0.796
Dilla	51	3.20	.618	8	3.95	.833	8	2.75	1.111	67	3.24	0.764
Mekelle	29	3.30	.958	9	4.08	.659	10	3.03	1.052	48	3.39	0.978
Bahir Dar	74	3.42	.887	12	4.15	.690	12	3.13	1.005	98	3.48	0.913
Addis Ababa	34	3.14	.930	7	4.43	.705	11	3.40	1.065	52	3.37	1.014
Total	265	3.21	.854	55	4.07	.702	62	3.06	0.983	382	3.31	0.912

Table 3: Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perceptions of Language Skills Courses

Institution	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	5.67	2.337	8	7.46	2.009	44	6.00	2.364
Jimma	41	6.30	1.853	11	6.62	2.396	52	6.37	1.959
Dilla	51	7.14	1.834	8	7.31	1.91	59	7.16	1.828
Mekelle	29	6.94	1.911	9	7.20	2.223	38	7.00	1.961
Bahir Dar	74	6.51	1.366	12	7.17	2.189	86	6.60	1.509
Addis	34	6.74	1.887	7	7.12	2.127	41	6.80	1.907
Total	265	6.56	1.853	55	7.12	2.084	320	6.66	1.903

Table 4: Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perceptions of Literature Courses

Institution	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	4.81	2.545	8	5.98	2.218	44	5.02	2.506
Jimma	41	5.06	2.228	11	6.49	2.491	52	5.36	2.336
Dilla	51	4.88	2.238	8	6.65	2.349	59	5.12	2.315
Mekelle	29	5.15	2.128	9	6.98	2.570	38	5.58	2.340
Bahir Dar	74	4.75	1.799	12	7.18	2.185	86	5.09	2.028
Addis	34	5.48	1.955	7	6.49	2.524	41	5.65	2.063
Total	265	4.97	2.114	55	6.67	2.306	320	5.26	2.238

Table 5: Mean of Student Teachers' Perceptions of Linguistics Courses

Institution	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	Std. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	5.40	3.012	8	6.75	2.159	44	5.65	2.902
Jimma	41	6.23	1.867	11	6.80	2.162	52	6.35	1.925
Dilla	51	6.46	2.102	8	7.13	2.096	59	6.55	2.096
Mekelle	29	6.18	2.333	9	6.97	2.048	38	6.37	2.267
Bahir Dar	74	5.76	1.737	12	7.42	2.193	86	5.99	1.883
Addis	34	6.03	2.293	7	6.79	2.123	41	6.16	2.257
Total	265	6.00	2.18	55	7.00	2.051	320	6.17	2.188

Table 6: Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perceptions of ELT Method Courses

Institution	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	Std. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	6.34	2.081	8	6.73	2.237	44	6.41	2.089
Jimma	41	5.99	1.954	11	6.82	2.208	52	6.16	2.017
Dilla	51	6.21	2.055	8	6.76	2.101	59	6.29	2.052
Mekelle	29	6.33	2.16	9	6.61	2.213	38	6.40	2.146
Bahir Dar	74	6.54	1.739	12	7.33	2.166	86	6.65	1.811
Addis	34	6.40	1.916	7	6.73	2.176	41	6.45	1.938
Total	265	6.32	1.943	55	6.86	2.097	320	6.42	1.978

Table 7: Student Teachers' Perceptions of Professional Science Courses

Institution	N	Mean	Std. D.
Haramaya	36	5.82	1.620
Jimma	41	5.90	1.619
Dilla	51	5.49	1.787
Mekelle	29	6.02	1.714
Bahir Dar	74	6.41	1.467
Addis	34	6.11	1.908
Total	265	5.99	1.678

Table 8: Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perceptions of Tasks in Major Area Courses

Institution	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	5.75	2.204	8	6.49	1.697	44	5.88	2.122
Jimma	41	5.47	1.917	11	6.50	1.526	52	5.69	1.876
Dilla	51	5.54	2.08	8	6.28	1.765	59	5.64	2.042
Mekelle	29	5.64	2.014	9	6.33	2.093	38	5.81	2.026
Bahir Dar	74	6.73	1.791	12	7.22	1.678	86	6.80	1.774
Addis	34	6.10	1.934	7	7.26	2.163	41	6.30	1.995
Total	265	5.98	2.016	55	6.69	1.765	320	6.10	1.991

Table 9: Mean of Student Teachers' Perceptions of Tasks in Professional Courses

Institution	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Haramaya	5.2136	36	2.41559
Jimma	5.0683	41	1.91696
Dilla	5.1667	51	2.07862
Mekelle	4.9835	29	1.94206
Bahir Dar	5.6392	74	1.89323
Addis Ababa	5.4837	34	1.83413
Total	5.3104	265	2.00514

Table 10: Participants' Perceptions of Practicum Context

Institutions	Respondents											
	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Cooperating Teachers			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	2.18	0.552	8	2.17	0.644	10	1.90	0.685	54	2.12	0.589
Jimma	41	2.53	0.436	11	2.82	0.596	11	2.32	0.595	63	2.54	0.509
Dilla	51	2.32	0.599	8	2.47	0.610	8	2.00	0.739	67	2.30	0.619
Mekelle	29	2.38	0.569	9	2.29	0.726	10	2.16	0.621	48	2.32	0.603
Bahir Dar	74	2.38	0.321	12	2.65	0.581	12	2.12	0.568	98	2.38	0.412
Addis Ababa	34	2.24	0.438	7	2.47	0.790	11	2.14	0.682	52	2.25	0.546
Total	265	2.35	0.485	55	2.51	0.658	62	2.12	0.631	382	2.33	0.548

Table 11: Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perceptions of their Teaching Conferences

Institution	Student Teacher			Teacher Educator			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	4.42	2.018	8	5.26	2.071	44	4.57	2.03
Jimma	41	5.08	1.847	11	5.47	1.687	52	5.16	1.805
Dilla	51	4.75	2.512	8	5.10	1.927	59	4.80	2.43
Mekelle	29	5.20	2.057	9	5.14	2.842	38	5.19	2.225
Bahir Dar	74	4.59	1.715	12	5.50	1.992	86	4.72	1.772
Addis	34	4.32	1.973	7	5.4	2.522	41	4.50	2.082
Total	265	4.70	2.021	55	5.33	2.074	320	4.81	2.04

Table 12: Student Teachers' and Cooperating Teachers' Perceptions of their Teaching Conferences

Institution	Student Teachers			Cooperating Teachers			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	2.44	1.83	8	3.67	1.461	44	2.70	1.816
Jimma	41	2.73	1.883	11	4.09	1.525	52	3.02	1.885
Dilla	51	2.31	1.66	8	3.20	1.665	59	2.43	1.674
Mekelle	29	2.55	1.673	9	3.93	1.68	38	2.91	1.761
Bahir Dar	74	2.00	1.196	12	3.53	1.628	86	2.22	1.363
Addis	34	1.94	1.326	7	3.77	1.501	41	2.39	1.571
Total	265	2.28	1.579	55	3.72	1.534	320	2.56	1.666

Table 13: Student Teachers', Teacher Educators and Cooperating Teachers' Perceptions of Portfolio Work

Institution	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Haramaya	36	4.25	2.068	8	3.54	0.883	44	4.12	1.92
Jimma	41	4.33	1.579	11	3.61	1.116	52	4.18	1.512
Dilla	51	5.20	1.455	8	3.41	1.265	59	4.96	1.55
Mekelle	29	5.09	1.133	9	4.21	1.288	38	4.88	1.215
Bahir Dar	74	4.09	1.197	12	3.98	1.159	86	4.07	1.185
Addis	34	4.37	1.269	7	3.35	1.04	41	4.19	1.282
Total	265	4.51	1.509	55	3.71	1.128	320	4.37	1.48

Table 14: Student Teachers' and Teacher Educators' Perception of Action Research

Institution	Student Teachers			Teacher Educators			Total		
	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.	N	Mean	S. D.
Bahir Dar	74	6.41	1.799	11	3.67	2.186	85	6.06	2.059
Addis	34	6.00	2.325	7	4.25	2.104	41	5.70	2.360
Total	108	6.28	1.978	18	3.90	2.111	126	5.94	2.158

Appendix J: Transcript of Teacher Educators' FGD

Focus Group Discussion Bahir Dar University

Date:

Participants: Eight EFL teacher educators from English Department of Faculty of Education in Bahir Dar University

- I: Thank you for coming to this focus group discussion. As I told you each earlier, I am trying to write my dissertation on the title "Implementation of paradigm shift in EFL Teacher Education programme in Ethiopian Universities. I would like to get your perspectives and experiences in the ongoing TESO programme. I have some questions that I want to ask you and I hope you will feel free to elaborate on your answers.
- Ch: **What are the underlying reasons for the introduction and implementation of the new TESO programme? How can you explain the basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying the reform introduced by TESO project?**
- TE 1: Well, I am not acquainted with the philosophy of TESO but I feel that they have introduced this programme in order to relate theoretical issues or theoretical points given in the universities or in colleges with the practical that could be found within the high schools. This objective should be to link theoretical and practical aspects [to practical aspects] in high schools.
- TE 2: In addition to this, there was a belief that teachers are not deficient in content area courses, they lack in practical aspects like methodology, practicality, active learning – in these aspects. Because of this, they put down TESO programme. Also, what they also said was the high school curriculum was full of redundancies. They developed some of the courses down to high school. Of course, this is what they said. In actual terms, I don't think the freshman courses were taken down to the high school levels. They ...they minimized the courses and made it a three-year programme in the degree programme. And this is, as X (the previous speaker) said, to make teacher educators eh just more of practice oriented rather than only content area specialists. It was this in mind that TESO was initiated and implemented.
- TE 3: Yeah. In addition to this, I think TESO programme was introduced to enhance teaching learning process; that is to enhance the student teachers as active participants in teaching –learning process. Before that, it was more of theoretical.
- TE 4: It is true that programmes have often their philosophical bases. There should be some theoretical issues that underlie the current programme, but I personally sense that it is to improve their methodologies, to enable teachers to conduct their own action research. They have to reflect on their actions, sometimes modifying their theories, sometimes adding new theories. I think whatever is going on right now is the reflection of different theories making the classroom interactive, making learners independent, reflective and self-regulated. I think whatever is going on right now in the TESO programme has some theoretical foundations. That is what I feel.
- Ch: **Do you think people in Teacher Education Programme, I mean, the teacher educators are quite aware of the philosophical foundations of the new programme?**
- TE 5: I wouldn't say that. It's difficult to say.
- TE 2: Many are actually aware but they consider it as imposition because it was not originated from the right people, actually it was from the policy makers. It was not the people who work as experts in higher institution, the experts. It did not emanate from them. Because of this, they thought it affected the whole education system of the country. I think they were aware when it was prepared. These were a series of workshops. They were aware of this but they couldn't accept it. When it comes to its implementation, many were not in a position to accept it because they thought that it could affect the quality of education, they believed that this much practical courses was not necessary because it was uhh When it was implemented they didn't consider their own ideas, their concerns. Because of this, they were not happy them it was more of imposition than just participatory.
- I: **Can we say that this idea for the decision should have come from the educators rather than the politicians?**
- TE 2: You see politicians always want to implement what they want, but they cannot implement it alone. They need also the support of the implementers themselves. The problem with TESO is that it had some haste. At least putting many educators on their own side should have been a pre-requisite for the implementation. As we see it now, TESO's theoretical framework was not wrong. It is right. No question about it. For example, when we come to having 25 credits of the practicum in the degree programme, it was one contentious issue. Instead of making 25, they were proposing twelve or thirteen or fifteen. And finally at the end after two years, the policy makers started to listen and now they have decreased the credits given to the practical courses. So this could have been done at the very beginning when TESO was started. Generally we don't dislike TESO because we had a teacher-dominated teaching in the past. Even making it the student-centred is not a problem but it had a problem in the implementation. It has also gone to the other extreme. The content area courses were highly affected because of having more practicum courses. So they were aware but they voided it.
- Ch: **Ok, shall we move on to the next issue? What is the knowledge base of the new EFL teacher education programme like? How are the components of the programme organized?**
- I: **This is to mean that the programme has two major components: content area courses, professional courses with practicum activities. How do you think these components are organized and applied? Do you see a certain imbalance or some missing elements?**
- TE 3: There is much emphasis on how to teach rather than what to teach. They lack what to teach but they learn how to teach. What to teach should precede how to teach. More emphasis should have been given to the content area.
- TE 1: Uhh... what I would like to add here is that much of the professional courses related to pedagogy and psychology are repeated in TEFL courses. There is unfair repetition there. I feel that professional courses related to general pedagogy, general methodology and psychology should have been excluded, because most of the contents in ELT are taken from that, from psychology, from pedagogy. There is unfair repetition there. But students do not..... uhh...Our country has its special peculiar qualities. We have less access to native tongue. We have less access even to media because of our background. So much emphasis should be given, I think, to the content. Much emphasis to spoken, much emphasis to grammar, much emphasis to writing. That is what I think.
- TE 2: Anyway, uh.. the coverage given to the practicum courses is very much exaggerated as my colleagues have said. But uh...uh..still there is also a problem with the..uh..the overall university programme. When we are going out to implement the practicum programme, we teach other students in the university and we teach other batches also within the department. When we are out of campus to supervise the practicum courses, other courses will be affected because we do not teach about a month. So we have to give these make-up classes and there would be a lot of problem. So practicum courses do not affect only the teacher education programme, they affect the other faculties also. Because many teachers, many instructors, are involved in supervising in the programme. So I think there was uhh...uhh the credits are exaggerated, so minimizing the credits is also important and this gives us the room to have more content area courses. The most important content area courses were not included. They were excluded, many courses. When you see the old curriculum, we had so many courses that were very important to improve the proficiency, for example, when we come to language teaching. Language teaching is not only the teaching aspects. There the linguistics courses are very important because it is the linguistics course that help teachers also to be proficient not only the way of teaching language, but the language itself. Grammar, linguistics and literature as well. For example, to come back to my

