

**A COMPARISON OF THE ANALYSES AND EVALUATIONS OF OBSERVED
CLASSROOM EVENTS BY CO-OPERATING
TEACHERS AND STUDENT TEACHERS: A CASE STUDY**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
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BY

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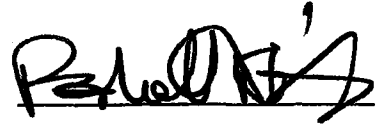
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**IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
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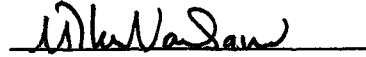
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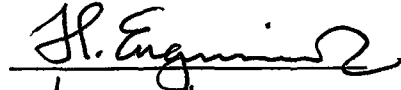
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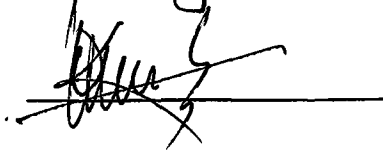
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ABSTRACT

A COMPARISON OF THE ANALYSES AND EVALUATIONS OF OBSERVED CLASSROOM EVENTS BY CO-OPERATING TEACHERS AND STUDENT TEACHERS: A CASE STUDY

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This thesis aims at comparing co-operating teachers' and student teachers' analyses and evaluations of observed classroom events. For this purpose, 11 co-operating teachers and 16 pre-service teachers were made to observe and comment on the demo lessons conducted by pre-service teachers as part of the requirements of the teaching practicum of the Foreign Language Education Department at Middle East Technical University.

During personal interviews, the subjects were asked to comment on the salient teaching events and the visible students they recognised while observing the demo lessons. Furthermore, the subjects were asked to complete a teachers-beliefs questionnaire.

The interviews were transcribed and analysed for Level 1, Level 2, Positive and Negative Statements and the inquiry focused on whether co-operating and student teachers referred to the same visible students and evaluated the impact of these student likewise.

The quantitative and qualitative analyses of the subjects' interview protocols and the answers they provided to the questionnaire showed that no significant differences could be found between the two subject groups.

Keywords: Expert teachers, novice teachers, co-operating teachers, pre-service teachers, teaching practicum, Level 1 statements, Level 2 statements, positive statements, negative statements, visible students, salient teaching events.

ÖZ

UYGULAMA ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN VE ADAY ÖĞRETMENLERİN GÖZLEMLEDİKLERİ SINIF İÇİ OLAYLARA İLİŞKİN ANALİZLERİN VE DEĞERLENDİRMELERİN KARŞILAŞTIRMASI: BİR DURUM ÇALIŞMASI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı uygulama öğretmenlerinin ve aday öğretmenlerin gözlemledikleri sınıf içi olaylara ilişkin analizlerini ve değerlendirmelerini karşılaştırmaktır. Bu amaçla 11 uygulama öğretmenine ve 16 aday öğretmene, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü öğretmenlik stajı uygulamasının bir parçası olan uygulama dersleri izlettirilmiş ve bu dersler hakkındaki yorumları istenmiştir.

Kişisel mülakatlar yoluyla, deneklere izledikleri uygulama derslerinde dikkatlerini çeken önemli sınıf içi olaylar ve 'ayırtebilir' öğrenciler sorulmuştur.

Deneklerden ayrıca öğretmenlerin mesleki kanılarını ölçen bir anket doldurmaları istenmiştir.

Mülakatlar yazılı metinlere çevrilmiş ve 'Düzey 1', 'Düzey 2', 'Olumlu ve Olumsuz İfadeler' analizleri yapılmıştır. Ayrıca uygulama ve aday öğretmenlerin aynı 'ayırtebilir' öğrencileri hatırlayıp hatırlamadıklarına ve bu öğrencilerin ders üzerindeki etkilerini benzer şekilde değerlendirip değerlendirmediklerine bakılmıştır.

Deneklere ait mülakat protokollerinin nitel ve nicel analizlerinin ve deneklerin ankete verdikleri yanıtların değerlendirilmesi sonucunda, iki denek grubu arasında anlamlı farklılıklar bulunamamıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Deneyimli öğretmenler, deneyimsiz öğretmenler, uygulama öğretmenleri, aday öğretmenler, öğretmenlik staj uygulaması, düzey 1 ifadeleri, düzey 2 ifadeleri, olumlu ifadeler, olumsuz ifadeler, ayırtebilir öğrenciler, önemli sınıf içi olaylar.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Presentation

This chapter starts with background information to the study and to English Language Teaching (ELT) Departments in Turkey, points out the significance of the study, introduces the Foreign Language Education (FLE) Department at the Middle East Technical University (METU), states the problem, the purpose and scope of the study, and the limitations of the thesis. Finally, definitions of the terms used in the study are given.

1.1 Background to the Study

In almost every professional and educational field, the central focus of attention has always been on the experts in that field. How experts approach their work, what special abilities they possess and what distinguishes them from their contemporaries or peers have been investigated by many researchers to unravel the nature of expertise – what it is and how it is exhibited.

In recent years, the most common way of studying expertise has been to compare the performance of experts and novices. This tradition has been applied in many fields like chess, bridge, medical domains, radiology, physics and mathematics, and it has been found that the ways in which experts and novices differ are very much consistent. Experts seem to recall meaningful data better, perceive more meaning in the data, perceive and remember information differently, and use different criteria to judge the utility of information perceived and remembered (Carter, Sabers, Cushing, Pinnegar & Berliner, 1987).

Unfortunately, only few studies dealing with expert and novice differences in the field of teaching have been conducted, “partly because educational phenomena have been considered too ill-defined to study expertise adequately” (Carter et al., 1987, p.148). Rather, the focus has almost exclusively been on the teaching practices of effective experienced teachers. The knowledge obtained from these studies, in turn, has been used to shape teacher-training courses, practicum practices and course material – issues mainly related to novice teachers. In other words, novice teachers have, probably unintentionally, been educated by presenting them with information completely based on how experts think and act and asking them to adopt the routines or actions of experts (Borko, Lalik & Tomchin, 1987).

However, this seems not to be a reasonable approach, since recent studies on expert and novice teachers indicate that, like in other professional fields, there are major qualitative differences in the thinking and actions

between teachers at the two ends of the continuum (cf. Berliner, 1986; Borko et al., 1987). So, it appears that rather than completely concentrating on the traits of expert teachers and disregarding the novices in the field, educational programmes should be designed as to take into account the thinking and actions of novices as well as experts and the process by which novices become experts. Otherwise, a crucial aspect of the teacher education process and the course of becoming proficient in the field would be totally neglected.

This issue seems to be of special importance in settings in which expert and novice teachers are required to communicate, interact, and collaborate intensively, like in teaching-practicum settings. Until the teaching-practicum, which usually takes place in the final sequence of teacher preparation/training programmes, student teachers (i.e., novice teachers) are constantly presented with theoretical knowledge considering the traits of expert teachers and related “do’s” and “don’ts”. Thus, student teachers start the teaching practicum, and consequently the profession, with declarative knowledge (‘knowing that’) concerning the subject matter and teaching-related practices built on what is known from experts, and try to “translate and adapt this declarative knowledge into a system of procedural knowledge (‘knowing how to’)” (Borko et al., 1987, p.89) during the practicum stage.

The usual case during the practicum stage is that the acquisition of procedural knowledge is mainly shaped, directed and modified by co-operating teachers (again, supposedly experts), working at the institution(s)

at which the practicum takes place. It is known that co-operating teachers have significant impact on the evolution of the procedural knowledge of student teachers and that the interaction and communication between the two parties is, to a great extent, led by the co-operating teachers. So, student teachers are mainly in the position of observers and receivers who are supposed to view the co-operating teachers as models.

So, in short, novice teachers are being trained and educated on the basis of theoretical and practical applications, completely based on and dominated by the thinking and actions of expert teachers at every stage of the educational process. The thinking and acting procedures of novice teachers, however, are being neglected, although it seems very obvious that the identification of novice teachers' approaches and traits would add much to the successful design of all stages of teacher education programmes, from course material and content to practicum applications.

Therefore, the present study aims to be a further step in the comparison and analysis of experienced and novice teachers in Turkey by focusing on the potential differences exhibited by experienced and pre-service English language teachers in the identification, evaluation and interpretation of observed classroom behaviours and events in an authentic practicum setting.

1.2 Significance of the Study

Conducting a research study on the comparison of certain traits of expert and novice teachers in Turkey is valuable from several perspectives. Although there have been a number of studies comparing experts and novices in the field of teaching, only very few seem to have been conducted in the Turkish context. Thus, there is a definite need for similar studies in Turkey in order to gain deeper knowledge concerning expert-novice teacher differences in Turkey.

The identification of differences and similarities between expert and novice teachers may help to re-design methodology courses at Faculties of Education. It is a well-known fact that methodology courses usually attempt to train prospective teachers by feeding them with knowledge about how experienced or expert teachers behave and think, without considering the complex and seemingly completely different thinking and acting traits of inexperienced teachers.

The results of this study may further help to re-evaluate and re-design in-service-training programmes conducted by the Ministry of Education and other institutions and to take into consideration the potential needs and anxieties of beginning teachers, who get confronted with a number of problems due to their different and immature views and behaviours once they have started the profession.

1.3 Background to English Language Teaching (ELT)

Programmes in Turkey

English Language Teaching (ELT) Departments in Turkey carry the common mission of educating English teachers. Accordingly, students at these departments basically go through the same educational process. That is, in the very first year, the English language proficiency of students at ELT departments is improved and brought to a level, sufficient for further study in the program. For this purpose, English core courses like English Grammar, Reading in English, Spoken English and English Composition are offered.

In subsequent years, the main aim is to help students gain a deeper insight into the English language and culture via English literature and linguistics courses and into pedagogical subject matter via methodology and educational-science related courses. In the final stage of ELT programs, students are supposed to go through the practicum stage, which mainly involves a practical teaching application of the theoretical knowledge acquired in the previous stages in the programme.

Prior to the restructuring of Faculties of Education in 1998, every ELT department in Turkey had its own curriculum, designed in accordance with the English language proficiency levels of the students and the fields of expertise of the academic staff.

In other words, although every ELT department in Turkey carried the same basic mission, the curricula of these departments and the relative weight of courses falling into the criteria mentioned above showed fluctuations. ELT departments tending to have students with a relatively low English language proficiency levels, for example, used to extend the initial stage of teaching English core courses, while departments with students at higher English proficiency levels tended to cut this period shorter. A very striking difference between different departments was apparent in terms of the relative weight of literature and linguistics courses. Departments with staff members mainly having literature backgrounds, for example, simply raised the number of literature courses in the program, whereas departments with linguistics-related staff in the majority naturally preferred to increase the number of linguistics courses. That is, depending on staff and resources, ELT departments in Turkey used to differ in both the quality and quantity of courses offered.

However, with the restructuring of Faculties of Education, the curricula of nearly all teacher education programmes, including ELT programmes, were restructured as to exhibit certain standards. Accordingly, every ELT programme in Turkey was supposed to change its curriculum in accordance with the guidelines set by the Council of Higher Education (YÖK), and ELT departments in Turkey have been implementing a more or less standard curriculum ever since. The most apparent modifications in the ELT programmes are the relatively stronger emphasis on the study of education, especially subject teaching courses, and the relatively higher priority given to

work in schools, thus, practicum applications (The Council of Higher Education, 1996; The Council of Higher Education, 1999). A further and more detailed analysis of the curricular features of ELT programmes in Turkey will be provided in the following section, where the ELT department of the Middle East Technical University (METU) will be introduced.

1.3.1 The Foreign Language Education (FLE) Department at the Middle East Technical University (METU)

Before 1998, one of the 'higher quality' language teaching departments, the Foreign Language Education (FLE) department at the Middle East Technical University (METU) in Ankara, implemented a programme made up of English language courses (such as English grammar, English composition, reading skills, and spoken English), linguistics courses, English literature courses and courses related to the theoretical and practical foundations of language teaching and teaching in general.

Out of the 46 courses taught at the department before the change in curriculum in 1998, only 9 courses (19%) were directly related to the acquisition of theoretical and/or practical skills involved in the teaching profession. These courses were FLE 303 (ELT Methodology I), FLE 304 (ELT Methodology II), FLE 405 (Materials Adaptation and Development), FLE 404 (Practice Teaching), EDS 200 (Introduction to Education), EDS 220

(Educational Psychology), EDS 240 (Social Foundations of Education), EDS 320 (Introduction to Curriculum Development), and EDS 330 (Measurement and Evaluation in Education). Courses starting with the departmental code "FLE" are courses directly related to theoretical and practical applications of English language teaching and were offered by the METU-ELT department itself, whereas courses carrying the departmental code "EDS" are courses dealing with general educational issues, offered by the Educational Science Department at METU to all teacher education programmes.

The aim of FLE 303 (ELT Methodology I) was to familiarise students with major classical and new methodologies in ELT by examining the theories behind them and providing opportunities for practical familiarity with these methodologies. FLE 304 (ELT Methodology II) was a shift from the theoretical aspects of language teaching covered in FLE 303 to the more practical aspects of it. In this course, students became familiar with the basic techniques of presentation and a variety of exercises/drills and tasks to reinforce and practice what has been presented. Like in FLE 303, part of the requirements of the course was a mini demo-lesson in the areas covered. FLE 405 (Materials Adaptation and Development) was very much the same as FLE 304 in terms of its objectives and procedures, but differed in the teaching skills dwelled upon. The main teaching skills covered in this course were teaching grammar, teaching reading, and teaching writing. Actually, one of the most important common aims of FLE 303, FLE 304 and FLE 405 was the aim of preparing the students to participate in the FLE 404 practicum application (Practice Teaching).

