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A CLINICAL SUPERVISION AND PEER CONSULTATION PRACTICE IN PROBLEM BASED LEARNING PROCESS

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Abstract

To test the effectiveness of clinical supervision as an assessment method in the practices of faculty members attending PBL courses, to determine the effectiveness of the courses and to discuss its conformity for faculties of medicine.Clinical supervision and peer consultation methods were used to evaluate the performance of the 34 faculty members who took charge in Problem Based Learning modules. The students, the faculty members themselves, the clinical supervisor and the peer consultants participated in the evaluation.The satisfactory and underdeveloped skills of the faculty members, which they need throughout the implementation steps of PBL, were determined. Overall, the faculty members included in the study were found to be successful. As for the quantitative results, they indicate the faculty members' opinion that the method may ensure standardization and improve the quality of the education. However, there are also some faculty members who are dissatisfied with the method and think that it is time-consuming.The obtained data suggest that peer consultation and clinical supervision can be applied in medical schools and may help faculty members develop their professional skills.

Keywords: Medical education, clinical supervision, problem based learning, faculty member

1.Introduction

Faculty development is accepted as a significant component of medical education for an effective teacher. New approaches to learning and teaching techniques and requirement of the faculty members to education strategies make the organization of such programmes necessary. Faculty development programmes are used to assist teacher role of the faculty member, to supplement their deficiencies and to increase their performance (Steinert et al. 2006).

Although numerous publications concerning faculty development programmes exist, efficiency of the programmes is not searched adequately (Steinert 2000). Most of the researches conducted in this field base on the inclination or satisfaction of the participant. Most frequently used assessment methods are end of session assessment, monitoring surveys, assessments before and after the course which measure knowledge and behavior changes, direct observation of teaching behavior, student assessment concerning the course performance and self-inclination of the faculty member (Steinert et al. 2006).

In this field, it is necessary to make assessment more carefully, and to take into consideration of other assessment methods since the faculty development has started. In addition, the assessment focus must be extended to provide the behavioural change in actual life. Clinical supervision practices are performed in educational sciences in order to study the actual life behavior changes of teachers. By clinical supervision, faculty member's process of

executing teaching-learning activities may be assessed in all aspects with intra-class observation, student assessment and video recording (Sergiovanni & Starratt 2002).

Supervision in the field of medicine may be mentioned under the names such as clinical supervision, educational supervision, counseling and coaching and various forms. Boundary among these definitions is not very distinct (Launer 2006). “Clinical supervision” is generally used in mental health and nursing fields (Buus & Gonge, 2009) and post-graduate medical practices (Busari & Koot 2007; Cottrell et al. 2002; Sox et al. 1998).

A limited number of articles are written on the subject of clinical supervision. There are only a few experimental works. There are some opinions that clinical supervision needs to connect with education strategies including Problem Based Learning (PBL), skills training and mentor system in medical education (Kilminster et al. 2007).

Faculty development programmes are applied in Akdeniz University, Faculty of Medicine since late 1990 to increase the educational activities of faculty members. Satisfaction surveys are obtained from students and faculty members in the assessment of the effectiveness of the programmes. Up to date, any assessment or supervision process is not performed to assess behaviour changes.

The purpose of this study, conducted for the first time in Turkey in a medicine faculty, is to test the effectiveness of clinical supervision as an assessment method in the practices of faculty members attending PBL courses, to determine the effectiveness of the courses and to discuss its conformity for faculties of medicine. In order to reach these targets, assessment of educational competency of the faculty members serving as education moderator in PBL practices involved in Akdeniz University Faculty of Medicine by clinical supervision and peer consultation method and determination of opinions related to this assessment method is aimed.

Problem sentence of the research: What is the educational competency level of the tutor according to the clinical supervision and peer consultancy assessment of the faculty members serving in PBLs of Akdeniz University Faculty of Medicine?