university experience, I had taken many linguistics and literature courses. And that had...that had helped me a lot to teach my students, though I didn't have uhh.. more skills on teaching because they were not practical. The professional courses that I had taken were not practical. Even today they are not practical, eh. the professional courses that students learn. For example, action research. They don't know it practically. They learn it theoretically and whenever eh we just ask them, when we want them make...eh..do the action research, the senior essay, they couldn't do it because it was theoretical . Even we are also forced to given them a refreshing courses to do the action research. In most cases it is not achievable.

Ch: **Recently the weight assigned for practicum courses has been reduced, I think, from 25 to 13 credit hours. How do you view this decision?**

I: **Some people believe this reduction was made in terms of implementation problems and they say the decision is against the philosophical foundation of the programme. How do you view this decision?**

TE 2: I was involved in the workshop. This decision was not made without considering the theoretical assumptions. Because so many papers were presented on practicum, eh and this active learning method and also its implementation. Implementation was mentioned as one important point for the decision. Uhh.. so many experts were involved. There were department heads, faculty heads, vice-presidents, I mean, heads of education faculties, practicum officers of universities. All Ethiopian Universities were attending the workshop. And in the workshop...so many discussions were made. This involved also the people from the Ministry of education. There was a lot of debate. And I would say that... ehh..the decision wasn't hasty ..Eh. ..Rather the earlier decision at the very beginning was hasty. Ehh...imposition might be important some times. It might be important because as we have said it earlier...ehh...experts in the university were not aware of the programme of teacher education. They should have been aware before the government because they should have sensed the existing problems, ehh... the many problems existed at that time. But they didn't. So the government has come with an option. Whenever the government give us ... uhh ...policy issues, we have debate on it. We have to accept it. If we have to accept, then we have also to think of the implementation. How should we implement this? Eh..what would be ehh. ..how it would be important for the people, for the country? This was the discussion we could have done it. I would say that eh..eh.. it wasn't hasty.

I: **The theory says that practicum is not the ground for testing the students teachers' knowledge which they gained in the university, rather it is part of the learning process that helps student-teacher develop gradually, integrate theory with practice and theorize from their school-based experiences. Some say if we reduce the 25 credit hour practicum to 13 credit hours and if we move the practicum courses towards the end of the programme, it means we are going back to the old programme, back to square one. What is your reaction to such an idea?**

TE 5: Any way what I would like to say, for example, you might send me to school to teach reading but I must have reading skills to teach. If there is some theoretical background, there is no problem in implementation even in the classroom. And this practicum might help students to practice what they have learned in class. Of course, what has been done now is that first the student teachers will be exposed to some knowledge; that knowledge should be enough to teach at high school. They will finish that in the first year and the practicum starts in the first semester of the second year. And they will go to actual school environment and they see the school environment well, what it looks like, what is lacking, what is available, what is not. And then writing their reflection in this in the classroom they observe, they will be involved in observation and see and then they will come back to the university. They do microteaching and also try material evaluation. I don't think it is too late to start the particular courses at the end of the second semester. I would like to say that they (student teachers) are very weak to the other students (in the high schools). We have weak students and we take them to the school. We have to see the other side. We have students at high school. So they are taking them as laboratory. Because inexperienced teacher as we see in a month, two or three go out to practice teaching. So we shouldn't put ... students in the schools, as experiment because this is...it is not a good thing to me.

TE 1: I think that even the very reason that the participants, or the stakeholders of this programme are not happy is enough for me to change the programme. Teacher educators are not happy because of various reasons. If you go to schools, it is the same thing. They do not consider it as their own programme. Even the schoolteachers are not ok. So the very reason that stakeholders are not ready to do this could be a valid reason for me to make changes towards the programme. To everybody, we can say, we cannot impose something because it is good. We have to try to see it in relation to the stakeholders.

TE 5: I don't understand why the government had to introduce such changes only because it has got a good fund from donors. Why do we have to copy everything from the rich countries? "Different countries in the world are using this way" can't be a justification for a change.

TE 4: By the way my evidences are the people. You are one of them, for example. You see previously we had four-credit hour teaching practice course where people should know who is where, in and out, and they did everything nicely. But, however now, regardless of all these credits, students will tell you nothing; so it will need something better. I personally say let us come from the content and then the practice will take care of itself in some way.

TE 6: Yes, because first of all it is blocking our teaching. We go to schools closing class and students are playing here or they don't do any thing. Of course, we have only two or three mid-tests in first semester. We are wasting that time; it is wastage for teachers' time and for students who are learning here, and of course, for the other teachers who are teaching these students participating in the practicum itself. Of course, it will do as it is simply used as escape from the routines which are happening in the universities so it has a lot of defects, a lot of disadvantages. It should be reduced to some three or maximum four credit course because it is effectively utilised by our students.

I: **How do you view this idea in line with the conceptual orientation of the programme?**

TE 4: When we think of this practicum case, the theory part in the content courses probably in, for example, research and report writing, but now that course is not given by our department. You know that. Let us reduce some credits from this and start from that theory and let us come to the practice where students go out for teaching practice. The reduction is reasonable. So before we go to practice, let us give them enough theory. But I am not saying theory is the best. No. But theory should come first then practice. Some theory may help first.

TE 6: In our case, you know, there is a problem; the problem is they lack content. When I say content, I don't mean different courses must come after the practicum, but, you know, they need at least background knowledge just to reflect on what they have observed. So without having this even they don't know how to observe let along reflecting, we have to know what to observe. This is the question.

Ch: **How do you view the nature of the learning activities and tasks in relation to learner-centeredness, active learning, reflectivity and cooperative learning? What strategies are employed to foster reflective capacity of student teachers?**

I: **Those people have different experiences. They have to think of their own, and they have to examine their own histories, experiences, beliefs, assumptions, and they may have to develop their own personal theories. And this can be done when they are engaged in learning experiences that create good opportunities for them to reflect on their own experiences. So do you think they have had these opportunities?**

- TE 2:** The major problem is that they don't have this experience when they were at high school, to discuss in a group. The students aren't well prepared to undertake active learning here at the university. At the beginning, they aren't capable of saying a word or saying sentences, and because of that they are ashamed of making mistakes in front of their classmates. That is the basic problem, because the students have no preparation before coming to university. We have simply different activities. But the students, themselves, are not ready, not mentally prepared to those qualities to undertake those activities. What the basic problem is the essence or the notion behind active learning and student-centeredness. That is to give responsibility for the students for their own learning; cooperative learning, to learn outside the classrooms, but the students are not able. They don't have the basics to do these activities, and that might be the basic problems for us
- TE 7:** I think the problem is with student placement by the Ministry. All competent candidates are placed in other faculties like medicine, engineering, law, economics, and so on. The least scorers in the preparatory programme are placed in education faculties and the students are incapable. They wouldn't have joined the university at all if it had been three or four years before.
- TE 5:** Supporting what has been said, I'd like to mention class size as a factor. We have a large number of students in a class. All the principles in the programmes can be put into practice in classes of a small size. In my class for ELT methodology, there are about 52 students. How can I manage to pay particular attention to each individual in such large classes? Personally, I believe it is impossible. These learning strategies can be applied in small classes, having not more than twenty students.
- TE 4:** If I have to do my work in the same way as suggested in the course modules, I can't cover the syllabus. So, I often tell my students to do the group discussions with their friends out of the class time because the most important thing is giving the highlights of the lesson to cover the designed content of the course. It is time wasting for me to get students to work in pairs and groups, and also they have nothing to learn from each other because all the students are very weak and know nothing.
- TE 1:** I would like to mention the teachers (instructors) do not have interest in their profession. For this reason, they don't want to implement active learning methods in the classroom, because active learning methods ask a lot. You have to consider your students learning, you have to follow and study their drawbacks, and you have to do something to activate this problem. Present teaching involves concerns for all these problems. They have to do a lot to enter into the class.
- TE 6:** The problem with reflective teaching was that we haven't had the right way of monitoring. For example, one student has been ordered to write reflections on something. Then other students copy it, rephrase it, and then bring it to us and we correct those papers. We lack ways of monitoring. And in most cases, we are not able to correctly evaluate their reflections. We make them write reflection activities, we give grades in the form of assignment but we will not be confident about it. So I couldn't say that it has enabled many students to be very reflective as needed. Because there should be a way of controlling it and having the students go through it. We must have adequate criteria and right steps that we need to follow in monitoring such kind of activities.
- I:** **What are the factors you perceived as facilitators and hindrances in the process for student teachers' practicum experiences? Is there a match between the practices applied in the practicum settings and the practices being emphasized in faculty classes?**
- TE 7:** In my opinion, it is better to talk about the problems rather than the facilitators in the practicum aspect of the programme because our students have not benefited anything in terms of their competence growth. In fact, some students benefit a lot from practicum courses to survive in the university, because they easily score passing grades in these courses, which they cannot get in the academic courses. As to me, the main problem is the students' academic background. Most of them cannot really understand what we tell them to do.
- TE 6:** What I usually feel is that teachers are not satisfied in their profession. May be to a large extent because of the salary they have is much too little. So most of the time, teachers want to spend somewhere even in places where they should not. So they do not have enough time to correct reflective activities of student teachers. This is not the only thing that could be considered as hindrance, but you see there is lack of mechanism to control copying. I mean there is copying from each other and if students copied from students in other sections taught by other teachers, it is very difficult to control. Almost impossible. How can I get all students' work and check with that. So practically it may seem that we give marking to such kind of reflection activity. I don't know the way how we should control it.
- TE 7:** Yeah, even there is another way. They pay money to write their portfolio. So they take it into the class. And for the whole group, when I was actually teaching ELT method course in one section, the whole portfolio was the same; the same content, the same area. So it was difficult to give even grades to that portfolio. In some cases, the portfolio passes down even from last year to the present students. They copied and came up with the same portfolio. So something should be done to protect such hindrance.
- TE 5:** Uh uh...uh...still there is also a problem with the...uh...the overall programme of the university when we are going out to implement the practicum programme. We teach other students in the university and we teach other batches also within the department. When we are out of campus to supervise the practicum courses, other courses will be affected because we do not teach about a month. So we have to give these make-up classes and there would be a lot of problem.
- Ch:** **Are student teachers supposed to write portfolios for each course or for their practicum courses as well? Do they compile portfolios for practicum experiences?**
- TE 2:** They have portfolios for every practicum course. And they have also portfolios for writing skill courses, and ELT methodology courses. The portfolios are there but the right time for the portfolios are the portfolios for methodology and other courses. Because they do it in class, you can monitor it. You can know who has written what. And at the end you can also correct it as a full material when they just compile it. You can give it mark at it, there is a way to monitor it but monitoring the reflective activities of practicum is very difficult.
- I:** **When they write portfolios for their practicum courses, what elements do they include in their portfolios?**
- TE 5:** How can we expect these students to write well-organized reflective reports? It would be foolish to expect our current students to do so. They can't even spell their names correctly, let alone to express themselves in English. All the reports they submit to us a carbon copy of fellow friends' work.
- TE:** Because most of the time they are required to fill in what is in the checklist like "yes" or "no" or some thing like that. But they don't know what to say by interpreting that kind information, so there is misunderstanding or they may not be clear about this. Even we teachers do not have clear idea about the mode of assessment of the practicum, specially concerning grading.
- TE 4:** This is a serious issue. Students know this and because of this, the work, their reflection, is not, I think, genuine. I liked the way they are lying and they are lying but they do not know how to make a good lies The students come to you with the teaching aids or minutes that another friend used for another classroom. They are doing the same thing and even when we are going there, for example, they are not coming to you, but rather they say, "Today I am not coming to you." Even if you refuse, they don't care.