FLE 404 (Practice Teaching), a course offered in the very last semester of the programme, constituted the practical application of the theoretical knowledge gained in the previous courses and semesters. The course aimed at helping students gain the skills necessary for teaching English as a foreign language at secondary level through observation and teaching practice in pre-determined secondary schools under staff supervision. For this purpose, students in their final years at the department (pre-service teachers) were assigned to pre-determined secondary schools at which they mainly observed experienced teachers (their co-operating teachers) and other pre-service teachers for a number of weeks and taught a number of lessons, at least one of which was assessed by their university supervisors. During this stage, which is also called the 'practicum-stage', students were furthermore required to prepare lesson-plans, observation reports based on their observations of experienced and pre-service teachers, and be in close contact with their co-operating teachers at the practicum-site. This close contact consisted of meeting at a regular basis, receiving feedback on demo-lessons and discussing school and classroom-related phenomena. Thus, this relation can be described as an 'expert-apprentice' relationship.

As stated before, students at the METU-FLE Department were also offered courses which had no direct relation to the teaching of English but to rather general educational issues and concerns. In EDS 200 (Introduction to Education), students were presented with knowledge, skills, and issues

involved in teaching and the main characteristics of the Turkish Educational System; EDS 220 (Educational Psychology) mainly dwelt on the developmental characteristics of students and on approaches of learning; EDS 240 (Social Foundations of Education) aimed at presenting the definition of the subject matter of sociology of education and tried to provide a macro-explanation of the relationships between education and other societal subsystems; EDS 320 (Introduction to Curriculum Development) presented students with basic elements of curriculum designing, planning, implementing and evaluation; and EDS 330 (Measurement and Evaluation in Education) basically focused on the role and application of measurement and evaluation in teaching (METU Catalogue, 1997).

The implementation of national standards and the restructuring of Faculties of Education brought about some changes in the curriculum implemented. These changes, however, will not be discussed within the framework of this study, since the subjects involved in the present study were not affected by these latest curricular changes introduced in 1998.

1.4 Purpose

As stated before, previously done studies suggest that there “should be essential differences between expert and novice teachers’ personal understandings of classroom events” (Gonzales & Carter, 1996, p.40). The identification of these potential differences carries special importance

because provided that one or more of the many features which normally distinguish an expert teacher from a novice teacher are deciphered, the characteristics and properties a novice teacher lacks and, thus, needs to acquire to reach a certain level of proficiency in teaching might be determined.

So, once these differences are identified, valuable information regarding the skills novice teachers do not possess and what domains need to be more focused on in teacher education programmes will have been obtained. This information is of vital importance because “educational programmes which take into account what is known about the thinking and action of novices (as well as experts) and the process by which novices become experts might be more useful” (Borko et al., 1987, p. 78).

Within this framework, to illuminate potential differences between expert and novice teachers in terms of recalled classroom events and the explanations and accounts provided will help to gain further knowledge about what distinguishes experts from novices, the thinking traits of both parties and steps needed to be taken to improve the education and training of inexperienced teachers.

1.5 Limitations

This study has several limitations:

The first limitation concerns the subjects involved in the study. The study includes only 16 pre-service teachers from the METU-FLE department and 11 experienced teachers from only one secondary school in Ankara. Therefore, the findings of this study can not be generalised to all pre-service settings in Ankara and, consequently, in Turkey.

The second limitation is related to the selection of the subjects. The pre-service teachers in this study were not selected randomly out of the total population of the pre-service teachers at the METU-ELT department, nor were they chosen on the basis of any criteria. The subjects were simply chosen to be members of any practice-teaching group whose practice-teaching and observation schedule fitted that of the researcher. This way had to be chosen because otherwise it would have been impossible to cope with time constraints.

The third limitation involves the selection of the experienced teachers. There was no opportunity to select experienced teachers possessing a pre-determined minimal experience duration. Rather, all teachers working at the research site were considered as experienced. Nor was it possible to use any criteria other than length of teaching to determine the level of experience of the teachers. However, the fact that these teachers were chosen as 'co-

operating teachers' by the school management suggested that they were regarded as relatively experienced in their fields.

The fourth limitation stems from the duration of the data gathering process. There was no opportunity to conduct a longitudinal study since most of the subjects involved in this study were students in their final years of their education and were going to graduate from their department within a period of five months. Thus, the study lasted only one semester (approximately four months) and therefore covered only a limited duration.

1.6 Definitions of Terms

Classroom events (*salient events*) are any kinds of phenomena occurring during the active process of classroom teaching; may be related to every aspect within a classroom and can be initiated by the teacher, students, outsiders or physical objects.

Expert teachers are experienced teachers regarded as being at a high level of expertise. In this study, mentor teachers (i.e. co-operating teachers) are regarded as expert teachers.

Novice teachers are inexperienced teachers, who have newly started the teaching the profession and who mostly display contrasting features with expert teachers in terms of expertise in teaching.

Pre-service teachers (or *student teachers*) are students in their final years at a teacher education department who go through the process of gaining preliminary teaching practice at a secondary school under the supervision of their university supervisors.

Visible students are students having a particularly positive or negative impact on an observed lesson and are easily identified by an observer.



CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Presentation

This chapter focuses on the literature relevant to the present study. It starts by illuminating the changing perspectives in teacher education and criticism made regarding language teacher education programmes and the teaching practicum. Then, it outlines the traits and properties of expert teachers and novice teachers, mentions the role of the schemata of experts and novices by dwelling on two relevant research studies, and, finally, states the implications of the issues mentioned for teacher education.

2.1 Changing Perspectives in Teacher Education

When Henry James some 70 years ago stated that teachers affect eternity; no one knows where their influence stops (1931, cited in Rust, 1994, p. 216), he must have foreseen the importance and attention teachers, teaching, and teacher education are receiving today. One important factor in the continuously increasing interest in teaching and teacher education might be the shift in how people see and regard teaching. Once seen as an art or a

craft which completely depends on the characteristics of the particular teacher and which can not be taught, or reliably predicted, contemporary teaching is viewed as a profession with its own philosophy and theory (Pennington, 1990) and “ as having a sense of autonomy, with its own knowledge base, paradigms, and research agenda” (Richards, 1990, p. 3).

This changing approach to teaching has also brought about some necessary modifications in the way teacher education is being viewed. It used to be believed that individual acts of teaching are essentially irreplicable and noncomparable, that the inherent characteristics of individual teachers are the strongest predictor of classroom outcomes and that teaching can not be analysed and described in rational and consistent terms (Pennington, 1990). “From this perspective, teachers are born, spontaneously as it were, when they stand in front of a class and begin to teach. Hence, the only relevant experience for prospective teachers is actual teaching” (Pennington, 1989, p.9). According to this belief, the only value of teacher preparation can be for helping natural abilities and for synthesising elements of the teaching ‘craft’ into an individual teaching style (Pennington, 1990). Today, however, with the perspective that teaching is a true profession, a number of different approaches to and theories of teacher education have been established, which are all based on the common assumption that it can be indeed taught how to teach effectively.

This shift in perspective has also had its impact on second and foreign language teacher education. It used to be assumed that “those who knew the

language could teach it" (Erdogan, 1997, p. 10), and that the main objectives of language teacher education should be to create an awareness of the language and to familiarise prospective teachers with some basic methods, skills, and techniques (Gower, 1988, cited in Erdogan, 1997). Contemporary language teacher education programs, on the other hand, claim to be merging theory and practice, to be putting an accent on reflective teaching and to be modifying their theoretical knowledge bases in accordance with recent research findings – all indications of the professionalization of language teaching and teacher education (Carr & Kemmis, 1983, cited in Richards, 1990).

2.2 Criticism of Language Teacher Education Programmes

Have the changing perspectives in foreign and second language teacher education programmes resulted in satisfactory outcomes? According to Freeman (1989), the ultimate goal of teacher education programmes should be to enable student teachers to develop the independent capacity to make informed teaching decisions and to assess the impact of those decisions on both their own and their students' learning, or, as Orem (1981) puts it, to know what they do, how and why. So, student teachers are expected to graduate from teacher education programs, having gained the necessary skills and theoretical base to be successful in their future professions; thus, "to develop, practice, and refine their competence as language teachers" (Freeman, 1990, p.103).

Widespread criticism about language teacher education programmes, however, points just to the opposite direction. The dissatisfaction regarding language teacher education programmes is related to both the overall structures and ideologies of teacher education programmes and to issues regarding the application of the teaching practicum (or student teaching experience).

The main criticism regarding teacher education programmes is that they are simply too theory-based, not able to prepare students for real-life teaching situations, and not able to develop students to the desired extent. Some researchers believe that the reason for these phenomena is the lack of a theoretical framework to serve as a basis for second language teacher preparation programmes (Bernhardt & Hammadou, 1987; Freeman, 1989; Richards, 1987; Richards & Nunan, 1990; Johnson, 1992). Johnson (1992) further claims that this is the outcome of the lack of a clear understanding of what effective second language teaching is and of how second language teachers actually learn to teach. This view is also supported by Feiman-Nemser (1983) and Zeichner (1986, both cited in Westerman, 1991), who state that at present little is known about the development to teach.

Another criticism is that teacher education programmes do not help to change the beliefs of pre-service teachers concerning the learning and teaching of the subject matter. Brousseau and Freeman (1988) indicate that teacher preparation programmes generally do not challenge students' initial beliefs about education, which results in the pre-service teachers' concluding

their programmes of study without examining their own perspectives about teaching and learning. Kagan (1992) concludes that this might be the result of the lack of opportunities in teacher education programmes to have extended chances to interact with and study students and to dwell on theory and practice in balance.

In a research programme designed to add to the knowledge about novice teachers' thinking and actions, researchers at the University of Maryland, U.S.A., have investigated how pre-service teachers think about teaching. They examined the relationship between teacher education programmes and pre-service teachers' thinking and concluded that student teachers need help to further develop both pedagogical and content knowledge (Borko, Livingston, McCaleb, & Mauro, 1988, cited in Westerman, 1991).

Another very frequently made criticism of language teacher education programmes is the programmes' 'obsessions' with newly introduced and ever-changing methodologies. It is known that the latest bandwagon 'methodologies' come into prominence without much study or understanding, particularly those that appear easiest to immediately apply in the classroom or those that are supported by a particular 'guru' in the field. This seems to create a gap with the practicum applications because the practice in schools is different from the more theoretical and 'up-to-date' approach of college/university teacher education programmes (Lange, 1990). In other words, what is being criticised here is the tendency to separate theory from

practice by privileging formal knowledge held by university professors as the foundations for understanding the practice of teaching (Carter, 1990; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993, both cited in Rigano & Ritchie, 1999).

As can be inferred, although language teacher education programmes and teacher education programmes in general are going through a stage of innovation and improvement, there is still much concern about the validity and reliability of the procedures implemented. Much higher concern, however, is placed upon the practicum applications in teacher education programmes, which constitute the main (and usually only) practical application of the theoretical knowledge gained in the programmes.

2.2.1 Criticism Regarding the Teaching Practicum

The teaching practicum, which has been granted increasingly more attention by educational researchers in the last two decades and which has been described as the most important component in the preparation of teachers (Goodlad, 1991; Kennedy, 1991; Simpson, Whelan, & Zabel, 1993, all cited in Little & Robinson, 1997), is subject to harsh criticism.

One of the highly criticised features of the practicum application is the relationship between the student teacher (the novice) and the co-operating teacher (i.e., expert or master teacher) at the practicum site, which is known to have a great impact on the development of the student teacher. The usual case is that the student teacher to a great extent observes the co-operating

teacher most of the time and has only limited opportunities for any kind of teaching. Thus, the student teacher 'plays the role of the observer'. This draws, to some extent, on the notion of being an 'apprentice of observation' as described by Lortie (1975, cited in Wade, 1998), where craft knowledge may be gained and where the presence of the co-operating teacher is a key factor. This idea of modelling, however, assumes that the attributes displayed by the mentor are desirable (Wade, 1998), which is usually not the case. Furthermore, even if the co-operating teacher were a model teacher, would extensive observation help the student teacher gain much from this observation? According to Calderhead (1988), this is not the case because the very fluency with which experienced teachers achieve their purpose in classrooms hides from novice observers the sophistication of the knowledge being used.

Student teachers, then, are mainly passive observers who are involved in only a narrow range of classroom activities over which they have little control. Their interactions with colleagues are brief and usually related to the task at hand, and their limited teaching is routine and mechanical and often equated with moving children through prescribed lessons in a given time period (Tabachnick, Popkewitz, & Zeichner, 1979, cited in Little & Robinson, 1997). These teaching tasks are usually completed by simply replicating the activities and approaches of the observed co-operating teachers, "with only minor cosmetic revisions, without incorporating new knowledge and without responding directly to the needs of the particular students they face" (Little & Robinson, 1997).

Another questioned feature of the practicum application is whether the co-operating teachers are really proficient enough to be models or masters for the student teachers. It seems to be obvious that not every co-operating teacher possesses the necessary skills to be a sufficient model for a pre-service teacher. According to Little & Robinson (1997), the master teacher must possess proficiency in the professional competencies that the novice teachers are encouraged to acquire, as well as the skills of task analysis to facilitate the novice teachers' skill development from their current levels of learning to skill mastery. The master teacher must further be knowledgeable, yet sensitive to the specific strengths and weaknesses of the novice's knowledge base and skills. Thus, expertise in teaching is not enough. Mentorship skills are critical to growth in novice teachers' competence and confidence. In other words, co-operating teachers should go through some kind of training on how to be effective in mentoring and guiding novices.