As a result, the following questions were advanced to guide this inquiry: 1. Is there a significant difference among the opinion of students, faculty members, clinical supervisor and peer consultants in PBL process related to educational competency of faculty members? 2. What is the assessment of attending faculty members on the clinical supervision and peer consultancy programme applied in PBL in Akdeniz University Faculty of Medicine? 3. What are the feelings and opinions of the faculty members before and after clinical supervision and peer consultancy practice in PBL sessions? 4. What are the opinions of the faculty members on the advantages and disadvantages of clinical supervision?

2.Methods

The research is designed as a cross-sectional study where quantitative and qualitative methods are employed together.

2.1.Study population and setting

In this research, clinical supervision and peer consultation practice was made for 34 faculty members serving in PBL module involved in Akdeniz University Faculty of Medicine in 2008-2009 academic year. 380 students have attended PBL sessions within this process. Students, faculty members themselves, clinical supervisor and peer consultants have participated in the assessment process. Peer consultants were involved with the purpose of controlling the clinical supervisors. Peer consultants were selected from among the faculty members trained on PBL and who wished to be an observer. Clinical supervisors are

constituted from the faculty members giving PBL training and being a moderator in PBLs at least for 10 times.

2.2.Data Collection

Research instrument was developed in order to measure the in-group effectiveness of faculty members. The research instrument that has the same questions for all the participants was developed by the steps of PBL session. . The research instrument consisted of 21 (twenty one) items. The instrument was responded within three options: (1) agree, (2) neutral, and (3) disagree". Because the number of peer consultants and clinical supervisors were very few, and data obtained from them were similar, the related data for statistical analyses were combined in the name of supervisor.

Data were collected from the participants at the end of PBL practices. The instrument used as an assessment form was applied to the students after the faculty member has just left the session to prevent the students from being attracted by the faculty member. . Faculty members have handed their own assessment forms to the researcher in post-PBL meetings after filling them. On the other hand, the clinical supervisor and peer consultant have filled the forms independently while the sessions are ongoing. Qualitative data were collected by structured observation form and faculty member interview methods.

Each faculty member and peer consultant were informed about the practices before clinical supervision process; video recording was indicated and they were asked to sign an approval form. Students were informed what is requested from them before the start of sessions on. Peer consultants and clinical supervisors have attended and assessed three sessions and delivered their assessment forms at the end of sessions. Nine students, a clinical supervisor, a peer consultant for each faculty member and the faculty member himself/herself have given feedbacks.

A video recording was performed in order to be able to reaccess the practice. Video records were watched within 15 days together with the faculty member, then the feedback of the students, peers and clinical supervisors were shared in their offices. After the process, interviews were made with 34 lecturers, their comments related to the practice were obtained and their feelings during the practice were asked. Interviews have taken for about 30 minutes. The records of interview were typed as a text and approval of the faculty member was obtained after reading the written material.

2.3.Data analysis

Data are analyzed in two ways: First, chi-square test was used in the assessment of quantitative data. Second, opinions of the faculty members were transferred to the electronic media as it is and made a text document. Lecturers are randomly numbered from 1 to 34. Coding process was completed by realizing the concepts encountered in any part of the interviews and which reflect the meaning and depth in the best way. Themes were found to explain data in general level with the headings as codes and interview form, and codes required to exist together were assessed and thematic coding was determined.

3.Results

Results are given in the following lines within two sub-title: quantitative findings and qualitative findings

3.1.Quantitative findings

Statistically significant differences are found among students, faculty members and supervisors in seven of 21 items where PBL steps are monitored. These items are "looking up

for the unknown words after the scenario is read", "providing the determination of problems", "writing the hypotheses", "recording the unknown subjects as learning target", "feedback of tutor concerning the process and practice", "asking questions in relevant intensity and locations", "case of limiting learning targets by tutors" (Table 1).

Table 1. *Ratio of "I agree" replies of evaluators to PBL steps (see p. 11)*

3.2.Qualitative findings

Findings are given under two major themes: (1) feelings and thoughts of faculty members before the practice, and (2) their opinions related to clinical supervision after the practice.