- TE 7: Lesson plan or evaluation checklist and the other documents imply that it is a must that they enter into the classroom and not go without any preparation. And another point is that we teachers have problem. We don't have usually grading post-teaching conference and we are not sure whether other people in charge of courses or operating action research are taking care for these things or I do not know but we teachers are not helping them just in correct way. I am not saying to all, but some teachers are not telling them what to do in the classroom and even don't advise them.
- TE 6: Yes, just to give answer to the question, there are some points, to identify the weak and strong sides of the lessons they observe and teach in the high school. The practicum coordinator has prepared different formats to help them write their school observation reports. They fill out the forms prepared.
- I: Another opportunity for student teachers to be more reflective is action research. So how does the action research conducted in this programme provide opportunities for them to refine their reflective capacity? Do they conduct action research at all?**
- TE 5: In the first practicum they simply go out to observe the school environment. In the second practicum they suggest a topic for the problems they identified and in the third they write the proposal and reports about practice teaching and in the fourth one they write the implementation report, what they implement, and finally they will write the outcome in practicum IV. And also we will come together. In practicum V, they write action research report. They agreed to be evaluated for example here we have arranged defense time, they are going to defend as regards to what they have done; of course, the content, the language and what they secured in the action research. I think that is a determination, or is that a reflection?
- TE 7: Actually there is confusion when we take the final practicum. You know they are expected to do something, one is teaching and the other is action research in the process of teaching. They implement action research. I was observing students, and asked many students "What are the elements of your action research that you could do or you observed in your lesson?" They could not identify. Because they are not implementing. Then finally when they come to the report, it is just like writing composition. That is why I said they are like fiction.
- I: In the TESO program, strong school - university collaboration is recommended. And does department/faculty meet cooperating teachers and lead teachers to discuss how best to organize practicum experience?**
- TE 2: Yes, actually we have orientations to school coordinators every year. It is only that we have. The practicum coordinator at the faculty level orients these people. They also have workshops with schools around. They pick the principals and two unit leaders every semester.
- I: So how effectively do you think they are discharging the responsibilities?**
- TE 4: We are giving them some motivation. We paid them ...per student actually and we convince them that we they are also stakeholders. And we discuss that it is very important for the teaching profession. And we come to consensus. When it comes to evaluation, in most cases, they give 15/15. This is the problem of the evaluation. They are very generous in giving marks to our students because that has to be evaluated.
- I: What do you think this generosity show?**
- TE1: Well, sense of ownership. There is no sense of ownership. They haven't owned the program. They aren't in a position to consider themselves as stakeholders. So, we are trying. For the last three years we have been doing this, and we are doing it now. And we hope that it will improve. We cannot say, that these people are not good. So we have to make the evaluation in our home.
- TE 7: The problem is sometimes on the criteria. They say that they have to use only on the checklist given to them. But they only consider and give for the criteria since they are on the paper.
- I: Can you say the cooperating teachers do not meet your expectations about how a cooperating teacher should be?**
- TE 5: Our students say high school teachers do not have adequate knowledge of language instruction. For example, if I intend to teach reading skill, I make my students read silently because I was taught that reading should be silent reading. But what high school teachers do is just to make only one student read the passage in front of the students. Hence how am I going to be evaluated by these teachers and accept the marks they give to our students?
- TE 5: For example, when the student teacher is practicing teaching, they (cooperating teachers) need to be in class to assist the practicing teacher. Most of them give the class and go away. They won't be around; they won't help the student. This is one. Another thing is the evaluation itself. They are giving full marks to the student teachers. They don't want to be strict, though [sic because] they haven't been attending.
- I: Do you feel that they clearly know their roles and responsibilities?**
- TE 6: They do we give them, we explain this, we give them handouts, we distribute papers. We have a lot of formats. And then we agree but when it comes to implementation drills, away a problem here. We go and tell also what they should do. For example, as a supervisor, we go to schools. And then we discuss...we should work, and what their role should be.
- TE 1: But specially the school teachers, well we make thembut even the supervisors, most of us are not doing the right job. What he said motivation could be one thing. I don't know how much money motivates people.
- TE 7: I think it is equally important to look into our own deeds. Everybody knows that some of us are too busy to supervise student teachers on their field experiences and to advise them on their action research projects. It is clear that they are not doing things in the right way. But they strongly claim the work because they don't want to miss the money paid for the job. I remember one case in which one practicum supervisor finished supervising eight student teachers within two hours in eight classes. What does it mean? He used around 10 – 15 minutes for supervising each student. He didn't even have time to talk to them after his observation. He told them to see him later in his office. Then I don't know what he did. But finally he gave grades to the students. I'm sure he wouldn't have taken the responsibility if there had been no payment for it.

Appendix L: Transcript of Cooperating Teachers' FGD in Tank Haik Sec. School

- Res.:** First of all, I would like to extend my thanks to you for coming to this discussion forum. Ato X will chair the discussion, based on the items given to you. And I'll sometimes ask some questions just to get further information or evidence.
- Chair:** Ok. Thank you. I will raise each question with some intervals and I hope we will have better discussion on each point. The first question is "How did you become a cooperating teacher? How were you selected to be cooperating teachers? Did you have any training?"
- CT1:** What do we mean by a cooperating teacher?
- Res.:** A cooperating teacher is a teacher in a school where practicing teachers are placed and who help the practicing teacher in many respects: by advising, supporting, guiding them, just as you have been doing so far. So during the practicum placement, you are called 'cooperating teachers'.
- CT1:** Let me take the first chance. I think this is based on simply we are teachers in the high school. Student teachers come to our school and simply took over our classes. In some cases there may be some organized effort. For example, if you are a unit leader, you will be selected and be given training for that specific unit leader or teacher, and then you will collaborate and organize things over. But there is nothing as such organized selection and training for all teachers. We are selected simply because we are teachers here.
- Res.:** So can we say that every English language teacher in the high school is by default a cooperating teacher?
- CT2:** Yes, of course. In Practice, the department in the university or other concerned bodies do not consider people's experience, qualification or other qualities to select cooperating teachers from the staff.
- CT3:** Such cooperating teachers should have been selected and given special training and they should have had some benefits for their service. We are, in fact, experienced teachers. If someone who is assigned as a cooperating teacher is not an experienced one, he may not give them enough, uhh...adequate support. It should have been selective.
- CT5:** Of course, as my friend said, the process should involved careful selection. If a practicing student teacher is assigned to an experienced teacher, you expect that he/she will learn a lot from that teacher. But if he/she is assigned to a novice/beginning teacher, what do you expect him or her to learn?
- Chair:** **Ok, did you have any special training or induction or briefing sessions before you were assigned to do the job?**
- CT4:** This was the point I want to ask. Here the university should have trained us how we are giving them some help regarding the teaching learning methods. But they ...uhh, ... the university didn't give us any information. Even they do have their own formats, I think. They don't show us, Even if they had shown us their formats, we would have been ready to help them. For example, there was one student teacher assigned to me. He was from Gambella. He was my student teacher so he asked me to tell him to make student work in groups. He wanted to see when I was teaching in groups and how students were interacting. So just I made the students work in groups as he asked me. He told me that there are formats that he was going to fill. He didn't come back. So I didn't have the information about he did.
- CT6:** The friend of mine told me and an old friend of mine from Bahir Dar University told me that the directors went to the university and had a short orientation about practicum and no contact with school teachers.
- CT5:** Only the unit leaders and principals may have one-or-two day training in the university campus. Even the training was on how to coordinate the programme.
- Chair:** **Now we have agreed that there is no as such well-organized selection and training of cooperating teachers. Shall we go to the second question? The second one is "What are the responsibilities of cooperating teachers?" That means when you are working as a cooperating teacher with these students teachers, what are your responsibilities?**
- CT5:** There is simple and minor cooperation. That is telling them where I stopped. I tell them where I have stopped. And I give them my text (book), students' textbook, teachers guide and my duster. I show the trainees which classes I teach. These are the things we did before.
- CT1:** Yeah, sometimes they ask to give them our lesson plans. So they will take and see. They are going to be ready for that ... They also ask the number of students in the class, how many students, boys and girls. And sometimes some students teachers also ask us for research topics for their action research, I think. And they ask us for some information[s] and evidence[s].
- Res.:** **Do they expect your help when they handle your classes?**
- CT5:** No, they do not come to us.
- Res.:** **You mean they don't seek your help?**
- CT1:** No...
- Chair:** **They don't need your help?**
- CT1:** No, but the format, the daily lesson plan format which is used in our school and what they have, what they do in Bahir Dar university is quite different. They don't ask about the lesson plan; they have their own format. So they don't ask us about lesson plan....
- CT2:** Fine. They observe how we teach in the class. Then they ask for our lesson plan and materials of teaching; some of them also ask us to observe them when they teach. Then if they do some mistakes in the class when they teach, we give feedback then.
- Res.:** **What do you mean by 'mistakes'?**
- CT2:** For example, when we teach, they observe for a week or more than that. But when they teach, they speak and teach in Amharic. Then at that time, after they finish their class, during that week, we teach them that is forbidden to use so much Amharic.
- CT3:** There is some kind of monitoring, some kind of help, assistance that we give them. We tell them how things are done if they ask us. We also help them while they are teaching their lessons and then we give them feedback. We help them with their teaching. That's all.
- CT4:** Sometimes for their evaluation, they are teaching some sections. For example, they would like to teach grammar. They have their own material, teaching material. So the students in every section should go under the same programme. To exercise every skills, our book is divided into six skills, starting from comprehension upto the writing section. So they sometimes skip the listening and speaking section and they go to the grammar part because it is easy for them to teach for evaluation. At this moment we give some advice.
- CT3:** These teachers, or trainees, select class activities that they like to deal with during the teaching learning process. At that moment, as soon as I observe this, I give feedback. But most of them, I can say, can't express themselves. So we told them that they should do reading, speaking. The students undermine them. Some of them, while they are teaching, they drop their chalk.
- Res.:** **How well aware are cooperating teachers about nature of programme? For example, the teacher education programme in the university has its own objectives, philosophical bases or theoretical models like reflective approach or competency-based approach. Do you, as cooperating teachers, know the philosophical underpinnings of the programme?**
- CT1:** I don't think so. Maybe we can mention some of the objectives because we did such kinds of practice while we were in colleges. So, as I think, the objective is to enable students to practice to ... I mean, experience for teaching. And after that, we don't know, as far as I am concerned, we don't know any theoretical assumptions or conceptions regarding this programme. That's all.
- CT3:** As to me, before the program is starting, the university should collect the older teachers in the department. For example, English teachers in English department, mathematics teachers in mathematics, Civics, bla, bla,. The university should give us awareness, how we are actually helping the student teachers. If they were doing this before, even if not any training, if they show us the material the student teachers have, it

was of great importance because we can read that and understand how they are trained, how we can help them. It was important. But they didn't do this. They simply oriented the directors and the vice directors. We don't know what they did before. So they simply sit there and arrange the programme. The students enter to the class and they are watching us. So the programme coordinators and the student teachers are aware of the programme. We don't know what they do, when they are coming and why they watch us.