Another key problem regarding the practicum application is the fact that experts (co-operating teachers) and novices (pre-service teachers), who work closely together during this stage, are essentially very different from each other. This might seem at first desirable, since it is hoped that the novice learns from the expert, but a closer look at the characteristics of experts and novices in the following part reveals how difficult it actually can be for the two parties to co-operate and communicate due to their completely distinct natures.

2.3 Expert Teachers, Novice Teachers, and Expertise in Teaching

As stated above, the teaching practicum is a process in which 'supposedly' experts (i.e., the co-operating teachers) and novices (i.e., student teachers) co-operate and communicate closely together. Apparently, the relationship is very clear and unsophisticated: the novice teacher, who lacks experience, is to be guided and led by the expert teacher, whose task is very clear-cut since the principal thing s/he has to do is to display his/her expertise and experience, and help the novice 'learn' from these behaviours.

However, this seemingly simple relationship bears some rather sophisticated and complex dimensions when the features of and differences between expert and novice teachers, and experts and novices in other fields, are examined.

2.3.1 Expertise and Expert Teaching

In teaching, like in many other professional fields, a search for an understanding of what constitutes expertise has increasingly occupied researchers over recent decades and has formed the basis of growing research (Elbaz, 1983; Berliner, 1986; Schulman, 1986; Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986; Brown & McIntyre, 1993, all cited in Wade, 1998). According to Wade (1998), there are a number of reasons why it is important to enhance our understanding of what constitutes an expert teacher:

- Student teachers will have a clearer and more explicit understanding and knowledge about the nature of teaching and can utilise this in their development and mastery.
- Without seeking insight into the teaching of expert teachers, potential skills will remain unquestioned and inaccessible and possibly remain unused.
- If students are to learn from the knowledge of experienced expert teachers, they must be clear about what they need to learn and how this may be learned.
- Knowledge of how the expert performs, as observed in the classroom, may help to inform us of what constitutes expert practice.
- This kind of knowledge would also benefit those already involved in teaching by learning from 'case studies'.

(p. 93)

To date, the most common way of studying expertise has been to compare the performance of experts and novices (Carter, Sabers, Cushing, Pinnegar & Berliner, 1987). This way of studying expertise enables researchers to identify the traits of experts and novices, and to compare and contrast them. The findings of a number of studies have revealed the following traits and features of experts in the field of teaching and other fields.

Chi, Glaser, and Farr (cited in Miles & Currin, 1995) have put together the following list:

- Experts excel in their own domains.
- Experts perceive meaningful patterns because of the way they have organized their knowledge base.
- Experts are able to solve problems quickly.
- Experts have superior short-term memory because they do not need to use valuable cognitive capacity in order to recall how to solve a problem.
- Experts see and represent a problem at a deeper conceptual level.
- Experts are more aware when they make a mistake and are better able to predict problem areas (p. 253).

In the direct comparison between experts and novices in teaching and other fields, the following differences have been mentioned in the expert-novice literature:

- Experts are more efficient in reading the context of a problem situation (Miles & Currin, 1995).
- Expert teachers comprehend, interpret, and predict classroom events more accurately and efficiently than novices (Gonzales & Carter, 1996).

- Expert teachers acquire and take note of information at the same time as undertaking a current activity (Wade, 1998; Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986).
- Experts recall meaningful data better than novices, perhaps because they perceive more meaning in the data (Carter et al., 1987).
- Experts and novices apparently perceive information differently, remember information differently, and use different criteria to judge the utility of the information they perceive and remember (Carter et al., 1987).
- Experts find different kinds of information salient and useful (Lesgold et al., 1981; Mazzeo, 1985, both cited in Carter et al., 1987).
- Experts know a great many things the novices do not know and can rapidly evoke the particular items relevant to the problems at hand (Larkin et al., 1980, cited in Carter et al., 1987).
- Experts have a greater ability to make high-level inferences from their knowledge base and are superior to novices in separating relevant information from irrelevant information (Carter et al., 1987).
- Experts have superior ability to encode and elaborate information in their working memory (Carter et al., 1987).
- Experts are better able to remember facts, features, and patterns in their area of expertise than are novices (Carter et al., 1987).

Considering novices, the literature on expert-novice differences clearly suggests that novices differ from experts in many ways. Articles on expert-novice differences in the field of teaching suggest that studies on the thinking and actions of novices are rather scant (Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1984; Nemser, 1983, both cited in Borko, Lalik, & Tomchin, 1987), but emphasize that it is reasonable to conclude that investigations of student teachers' thinking about successful teaching is an important component of research on learning to teach (Borko, Lalik, & Tomchin, 1987). Thus, determining the typical thinking and acting traits of novice teachers is at least as important as the identification of expert teachers' idiosyncratic behaviours – especially when it is considered that today's beginning teachers are the educational leaders of tomorrow (Pierson & Panasuk, 1998).

Roberts (1998) has put together the following list of typical characteristics of novice teachers:

- They lack practical classroom management routines to keep pupils on task.
- Their concern with control makes it difficult for them to focus on pupil learning.
- They lack an established teacher's 'pedagogic content knowledge'.
- They lack the practical experience from which to construct personal meanings for theoretical or specialised terms.
- They lack a coherent system of concepts with which to think about teaching.
- They lack a specialised vocabulary with which to analyse and discuss teaching.
- Their perceptions of classroom events are relatively indiscriminating and simpler than those of experienced teachers.
- They are less able to select which information is salient when planning a lesson.
- They lack 'typificatory knowledge', i.e., what to expect of pupils, what challenges to set and what difficulties to anticipate.
- They tend to work from the textbook rather than in terms of pupil attainment levels.

Other identified characteristics of novice teachers are as follows:

- They focus on the 'front stage' behaviours of teaching; those behaviours that are obvious and well-known to them and to anyone

else, and are unaware of the complexities of teaching that are hidden from view (Ryan, 1986, cited in Rust, 1994).

- Their approaches to the solving of a problem are often quite simple and specific and have relatively little argument development, in contrast to experts' solutions, which are often more abstract and demonstrate considerable argument development (Voss, Tyler, & Yengo, 1983, cited in Peterson & Comeaux, 1987).
- They operate on the basis of radically simplified conception (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1989, cited in Rust, 1994).
- Their general beliefs about learning and teaching are tenacious (Holt-Reynolds, 1992).
- Their general beliefs about teaching practices may not be easily changed by learning new theories and concepts (Calderhead & Robson, 1991; Kagan, 1992).
- Their beliefs seem to be drawn from previous vivid episodes or events in their lives (Pajares, 1992, cited in Vacc & Bright, 1999).

The main question is, however, what it is that creates the sharp difference between experts and novices or what enables expert teachers to be superior; thus, what makes experts experts. Research shows that even expert teachers themselves lack the ability to articulate the basis for their expertise and skills (Berliner, 1986; Schon, 1983, both cited in Wade, 1998). Brown & McIntyre (1993, cited in Wade, 1998) found that expert teachers do not seem to consciously know what they are doing, how they make

judgements or why they act in a particular way. Thus, expertise seems not to be a consciously acquired or learned skill.

Actually, there are various theories as to what makes a teacher an expert teacher, one of which is that the continuum of development of expertise in teaching has critical points as the completion of an accredited teacher education programme or the completion of an internship and induction year (Peterson & Comeaux, 1987). Possibly, the most widespread and reasonable approach to the 'myth of teaching expertise', however, stems from collaboration between educational researchers and cognitive psychologists, and will be explained below.

2.3.3 Schemata of Experts and Novices

Expert teachers usually claim that one best learns to teach through experience (Lanier & Little, 1986, cited in Smylie & Kahne, 1997) and that they learned most of what they know about teaching from their own classrooms (Buchmann & Schwille, 1983). Although this is to a certain extent a reflection of the cultural maxim that "experience counts, theory doesn't" (Hargreaves, 1984, cited in Smylie & Kahne, 1997), it is at the same time in line with the highly important findings of studies in cognitive psychology which suggest that experienced teachers have better-developed knowledge structures or schemata for phenomena related to classroom teaching and learning than do novice teachers (Clark & Peterson, 1986, cited in Peterson & Comeaux, 1987).

Accordingly, a skilled teacher has a “complex knowledge structure composed of interrelated sets of organised actions referred to as schemata” (Leinhardt & Greeno, 1986, p. 75). Cognitive psychologists claim that these schemata affect perception, understanding, remembering, learning, and problem solving (Peterson & Comeaux, 1987). These occur at different levels of generality and are regarded as routines which can be used flexibly with little cognitive effort by skilled teachers in the classroom (due to their repeated use in practice). These routines are based on the complex knowledge structure and interrelated sets of actions that the skilled teacher develops within his own personal repertoire or dossier of knowledge (Wade, 1998).

Gagne (1985) and Gagne & Berliner (1984, both cited in Westerman, 1991) noted that because of their less well-elaborated schemes, novices lack the metacognitive and monitoring skills that experts possess. In short, expert teachers, like experts in other fields, possess well-elaborated schemes that provide a framework for the meaningful interpretation of results (Westerman, 1991) and which develop as the level of experience increases .

These findings are further supported by the findings of research studies examining the role of schemata in other fields. Studies have shown, for example, that the same is valid for expert and novice chess players. Chess experts’ superiority in recalling chessboard positions, for instance, may be due to their problem schemata or the large store of intact and well-organized chess configurations that they have stored in memory (Peterson

and Comeaux, 1987; de Groot, 1966; Chase & Simon, 1973, last two references cited in Peterson & Comeaux, 1987). Similar findings have been obtained in studies on experts and novices in fields like physics, mathematics, and radiology.

2.4 Expert – Novice Research

Expert-novice research has been carried out in many professional fields like chess (de Groot, 1965; Chase & Simon, 1973, cited in Peterson & Comeaux, 1987), medical domains (Patel, Frederiksen, & Groen, 1984, cited in Carter et al., 1987), physics (Larkin, McDermott, Simon, & Simon, 1980, cited in Carter et al., 1987), bridge (Engle & Bukstel, 1978) and radiology (Mazzeo, 1985, both cited in Carter et al., 1987). As stated previously, the findings were almost always consistent in that experts were found to be superior to novices in their own fields; that is, the literature on differences between experts and novices in fields other than teaching indicates that experts are better able to remember facts, features, and patterns in their area of expertise than are novices (Carter et al., 1987).

2.4.1 Sample Expert-Novice Studies from the Field of Education

One influential expert-novice study in the field of teaching, that of Peterson and Comeaux (1987), investigated the hypothesis that experienced teachers have better-developed schemata for classroom events than do

novice teachers. They hypothesized that differences in the schemata of expert and novice teachers would be evident both from their recall of classroom events as well as from their analyses of, and approaches to, problems during interactive teaching. Furthermore, they expected that experienced teachers would recall significantly more classroom events than would inexperienced teachers and would rely significantly more than novice teachers on their knowledge of underlying principles of classroom learning and teaching.

For this purpose, 10 experienced high school social studies teachers and student teachers in secondary social studies teaching were selected. First, each participant completed three ability tests: the Extended Range Vocabulary Test by French, Ekstrom, and Price (1963); the digit span test from the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (1981); and the Paragraph Completion Test of Conceptual Level by Hunt, Greenwood, Noy, and Watson (1973, all references cited in Peterson & Comeaux, 1987). Then, each subject was interviewed after viewing three videotaped vignettes of interactive teaching, each of which contained a number of problem situations.

The interview protocols were analysed to find out differences and similarities in the recall scores (number of correctly recalled events), and in the ways in which expert and novice teachers analyzed and approached possible interactive decisions in the classrooms. Thus, the subjects were asked to describe specific points in the watched video vignettes at which a different decision could have been made by the teacher that would have

changed the outcome of events. These analyses were divided into Level 1 and Level 2 statements, Level 1 statements being statements in which the subject focused on the surface or literal characteristics of classroom events and Level 2 statements being higher-level statements suggesting knowledge of principles and procedures underlying classroom learning and teaching.

The results of the study suggested that expert and novice teachers did not differ significantly in their average scores on the digit span test or the paragraph completion test, “suggesting that they did not differ in short-term memory ability or in conceptual level” (p. 325). On the vocabulary test, however, a difference between expert and novice teachers was observed in favour of the experts, suggesting that experts had a higher verbal ability than novices. The analysis of the interview protocols revealed that experts had significantly higher recall of classroom events than novices, did not score higher in terms of Level 1 statements and outscored novices in higher-level oriented Level 2 statements.

According to the authors, these results clearly support the hypothesis that expert teachers have better-developed knowledge structures or schemata for phenomena related to classroom teaching than novice teachers and indicate that these differences in schemata reflected both in teachers' ability to recall classroom events as well as in the level of analysis that they bring to bear in problem solving situations in classroom teaching.

In a similar study, Gonzales and Carter (1996) tried, through interviews with members of co-operating teacher and student teacher dyads, to examine if similar events and details from taught classes were recalled and if these events were accounted for in similar ways. In other words, the research tried to test the hypothesis that "there should be essential differences between expert and novice teachers' personal understandings of the same classroom events" (p. 40).

For this aim, members of 13 elementary school co-operating teacher/student teacher dyads were chosen as subjects. The student teachers were interviewed four times each, at 4-week intervals, during their student teaching. The first three interviews focused on what teaching events they remembered, how they understood them, what changes these events created in their teaching, and generally how they thought about teaching at the time of each interview. Co-operating teachers, on the other hand, were interviewed at the end of their student teachers' teaching experience. These interviews focused on the co-operating teachers' reflections on and interpretations of what they considered to be the three most salient teaching events of their student teachers.