3.2.1.Feelings and thoughts of faculty members before the practice

Faculty members have indicated that the practice is generally useful, but it causes stress and nervousness. It is observed that the experience of faculty members about PBL practice influences the stress and nerves. It is determined that inexperienced faculty members who have just been trained for PBL feel more nervous than the other counterparts. Opinions of the faculty members before the practice are as follows: *"I have attended the course recently. I have forgotten some steps as the practice is made after summer holiday. I have benefited from our pre-practice work. However, I felt nerves since I have been involved in such a practice for the first time." "A different practice which we are not used to; one necessarily becomes nervous. However, I think it will be useful if it always performs ."*

On the other hand, faculty members experienced in PBL practice have indicated that they had experienced no stress and nervousness prior to clinical supervision. Opinions of the attendants in their own words are as "*I don't feel nervous. It was not different from the other practices for me."*

All faculty members prior to observation have indicated that the practice is useful and the guidance provided by the clinical supervisor contributes them to remember and realize their deficiencies. On the other hand, according to some faculty members, the practice is time consuming. Some considerations of the faculty members on this subject were as follows: "*Reminding of all steps prior to practice and emphasizing on them in the meetings have provided us with review of the practice once more. I am satisfied with it. I am satisfied with observing my deficiencies". "A very time consuming practice. I don't think I can always spare my time".*

3.2.2. Their opinions related to clinical supervision after the practice.

3.2.2.1.Opinions of faculty members related to PBL practices:

One of the assessments of faculty members as tutors related to their competence is *"I couldn't give equal rights to the students for speaking in the PBL periods. Some talked more and some talked less."*

3.2.2.2.Opinions related to video recording, peer consultancy and clinical supervisor

Twenty faculty members have indicated that video recording caused both themselves and the students to lose concentration, and irritated the students. Faculty members have expressed their opinions on this subject as follows: *"Were we obliged to perform this practice? Was there no way out of video recording?", "I had difficulty in completing the PBL and felt I am continuously watched. I lost my concentration sometimes", "I had attended a course five months ago. During my performance, video recording and two evaluators being present made me stressed. Being in the effort to remember the rules, and being watched increased my stress".*

On the other hand, satisfied faculty members have indicated that they are used to observers due to their PBL experiences. Therefore, video recording has not influenced them and the students. Opinions of some faculty members indicating their satisfaction are as follows: *"I perform this practice for a long time. It is very useful in my opinion. I have understood that I am wrong in some practices. I will try to correct them in next practices."*

3.2.2.3.Opinions of Faculty Members on Advantages of Clinical Supervision

Some opinions of faculty members on the advantages of clinical supervision are given below: Faculty members indicate that the practice is useful and should be involved in the programme. Furthermore, it is indicated that, by way of clinical supervision, standardization would be ensured among the faculty members, deficiencies of the faculty members and PBLs would be identified, a good feedback and control mechanism would be provided and that the quality of education would increase. Expressions of the faculty members related to the advantages of clinical supervision are: *"As a matter of fact it is very useful, but actually, it is also very difficult to apply it in our country", "This practice should be involved in our faculty; both feedback and control mechanism for the faculty member. It causes better work", "Fear of doing wrong made me think that I should do my best. It shall ensure me to obey the rules. Even knowing that there are cameras in the rooms increases the sense of the lecturers' responsibilities.", "Practice is necessary in order to provide the quality. I consider that educational quality shall increase and all students get the same information"*.

3.2.2.4. Opinions of Faculty Members on Disadvantages of Clinical Supervision

Disadvantages related to clinical supervision indicated by the faculty members are as follows: compulsory video recording, a stressful environment, time consuming work. Thoughts of faculty members are given below: *"In my opinion it shouldn't be. We already produce too much work in a stressing environment. We come here in our heavy work by allocating our time. I don't enjoy being in a stressful environment and being continuously watched", "Feeling of supervision is not too enjoyable. University must have an independent climate. It may destroy the creativity and independency of the faculty member. We have an intense working tempo. Continuously being watched and scored might reduce the eagerness of the faculty members", "Very time consuming. I don't think any lecturers from the faculty of medicine, especially in surgery branches, want to have such effort"*.