Res.: You are expected provide/give some help to them... without knowing the intention of the programme.

CT2: Yes, that is true. I remember when I was a trainee in Asmara TTI. We had cooperating teachers. Teachers of elementary school, they come to the TTI. They give them an orientation about the nature of teacher training programme and the objectives, what trainee teachers should do when they are staying in their schools. We all appear like formal teachers. They all follow our classes.... And they comment, we take their comments. And here we must correct our mistakes. This was good. But here things are different. I am simply cooperative teacher because I am here. This is my view.

Res.: Let's move on to the next issue, the current school-university collaboration or partnership. What do you think about this? What is the communication like? Is there any meeting or workshop on this programme? What about the benefits of schools and cooperating teachers if there is such sort of relationship or collaboration? Do you see genuine partnership and commitment on both sides, on the side of the university instructors and the school teachers to work collaboratively?

CT4: If I have to be honest, maybe my view is wrong. But it is based on my own experience in this school. There is no interaction between the university and high school teachers about this teaching learning process. Before six or five years, we were discussing problems together. Then the practicing teachers were small in number. But now we don't do this. I think the teachers come one or two times and evaluate and give marks. Even the teachers themselves don't ask us what were the mistake of the students. . . . Even we don't interact with them. Even they do not give us any reading, any training about this. So there isn't any help ...

CT5: In general, they come to our school if they have something to do Regarding our school, they come to us and do what they want. Ehh... ehh..... there seems to be no relation. I don't know whether HDP diploma programme is going on under the university or government. I don't know, but there is some kind of training which is given each three weeks in our school. But I don't know whether or not this is a programme which is given under the university. I don't know. I'm not sure. Even that is not related to the practicum.

Res.: Do the university supervisor recognize your work?

CT6: As to me, every time they come, they are concerned about their evaluation. Ehh... the reverse is true. There is no discussion between us. That kind of relationship, uhh... uhh.. even they sometimes claim that it a must for us to do that.Ehh... So sometimes they ...ehh... talk like an authority.

CT2: It is difficult to see their commitment because there is no link between the university and cooperating teachers. There is a gap. Regarding commitment, they are really committed to their jobs, but not to the relationship. We are also concerned with our jobs. Simply for the teaching learning process, we are preparing lesson plans. How are we guiding their students and give them some support? How are we committed without any communication with them?

Res.: So can we say that there is no communication between these two groups?

CT1: No communication. Even they don't ask us anything about the trainees. We see them when they come as supervisors to your class and to evaluate the student teacher. Until the bell rings, they stand up under a shade of a tree. Then they run into our classes. When the class ends, they talk to their students.

CT3: Even I didn't know the supervisors of student teachers Even we don't know who they are. So we can conclude from this, there is no commitment on both sides to their communication. The communication is between the officials. If you have some personal relationship with the supervisor, you can have a little talk about the job as well as about personal matters.

Chair: The last question is about the nature of support cooperating teachers provide to assist student teachers? Do you have pre-teaching and post-teaching meeting with student teachers?

CT1: Yes, first of all when they are assigned to see and observe the teacher, they come for a week or for five days. There are five periods in each week. They are observing us for five days. After observation, we are expected to let them teach and we are observing them. Then we are giving them a comment, a comment about their mistakes. After that, we will leave for two weeks or three weeks, and they are going to be evaluated by their university teachers.

Res.: When students stay for a week to observe your classes before they handle the teaching responsibility, do they know clearly what to observe and do you know what want to observe?

CT3: They come with a kind of format. They sit down and observe the class. And some students ask, they ask why one section is better than another. Some don't. We don't have a clear idea about their observations.

Res.: Don't you discuss the observation?

CT1: We expect, but unless they ask us, we don't do that. We don't often have discussion.

Res.: So before they teach their lessons, do they show you their lesson plan, and discuss their intentions or what they are going to do? That is what we mean by pre-teaching conference.

CT4: Yeah, Most of them they prepare lesson plan and some of them show us their lesson plan. They have their lesson plans. As I have told you before, the lesson plan format in our school and the lesson plan format the university are different. So we don't give any comment. The university lecturers are going to observe their own teachers. So they show their plans to their supervisors, because the practicum student has his own lesson plan.

CT2: The student teacher has to get the lesson plan approved, so the department head or the vice director is correcting the lesson plan. Regarding that the student teacher does not bring the paper to me.... At last he may do his lesson plan for the sake of his instructor, in the way that his instructor wants it to be.

Chair: After the observation what kind of discussion do you have with the student teacher?

CT3: I don't know what I'm going to do. So there is no discussion.

CT6: The same is true for me but while I was in junior high school, I used to discuss the strong and weak sides. I use to do that.

CT4: Do you know this is? Each year our school welcomes student teachers to teach only in Grade Nine. In one year you may be assigned in Grade Nine and in the following year you may be assigned in Grade Ten. So if you are teaching in Grade Ten, you cannot be a cooperating teacher because student teachers teach only all Grade Nine. You will have no contact with this type task.

Res.: But the goal of your programme requires the student teachers to reflect on their teaching. So how do you help them reflect on their own teaching experience? Do you ask them to reflect on their teaching, to discuss whatever they feel about their own experience or to evaluate their own experience?

CT1: What I did this year, I was teaching Grade Nine. I do have five sections. And I got four student teachers. Just I put these student teachers in each class. Four of them observed each other's class and evaluate their lessons. After that, they discussed who was making best. In such a way, I made them collect ideas before they discuss. But from the teacher, they don't ask any help. They did it independently.

- CT2: So these student teachers can reflect on their experiences whenever they are meeting. These student teachers should critique themselvesto evaluate themselves and whatever they have. These students must have been lucky to work with such creative person. But in our culture, this is not common. We can't be sure about how honest they were during their discussion.
- CT3: The university has to adjust the programme to share our experience with them.

Appendix L: Translated Transcript of Student Teachers' Focus Group Discussion

- I: **Do you have to compile profiles during your practicum experience? In some countries, student teachers are expected to construct portfolios which include the learner's artifacts, personal philosophies and experiences and reactions to their experiences from the beginning to the end of the programme. What do you do to document your experiences and to show your professional development?**
- ST2: In our case, we have action plans for our six- week or eight –week student –teaching. You act according to your plan and at the end you evaluate whether or not you have accomplished it. You are expected to write your reflection as requested in the format. We do not keep diaries for our day to day activities. There are some formats for our lesson plan evaluation, observation report and other things we example these issues. You submit this report to your supervisor. Then the supervisor evaluates you while you teach.
- ST 5: Maybe there are some people who try to keep diaries but we were not told to do this. No one told us that it would be good if we keep diaries and compile our portfolios in such a way.
- I: **The other important thing to help you develop skills of reflection is action research. Could you describe the process of you action research?**
- ST4: First of all, there is an introduction. In the introduction, you explain how you identified the problem, why you chose that problem, and what you intended to improve the situation. Then you describe your objectives and what you intended to implement to and how you would evaluate the effect. This is usually done in the first three weeks. Then you give this proposal to your supervisor. Afterward you implement your actions in the remaining time.
- I: **What problems have you faced during this process? Do you think you have enough time to critically observe the problems and to critically analyse the situation and implement your alternative course of action?**
- ST1: Ok, there are lots of problems here. We had a six-week programme. We used the first two weeks for observation. We observe while the regular teacher teaches. You evaluate both the students and teacher. It is this time in which you try to identify a problem or you action research. In third week, you teach the class while the regular teacher is observing you. In the remaining three weeks, you teach the class like a regular teacher and try to implement what you have designed in order to address the problem you have identified earlier. It is in this three-week period you try to implement your action and evaluate how much you have changed the condition. The period is too short for everyone, I think.
- ST4: The procedure is there, the first two weeks are for observation. But I tried to save my time by using only one week for the observation. I started to discuss with the students some points in selection to the problem I intended a problem. But a four weeks' time is never enough to teach and try out different strategies to solve the problem you have identified. Because it is difficult to change students' behavior in three years' time, let alone in four weeks' time. It is difficult for any one to change students' listening or speaking skills in three or four years.
- ST1: I used this procedure for my action research. As I first entered the classroom for observation, I asked the students in English why I came to their class. No one tried to reply in English. Then I thought about what the cause could be. Then when I asked them why they do not use English, they told me that their teacher often skipped the speaking section of the units. Then I started to think about the solution and how I could improve the situation. I considered my own experiences in high school. I considered how I could motivate the students so speak in English. I realized that their regular teacher skipped the speaking skills do not improve at all. Then when I took the teaching responsibility, I taught speaking skills using the available material in the book as well as the materials I collected from different sources. I tried to encourage everyone to be actively engaged in the activities. Then I evaluated my action.
- I: **What is your dialogue with your cooperating teacher or supervisor like? You usually have a feedback session after the supervisor or the cooperating teacher observes you teaching. What are the issues during the discussion? Who takes more of the time during the discussion?**
- ST 2: For example, the supervisor who came to evaluate us in my school makes you explain your own lesson first. He lets you talk about your own strengths and weaknesses. He asks you "What are your strengths? And what are your weaknesses?" Then you tell him what you think. It is then that he gives you his comments. He explains what problems you have had and tells you what you have to improve in the future.
- ST3: This is a good procedure. But we have not had this kind of supervisor. What our supervisor did was just telling you your weak sides and mentioning points that you have to improve in the future. He did not let us explain what we had done, what we had felt and believed about our performance. We did not have this kind of opportunity at all. We had to accept what he had to say about our performance.
- ST 7: In our case, you are invited to speak only in there are things that you have to explain in your lesson plan. It is the supervisor that gives you everything. You cannot even explain why you have done things in the way you did. He asks you why or why not you have done certain things in the class, but he does not expect your reasons. He sometimes remarks "You did nothing. You stood there doing nothing." It is this kind of comment that you hear from him. He does not want to listen to what want to say about your actions in the lesson. For example, you have walked around the class to manage group-work activities. You have your own reasons, but our supervisor asks you why you should walk around the groups, rather than letting you explain the reason.
- ST6: When my supervisor, for example, gives his feedback, he does not begin with your strengths; he tells you your weaknesses or focuses on the negative side. When I tried to raise a question, we entered into confrontation. then he said, " I have finished, that is all." He never allows anyone to question his comments. When I tried again to explain my reason, I told him that I followed the textbook and the teacher's guide. But he refused to listen to me saying that the book is not the bible. Sometimes, he tended to call you bad names such as 'keshim' (meaning 'silly/awkward')
- ST4: But in my case, it was different. My supervisor allowed me to talk about my strong sides first. He has his own comments to add after we talk about ourselves. For example, he asked me how I found teaching to get my opinion about the event as soon as we got out of the classroom. Then he took me to staff lounge and asked me to tell him what I felt about the lesson. I expressed what I felt. Then he started with the positive side. Then he added the points that I would have to improve in the next lessons.