The interviews for each dyad were transcribed and later analysed in three stages. First, all four interviews for each student teacher were examined, and special attention was given to the identification of specific episodes that appeared and reappeared throughout the interviews. In addition, the salient teaching events identified by the co-operating teachers

were extracted and summarised. In the second stage, teaching events from co-operating teacher/student teacher dyads were compared and analyzed for similarities and differences. In the third and final stage, a comparison was made between the co-operating teachers' and student teachers' explanations of the same teaching events.

Part of the results of this study demonstrated that members of a dyad remembered the same teaching events but thought about them differently; that is, expert and novice teachers saw the same events as salient and had similar general attitudes and emotions toward the events. Differences were perceivable, however, in that co-operating teachers expressed their concerns for a variety of aspects as pacing, timing, student ability, involvement and achievement and "appeared to be able to pull from their rich store of classroom knowledge [schemata] to diagnose classroom problems and prescribe solutions for them" (Gonzales & Carter, 1996, p. 42). Student teachers, in contrast, tended to give "raw descriptions of events they had experienced" (p. 42) and seemed to be more concerned with particulars of classroom events and the effects of these events on them personally.

The authors of this study evaluate these differences between expert and novice subjects as "playing themselves out in the core student teaching relationship" (p. 45) and add that co-operating teachers and student teachers do not share interpretive practices, which seems to be hindering the communication between the two parties involved.

Other expert-novice studies in the field of teaching (e.g., Bryant & Currin, 1995; Carter et al., 1987; Westerman, 1991) report similar findings as the ones mentioned and, thus, point to the same direction in terms of the implications for teacher education cited above.

In the light of the above stated findings, it can be easily suggested that expertise in teaching is neither a myth nor “a matter of superior general intelligence, but rather a matter of specialized competence” (Carter et al., 1987, p. 156). It is even suggested that *the* expert teacher may not exist. Peterson & Comeaux (1987) claim that teacher X may be an expert curriculum planner, but may be mediocre at motivating an underachiever to learn. Teacher Z may be an expert at classroom management, but not an expert at teaching higher cognitive thinking skills.

2.5 Implications for Teacher Education

The above stated differences between experts and novices in many fields, and the convincing theory provided by the field of cognitive psychology for the underlying reasons for these differences, have highly important implications for teacher education and especially for the practicum application.

As stated before, expert and novice teachers work closely together during the teaching practicum. This close co-operation necessitates intensive

communication and interaction between the two parties. However, considering the great differences between experts and novices, it might be said that representatives of two highly distinct groups try to interact, which appears to bear powerful consequences for communication between them and, ultimately, for the process of learning to teach (Gonzales & Carter, 1996). According to Griffin (1986, cited in Gonzales & Carter, 1996), communication between co-operating and student teachers is likely to be demanding and perplexing for both parties due to the fact that they do not share interpretive practices.

This seems to be especially crucial in situations where the novice teacher is to be evaluated by the expert teacher, i.e., the co-operating teacher. Since co-operating teachers think and act completely different from student teachers, their assessments of the student teachers are most probably based on their own beliefs, practices, and theories and lack the notion that the person to be assessed is at a quite different level of cognitive ability and experience, and, thus, needs to be evaluated accordingly. It is known, for example, that student teachers are able to attend to only a few aspects of the teaching-learning situation while actually involved in interactions with students; however, when the immediacy of the situation is not present, they are able to reflect on many more dimensions (Borko et al., 1987). So, student teachers should not be evaluated solely on the basis of what has been observed during their teaching, but they should also be let to reflect on their teaching during post-teaching session, which, in turn, should be included into the evaluation process.

As can be inferred, the interaction between student teachers and co-operating teachers during practica embodies serious shortcomings and dangers due to the completely different natures of both parties. These shortcomings are flashing indicators for educational researchers and academics to introduce obligatory training for co-operating teachers to minimize the effects of the differences between them and student teachers, and to maximize the efficiency of practicum applications.



CHAPTER III

METHOD

3.0 Presentation

In this chapter, first the subjects, the research questions, the hypotheses and the variables of the study are explained. Then, information is provided about data collection procedures and research instruments.

3.1 Subjects

The subjects of the study were 16 pre-service teachers from the METU-FLE (Foreign Language Education) Department and 11 experienced teachers from Gazi Anatolian High School, a secondary school in Ankara.

The 16 pre-service teachers were in the last semester of their education as English language teachers and, thus, within the course of their teaching practicum at a secondary school in Ankara. As stated in the limitations section, the student teachers were not selected randomly out of the total population of student teachers at the METU-FLE Department but

were chosen to be members of one of the six practice-teaching groups whose practice-teaching and observation schedule fitted that of the researcher. Out of the 16 student teachers, 6 were male and 10 were female students.

The 11 experienced co-operating teachers were teachers of English at a highly reputable public secondary school in Ankara and were teaching general English courses to students at various age levels. As stated in the limitations section, there was no chance of selecting the co-operating teachers on the basis of any criteria since the teachers were pre-determined by the school administration to be the co-operating teachers of the specific practice-teaching group involved in this study. The experienced, co-operating teachers were comprised of 10 female and 1 male teacher. The results of a demographic interview revealed that the co-operating teachers in this study had an average of 14 years of teaching experience. Only 3 teachers reported to have received any kind of in-service education.

None of the 27 subjects received payment of any kind for being involved in this study, but participated voluntarily.

3.2 Research Questions

This study, then, sets out to investigate the following research question:

1. Do the co-operating teachers and the student teachers differ qualitatively and quantitatively in their recalls of and explanations for the observed classroom events of the student teacher lessons?

In order to provide an answer for this question, the following three sub-questions need to be formulated and answered as well:

1.1 Do the co-operating and student teachers identify the same visible students in the observed classes and evaluate the effects of these students on the way these classes are conducted similarly?

1.2 Do the co-operating and student teachers remember and refer to the same teaching events in the student teacher lessons observed?

1.3 Do the co-operating and student teachers provide similar explanations for the remembered classroom phenomena observed in the student teacher lessons?

3.3 Hypotheses

This study aimed mainly at testing the following null-hypothesis:

$H_{(0)1}$: There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of their recalls of and explanations for observed classroom events of student teacher lessons.

In order to be able to test the above stated null-hypothesis, the following sub-hypotheses needed to be tested as well:

$H_{(0)1.1}$: There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers with regard to the visible students identified and their impacts on the class observed.

$H_{(0)1.2}$: There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the teaching events remembered and referred to.

$H_{(0)1.3}$: There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the explanations provided for remembered classroom phenomena.

3.4 Variables

The study involved one independent variable and three dependent variables:

The independent variable was the experience level of the teachers involved in the study. It was a dichotomous variable since the teachers were either experienced teachers (co-operating teachers) or novice teachers (student teachers).

The dependent variables, on the other hand, were the visible students and their behaviours' observed impact on the class, the teaching events remembered, and finally the explanations for these teaching events provided by the experienced and novice teachers.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

Due to the fact that the main aim of this study was to unravel the similarities and differences between co-operating and student teachers' understandings and interpretations of classroom events, a class environment in which both co-operating and student teachers would be present and observe the same lessons was necessary. Accordingly, each student teacher was asked to teach one lesson in the class he or she had observed for the previous weeks and had also done some preliminary, unassessed teaching.

These lessons conducted by student teachers were observed by one co-operating teacher and another student teacher each. In addition to these two main observers in class, there was also the researcher of this study, who took notes about the sequence and general features of the class so that he would interpret the interview recordings easily, and the university supervisor, who assessed the student teacher along with the requirements of the course. Thus, 4 people observed each student teacher's lesson.

The two main observers (the co-operating teacher and the observing student teacher) were not provided with the lesson plan of the lesson to be observed. This was done on purpose in order to ensure the observers' full attention to the real teaching taking place. Furthermore, both main observers were told just immediately before the lesson that it was their observational turn in order to prevent any previous communication both between the observers and between the observers and the presenter. In other words, the observers were totally unprepared for the lesson to be observed, had no presuppositions about the lesson and, therefore, had the only task of observing what was actually going on in class. All observers were seated at the back of the class and every lesson was observed from the very beginning (including the student teacher's entering the class and greeting the students) till the end – approximately 40 minutes.

After each observation, the two main observers (the co-operating teacher and the observing student teacher) were interviewed separately. Special attention was given to the observers' being interviewed immediately

after the observed lesson. This procedure was repeated 16 times with 16 student teachers and 11 co-operating teachers. (4 of the 11 co-operating teachers observed more than one lesson due to practical reasons.) Thus, in the end, 32 interviews were conducted in total.

At the end of the data collection procedure, both observers were asked to fill out a questionnaire about teachers' beliefs and attitudes about learning and teaching, the purpose of which was to illuminate the theoretical underpinnings of the answers provided during the interviews and the subjects' beliefs, which might have shaped their class observations.

3.5.1 Classroom Observations

As stated before, neither the co-operating teacher nor the student teacher observers were told beforehand which lesson they were going to observe and when this observation was going to take place. Thus, the observers entered the class with minimal presuppositions and had no previous interaction with each other or the presenter. This was done to prevent the observers from entering the class with any pre-determined ideas about the class, the subject to be taught, or the presenter. Rather, their observations were supposed to focus only on what they actually saw in the observed class.

Another measure taken to prevent the observers from being affected externally was not providing them with any guidelines or checklists for their

observations. In other words, the observers were free to take notes about anything they wanted, in any way they preferred. This procedure was followed because the main aim of this study was to gather "qualitative data which would reflect especially the rich texture of the human interaction and also the complexities of interpretations of expert and novice teachers of what they had observed" (Vanci-Osam, 1999, p.156). Thus, the actual and authentic accounts of the teachers' observations were looked for.

3.5.2 Interviews

The interviews conducted with the co-operating teachers and student teachers comprised the primary data source for this study. As stated before, each interview was conducted immediately after the subjects had observed a student teacher lesson. This procedure was of crucial importance since otherwise the subjects might have forgotten some details including important information, which, in turn, would have decreased the reliability and validity of the present study.

No time-limitations were set for the interviews. The duration of the interviews depended on how much the subjects had to say about the observed lesson.

All 32 interviews were exclusively conducted in Turkish in order to provide the subjects with an environment in which they would be more comfortable and more fluent in expressing their ideas. All interviews were

tape-recorded and transcribed, and the interview transcripts were later translated into English (for sample transcripts, see Appendices A and B).

3.5.3 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study (Appendix C) was mainly adapted from Richards and Lockhart (1994). It was in form of a Likert-scale consisting of 31 statements to which the subjects had to express their degree of agreement or disagreement along the continuum from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The statements in the questionnaire questioned the subjects' beliefs about issues like the importance of grammar in language teaching, the role of group work activities, instruction in the native language, the relative importance of a textbook in language teaching, etc.

As stated before, the main aim in administering this questionnaire was to identify the probable theoretical underpinnings that drove the subjects to answer the interview questions the way they did.

The researcher of this study was not able to find any research study in which this particular questionnaire had been used and which indicated any validity or reliability scores for the questionnaire.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS

4.0 Presentation

This chapter deals with the analyses of the interview protocols and the questionnaire. Then, interpretations of both the data analysis and the questionnaire results are discussed.

4.1 Analysis of the Interview Protocols

The analysis of the interview protocols was performed mainly in four stages. In the first stage the interview protocols of the co-operating and student teachers were examined for any positive and negative statements made considering the observed presenter and his/her class. These negative and positive statements may be about any classroom event of the observed class. Positive statements were those in which the observer simply cited a classroom event and described it as being 'good, well done, positive, etc.' (e.g., "The communicative game at the end was well-prepared"). Negative statements, on the other hand, were those which touched upon events being

less successful or less positive (e.g., “He had his hand in his pocket while teaching...this was not very academic”).

This analysis did not take into account neutral statements, simply because it was believed that neutral statements would not be of high significance in comparing and contrasting experienced and novice teachers.

In the second stage of the interview protocol analysis, the categorisation of Peterson and Comeaux (1987, p.324) was used to look for statements in which the subjects analysed and approached possible interactive decisions in the classroom. So, statements that analysed a particular teaching event or described a way a problem situation could have been handled differently to make the teaching more effective were looked for.

Statements of this kind were categorised as Level 1 and Level 2 statements. Level 1 statements were those in which the subject focused on the surface or literal characteristics of a specific classroom event and then suggested a specific way in which that classroom event could have been handled differently, without presenting the underlying principles behind these suggestions. Below are some examples for Level 1 statements:

- He focused totally on the blackboard instead of dealing with the students. He could have dictated the questions instead.
- I'd have shown some examples instead of just describing the objects.

- The teacher should have guided the student with yes/no questions.

As can be inferred from the above examples, statements classified as Level 1 statements focused on a classroom event and described an alternative way for handling that specific situation. However, the subjects provided no reason for why a specific alternative approach had been suggested.

Level 2 statements, on the other hand, suggested knowledge of principles and procedures underlying classroom teaching and learning, like principles of classroom management or procedures related to the content area. The following statements were characteristic examples for Level 2 statements made by the subjects:

- Whenever you ask a question, you must make sure that the whole class benefits from the answer. The answer should be a learning experience for all students in class.
- A teacher should only make use of the native language of the students when really necessary. It should not be overused.
- Humour is a great way to keep students' motivation high.

As the above examples suggest, the teachers made use of their pedagogical and field-specific knowledge while making Level 2 statements. Thus, Level 2 statements reflected higher-level thinking skills.

In the third stage of the analysis, the interview protocols were examined for mentioned classroom characteristics of the observed lessons. Thus, it was looked whether co-operating and student teachers referred to classroom characteristics like classroom management, management of instruction, English competence of the teacher, preparation/planning of the teacher and student involvement/instruction to the same extent.

In the final stage, it was analysed whether co-operating and student teachers identified the same visible students in class and evaluated these students' impacts on the observed lessons similarly or not.

The analyses of the interview protocols were conducted by the researcher of this study and another teacher, who was provided with detailed information regarding the study and trained on the procedures to be implemented during the analyses of the interview protocols. This teacher was an MA-ELT student himself and, thus, was familiar with field-related concerns and scientific and statistical procedures. At the end of the interview protocol analyses, the following inter-scorer reliability indices (Pearson-Product Correlation) were obtained: $r=.79$; $p<.05$ for the Negative – Positive Statements Analysis; $r=.81$; $p<.05$ for the Level 1 – Level 2 Statements Analysis, and $r=.76$; $p<.05$ for the Mentioned Classroom Characteristics Analysis.

4.1.1 Analysis of Positive and Negative Statements

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations and T-test Results for Co-operating and Student Teachers on Positive and Negative Statements

	Coop. Teachers		Student Teachers		t-score
	(N=16)		(N=16)		
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.	
Positive	3.17	1.82	3.89	3.05	-.863*
Negative	4.22	2.21	4.56	2.94	-.385*

*p>.05, two-tailed test

The t-test results at $\alpha=.05$ level indicated that there were no significant differences between the co-operating teachers and the novice teachers in the amount of positive and negative statements they made considering the observed lessons (Table 1). Thus, the co-operating and student teachers did not display any significant statistical differences in the extent to which they made use of positive and negative statements while describing the observed lessons.

Both the student teachers' and the co-operating teachers' positive comments were most frequently about the observed teachers' pre-lesson preparations and planning. Both the co-operating teacher and the student teacher observing Demo No. 2, for example, stated that the teacher was 'well prepared' and had gone through a good pre-lesson planning stage. Similarly, the co-operating teacher and student teacher observing Demo No. 14 both stated that the teacher had done a very good job in preparing the worksheets of which she made use during the lesson.

Student involvement was another aspect of the observed lessons which was mentioned positively. Both observers, i.e., the co-operating teacher and the student teacher, of Demo No. 6, for example, indicated that the teacher had managed it very well to involve almost all students actively into the lesson.

Negative statements mostly dwelt upon the English proficiency levels and instructional management techniques (especially the use of the blackboard) of the teachers observed. Almost all interviews included at least one instance of a negative statement which focused either on the insufficient English proficiency level of the teacher or on the wrong / inappropriate usage of the blackboard. The co-operating teacher and the student teacher who observed Demo No. 4, No. 7, and No. 9, for example, indicated very strongly that the English proficiency levels of the teachers observed in the respective lessons were inadequate. Similarly, the co-operating teacher and the student teacher who observed Demo No. 1 pointed out that the observed teacher made excessive use of the blackboard and frequently turned his back to the students, both of which were identified as negative aspects of the observed class.

What seemed to be interesting regarding the outcomes of the Positive-Negative Statements analysis was the fact that the student teachers and co-operating teachers referred very frequently to identical instances in the observed classes when making use of positive or negative statements. Thus,

contrary to the results of the studies of Gonzales and Carter (1996) and Carter et al. (1987), co-operating teachers and students teachers in this study seemed to be very similar in their interpretations of classroom events, at least at this stage of the analysis.

4.1.2 Analysis of Level 1 and Level 2 Statements

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations and T-test Results for Co-operating and Student Teachers on Level 1 and Level 2 Statements

	Coop. Teachers (N=16)		Student Teachers (N=16)		t-score
	Mean	St. Dev.	Mean	St. Dev.	
Level 1	1.67	1.46	1.67	1.94	.000*
Level 2	.72	.96	.22	.43	2.021*

*p>.05, two-tailed test

Level 1 and Level 2 statements made by the co-operating teachers and the student teachers dwelt upon a wide range of observed classroom features like sufficient / insufficient level of the teacher's voice, the use of the native language in class, student involvement, the teacher's posture, student motivation, the handling of certain problem situations in class and other related instances.

Level 1 statements made by the co-operating teachers most frequently touched upon issues like student motivation ("The teacher should have tried to motivate them with a 2-3 minutes' speech", Demo No. 1) and management

of instruction (“He could have asked the students to write some more example sentences”, Demo No. 16; “She could have classified the types of movies on the blackboard”, Demo14).

Level 1 statements made by student teachers mostly focused on issues like management of instruction (“She should have first implemented the oral drills and then the written exercises”, Demo No.1; “He should have repeated the correct form several times”, Demo No. 6) and the voice level of the observed teacher (“He should have spoken louder and clearer”, Demo No. 5).

Level 2 statements were low in number for both the student teachers and co-operating teachers and focused on issues like management of instruction (“A teacher should also call upon students who do not seem to be interested. Only in this way is it possible to involve them into the lesson”, Coop. Teacher – Demo No. 3), the use of the blackboard (“Once you have finished dealing with something on the blackboard, you should erase it. Otherwise, the students will be distracted by what is written there”, Coop. Teacher – Demo No. 13), and student involvement / motivation (“The more you make the students speak, the more they will participate”, Student Teacher – Demo No. 3).

The t-test results at the $\alpha=.05$ level indicated that there were no significant mean differences between the co-operating teachers and student teachers with respect to the Level 1 and Level 2 statements they made about

the observed lessons (Table 2). In other words, the co-operating teachers and the student teachers made use of Level 1 and Level 2 statements to the same extent while describing the lessons they observed.

In this respect, the present research study is partly in contradiction with the findings and propositions of Peterson and Comeaux's study (1987), where this stage of the analysis was adapted from. To illustrate, similar to the present findings, Peterson and Comeaux found no significant difference between experienced and novice teachers in their analyses of classroom teaching/learning events at Level 1 but found that "experienced teachers made significantly more statements which reflected knowledge and analyses of classroom teaching/learning at the higher principle-oriented Level 2" (p. 325).

Accordingly, the findings of the present study are also in contradiction with the findings of Chi et al. (1982, cited in Peterson and Comeaux, 1987), who found that, in contrast to novices, experts in physics were guided by physics principles initially abstracted from the problem in their problem representation and their subsequent approach to the solution of the problem (p. 327), which seems not to have been the case with the subjects in the present study.

4.1.3 Analysis of Mentioned Classroom Characteristics

Table 3: Frequency Distributions and Percentages of Classroom Characteristics Mentioned by Co-operating and Student Teachers

	Student Teachers		Coop. Teachers	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Class. Management	22	13.4%	22	16.5%
Preparation / Planning	26	15.9%	24	18%
Management of Instruction	72	43.9%	58	43.6%
English Competence	22	13.4%	15	11.3%
Student Involvement	22	13.4%	14	10.5%
Total:	164	100%	133	100%

As can be inferred from Table 3, similar to Positive, Negative, Level 1 and Level 2 statements, there were no large-scale differences between the student teachers and the co-operating teachers in the observed classroom characteristics they mentioned during the interviews, either. Although the frequency levels in Table 3 may suggest that remarkable differences were present for at least some items such as 'Management of Instruction' and 'English Competence', this would actually be misleading, since it would be more suitable to analyze the percentages. In other words, it was important to find out the ratio of the individual statements made by one subject group in relation to the total number of statements made by that group. While 13.4 % of the total number of student teachers' remarks regarding classroom characteristics of the observed lessons, for example, dwelt upon issues related to the classroom management skills of the observed subjects, the

respective percentage for co-operating teachers was 16.5%. This clearly indicated that both the student teachers and the co-operating teachers allocated nearly the same number of statements falling under this category.

Similar to the classroom management category, the student teachers and the co-operating teachers did not display significant differences in the quantity of statements they made related to the Preparation/Planning (15.9% and 18%, respectively), Management of Instruction (43.9% and 43.6%), English Competence of the Teacher (13.4% and 11.3%) and Student Involvement (13.4% and 10.5%) in the observed classes.

The only remarkable difference between student teachers and co-operating teachers was the fact that the student teachers outscored the co-operating teachers in the total number of statements made (164 and 133 for student teachers and co-operating teachers, respectively). This finding does not support the findings of Gonzales and Carter (1996), who found that the co-operating teachers in their study made significantly more use of such statements (p. 42).

These findings, together with the results of the Positive-Negative Statements and Level 1-Level 2 Statements Analyses, suggest that the outcomes of the study up to this point failed to reject null-hypothesis $H_{(0)1.2}$ ("There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the teaching events remembered and referred to") and null hypothesis $H_{(0)1.3}$ ("There will be no significant difference

between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the explanations provided for remembered classroom phenomena.”)

4.1.4 Analysis of Identified Visible Students

In only 5 out of 16 demo-lessons (31%), both the co-operating teachers and the student teachers identified the same visible students. While the co-operating teachers did not recognize these students as having vital impact on the observed class, the student teachers attributed a rather high level of influence to these students, identifying them sometimes as ‘saviors’ who helped to maintain the flow of instruction, and sometimes as ‘intruders’ who interfered with the dynamics of the lesson.

The co-operating teachers generally evaluated the identified visible students as having positive impact on the classes observed (“Ayşe’s being active affected the class positively”, Co-operating Teacher – Demo No. 13). Whenever a co-operating teacher mentioned a negative occurrence stimulated by a student in class, he / she pointed out that they, too, had similar problems in class with that specific visible student and that such instances were just the routine for a teacher. Thus, the co-operating teachers did not seem to believe that any student in class can have the potential to create any gross influence on a class.

The student teachers, on the other hand, dwelt upon the negative and positive effects of identified visible student to the same extent. Some student teachers believed that it was a specific identified visible student who made the classes go smoothly:

- *Kürşat (a student) had a very positive impact on the lesson. He played the star role, because the other students were motivated only after Kürşat started answering his (the teacher's) questions.*

Student Teacher – Demo 11

- *The other students were unlikely to answer her (the teacher's) question. Since she definitely knew that Güneş (a student) would give the correct answer, she regarded her as the one to save her out.*

Student Teacher – Demo 10.

Other student teachers evaluated the impact of their identified visible students just the other way round; thus, they considered them as being obstacles and threats to the lessons:

- *The boy next to the window...he always tried to dominate the class. This affected her (the teacher) negatively...she always asked him to answer her questions in order to keep him under control...so, she neglected the rest of the class.*

Student Teacher – Demo 16

So, no matter how the student teachers assessed the effects of the visible students on the classes, they usually implied that the ultimate success of a class depended on how the observed teacher coped with the visible students, which shows how much importance the student teachers attributed to the students' impact on their classes. These findings remarkably overlap with the findings of Gonzales and Carter (1996, p. 43), who found that student teachers in their study attributed much of what happened in the classes to visible students, while the co-operating teachers in their study revealed quite different understandings about the impact of these students on classroom events.

Thus, in the light of the above stated findings of the analysis of student teachers' and co-operating teachers' approaches to visible students in class, it was possible to claim that null hypothesis $H(o)_{1.1}$ ("There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the visible students identified and their impacts on the class observed") was rejected.

4.2 Analysis of the Questionnaire Results

As stated before, the questionnaire used in this study (Appendix C) had the purpose of identifying potential differences between the two subject groups in their beliefs regarding language teaching and learning. It was hoped that the revelation of these differences might help to identify the

probable theoretical underpinnings that drove the subjects to answer the interview questions the way they did.

As the t-test results (Appendix D) suggest, however, the questionnaire results did not display any large-scale differences between the co-operating and student teachers. For only two questions (Question 24 and Question 31) statistically significant mean differences were present between the answers of student teachers and co-operating teachers ($t = -2.697$, $p < .05$ for Question 24; $t = -3.059$, $p < .01$ for Question 31). Question 24 asked the subjects to what extent they agreed with the proposition that one should not say anything in English until he / she can say it correctly and Question 31 investigated to what extent the subjects agreed that it is easier to speak a foreign language than to understand it.

The subjects' answers to the remaining 29 questions did not prove to be statistically different from each other. In other words, the statistical computations were not able to measure any significant differences between the two subject groups (co-operating teachers and student teachers) in terms of the answers they provided to the remaining questions.

4.3 Interpretations of the Results

As the analyses above suggest, it was not possible to find any large-scale

differences between the student teachers and co-operating teachers in any of the multiple steps of analysis.

Interestingly, these findings are in contradiction with the findings of other expert-novice studies (e.g., Carter et al., 1987; Peterson & Comeaux, 1987; Gonzales & Carter, 1996; Wade, 1998). In nearly all expert-novice studies it was possible to identify gross differences between expert or more experienced teachers (or other professionals) and novices, and in all studies these differences were in favour of the experts. Thus, the experts displayed professionally favourable or highly regarded properties or traits in these studies, which was regarded as the normal thing to observe since experts' possessing certain traits that novices did not possess was just common sense.

Gonzales and Carter (1996, p.45), for example, state that the differences they found in their study between the two groups in favour of the co-operating teachers were quite natural since co-operating teachers had accumulated experiences over the span of several years, while student teachers had limited experience which was rather grounded in their experiences as students. Similarly, Peterson and Comeaux (1987) pointed out that the findings of their study, which are parallel to those of Gonzales and Carter and, thus, in contradiction with the findings of the present study, were easily justifiable since experienced teachers had highly developed classroom schemata, which novices did not have.

These contrasts between the findings of the present study and the findings of previously done similar studies can be interpreted in several ways. One possible interpretation is that long years of teaching experience may not have equipped the co-operating teachers in this study with the necessary insight to teaching and learning processes. One would expect that a teacher who has been in the profession for many years sees and evaluates classroom occurrences very differently from a novice who has just started (or, like in this study, not even started) teaching, which seemingly was not the case in this study.