Appendix M: Transcript of Interview of Practicum Coordinator

- I: What do you think are the basic assumptions and philosophical bases underlying the new teacher education programmes? And what are the goals of the programme?
- PC: Do you mean the practicum or the general programme?
- I: Yes, The practicum. In fact, the practicum occupies a large portion in the programme. What are the philosophical bases for this?
- PC: Ok, but what I'm going to tell you is from my personal reading. I think the theoretical foundation of the programme is a constructivist theory. The learner can construct knowledge by himself. ...the theoretical basis is constructivist theory. Research has proved this. In order to produce well-educated competent teachers, educators must present theory and practice side by side. A student teacher learns about learning theories in the university and observes and experiments them during practicum settings. Eventually, he will develop his own theories.
- I: Personal theories, you mean?
- PC: It is in this way that effective teachers can emerge. The literature states that competent teachers cannot be produced by simply feeding them with theories.
- I: So, can we say that these theoretical assumptions and theoretical bases underlie the goals of the programme? In light of these theoretical bases, what is being done?
- PC: In the programme document, the goals are designed in the line with these theories. Producing reflective practitioners who can develop their own personal theories based on their own specific situations is one major goal. Along this theory, there is a suggested model. According to this model, student teachers should have exposure to the reality in schools starting right from the beginning to the end of the programme. They should learn the theoretical part in the university. In the meantime, they should experience the reality in practice. This provides them with the opportunity to integrate theory and practice and to construct knowledge on their own. To this end, student teachers should conduct school observations, they should also undergo peer-teaching and microteaching in the campus before they have finally an extended practice teaching periods to make meanings from all what they learned in the campus.
- I: **I think the TESO document proposed five practicum sessions in the programme. But recently a change has been made to reduce the number and weight of the practicum sessions. How do you view this change in line with the theoretical foundations of the programme?**
- PC: The earlier programme, which had five distinct practicum sessions, came in effect with theoretical justification and model. But now the last part that had a wider coverage and a greater weight has been cancelled. As the earlier version was tried out, it was faced with enormous implementation problems. It has some management problems, so it had a problem of practicality. For example, the large number of student teachers in the programme may have been the reason. Or the absence of structured organization or financial problems, or lack of awareness raising orientation to the implementers might have been the reasons. Anyway, it was changed. But the change has been made on the basis of the implementation problems, not on the basis of theoretical justification. All the discussion during the forum was about the implementation problems. Therefore, it looked as if people had voted for the reduction and no one asked about how the change could fit in the theoretical conceptions of teacher education programme.
- I: If we were about to make SWOT (Strength, Weakness, Opportunities and Threats) analysis about the programme, what would you say?
- PC: The strength of the programme seems that it enabled student teachers to understand the school situations better than they would before. They were able to experience the school realities. It also created an opportunity for teacher educators to read extensively on teacher education. For example, they had to have a clear understanding of teaching, action research, assessment, etc., because they had to evaluate student teachers in a real school situation. In the preceding teacher education programme, instructors were focusing on pure academic tasks; they were not that much concerned about teaching skills. But now as the student teachers are challenging them on grading, they have started to worry about issues of teaching. And I think this is one positive development. What is more, the schoolteachers (cooperating teachers) are also positively affected by this programme. Our student teachers discuss issues like student-centred methods, teaching materials, and the likes in the schools they have been assigned. They sometimes carry their own teaching aids to these schools. In this way, I think, the programme has its own positive impact on the schoolteachers.
- I: **What opportunities do you think there would be if we were to realize all the elements of the shift?**
- PC: If the awareness is created on all stakeholders (the instructors, school teachers and school leaders), I don't think it will be difficult to implement the shift. For example, if you assigned student teachers from each department for a two-week practicum session systematically every semester, it would not add a load to the school system and the faculty management and the student teachers would be able to use the time effectively.
- I: **Do you think lack of awareness can be a threat to the success of the programme?**
- PC: Yes, I do. But if that awareness is developed, it would be an opportunity.
- I: **The programme document recommends a strong collaboration between universities and schools or good university-school partnership as one means to the success of the programme. In this respect, how do you view the existing collaboration between this university and partner schools?**
- PC: It is very weak I can say there is none at all. In different countries school teachers are aware that they are equally responsible with university and college instructors and that schools are teacher training centers, too. But there is no awareness of that kind in our context.
- I: **But the officials in Regional Education Bureau, zonal education desks say that they are working towards this end. They say that schools are all cooperative. How do you think they say so?**
- PC: Yes, our partner schools host our student teachers in fear of the officials in the worda or zonal education offices. There are occasionally directives/instructions issued from these offices. However, the second cause for their cooperation is the schoolteachers' belief that our student teachers give them days off. In deed, they get some rest when our student teachers handle their classes. This is the major practical reason rather than their beliefs in their roles as stakeholders in the programme.
- I: **How do you facilitate the school - university link during practicum placement and are there lead teachers in each school to coordinate the student teachers' field experiences?**
- PC: Yes, they set up one committee between the regional education bureau and the university at the beginning of the programme. But they did not meet more than one time. Later, we formed the link with the schools. Now there are coordinators at school level. There are four coordinators through whom we send our student teachers. Initially, a training was given for two directors and two coordinators from each school because they were believed to help our student teachers with active learning, action research and other related aspects. Now that has been quitted and we call each school to send two coordinators. Then we place student teachers in the schools. The coordinators are informed about what they have to do and they are made to facilitate things there. We pay them some reimbursement and they do the work. If there is no payment, they don't do the work.
- I: **What about at the department level? For example, do you not give any training to schoolteachers in English or Biology Department?**
- PC: No, Never at all.
- I: **Is there an ongoing communication between university instructors and cooperating teachers to ensure that linkages between courses and field experiences are clearly evident? What is the ongoing communication between schools and the university like?**

- PC:** Our communication is only when we have practicum placements. We often call the schools to inform them that we are about to send our student teachers. We sometimes go to the nearby schools to inform them.
- I:** **Do you give orientation to the student teacher about their duties, roles and rights in the schools when they are placed or before they go out to schools?**
- PC:** No, they get this information through the coordinators in the schools.
- I:** **Do the student teachers have a guideline how to organize their school experiences?**
- PC:** Yes, First of all they are given a course outline. Other than this, objectives, activities and assessment forms. They also take a portfolio form in which they fill out some things, [for example], lesson plan forms and action research guideline and teaching materials. There are also corresponding checklist forms for instructors who supervise them.
- I:** **What about information about their relationship with the cooperating teachers at school?**
- PC:** There is a sort of the orientation. We tell them that they have to speak to them (the school coordinators) to be assigned to different classes and that they have to ask them if they face any problem.
- I:** What about their duties and rights?
- PC:** This is just part of the orientation. Because there are related tasks, we tell them to abide by the school rules and regulations just like any teacher in the school.
- I:** **What types of reflective experience does the programme provide for student teachers? What kind of support are student teachers given about how they monitor and reflect on their field/school experiences?**
- PC:** We have different mechanisms. The guideline is one and the portfolio format is another. For example, after they prepare a lesson plan and teach the lesson, they make lesson evaluation. If it is school observation, they write reports. They are made to include their reflections there. The supervising instructors also conduct feedback sessions after their observations. They also conduct action research. These are all the ways. However, there is no one intensive mechanism here
- I:** **Do student teachers have any opportunities in the system to work in groups, for example, to discuss their school experiences, to share their experiences, to observe one another just like peer reflective groups?**
- PC:** No, we have not anything designed in this way. Of course, they are made occasionally to make minute plan in group. As you have said, there are different things like critical friends to facilitate reflection in the literature.
- I:** **Do student teachers and supervisors hold pre-and post-teaching conferences?**
- PC:** No, but student teachers do that with their fellow friends by themselves.
- I:** **What do you think the reason is?**
- PC:** Perhaps lack of awareness. I come to see all these issues these days as I read the literature because of my assignment to this position. Previously we simply expected our student teachers to go to schools and practice teaching there by default. By the way, it should have been designed in such way that all teacher educators from all departments would participate in it. Nevertheless, now the programme is running in the way I imagine. Now I have come to realize that all these things should have been known by all. Discussion forums should be organized in all departments, but we have not yet done it. Most of the things we have mentioned so far can be done successfully not by single coordinator alone, but by every one in the faculty ... I think the main problem is this. For example, if I suggest doing something in a certain way, every thing goes that way. No one tries to make justifiable challenge. But if there were awareness development programme, they could help me or do something better.
- I:** **Another issue is about the nature of help the cooperating teachers provide for student teachers. How efficiently do you think they are aware of their roles and responsibilities? How much do you think they are aware of their roles?**
- PC:** I would rather say there is nothing as such. Now if you try to see the simple representation, you can say that when our student teachers arrive at schools where they are assigned, the school teachers hand in their classes to them and disappear from the schools. But in principle the cooperating teachers should work with the student teacher with a close follow-up from the beginning to the end of the trainee's placement. Unfortunately, the schoolteachers use the trainee's school placement as a vacation. So it is possible to say there are no cooperating teachers or mentors in the programme. We can say that it is so because of lack of awareness. The cooperating teachers in the school are no better than our student teachers. We tell them about student-centered teaching here on the campus, but what they see happening there in schools is quite the reverse. I think it may have some negative impact on them. So it is better to say the cooperating teachers are non-existent. It is the coordinators who assign student teachers, follow their attendance and help them if they have some problems. But these people cannot assist the student teachers with pedagogical issues. The mentors are not working.
- I:** **Student teachers are supposed to compile/construct portfolios about their field experiences. How are they going about it?**
- PC:** We advise them, we give them guidelines and we tell them to compile every single piece they do. But some supervising instructors require their supervisees to do all that they were told to, while some others focus only on teaching evaluation. The advisees of the latter, consequently, do not worry about their portfolio.
- I:** **What is student teachers supervision like? Are there any perceived problems?**
- PC:** The number of supervisors' school visits is very limited. Another problem is inability to employ the right method of practicum supervision.
- I:** **How frequently do supervising instructors visit their supervisees during their placement?**
- PC:** For example, during the longest practicum session they visit them twice. The first visit is meant to observe them whole teaching and to give them feedback. The second one is for evaluation purpose. I don't think this was designed so in the programme document. Because of financial problems, it is practically being used for evaluating how much our student teachers are able to teach what they have studied on the campus.
- I:** **Don't you think this is related to the applied science model or technical-rationality model of practice teaching?**
- PC:** I strongly believe that this is the foundation for our practices. This is the dominant assumption living with the university instructors and with the schoolteachers. This must be changed. Unless it is changed, no one listens to you even when you try to explain things in the new perspective. These underlying assumptions attract them to that end.
- I:** **How do you think this problem, incongruity between discourse and practice, could be solved?**
- PC:** The ongoing HDP (Higher Diploma Programme) is one great thing. The very process of the HDP reflects the same thing that our programme is striving for; so when instructors go out for supervision they will reflect it. Similar trainings like CPD (Continuous Professional Development) are given for high school teachers. However, the teacher educators should undergo this type of training first. This seems the rationale for earlier commencement of HDP than CPD. In addition, the teacher educators should have exposure to international experiences, through different ways, because most people think that the government has simply copied and imposed these innovations for no logical reasons. Therefore, people must read and discuss these issues. I know there are many African countries which have good experiences of educational innovations. We can establish a link with other universities to have exposure; otherwise, we have to go through the literature. Thanks to Internet technology, we can be networked with famous teacher education institutions and every one can have access to the literature.