However, such a sharp interpretation might also prove to be a hasty conclusion since there were a number of factors which may have caused the co-operating teachers to appear so low with respect to their profiles. One of these factors might be the fact that the student teachers in this study possessed rather newly acquired field knowledge and terminology in contrast to the co-operating teachers, who had not been directly involved in formal theoretical practices regarding their fields. Thus, the student teachers were easily able to make use of the knowledge and the terminology they had been extensively dealing with for the last four years. The co-operating teachers, on the other hand, may in certain instances have failed to find the right words and explanations since they simply did not remember them.

Another factor which may have led the co-operating teachers to appear as they did may have been the fact that the co-operating teachers felt a high level of anxiety during the interviews conducted for this study. Actually,

the majority of the co-operating teachers in this study declared their 'strange feelings' before the interviews and asked whether tape-recording them was a must or not. Seemingly, an important proportion of the co-operating teachers regarded the interviews as an evaluation of their knowledge and, thus, as a threat. The fact that it was not part of these co-operating teachers' routine lives to be interviewed and 'examined' seemed to cause a high level of anxiety with them, which, naturally, might have affected the quality and quantity of their explanations negatively – contrary to the student teachers, who had been going through similar procedures extensively during the previous four years at university and were quite confident during the interviews.

Another factor that may have caused the co-operating teachers to appear rather insufficient with regard to their long years of experience in the field may be the fact that some of these teachers had a literature background and, thus, were not familiar with certain terminology in the field.

Nevertheless, no matter what the possible excuses for the co-operating teachers in the present study were, it still seemed that the co-operating teachers were not at the high level of professional competence that would be expected from teachers having long years of experience. This might suggest that, contrary to the common belief, experience is not the only teacher of teachers. Rather, 'reflected-on experience', as Carter et al. (1987) put it, is called for. What the co-operating teachers in this study lack, then, is continuous professional improvement to keep them up-to-date and avoid a

professional burnout. In other words, the results of the present study prove that long years of experience is neither a short cut to becoming an expert in a professional field nor sufficient to call somebody an 'expert-teacher'.

This above interpretation is especially of high significance when it is regarded that the co-operating teachers used in this study were teaching at a highly reputable Anatolian High School which is known for the quality of education and the high level of English it provides its students with. In other words, the results of the present study suggest that a similar study done at any ordinary, less-reputable school in Turkey might lead to even less favourable and more crucial findings.

Another important implication is that issues like professional development and in-service training seem still to be rather neglected issues in public schools in Turkey. Considering the fact that all previously done expert-novice studies cited in this study were conducted in Western countries, and especially in the United States, and that in those studies very sharp differences were observed between expert and novice teachers, it seems to be obvious that the more experienced teachers in those countries possess something more than just experience: continuing professional development. As mentioned in one of the previous chapters, the majority of the co-operating teachers in the present study reported not to have been involved in any kind of in-service training except for the compulsory in-service training provided by the Ministry for National Education at the very beginning of their professional lives. In this respect, it seems that neither the teachers

themselves nor the Ministry for National Education have taken any step to develop the teachers further professionally since then, which is quite obvious from the results of the present study. This also shows the importance of some of the recent measures taken by the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) and the Ministry for National Education, part of which is to foster the co-operation between Faculties of Education and secondary schools in Turkey and which might be a suitable way to raise the standards at public and private secondary schools (The Council of Higher Education, 1996; The Council of Higher Education, 1999).



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.0 Presentation

This chapter starts by giving a brief summary of the study. Then, conclusions drawn from the results and interpretations of the findings are reviewed and some recommendations for teacher training and education are made. Lastly, suggestions for further research are discussed.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The study focused on whether experienced and inexperienced teachers differ qualitatively and quantitatively in their recalls of and explanations for observed classroom events. For this purpose, 16 inexperienced student teachers and 11 experienced co-operating teachers were asked to observe 16 student teacher lessons. Following the observations, the co-operating teachers and student teachers were interviewed about the salient teaching events they remembered and the visible students they identified in the observed classes. Later, the interview protocols of the two subject groups were analysed for similarities and

differences between the statements made (Positive – Negative, Level 1 – Level 2 statements and Mentioned Classroom Characteristics) and the visible students and their effects identified. Finally, the subjects were asked to fill out a questionnaire which tried to analyse the subjects' beliefs regarding language learning and teaching and which had the aim of illuminating potential theoretical underpinnings which may have led the subjects to make the statements in the way they did in the interviews.

5.2 Assessment of the Study

The results of the multiple steps of analysis showed that nearly no differences could be identified between the recalls of and explanations for the classroom events observed by the experienced co-operating teachers and the inexperienced student teachers in this study. The two subject groups did not differ significantly in the Level 1 and Level 2 statements ($t=.000$, $p>.05$ and $t=2.021$, $p>.05$, respectively) and the Positive and Negative Statements they made ($t= -.863$, $p>.05$ and $t= -.385$, $p>.05$, respectively); nor was it possible to detect any large-scale differences between the observed classroom characteristics they mentioned during the interviews. The teachers' beliefs questionnaire did not succeed in finding gross differences between the groups, either. To illustrate, only for two questions were statistically significant mean differences present between the answers of student teachers and co-operating teachers.

The above stated findings of the study do not display parallelisms with the findings of similar expert-novice studies (i.e., Peterson and Comeaux, 1987; Gonzales and Carter, 1996; Carter et al., 1987) which found significant differences in the explanation for and approaches to classroom events of experienced and non-experienced teachers in their studies.

However, student teachers and co-operating teachers differed in the evaluation of identified visible students. In only 5 out of 16 observed demo-lessons (31%), both the co-operating teachers and the student teachers identified the same visible students. While student teachers attributed much of what happened in the classrooms to these visible students and regarded them as having important impact on the classes, the co-operating teachers tended not to evaluate these students as playing any important role in the implementation of the lessons and the dynamics of the classes observed. In this respect, the findings are in line with the findings of Gonzales and Carter (1996), who found that the student teachers in their study, too, attributed much of what happened in class to the visible student identified. Similarly, the co-operating teachers in the above mentioned study evaluated the visible students identified as having little or no significant impact on the classes observed.

Accordingly, the results of the present study failed to reject sub-hypotheses $H_{(0)1.2}$ ("There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the teaching events remembered and referred to") and $H_{(0)1.3}$ ("There will be no significant

difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the explanations provided for remembered classroom phenomena.”) However, it was possible to reject sub-hypothesis $H_{(0)1.1}$ (“There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of the visible students identified and their impacts on the class observed.”) Thus, as a whole, the results of the study to a great extent failed to reject the main hypothesis $H_{(0)1}$ (“There will be no significant difference between the co-operating and the student teachers in terms of their recalls of and explanations for observed classroom events of student teacher lessons.”)

5.3 Implications for Teacher Training and Education

There are several implications for teacher training and education to be drawn:

First of all, studies on expert teachers and experts in other fields have proven that more experienced professionals have well-developed and comparatively rich schemata which are grounded in accumulated experiences over the span of several years (Vanci-Osam, 1999). The rather surprising results of this study do by no means imply that the experienced teachers in the present study lacked this cognitively rich knowledge but may suggest that they simply were not aware of this knowledge since they did not recently receive the necessary training to recognise this capability. Thus, what the co-operating teachers in the present study were deprived of was the ability to transform their experiences and their accumulated classroom

schemata into suitable words and explanations and the necessary strategies and knowledge of procedures to follow in observing a class (Vanci-Osam, 1999). What is needed for these teachers, and, of course, for the great majority of teachers working at secondary schools, then, is continuous professional development and training – in-service training. Although the Ministry for National Education makes every teacher go through an initial induction training at the beginning of a teaching career, this procedure seems not to be sufficient, since in subsequent years teachers are left on their own and, thus, fail to keep up with the improvements and innovations in their fields. What is even worse, teachers seem to fail to implement their teaching critically and seem to glide into a 'blind' teaching-routine in which everything is done automatically.

This training of the teachers working at secondary schools may be implemented both through the Ministry for National Education and through well-established co-operative work between universities and secondary schools. For this purpose, academics at universities may work as local consultants and help teachers access up-to-date knowledge in form of actual training done by university staff and in the form of written material (i.e., journals in the field, applicable research results, books, etc.). Furthermore, every year a number of teachers from secondary schools may be selected to join relevant undergraduate and graduate classes at universities and the knowledge gained from these courses may be shared with other teachers at their institutions in form of informal intra-institutional conferences. This procedure would both help teachers improve their knowledge and keep up-

to-date and would create a fresh atmosphere at the secondary schools since teachers would be able to get away from their routine teaching lives and experience the joy of learning and sharing scientific knowledge related to their fields.

Furthermore, such a procedure would change the atmosphere of practicum applications for the better, since it was very obvious during the implementation of the present study at a high school that co-operating teachers and student teachers often faced communicative problems. One of the reasons of these problems was the fact that the co-operating teachers, who ideally served as 'models' for the student teachers, felt threatened throughout the practicum application due to the presence of the student teachers. The student teachers in the present study often mentioned that they felt that the co-operating teachers they worked with were not very happy of being observed extensively due to the fact that these co-operating teachers were afraid of displaying 'out-dated' teaching techniques and methods. Considering the fact that these co-operating teachers were to provide part of the evaluation of the practica of the student teachers, it is quite obvious that such an evaluation might not always have been very objective and accurate. Thus, training the co-operating teachers and bringing them to a level sufficient to deal with newly graduated teachers might both help the co-operating teachers to overcome their feelings of theoretical and practical inadequacy and, thus, might create a fruitful and appropriate practicum, teaching, and learning atmosphere. Winitzky, Stoddard and O'Keefe (1992, p.5) also point out the need of such university-school

collaboration, stating that “a program of teacher education can not be excellent without excellent schools in which to place student teachers.”

Another implication of the results of the present study is the need to start the practicum application at teacher education institutions much earlier. As part of the findings of the study suggests, the student teachers who took part in the study were not acquainted with the feeling of standing in front of a real class of students, and, thus, were easily influenced (both negatively and positively) by certain students in class. If student teachers more frequently face such real-life teaching situations and begin to teach relatively earlier during their undergraduate education period at universities, these prospective teachers may enter the profession more confidently and, thus, may easily overcome the first few months in the teaching profession after their graduations.¹

5.4 Implications for Further Research

One of the most important shortcomings of the present study was the fact that the ‘expert’ or ‘more experienced’ teachers in this study (i.e., the co-operating teachers) could not be selected on the basis of any criteria but

¹ Actually, this problem has been partly taken care of with the recent changes in the curricula of teacher education programmes. Accordingly, the practicum has been extended from one to three semesters. However, since this is a fairly new change, there have been no novice teachers so far who have gone through this new programme. However, it seems that these modifications will change things for the better.

years of experience. This was due to the fact that the co-operating teachers to be worked with were pre-determined and the researcher of the study did not have the chance to modify the subjects to be involved in the study. However, it is known that there are certain factors which are at least as influential as years of teaching experience in determining the expertise level of a teacher such as the completion of an accredited teacher education programme, completion of in-service certificate-programmes like the COTE (Certificate of Overseas Teachers of English), completion of graduate studies or other, individual, efforts in improving one's knowledge like attending conferences, workshops and seminars or being willing to individually follow the literature in the professional field. Thus, similar studies to be conducted in the future should try to take into consideration more than just the years of teaching experience while selecting expert teachers.

Another issue that can stimulate further research could involve the replication of the present study with larger subject groups and with subjects from different institutions. That is to say, both the co-operating teacher can be selected from different secondary schools and the student teachers can be selected from different teacher education institutions. This might help to cross-check the results from representatives of different institutions and, thus, draw broader conclusions. In the present study, it is not possible to draw general conclusions, since the two subject groups were selected from two institutions only.

Furthermore, it would also be possible for further studies to video-tape a number of lessons and do the analyses of the observed classes on the screen so as to help the subjects better remember details of the classes observed and to support their statements with recorded instances. In the present study, the subjects were only able to comment on what they remembered from the classes observed. Considering the fact that some subjects got anxious during the interviews conducted, it might well be stated that a lot of data was lost that way.

Prospective studies in the same line could also make use of different research tools like journals or extensive interviews, which might help reveal certain differences and / or similarities between co-operating teachers and student teachers that the present study failed to uncover.

Another issue that seems to be worth investigating in further studies is the quality of the Level 2 statements made by the subjects. Thus, a further sub-categorization of Level 2 statements might help in acquiring more various data.

Despite the limitations stated above, it is hoped that the findings of the present study will be beneficial to teachers, teacher educators and researchers in the field of teaching and teacher education and will evoke interest for further research in the field.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A Sample Transcript of an Interview Conducted with an Experienced Teacher

(Original Turkish Version)

Soru: İzlediğimiz ders boyunca göze çarpan en önemli olumlu veya olumsuz noktalar nelerdi?

Cevap: Bu ders oldukça iyiydi, oldukça iyi ve verimli geçti...tahtayı kullanma, öğretmenin sınıfın değişik yerlerini kullanması, derste espri kullanması, çocuklara sürekli isimlerle hitap etmesi, yanlışları düzeltmeye çalıştı, sınıfta dolaştı, çocuklar worksheetlerle çalışırken aralarda dolaştı, onlara yardımcı oldu...bunlar hep olumlu puanlar...ders genellikle çok iyi geçti, canlı geçti...espri yaptı...iyi hazırlanmıştı yani. Türkiye'deki okullarda genel alışkanlıklar var...bu bir hata sayılmayabilir. Mesela, öğretmenin ellerini cebine sokması genellikle öğrencilerin üzerinde nedense şey etki bırakıyor...bu aslında şey, akademik değil, yani eğitimle ilgili değil...davranış olarak. Mesela ben buna çok dikkat ediyorum, ellerimi cebimde bulundurmamaya çalışıyorum. Aksi halde çocuklar aynısını yapıyorlar. Onun dışında, heyecandan olsa gerek, konuşmalar çok akıcı değildi. Telafuz

problemi yoktu gerçi. Çocuklar çünkü direk olarak öğretmeni model olarak alıyorlar. Öğretmen nasıl konuşursa onlar da öyle konuşuyorlar. Bu da herhalde heyecandan olsa gerek. Tahtayı iyi kullandı, tahta yani fena değildi. Ama, bir cümlelerin tahtada işi bittiyse, görevi bittiyse, onu silmek lazım. Onu tahtada bulundurmamak lazım. Mesela yeni bir parça veya yeni bir cümle yazıyorsan, eskisinin artık bir hükmü kalmadıysa, onu silmekte fayda var. Bu daha verimli oluyor. Yıllar içinde ben bunu gözlemledim. Ama bu büyük bir şey değil...büyük bir kusur değil, ama önemli. Bunun dışında iyi geçti ,başarılıydı da.