Appendix N: Sample of Supervisor-Supervisee post-teaching conference transcript

- S: Ok
- S: Alright, X, welcome to the first discussion session. That's good. I mean to reveal what you see your strengths and weaknesses but before I tell you my feedback, could you tell me what you felt about particularly your strengths and weaknesses? Yeah, yeah, no, no [don't afraid] I mean yeah
- K: I mean, I think may be. Let me first I think I will try ... I have tried to present the lesson according to the lesson plan I have prepared, as much as possible. But you know whether I fulfill your criteria, I don't know.
- S: I don't have, I mean, new criteria.....you know the criteria you know the characteristics or qualities of effective teachers, you evaluate yourself based on these criteria.
- K: Right, butas I am a beginner teacher, I know I have some problems. For example, in presenting language problem, language problem, how to manage the classroom and the like I have tried much as possible to manage the classroom. Disciplinary, of course I have tried to, you know, present the lesson as much as possible. But it's better that you tell me what I failed.
- S: No, I mean you have mentioned some of your strengths. What are your weaknesses?
- K: My weakness?
- S: You felt something, yeah?
- K: Right
- S: Therefore.....remember the mistakes minor mistakes or the weakness youin teaching-learning process.
- K: It's what I told you. You know.
- S: Do you want to take all the feedback from me? You shouldn't do that. You have to self-evaluate yourself first. I mean, to improve your teaching, you are expected to identify your strengths and weaknesses. Therefore as a teacher you should You should be open, free. Tell me, I mean, your weakness and I mean you faced something, at least. You told me, I mean, some of the things that were good. What were your weaknesses?
- K: I have a language problem
- S: Ok, language problem, ok, whichand the other one?
- K: Ummmlanguage problem and you know at the time I present that lesson, I fell afraid
- S: Ok
- K: To some extent.
- S: Alright.
- K: I felt afraid to some extent and the like. This will be improved in the future. I hope so.
- S: Yeah, yeah, I think so. Ok. Let me tell you the strength I have seen, yeah, and I mean, I have seen. First of all, your voice was nice. It was audible. Every student/from the front to the back can, I mean, hear what you are saying. That is very nice. That's good. And you wrote difficult words on the blackboard with their definitions. That is also another quality that is also the strength. In addition to that, I mean, you don't feel discomfort you don't feel, I mean, afraid, do you? You don't. I have seen good confidence. That's nice. And as much as possible, you managed, you tried to manage class. These are the strengths. That's good. But when we come to the feedback I'll ask you some questions. Instead of using plasma, you used your own, I mean, you teach dictation. Why do you have any intention to do that?
- K: No, you know I have asked the students to open the plasma, but I think it has some problem. The plasma has some electronically problem, but the reason is that. I feel better if I use it.
- S: So you're used your own technique. That is good. The title you....
- K: Even I have prepared myself accordingly, according to plasma, but at the time when..... you know the reason I confused is that you know I need some help from plasma, I know that as plasma help me but the reason I felt fear to some extent is that when electric electronic problem appeared at that time.
- S: Ok, Ok. Uh..... The topic title was dictation **How Bees Communicate Dictation**, is that?
- K: Yeah.
- S: What was the objective of this session?
- K: The objective of the session was, you know, as it is dictation students were to write while I read the passage to students to write, you know, the correct spelling of the words and the punctuation not at all but This is the suggested procedure of the dictation as we have seen in the teacher's guide. This is the suggested procedure which the teacher must used while the lesson of dictation. This is my objective.
- S: Therefore, I mean students were expected to listen and writer. What were That is good. Do you think that the objectives achieved?
- K: Actually, it is not measurable because you know, I am not checking I have not checked students' achievements, but this opportunity will give to students themselves to get feedback from the mistakes you know as I have tried to mention at that time, if you had heard I make students to assume as if it was a test out of twenty and to deduct if they misspell words seriously, but when it is recognizable to deduct half marks when they were not use capital letter where necessary. These are the objectives and I wrote the model answer on the b/b as I saw me, and that is the evaluation system I have used. But I think it is very difficult to measure to see the whole class achievement at that time since the number of students are more than.
- S: Yeah more than forty
- K: Forty, Uhhmmal sixty-seven around. I think you see it is difficult to measure. To some extent, I have, you know, done.....
- S: Ok. That is good. You're used one technique. There was also another one. Instead of checking all students' paper at a time, you can make them exchange their paper....exchange their exercise books. And then, I mean....., make corrections or feedback. That was, I think, one of the easiest possible solution.
- K: You know the reason why I made this?
- S: Uhhm?
- K: If the students have a problem with themselves, it's better to learn from their own mistakes. If I gave them,.....if they made students to exchange their exercise books, they may not do very well for each other. But I think it better to see their own mistake I depending upon the model answer given to them. I think the reason why I used this is that.
- S: You want to check I mean whether they perform the activity well as not. You use one technique. But self-correction and teacher correction may appear later. It may not be application at this situation.
- S: The other one is when you see the passage, it was too long, it was boring. Do you think that? The paragraph or the essay consists three paragraphs. It was difficult I think to dictate. And students get bored.
- K: Two paragraphs. I think it was two paragraph
- S: Two paragraphs. It was too difficult to dictate
- K: So what can I do at that time?

S: I think you can adopt it. I mean instead of making them write you can use only one paragraph. I mean that was possible. I mean I say some students a little bored to write all the sentences. You can change the paragraph or Umhh...

K: Change

S: Yeah, or minimize

S: The other one you wrote all the passage on the blackboard. Why?

K: This is the model answer as I told you.

S: Uhh

K: What I need at that time, by depending on the model answer or looking at, students to correct themselves and to you know u...uh-ehh..... to eh evaluate themselves. Where I am to make Students, you know, this is suggested procedure of dictation actually.

S: That is the suggested procedure.

K: Yeah, suggested procedure, but on the suggested procedure of dictation it says that if you fail uhh. I mean if you feel student misspell the word.

S: Some words

K: Yeah, some words, they edit five times. And you write the model answer on the blackboard and I follow the procedure.

S: (Laughing) So you wrote the two paragraphs that took your time

K: You know I have given the time

S: Good, but you know instead of writing the two paragraphs, you focus on some selected words/vocabulary which you think that.....

K: They may fail to write, Right,

S: Ok, that is ok, you may think like that. That is ok, but the other thing you used students' L1.

K: Sorry?

S: Students' L1. Students' target language, I mean Amharic, should you use that. I mean why do you use Amharic now and then? Why.

K: You know I feel they may misunderstand my instruction. To make students understand very well the instructions I have giving to them.

S: Uhh, you know, if you think students may not understand your instruction

K: My instruction

S: You can do that, but we can use students' L1 now and then

K: Right- Right

S: You did that, but for other time you can use students' L1 once, twice, three times or four times. I mean in a period or a session. But if you use their L1, now and then, you know, it may not have a positive effect. That The other thing designed were not achieved. For instance you have said, "correctly spell the words in the dictionary I mean in the dictation by punctuating it" The other one..... uhm.....umh. I mean what kinds of objectives should we design when we prepare the lesson plan? That should be specific, measurable, umh achievement, umh..... SMART for short Specific, measurable

K: Achievement

S: Achievable, reliable and tangible.

APPENDIX O: Sample School Report on Student Teacher's Performance

Students' Participation in school activities other than teaching
(to be filled by school coordinators)

Student(s) Name(s): _____
Evaluater Name: _____

Tick 0(observable), 1(Poor), 2(Good), 3(Very good), or 4(Excellent) to indicate if criteria achieved

No.	Items	0	1	2	3	4
1	Sensitive to school problems					
2	Willingness to assist others					
3	Willingness to carryout tasks after school hours					
4	Provide concrete suggestions for improving school management					
5	Willingness to provide help to students with special needs					
6	Significance of the extra-curricular activity(ies) performed					

Additional

1. ተግባራዊ/ተግባራዎች/ ስብደት ወይም በገጠና ስነ-ምግባር ውስጥ የግብዓት ስራ በተለይ በፈጽሞት የሰራተው/የሰራተው ተግባራት ካሉ በጠቅላላ፤

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

2. ተግባራዎች ስነ-ምግባር ውስጥ በተለይ የግብዓት ስራ ላይ ያሉ ተግባራትን በመርዳት ያደረጉት ግራፍ እርዕስ ካሉ በጠቅላላ፤

APPENDIX P: Student Teacher Evaluation Checklist

TEACHING PRACTICE EVALUATION FORM	
Observer	Student-teacher
Subject	Date
Title of Lesson	Grade Unit:

Tick 0(unobservable), 1(Poor), 2(Good), 3(Very good), or 4(Excellent) to indicate if criteria achieved

Objectives	0	1	2	3	4	Comments
Clear						
Appropriate/relevant						
Communicated to students						
Achieved						

Activities	0	1	2	3	4	Comments
Well organized						
Varied						
Active Learning						
Well paced						
Positive challenge for students						

Assessment	0	1	2	3	4	Comments
Appropriate/relevant						
Effective						
Continuous/varied						
Students aware of assessment						
Students received constructive feedback						

Teacher	0	1	2	3	4	Comments
Showed high level of subject knowledge						
Delivered knowledge at appropriate level						
Used a range of relevant example						
Communicated clearly & effectively						
Interacted positively with students						
Used the blackboard properly						
Clearly enjoyed the lesson						
Fluency in the language used						

Students	0	1	2	3	4	Comments
Clearly interested in the lesson						
Participated actively						
Were treated as individuals						
Understood what was expected						
Were encouraged by the teacher						
Enjoyed the lesson						

Two successful things about the lesson	
One or two suggestions for improvement	
General comments	
Action to be taken by teacher next period	
General comments from teacher observed	
Time spent on post observation discussion minutes	Date

E. H. 2020

Lesson plan evaluation format to be used by evaluators

Tick 0 (unobservable), or 1 (Poor), or 2 (Good), or 3 (Very good), or 4 (Excellent) when the criteria is achieved

No.	Items	0	1	2	3	4
1	How far the lesson plan derive from, and it is related to, the unit of study					
2	To what extent do the objectives are clear					
3	To what extent do the objectives are measurable					
4	To what extent do the objectives are appropriate to the learners					
5	How far the lesson activities related to the objectives					
6	To what extent do the lesson plan take into account the background of the students					
7	How is the adequacy of the teaching materials included					
8	How far the plan provide a clear lesson beginning (preparing the student for what is to be learned), middle learning activities, and culmination (Summary, conclusion, and transfer)					
9	To what extent do the plan account for where the activities will take place and for transitions (change & movements)					
10	To what extent do the plan provide for assessing learners on the extents to which they have accomplished the lesson objectives					
11	How far the lesson is likely "doable" within the time available					

Comment

Evaluation of Teaching Material used in the lessons

Evaluate student the quality of the teaching materials used during team teaching by putting a tick in the box as follows:

Tick 0 (unobservable), or 1 (Poor), or 2 (Good), or 3 (Very good), or 4 (Excellent) when the criteria is achieved