Soru: Ders boyunca özellikle göze batan bir öğrenci oldu mu? Olumlu veya olumsuz.

Cevap: Dikkat çeken Ayşe var...Ayşe notları pek yüksek bir çocuk değil. 100 üzerinden mesela 70 alır. Ama aktifliği bugün sınıfı olumlu etkiledi...olumlu katkısı oldu. Derse olumsuz katkısı olan kimseyi gözlemleyemedim.

**A Sample Transcript of an Interview Conducted
with an Experienced Teacher
(English Translation)**

Question: What were the most important positive and negative aspects of the lesson observed?

Answer: This lesson was quite good, it went quite well and smoothly...the teacher made good use of the blackboard and the space in class, made jokes, called on the kids with their names, tried to correct the errors of the students, walked around in class while the kids were busy with the worksheets, and tried to help them...these are all positive aspects...the lesson generally went well and lively...he made jokes...he was well-prepared. There are certain general customs in Turkish schools...this may not be counted as a mistake. For example, the teacher's putting his hands in his pocket while teaching has an effect....it is not academic, it not related to education...behavior-wise. I pay much attention to this; I try not to put my hands in my pocket while teaching. Otherwise, the students do the same. Furthermore, he did not speak very fluently, may be because he was anxious. He did not have any pronunciation problems, though. Because the kids take the teacher directly as a model. They speak like the teacher does. This must be due to anxiety. He made good use of the blackboard...erm, that was OK. However, when you're done with a sentence on the blackboard, you should erase it. One should not keep that sentence there. Thus, it is always a good idea to erase the parts of the blackboard that are not needed anymore.

This is highly beneficial. This is what I have observed over the years. But this is not a great mistake, but it is still important. Apart from this, the lesson was ok, quite successful.

Question: Were there any students in class of whom you think they had a particularly positive or negative impact on the lesson observed?

Answer: There was this Ayşe...her grades are usually not very high...like 70 out of 100. But her being active today affected the whole class...positively. I think there was not anybody who affected the class negatively.



APPENDIX B

A Sample Transcript of an Interview Conducted with a Novice Teacher

(Original Turkish Version)

Soru: Nasıl buldun İlkay'ın dersini?

Cevap: Fena değil.

Soru: İzlediğimiz ders boyunca göze çarpan en önemli olumlu veya olumsuz noktalar nelerdi?

Cevap: Öncelikle ders biraz yavaş ilerliyordu...yani "pace" dediğimiz şey, bayağı yavaştı. Sonra tahtaya çok fazla yazı yazdı...sırtını çok fazla döndü, bu da ister istemez öğrencilerin ilgisini dağıttı gibi...yani hangisiyle uğraşalım diye düşündüler gibi geldi bana. Tutuk...hafif tutuktu ama öyle çok göze çarpan bir tutukluğu yoktu. Ayrıca...pek communicative yönü olduğunu da düşünmüyorum. Yani belki o hazırladığı konunun gereği...egzersizler fena değildi, ama...sunuş falan...en başta "leading stage" biraz garipti...Sesi...ses problemi vardı...Self-correction olayını şey yaptı...öğrencilerin kendilerini düzeltmesini sağladı...bence olumlu bir nokta...üstüne basa basa.

Öğrencilerle genelde...yani...kendini çok rahat hissediyordu anladığım kadarıyla. Yani öyle hiç heyecan falan yoktu.

Soru: "Tutuk" dedin. Tutuk olmasının sebebi neydi sence?

Cevap: Niye tutuktu...belki bu presentation'ı yapmak ona yük geliyordur. O olabilir....Sonra kendi pek motive olamamış olabilir. Zaten anladığım kadarıyla bu konuyu daha önce görmüşler öğrenciler...Have to/ Has to, öğrenciler arasında "dışarıdan gelen, içeriden gelen" dediklerini ben duydum...Öğrenciler de biraz soğuktu...yani...ancak İlkay soru sorduğu zaman parmak kaldırıyorlardı. Tutukluk...

Soru: Peki bunu nasıl aşabilirdi? Sen mesela ne yapmayı düşünürdün?

Cevap: Ben olsam...anlattığı konu biraz şeydi...demanding bir konuydu...Yani grammar ...bütün bir ders grammar anlatmak...çok şey olabilir...bütün şeyi bayabilir. Bu, reading falan ekleyebilirdi, yani verdiği egzersizler de çok şeydi...mekanik gibi...mekanik demeyim de...öğrencilerin kendilerinden de bir şeyler katması gerekiyordu...ama bildiğimiz şeylerdendi...bir reading parçası ekleyebilirdi...dersin başına...eklese daha iyi olurdu. O konuyla ilgili hazırlanmış bir text vardır mutlaka. Yani normal sayılabilecek bir 'leading stage' yaptı işte, biraz öyle direk 'lap' diye girmedi ama, dediğim gibi, reading falan da girseydi daha iyi olabilirdi.

Soru: 'Blackboard' ile ilgili sorun vardı dedin. Sence sorunun kaynağı nedir, bu konuda ne yapılabilirdi?

Cevap: Gene grammar diyecem...gene grammar...çünkü öğrencilere konunun özünü anlatması için çok fazla yazması gerekiyordu. Ama, yazı yazması gerekirken, İlkay şeyi kaybediyordu...classroom management öyle ahım şahım bir şey değil de, öğrenciler bir şekilde focus...yani dikkatlerini tahtaya çekmeliydi. Ya, yazıyordu, ondan sonra işte şöyle şöyle...hatırlayabildiğim kadarıyla. Bunu baştan daha fazla konuşmaya yönelik...yani...madem öğrenciler biliyormuş konuyu. Önce oral exercises veya driller...ondan sonra yazardı. Tahtaya yazarken çok vakit harcadı...bir de sırtın...yani durmadan sırtını öğrencilere dönmek iyi değil diye düşünüyorum.

Soru: Pace?

Cevap: Pace...yavaştı...yani...bundan sonra ne gelecek, bundan sonra ne gelecek diye bekledim ben hep. Yani yavaş derken, kötü değildi ama...yani...o yavaşlığa rağmen, sanki bir şey izlenimi uyandırıyor...ya, ben de bu konuları biliyorum, haydi bitsin de kurtulalım.

Soru: Peki, classroom management bazında aklına gelen herhangi başka bir nokta var mı?

Cevap: Bazen şey yaptım...mesela, gürültü biraz açığa çıktığında uyarmaya çalıştım, ama...etkisiz kaldığını zannediyorum. Ayrıca "late comers" vardı iki adet. Yani ben onun yerinde olsam...işte...onları bir şekilde katardım olaya. "You have to be in time" falan. Ben bunu İlkay'a söyledim, o da "ya o an

insanın aklına gelmiyor falan” dedi. Kendini çok fazla kaptırmıştı...o olabilir. Ya, belki de şeyden demedi...çocuk sadece bir derse girdiği için...ondan sonra ne olacak da...ama ben olsaydım bir şekilde direk yerlerine oturmalarına izin vermezdim. Bu hem konu anlatımında malzeme hem de ders olsun.

Soru: Bu 45 dk boyunca özellikle göze batan, dersi olumlu veya olumsuz yönde etkileyen öğrenci var mıydı?

Cevap: Ön sıradaki öğrenci vardı bir tane. Ufak tefek, bayan. (*Elif diye bir öğrenciyi kastediyor*). Şey olarak etkiledi...genelde o katılıyordu sanki. Bu İlkay'ın yaptığı bir şey değildi...ya da olabilir. Tam dikkat etmedim. İlk parmak kaldıran genelde o öğrenciydi. İlkay önce ona söz veriyordu. Ya, ayrıca birkaç kişi daha vardı istekli...onlara da verdi de...genelde ikisi (*Elif+İlkay*) arasında bir diyalog geçmiş gibi oldu. Onun dışında egzersizlerde iyi sayılabilecek bir katılım vardı...öyle sırf ön taraftan falan öğrenci seçmedi. Seçtiyse de öylesine seçmiştir.

**A Sample Transcript of an Interview Conducted with a Novice Teacher
(English Translation)**

Question: How do you think was Ilkay's lesson?

Answer: Not bad.

Question: What were the most important positive and negative aspects of the lesson observed?

Answer: First of all, the lesson proceeded a bit slow...I mean in terms of pace, quite slow. She made too much use of the blackboard...she turned her back to the children, which disturbed the kids' attention...I think they started to get confused about which item to deal with. She was a bit timid, but not too much. And...I don't think the lesson was particularly communicative. This might be because of the topic she prepared...the exercises were OK, but the presentation and so on...the initial leading stage was a bit strange...her voice...she had problems with her voice...self correction...she made the students correct themselves...this was a positive point...insistently. In general, the students...I mean...they felt comfortable as far as I could see. I mean there was nothing like anxiety.

Question: You said "timid". What was the reason for her being timid?

Answer: May be she considered this presentation a burden. This might be the reason...May be she was not motivated enough. I think the students had been presented with this topic before...have to / has to, I heard the students say things like "coming from outside, coming from inside"...the students were

a bit distant...I mean...they only raised their hands when Ilkay asked something. Timidity...

Question: How could she have overcome this problem? What would you have done?

Answer: I would have...the topic she presented was a bit...a demanding topic...grammar...lecturing about grammar a whole lesson long...this might be...this might be frustrating. She could have added some reading, her exercises were very...they were mechanical...OK, may be not mechanical...I mean, the students had to add something themselves...but they were well-known things...she could have added a reading text...at the beginning of the lesson...this would have been better. There must be a pre-prepared text based on that topic. So, she went through a ordinary leading stage, but, as I said, it would have been better if she had made use of a reading text or so.

Question: You said she had problems regarding the use of the blackboard. What do you think was the reason for that problem and what could have been done to solve that problem?

Answer: I'd say grammar again...because she had to write too much to teach the students the subject matter. But, while writing she lost track of...I mean classroom management is not something very important but she should have made the students focus on...she should have drawn their attention to the blackboard. From the beginning, she should have put an

emphasis on speaking...considering the fact that the students were familiar with the topic. First oral exercises and drills...later the writing part. She lost too much time while writing on the board...and her back...I don't think it's a good custom to always turn one's back to the students.

Question: Pace?

Answer: Pace...was slow...I mean...what comes next, what comes next, I kept asking this question...I mean it was just slow, not bad...in spite of this slowness, she seemed to be...she seemed to be thinking like 'I know this topic anyway, let's finish it and get rid of it.'

Question: Well, what about classroom management?

Answer: She sometimes...for example, when a bit noise came up, she warned them, but...I believe she was not very effective in doing that. There were two latecomers. If I were her...I mean...I would have involved them directly into the course. Like "You have to be in time" or something. I told Ilkay about this, and she said, "one simply doesn't think about such things at that moment." She was too much involved...may be. I would have involved them. I wouldn't have let them sit down directly. This instance must be both a learning experience and part of the lesson.

Question: Was there anybody in class who affected the lesson particularly, positive or negative, within these 45 minutes?

Answer: In the front row, there was one. This little girl (*Elif-a student*). She affected the class...she participated in general. This was not something Ilkay did...or may be it was. I don't know. She usually was the first to raise her hand. Ilkay usually called first upon her. There were some more students who were very willing...I mean she also called upon them, but in general the course proceeded like a dialogue between Elif (*the student*) and Ilkay (*the teacher*). Apart from that, there was good participation during the exercises...she did not only call upon students in the front row. Even if she did, I think it was just a coincidence.



APPENDIX C

Teachers-Beliefs Scale

(adapted from Richards & Lockhart, 1994)

PART I

Instructions: Please indicate your opinion about the following statements by ticking (✓) one of the columns below.

	Strongly Agree 5	Agree 4	Uncertain 3	Disagree 2	Strongly Disagree 1
1 Grammatical correctness is the most important criterion by which language performance should be judged.					
2 Group work activities are essential in providing opportunities for cooperative relationships to emerge and in promoting genuine interaction among students.					
3 Grammar should be taught only as a means to an end, not as an end in itself.					
4 Since the learner comes to the language classroom with little or no knowledge of the language, s/he is in no position to suggest what the content of the lesson should be or what activities are useful for him/her.					
5 For students to become effective communicators in the foreign language, the teachers' feedback must be focused on the appropriateness and not the linguistic form of the students' responses.					
6 Group work allows students to explore problems for themselves and thus have some measure of control over their own learning. It is therefore an invaluable means of organizing classroom experiences.					
7 The teacher should correct all the grammatical errors students make. If errors are ignored, this will result in imperfect learning.					
8 It is impossible in a large class of students to organize your teaching so as to suit the needs of all.					
9 Group work activities take too long to organize and waste a lot of valuable teaching time.					