No.	Criteria	0	1	2	3	4
1	Relevance to the lesson presented					
2	Quality - In relation to physical perception problems					
3	Effort - Made in producing the material; time, energy, material:-					
4	Originality of the Material					
5	Application - Timely - Exhaustively ...					
6	Practical contribution in Promoting the Lesson					

Comment:

Checklist to Evaluate Students' Lesson Observation and Evaluation

Evaluate student' Lesson Observation and Evaluation by putting a tick in the box as follows:

Tick 0(unobservable), or 1(Poor), or 2(Good), or 3(Very good), or 4(Excellent) when the criteria is achieved

No.	Items	0	1	2	3	4
1	Adequacy of observation of teacher activity					
2	Adequacy of observation of student activity					
3	Efforts made to identify successful things of lessons					
4	Adequacy of the reasons for the successful things					
5	The value of the recommendation(s) for improvement					
6	The degree of critical analysis or reflection on the lesson observed					
7	The quality of the general comment					

Comment

Checklist to Evaluate Students' Evaluation of the School Annual and Unit Plans

(Students are required to attach a copy of the annual and/or unit plan that they have evaluated)

Evaluate student' Evaluation Report by putting a tick in the box as follows:

Tick 0(unobservable), or 1(Poor), or 2(Good), or 3(Very good), or 4(Excellent) when the criteria is achieved

No.	Items	0	1	2	3	4
1	Knowledge of the student about objectives at annual and unit plan level					
2	Knowledge of the student about student-centered methods					
3	Consistency of the ratings with the evidences provided					
4	Consistency of the evaluation results with the recommendations for possible changes					
5	Adequacy of the evidences presented to support the ratings					
6	The quality of the recommendations made for improvement					
7	Originality of the report					
8	Agreement of the evaluation report with the reality					
9	The overall knowledge of the student about annual and unit planning					
10	Absence of redundant ideas					
11	Personal effort made to organize the information in the form of well summarized report					

Comment

APPENDIX Q: Sample Student Teaching Portfolio

LESSON OBSERVATION (2 copies)

Observer	Teacher
Subject <i>English</i>	Date
Title of lesson <i>VOCABULARY</i>	Number of students <i>43</i>

Underline or circle the elements that were present in the lesson observed and then add additional comments below if required.

TEACHER ACTIVITY includes: the teacher communicated the objectives to the students, the teacher used some active learning methods, questions were asked throughout the lesson, the lesson was well focused on objectives, a high level of subject knowledge was evident, knowledge was delivered at an appropriate level for students, positive interaction with students, lesson well paced, a range of relevant examples were used to help understanding, main points were summarised at the end, the teacher used methods that enabled assessment of the students' understanding, boys and girls were given equal opportunities.

Additional Comments

- The teacher should use important teaching aids according to the lesson
- The teacher should indicate assessment methods clearly

STUDENT ACTIVITY includes: the students were actively involved in the lesson, all students could see a text book if required, students able to answer questions asked, over 50% of students in class answered questions, students appeared to understand the subject content, students had the opportunity to show their understanding, students were encouraged to ask questions, boys and girls responded equally, students' children's activities were varied, a positive challenge was given.

Additional Comments

- Generally the students should become responsible taker (accountable) for their academics.
- More good student-student interaction, student-teacher interaction and the like.

Two successful things about the lesson

- Methodology
- Evaluation (assessment)

One or two suggestions for improvement

- The teacher should use another important teaching aids in addition to teachers' guide.

General comments

- The teacher should use an other important teaching aids based on the topic in addition to teachers' and students' guide (teachers' guide)
- The teacher should use an other variation (assessment) techniques in addition to some work class-work, group-discussion and the like.

Nipusoc Zewdit

REFLECTIONS ON YOUR LESSON OBSERVATION (2 copies)
<p>What teaching methods did the teacher use?</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Student-centered teaching methodology</i></p>
<p>Did the teacher use questioning? Reflect and analyse the questioning techniques of the teacher using the prompts listed. Were questions asked to the whole class or individuals or both? Did the teacher choose different students answer questions or did she/he keep asking the same students? Did the teacher ask open questions - if yes, give examples. Were about equal numbers of girls and boys involved in answering the question?</p> <p><i>Yes, but he^{she} asked general questions like</i> <i>⇒ Can you do it?</i> <i>⇒ How can you write conditional sentences and the like because this kind of question help student to ask them selves how can I know, what is my understanding -</i></p>
<p>Describe what activities the students were engaged in during the lesson e.g. answering questions, reading, copying from the board, discussion, written work from text book, other written work, practical activities or any other.</p> <p><i>- Written work from the text (exercises on the text)</i> <i>- practical activities whether orally or written</i></p>
<p>Was the teacher able to assess the understanding of the students? What methods did she/he use for assessment? E.g. questions to a wide range of students, observation of written work, listening to students' discussion, observation of an activity, quiz, role play, etc.</p> <p><i>- Listening to students' discussion and their group presentation for the whole class.</i></p>
<p>Roughly estimate the following:</p> <p>The percentage of time the teacher talked = <i>29.88%</i></p> <p>The percentage of time the students talked = <i>70.12%</i></p> <p>Comment: <i>When a group discussion is applied the No. of students is very high around 30-50 the teacher should select role model groups to save time.</i></p>
<p>General Comments</p> <p><i>→ The teacher should use important teaching guides in addition to teachers' guide.</i> <i>→ In order to save time the teacher should select role model groups according to the No. of students is very high, as a result group discussion (whole group reflection) requires time.</i></p>

LESSON PLAN (2 copies)

Name of the student-teacher _____

Subject <u>English</u>	Date of lesson _____
Number of students: boys: <u>93</u> girls: _____ total: _____	Grade <u>9th</u> , Unit: <u>Two</u>

Title of lesson Grammar, Conditional Sentences, Part-2
TYPE-1 or real, probable, likely condition

Specific Learning Objectives = At the end of this lesson the students will be able to:
 * Try to identify and describe about real, probable, likely condition.
 * Try to write their own sentences.

Teacher's Activity	Time	Students' Activity
• <u>Revise the previous lesson.</u>	<u>3'</u>	<u>listen and remember</u>
• <u>Brief the objective</u>	<u>2'</u>	• <u>listen attentively</u>
• <u>Introduce the lesson.</u>	<u>2'</u>	• <u>listen and take note</u>
• <u>Explain real, probable, likely condition by the use of example with envelopes.</u>	<u>10'</u>	• <u>listen and look what the teacher do and write (speak) their own sentences.</u>
• <u>Give class work for students and facilitate it.</u>	<u>20'</u>	• <u>Try to write their own sentences individually.</u>
• <u>Summarize the lesson</u>	<u>5'</u>	• <u>listen attentively.</u>

Resources (teaching materials)
 - Teachers' guide
 - envelops.

Assessment to be used : Class - work
home work
individual work
oral practice by the use of audio and sentences to p.p.

LESSON EVALUATION (2 copies)

Two successful things about the lesson. (What did you do that made the lesson successful?)

- Methodology \Rightarrow because I like his methodology he teach the students by active teaching methodology (student-centered)
- Evaluation (Assessment) \Rightarrow also here I like his assessment method, b/c he used by active continuous assessment.

One suggestion for improvement. (What will you do to improve teaching?)

I should use the teacher should use another important teaching aids in addition to teachers' guide.

\Rightarrow Instead of using group discussion method, ~~we~~ should use role model student to save time.

Reflections on the lesson (Think about: whether the objectives were achieved, what evidence you have for objectives being achieved, the balance between teacher activity and student activity, the teaching/learning methods you chose to use, which activity was most successful and why, the timing/pace of the lesson)

\Rightarrow When I said that the objective is achieved by the use of sufficient evidence like is the teacher use student-centered method or not, time taken to specific lesson according to the objective, and the like.

The students' activity should greater than teachers' activity b/c it motivates students to perform in teaching-learning process and they become accountable for their academy.

Reflections on assessment (Were your assessment methods effective? What did you find out about the children's knowledge and understanding of the topic? How would you use the results of the assessment in the next lesson? Does anything need to be recorded? Are you aware of individuals or groups of students who made progress or who need extra support?)

\rightarrow Yes, my assessment techniques are individual work, pair work, class-work, home work and the like (w)

When I said that, my assessment technique is suitable (better) for students b/c it help me to know the children's knowledge and understanding of the topic, I can assess my assessment technique by the use of students' result (and) awareness, participation and the like to the next lesson need of

There is no record material
 \Rightarrow There are students who need extra support to improve their English language ability.

Annual and Unit Plan Evaluation

DIRECTION: collect an annual plan and a unit plan from the schoolteachers and evaluate them using the following checklist and reflect.

Tick 0(unobservable), or 1(Poor), or 2(Good), or 3(Very good), or 4(Excellent) when the criteria is achieved

No.	Items	0	1	2	3	4
1	Matching between the breadth of content with time allocated			✓		
2	Adequacy of the introduction in over viewing the unit			✓	✓	
3	Relevance of the objectives to the curriculum for which students will be held accountable				✓	
4	The objectives promote a range of learning outcomes across several domains of learning (cog., off, psych.)				✓	
5	The objectives written in terms of what learners are expected to know or do			✓		
6	The objectives correspond to the readiness and ability level of the students			✓		
7	Consistency of the elements in the unit plan			✓		
8	Efforts made to use student-centered methods				✓	
9	Adequacy of teaching materials		✓		✓	
10	the assessment methods clearly indicated			✓		
11	the plan contain continuous assessment				✓	
12	the plan provide for assessing learners on the extents to which they have accomplished the lesson objectives			✓		

General Comment:

- ★ They should use other important teaching materials (cards) with student's text and teachers' guide.
- ★ The assessments are not enough, so they should use more assessment techniques like individual work, Group assignment and the like in addition to class-work, home-work.

[Handwritten signature]

Reflection on the Annual and Unit Plan of the Schools

(Please use a separate paper to answer the following questions)

1. Write all the evidences that make you rate 0,1, 2, 3, or 4 for each item in the above checklist.
2. Suggest the possible changes to be made on the annual and unit plans of the school so that these plans become standardized.

Reflection on the annual and unit plan of the school

- Introduction ?
- 1- Matching between the breadth of content with time allocated :- I gave good (2) because the content is covered by its time and the time is enough for the content.
 - 2- Adequacy of the introduction in overviewing the unit :- I gave also here good (2) most of the units have introduction with first overview.
 - 3- Relevance of the objectives to the curriculum for which students will be held accountable :- I gave for it very good (3) because the objectives focuses on students' practice and they become accountable for their academy.
 - 4- The objectives promote a range of learning outcomes across several domains of learning (cog, aff, phys.) I gave for it very good (3) because the objectives are described by cognitive learning outcomes.
 - 5- The objectives written in terms of what learners are expected to know or do :- I gave for this criteria (2) good because most units have good objectives according to the students' need.
 - 6- The objectives correspond to the readiness and ability level of the students :- I gave for this criteria also good (2) because most objectives are focused on students' activity so it makes them ready.
 - 7- Consistency of the elements in the unit plan I gave for it also good because most units contain English language skills.

What kind of evidence can I collect to help me make some judgments about what is happening?