10	Since errors are a normal part of learning, much correction is wasteful of time.					
11	The communicative approach to language teaching produces fluent but inaccurate learners.					
12	The teacher as transmitter of knowledge is only one of the many different roles s/he must perform during the course of a lesson.					
13	By mastering the rules of grammar, students become fully capable of communicating with a native speaker.					
14	Language is acquired most effectively when it is used as a vehicle for doing something else and not when it is studied in a direct and explicit way.					
15	Tasks and activities should be negotiated and adapted to suit the students' needs rather than imposed on them.					
16	Students do their best when taught as a whole class by the teacher. Small group work may occasionally be useful to vary the routine, but it can never replace sound formal instruction by a competent teacher.					
17	Group work activities have little use since it is very difficult for the teacher to monitor the students' performance and prevent them from using their mother tongue.					
18	Direct instruction in the rules and terminology of grammar is essential if students are to learn to communicate effectively.					
19	A textbook alone is not able to cater for all the needs and interests of the students. The teacher must supplement the textbook with other materials and tasks so as to satisfy the widely differing needs of the students.					
20	Some people have a special ability for learning foreign languages.					
21	People from my country are good at learning foreign languages.					
22	Turkish should not be used in class.					
23	It is important to speak English with excellent pronunciation.					
24	You should not say anything in English until you can say it correctly.					
25	It is best to learn English in an English-speaking country.					
26	The most important part of learning a foreign language is learning vocabulary words.					
27	It is important to repeat and practice a lot.					
28	Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.					

29	If beginning students are permitted to make errors in English, it will be difficult for them to speak correctly later on.					
30	The most important part of learning a language is learning its grammar.					
31	It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.					



APPENDIX D

T-Test Results for Expert and Novice Teachers' Answers to Teachers' Beliefs and Attitudes Scale

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q1	Expert	11	2,91	1,04	,31
	Novice	18	3,33	1,14	,27
Q2	Expert	11	4,55	,69	,21
	Novice	18	4,28	,57	,14
Q3	Expert	11	4,09	,70	,21
	Novice	18	4,28	,89	,21
Q4	Expert	11	3,00	1,34	,40
	Novice	18	3,06	1,21	,29
Q5	Expert	11	3,55	1,21	,37
	Novice	18	3,39	1,09	,26
Q6	Expert	11	3,18	1,08	,33
	Novice	18	3,50	,99	,23
Q7	Expert	11	2,91	1,14	,34
	Novice	18	2,78	1,11	,26
Q8	Expert	11	3,00	1,00	,30
	Novice	18	3,17	1,15	,27
Q9	Expert	11	2,30	1,10	,33
	Novice	18	2,17	,92	,22
Q10	Expert	11	2,82	1,17	,35
	Novice	18	2,89	1,23	,29
Q11	Expert	11	2,45	1,29	,39
	Novice	18	2,50	,71	,17
Q12	Expert	11	4,45	,52	,16
	Novice	18	4,17	1,10	,26
Q13	Expert	11	2,27	1,42	,43
	Novice	18	1,72	,83	,19
Q14	Expert	11	3,82	1,25	,38
	Novice	18	4,17	,92	,22
Q15	Expert	11	4,55	,52	,16
	Novice	18	4,44	,51	,12

Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q16	Expert	11	2,91	,83	,25
	Novice	18	2,89	,83	,20
Q17	Expert	11	2,36	,67	,20
	Novice	18	2,89	1,13	,27
Q18	Expert	11	2,45	1,51	,45
	Novice	18	2,50	,86	,20
Q19	Expert	11	1,45	,69	,21
	Novice	18	1,50	,99	,23
Q20	Expert	11	3,45	1,63	,49
	Novice	18	4,22	,65	,15
Q21	Expert	11	3,64	,81	,24
	Novice	18	3,61	,98	,23
Q22	Expert	11	3,64	1,21	,36
	Novice	18	3,67	1,28	,30
Q23	Expert	11	1,36	,67	,20
	Novice	18	1,78	,81	,19
Q24	Expert	11	3,00	1,41	,43
	Novice	18	4,17	,92	,22
Q25	Expert	11	2,82	1,17	,35
	Novice	18	3,17	,79	,19
Q26	Expert	11	4,45	,52	,16
	Novice	18	4,28	,83	,19
Q27	Expert	11	2,73	1,27	,38
	Novice	18	3,00	1,03	,24
Q28	Expert	11	2,64	1,12	,34
	Novice	18	2,67	,97	,23
Q29	Expert	11	3,82	,98	,30
	Novice	18	4,00	,69	,16
Q30	Expert	11	2,64	1,36	,41
	Novice	18	3,17	1,10	,26
Q31	Expert	11	2,09	1,04	,31
	Novice	18	3,39	1,14	,27

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Q1	Equal variances assumed	,751	,394
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q2	Equal variances assumed	,699	,411
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q3	Equal variances assumed	1,470	,236
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q4	Equal variances assumed	,248	,623
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q5	Equal variances assumed	,246	,624
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q6	Equal variances assumed	,253	,619
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q7	Equal variances assumed	,008	,929
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q8	Equal variances assumed	1,179	,287
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q9	Equal variances assumed	1,097	,304
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q10	Equal variances assumed	,017	,897
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q11	Equal variances assumed	4,537	,042
	Equal variances not assumed		

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Q12	Equal variances assumed	1,038	,317
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q13	Equal variances assumed	4,087	,053
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q14	Equal variances assumed	1,851	,185
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q15	Equal variances assumed	,010	,921
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q16	Equal variances assumed	,032	,860
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q17	Equal variances assumed	7,798	,009
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q18	Equal variances assumed	4,403	,045
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q19	Equal variances assumed	,150	,702
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q20	Equal variances assumed	13,366	,001
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q21	Equal variances assumed	,203	,656
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q22	Equal variances assumed	,075	,786
	Equal variances not assumed		

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
		F	Sig.
Q23	Equal variances assumed	,178	,677
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q24	Equal variances assumed	7,885	,009
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q25	Equal variances assumed	1,985	,170
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q26	Equal variances assumed	,934	,343
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q27	Equal variances assumed	2,044	,164
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q28	Equal variances assumed	,166	,687
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q29	Equal variances assumed	1,830	,187
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q30	Equal variances assumed	1,135	,296
	Equal variances not assumed		
Q31	Equal variances assumed	,976	,332
	Equal variances not assumed		

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Q1	Equal variances assumed	-1,004	27	,324	-,42
	Equal variances not assumed	-1,026	22,728	,316	-,42
Q2	Equal variances assumed	1,130	27	,268	,27
	Equal variances not assumed	1,081	18,385	,294	,27
Q3	Equal variances assumed	-,590	27	,560	-,19
	Equal variances not assumed	-,626	25,164	,537	-,19
Q4	Equal variances assumed	-,115	27	,909	-5,56E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-,112	19,586	,912	-5,56E-02
Q5	Equal variances assumed	,359	27	,722	,16
	Equal variances not assumed	,350	19,534	,730	,16
Q6	Equal variances assumed	-,814	27	,423	-,32
	Equal variances not assumed	-,796	19,771	,435	-,32
Q7	Equal variances assumed	,306	27	,762	,13
	Equal variances not assumed	,304	20,954	,764	,13
Q8	Equal variances assumed	-,397	27	,695	-,17
	Equal variances not assumed	-,411	23,626	,685	-,17
Q9	Equal variances assumed	,351	27	,728	,13
	Equal variances not assumed	,336	18,457	,741	,13
Q10	Equal variances assumed	-,153	27	,880	-7,07E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-,155	22,183	,878	-7,07E-02
Q11	Equal variances assumed	-,123	27	,903	-4,55E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-,107	13,718	,916	-4,55E-02

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Q12	Equal variances assumed	,811	27	,424	,29
	Equal variances not assumed	,950	25,884	,351	,29
Q13	Equal variances assumed	1,326	27	,196	,55
	Equal variances not assumed	1,170	14,207	,261	,55
Q14	Equal variances assumed	-,862	27	,396	-,35
	Equal variances not assumed	-,800	16,687	,435	-,35
Q15	Equal variances assumed	,512	27	,613	,10
	Equal variances not assumed	,509	20,924	,616	,10
Q16	Equal variances assumed	,063	27	,950	2,02E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	,063	21,305	,950	2,02E-02
Q17	Equal variances assumed	-1,390	27	,176	-,53
	Equal variances not assumed	-1,566	26,999	,129	-,53
Q18	Equal variances assumed	-,104	27	,918	-4,55E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-,091	14,023	,928	-4,55E-02
Q19	Equal variances assumed	-,134	27	,894	-4,55E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-,146	26,394	,885	-4,55E-02
Q20	Equal variances assumed	-1,792	27	,084	-,77
	Equal variances not assumed	-1,488	11,940	,163	-,77
Q21	Equal variances assumed	,072	27	,943	2,53E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	,075	24,400	,941	2,53E-02
Q22	Equal variances assumed	-,063	27	,950	-3,03E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-,064	22,337	,949	-3,03E-02

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means			
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Q23	Equal variances assumed	-1,421	27	,167	-,41
	Equal variances not assumed	-1,486	24,272	,150	-,41
Q24	Equal variances assumed	-2,697	27	,012	-1,17
	Equal variances not assumed	-2,437	15,281	,027	-1,17
Q25	Equal variances assumed	-,963	27	,344	-,35
	Equal variances not assumed	-,876	15,599	,394	-,35
Q26	Equal variances assumed	,634	27	,532	,18
	Equal variances not assumed	,706	26,929	,486	,18
Q27	Equal variances assumed	-,633	27	,532	-,27
	Equal variances not assumed	-,601	17,912	,555	-,27
Q28	Equal variances assumed	-,077	27	,939	-3,03E-02
	Equal variances not assumed	-,074	18,931	,942	-3,03E-02
Q29	Equal variances assumed	-,588	27	,562	-,18
	Equal variances not assumed	-,539	16,020	,597	-,18
Q30	Equal variances assumed	-1,152	27	,259	-,53
	Equal variances not assumed	-1,093	17,867	,289	-,53
Q31	Equal variances assumed	-3,059	27	,005	-1,30
	Equal variances not assumed	-3,130	22,833	,005	-1,30

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			Lower	Upper
Q1	Equal variances assumed	,42	-1,29	,44
	Equal variances not assumed	,41	-1,28	,43
Q2	Equal variances assumed	,24	-,22	,75
	Equal variances not assumed	,25	-,25	,79
Q3	Equal variances assumed	,32	-,84	,46
	Equal variances not assumed	,30	-,80	,43
Q4	Equal variances assumed	,48	-1,05	,93
	Equal variances not assumed	,50	-1,09	,98
Q5	Equal variances assumed	,44	-,74	1,05
	Equal variances not assumed	,45	-,78	1,09
Q6	Equal variances assumed	,39	-1,12	,48
	Equal variances not assumed	,40	-1,15	,52
Q7	Equal variances assumed	,43	-,75	1,01
	Equal variances not assumed	,43	-,77	1,03
Q8	Equal variances assumed	,42	-1,03	,69
	Equal variances not assumed	,41	-1,00	,67
Q9	Equal variances assumed	,38	-,65	,91
	Equal variances not assumed	,40	-,70	,97
Q10	Equal variances assumed	,46	-1,02	,88
	Equal variances not assumed	,46	-1,02	,88
Q11	Equal variances assumed	,37	-,80	,71
	Equal variances not assumed	,42	-,96	,87

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			Lower	Upper
Q12	Equal variances assumed	,35	-,44	1,02
	Equal variances not assumed	,30	-,34	,91
Q13	Equal variances assumed	,42	-,30	1,40
	Equal variances not assumed	,47	-,46	1,56
Q14	Equal variances assumed	,40	-1,18	,48
	Equal variances not assumed	,44	-1,27	,57
Q15	Equal variances assumed	,20	-,30	,51
	Equal variances not assumed	,20	-,31	,51
Q16	Equal variances assumed	,32	-,63	,67
	Equal variances not assumed	,32	-,64	,68
Q17	Equal variances assumed	,38	-1,30	,25
	Equal variances not assumed	,34	-1,21	,16
Q18	Equal variances assumed	,44	-,94	,85
	Equal variances not assumed	,50	-1,11	1,02
Q19	Equal variances assumed	,34	-,74	,65
	Equal variances not assumed	,31	-,68	,59
Q20	Equal variances assumed	,43	-1,65	,11
	Equal variances not assumed	,52	-1,89	,36
Q21	Equal variances assumed	,35	-,70	,75
	Equal variances not assumed	,34	-,67	,72
Q22	Equal variances assumed	,48	-1,02	,96
	Equal variances not assumed	,47	-1,01	,95

Independent Samples Test

		t-test for Equality of Means		
		Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			Lower	Upper
Q23	Equal variances assumed	,29	-1,01	,18
	Equal variances not assumed	,28	-,99	,16
Q24	Equal variances assumed	,43	-2,05	-,28
	Equal variances not assumed	,48	-2,19	-,15
Q25	Equal variances assumed	,36	-1,09	,39
	Equal variances not assumed	,40	-1,19	,50
Q26	Equal variances assumed	,28	-,40	,75
	Equal variances not assumed	,25	-,34	,69
Q27	Equal variances assumed	,43	-1,16	,61
	Equal variances not assumed	,45	-1,23	,68
Q28	Equal variances assumed	,39	-,84	,78
	Equal variances not assumed	,41	-,88	,82
Q29	Equal variances assumed	,31	-,82	,45
	Equal variances not assumed	,34	-,90	,53
Q30	Equal variances assumed	,46	-1,47	,41
	Equal variances not assumed	,49	-1,55	,49
Q31	Equal variances assumed	,42	-2,17	-,43
	Equal variances not assumed	,41	-2,16	-,44