8. Efforts made to use student-centered methods:- I gave for this criteria also very good (3) because most unit plans are focused on the activity of students with practice. As a result it has good effort for student-centered method.
9. Adequacy of teaching materials:- I gave for this criteria poor (1) because there is no any teaching aids except students' text and teachers' guide because these are common.
10. The assessment methods clearly indicated:- Yes they are clearly indicated but they are not enough so I gave it good (2)
11. The plan contain continuous assessment:- Yes it have continuous assessment so I gave it very good (3).
- 12- Yes, the lesson objectives are focused on the learners need and these lesson objectives are assess learners, so I gave for it good (2) because it is not enough assessing

Suggestion:- I suggest that the teachers should use ^{and their important teaching material (aids)} and an other assessment techniques ^{because they are not enough.}

APPENDIX R: Sample Action Research Report

Tables of content

Content	page
Acknowledgment	1
1. Introduction	1
2. What was my concern?	2
3. Why was I concerned?	3
4. What would I do?	4
5. Who could help me?	5
6. What did I do?	6
7. How can I evaluate my work?	7
8. What have I learnt form doing my action research?	10
Reference	11
Appendix	12

INTRODUCTION

I am student of Bahir Dar University in the department of English. I have been here since 2006. I was in Dangla for the last six weeks for the purpose of Practicum. During my practicum II, I was assigned to Mengesha Jemberie Senior Secondary School. In education action research is the means by which teachers, practitioners, and school administrators learn from their practice and experience in solving problems. I was assigned to this school in order to observe:

- the behavior of students in school and classroom
- what teachers and students do in the class
- what methodology the teachers used in class during teaching learning
- what resources are used by teachers and students

My practicum II at Mengesha Jembarie Senior Secondary School made me as I identified the title of my action research that "How can I improve students' participation in group discussion English lesson" The reason why I wanted to deal with this problem is that, participation of students in group discussion is method of teaching that bring self interaction and create problem solver citizen. In this case the students actively participate in the classroom activities where the teacher is facilitators and students are active participant on what their teacher gave them.

Group discussion is satisfactory teaching learning approach concerning students participation, self instruction achieving educational objectives and the way students solve community problems.

In generally, I observed for a week in order to attain relevant skill and experience from teachers also enables to increase the ability of teaching

learning process of students teachers this is when the teachers are responsible for their action and to fulfill this responsibility he/she have to use different techniques and his own strategies related to this, Peter W. Airasian /1996:23/stated that, "Teachers collect and interpret various sources of evidence to help students evaluate and choose suitable decision and courses of action."

WHAT WAS MY CONCERN?

During my teaching practices I did my action research size with teaching practice. These would be done with students and others to solve the problems In Mengasha Jemberie Senior Secondary School of grade 9th Room₁ participation of students' using group discussion were very low most instructional process was carried out by traditional methods such as lecture method, explanation and etc.

When I told to students to discuss using group discussion on certain issues they do not participate actively. Rather, they talk about other issues, most of them could not ask questions and gave answer; no experience of using group discussion. Therefore, all the situation mentioned above initiated me to focused on the problem and so my concern is to improve students' participation using group discussion.

Under my research I wish to bring about a change in the learners' class activities and the implementation of using group discussion method of teaching in Mengasha Jemberie Senior Secondary School. I saw that there was only speaking about using of group discussion method but, I have tried to create good teaching learning environment by applying these using group discussion teaching methodology in the class room and for their future life. Relating to this idea, Borich (1995:76) stated

2

that "planning is the process of deciding what and how teachers want their students to learn."

WHY WAS I CONCERNED?

As I tried to mention above most of the students were misunderstood their role when they participate in group discussion when I interviewed them they told me that group discussion is new phenomena to them. In lower level, the students had not experienced how to perform with in a group under my approach. I wish to bring a change of students in class activity and implementation of using group discussion method of teaching. Relating to this idea, Parrot (1982:7) stated that "The implementation function occurs when the teacher is interacting with students."

The negligence of students and teachers, especially the teachers have the responsibility in the present situation of low participation of group discussion. Therefore, I wanted to improve teacher responsibility and students activity on group discussion. On these way, attitudes of teachers towards group discussion method of teaching is the other reason for my concern. When the teacher entered the class he focuses only on lecture method rather than using group discussion of students. Teacher did not think of this method as means of bringing good creative environment for the students.

The number of students in the classroom can make the method difficult to apply. According to the new Ethiopian educational curriculum policy, the number of students in a single classroom should be limited to involve them in active learning. As crick shank (1995:9) stated "The relationship of classroom size to pupil achievement is remarkably strong. Large

3

reduction .by a third or half/ promise learning benefits of a magnitude commonly believed not to be with in the power of teacher to achieve.”

Generally, the main purpose of my concern is what I tried to state as follows:

- To assist students to develop positive attitude towards self confidence to discuss on the lesson.
- To identify the attitude (interest) of students towards which method of teaching is favorable for them.
- It may serve as starting point for research to be conducted on students-centered learning.
- To give some insight to teacher who search ways of motivating the students towards student – centered learning approach.

WHAT COULD I DO?

As I explained above, group discussion method of teaching is one of the best ways of teaching. So students and teachers should know its advantages and follow the method to become good beneficiary from the method. My main objective was to minimize the problem of students' participation in group discussion during English lesson. Some of them were:

- I wanted to create suitable and condusive class room environment.
- I wanted to motivate and encourage those students who are in fear to discuss in group.
- I wanted to create competent group in the class and active learners who are actively participant.

- I encouraged and advised students to take responsibility for their own learning.

Generally, under my research I wish to bring about change in learners class activities and the implementation of using pair and group discussion method of teaching.

WHO COULD HELP ME?

When I conducted my action research, I was helped by different personal individuals and used different reference material.

Firstly, Bahir Dar University faculty of Education would be helped me both by providing such a chance to conduct on action research and financial support and format of action research.

Secondly, the director of school was helped me by introducing me with all the school community and replied positively all what I asked for him. Also Ato Muluken Wassie a senior of English teacher helped me by introducing me with students class, by giving materials that are used to teach and giving critical feedback, comments and suggestion on my teaching methodology. The classroom students are also helped me by their discipline when I was taught them and they fill to me questionnaire that I prepared for data gathering for my success of my methodology and action research.

Finally I would like to express my grateful thank's to my advisor was gave me helpful continuous advise, generous assistance in correcting, organizing and evaluating all the material in this research through my work.

WHAT DID I DO?

As I explained above group discussion method of teaching is one of the best ways of teaching. So students and teachers should know its advantageous and follow the method to become good. The principal aim of my research is to improve the students participation in group discussion during English lesson. So, in order to arrive at my objectives result of the analysed and evidences collect through other method. Those methods are:

1. I planned to rearrange the students' seating arrangements. To do this, I considered:

- The total number of students and how many group can I form.
- The number of passive (less participant) and active students in group discussion.
- The number of male and female students in each group.

The main purpose of this seating arrangement was to make heterogeneous or mixed group, Relating to this Crick Shank (1995:369-370) stated that "seating arrangement (pattern) is aspects of physical environment that we as teachers can manipulate is the seating arrangement students need to know that the classroom is safe, comfortable place in which they can engage in positive social and academic experiences. Interaction between students and teacher are also influenced by the way students are seated."

2. Before I directly started the topic explanation I asked the students what they knew about the topic. Such method was mainly designed to

encourage and motivate students to make them active participants in group discussion.

3. I encouraged the learners to ask if there is any unclear instruction about the lesson in their discussion. Further more I gave more opportunity again for those passive students.
4. In order to avoid the problem of fear of students, I invited those students influenced by that problem to talk (speak) different things in front of the class.
5. I summarized the key points of the lesson by revising what they discussed in the class.
6. I informed about the next period's topic to the students in order that they read what they are going to learn.

HOW CAN I EVALUATE MY WORK?

To detect the effectiveness of the action taken to solve the problem, different evidences were gathered. I invited the students to give me comments, suggestion about the instructional process, and the methods I used. Through this I got enough feedback about the minimization of the problem. They said that it was very interesting attractive and all inclusive.

I made some interview with some students regarding the change that I observed in the classroom. Now the number of students participating in group discussion increased than before, the interest, initiation, positive feeling and their participation in group discussion, was changed.

Generally, based on the above information to check my work whether it is achieved or not I interviewed the students and teacher. I also prepared questionnaires.

INTERVIEW

Again the class teacher and 75% (56 number) of students from 74 students in the class on the bases of their participation in class room when I use group discussion teaching method. When I selected these students for interview my purpose was to understand whether the method has advantage or disadvantage for both class teacher and students. For instance, I listed some of them as follows.

INTERVIEW TO THE CLASS STUDENTS

1. What are your problems that you do not participate in group discussion?
2. Do you think that when you form group discussion there will be disturbance in class room?
3. Are you afraid of your friends when you are speaking in English language during group discussion?

INTERVIEW FOR CLASS ROOM TEACHER

1. How is the recent achievement of students' participation in group discussion compared to the previous one?
2. What do you think is the problem of students that they do not participate in group discussion?

According to the result of the interview to the class teacher and the sample students the participation of students in group discussion in English lesson and their academic achievement was highly improved. In addition, the teacher said, there was great behavioral change in their participation in group discussion.

QUESTIONNAIRE

When I was prepared five (5) questionnaire with close ended items that help me to identify the participation of students in group discussion students were made to provide their response based on the rating scale such as strongly agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree and Strongly disagree.

The purpose of this questionnaire to know the attitude of Mengasha Jemberie Senior secondary School student to wards students participation in group discussion approach at English lesson. So you are kindly requested to answer the following question honestly.

Instruction I: You are requested to put "√" mark under the number of your choice:

1. Stand for "strongly disagree"
2. " " "Disagree"
3. " " "Undecided"
4. " " "Agree"
5. " " "Strongly agree"

No.	ITEM	Response				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Students participation in group discussion makes students-teacher relationship positive.					
2	I enjoy learning when there is active participation of students in class room					
3	I feel sorry when group discussion is not used in the classroom					
4	A group discussion learning helps students use his/her background knowledge and experience to solve problem					
5	A group discussion learning is important in helping students see for them selves how knowledge is developed.					

As I tried to prepared the above questionnaire it was possible to see from the response of the majority of students from these questionnaire, there are important change that student are using group discussion and increased interest of the students toward the method.

WHAT HAVE I LEARNT FROM DOING MY RESEARCH?

When I conducted my research, I had some intended objectives. In addition to these objectives I have learned many useful points from my research work. I listed some of them are as follows.

- Smooth relationship between the teacher and the students makes the teaching learning process effective.
- I have understood the problems of students' participation in group discussion among the secondary school student.
- To bring active participation of the learner in the classroom, the value of encouragement, motivation and reinforcement from the teacher to the students has very significant role.
- The teacher can improve the academic performance of low achiever students through tutorial classes.
- An action research is one of the best methods used by teachers as a mirror to evaluate their duties.

In addition, this was a good chance for me to develop the experience of conducting an action research. In my feature life in teaching, primarily I will be democratic teacher and I will encourage my students to freely express what they feel. I will do action researches after selecting problems that have great impact on the teaching learning process. This will be in cooperation with the school teachers. Regarding my teaching style, I will has flexible when I use different methods depending on the nature of the topic concerned.

REFERENCE:

Cruick-Shank /1995/: The Act of Teaching. By Cruick Shank
 Donald R: Deborah L. Baineer and Kimkmetcalf.
 New York: McGraw-Hill.

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 New York: McGraw Hill Companies Inc.

APPENDIX I

Bahir Dar University
 Faculty of Education
 Department of English

Questionnaire to be filled by students of Mengasha Jemberie Senior secondary School. The purpose of this questionnaire is to know the attitude of Mengash a Jemberie Senior Secondary School students forwards Students participation in group discussion approach at English lesson. So you are kindly requested to answer the following question honestly.

1. Personal Information
 Grade 9th Room₁
2. Instruction: read the following items carefully and indicate the degree of your agreement by putting "√" under the number of your choice:
 1. Stand for "strongly disagree"
 2. " " "Disagree"
 3. " " "Undecided"
 4. " " "Agree"
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Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that this dissertation is my original work, that it has not been presented for a degree in any other university, and that all sources of materials used for the dissertation have been duly acknowledged.

Candidate: MULUGETA TEKA

Signature: 