4.Discussion

This study aims at developing teaching skills of the faculty members and supervising their positions in PBL. In our country, programmes for training the faculty members are given great importance in recent years. This programme is given in almost all medical schools and assessment is made by student feedbacks. Student feedbacks are collected at the end of the course, at the end of probation and in general collected by survey method. However, the actions behind the closed doors of the black box called classroom and whether these match with the contents of the programme are not known. On the other hand, in clinical supervision and peer consultation, the faculty member's process of carrying out teaching – learning activities by in-class observation, student assessment and video recording can be assessed in every aspect (Sergiovanni & Starratt 2002). Therefore, this practice is expected to present useful results especially from the point of education quality.

Results of the poll form containing PBL steps applied to the clinical supervisor, peer consultant, student and faculty member himself/herself are common in some items and different in others. These differences may originate from many reasons. In accordance with the nature of PBL, faculty members are obliged to work with little groups. Little group management is known to be much more difficult compared to the management of classical

class. In our study, students, peer consultant, clinical supervisor and tutors themselves have indicated that they are rather successful in this subject. Only four of the students have indicated that there isn't a positive educational atmosphere. All assessors have given rather high points to the rule of deciding group rules, which is an important step to ensure educational atmosphere, with the participation of the majority of the group (Newble & Cannon 2000). Faculty members are rather successful in the determination of group rules containing items such as starting time of the sessions, selection of writers and readers, break time and its duration.

In the researches (Newble & Cannon 2000), some difficulties often experienced by the students in the subjects of participation in discussions, understanding the tradition of group study and its acceptable behavioral manner, adequate knowledge to participate in the discussion,and assessment, are determined. It is seen in the study that faculty members are considered successful in these fields. Guidance to faculty members in courses and prior to clinical supervision is thought to be useful in this success. Courses are carried out in a structured way and instances related to practice are demonstrated. Tips are given during guidance for clinical supervision in order that tutors create a positive educational atmosphere, and a few warming activities and games are used to provide group dynamics.

Students mainly think that hypotheses are written. On the other hand, peer consultant and clinical supervisor indicate that the hypotheses are not adequately written. This may be due to the case that students don't like to write in the sessions and wish to finish and leave in a short time. Similarly, the students think that mechanisms are adequately explained and they have obtained educational targets. This ratio is smaller in the peer consultant and clinical supervisor. Having full knowledge of the subject, being informed about PBL guides and helping the faculty member prior to clinical supervision may cause the peer consultant and clinical supervisor to see the deficiencies better. It is a desirable property for the clinical supervisors to be specialized on the subject and have knowledge and skills on the subject to be supervised (Kilminster et al. 2007).

Peer consultant and clinical supervisor think that the education moderator hasn't asked a suitable question. High points from students and faculty members to this step may originate from their awareness of inadequate fields which should be developed. It also makes one to consider that guidance is inadequate in these fields. Whereas it is recommended to the faculty member and moderator to have full knowledge of the subjects not involved in the target, to follow up the training programme and to have good knowledge of the practice areas while the subjects that lead to the target are discussed (Cooper 2003; Das et al.& 2002).

Another area in which there are differences between evaluators is the step of ensuring attendance of everyone in the sessions. About half of the faculty members have found themselves unsuccessful on this subject. In this field, peer consultant and clinical supervisor have found the faculty member more efficient compared to other evaluators. Faculty members who don't accept themselves competent are those new faculty members. This competency is considered to improve in time. In terms of self-development of the faculty member in this area, tutors should establish a suitable environment for discussions.

Results are used to assist the diagnosis of problems experienced during education rather than judging the faculty member. In this sense, clinical supervisor and peer consultant have undertaken the task of a mirror by clinical supervision to show the faculty member his/her performance. For this purpose, observation and feedback processes are used during this study to assist the faculty members and the specific conflicts between what they have done and they try to do are determined.

In the interview made with the faculty member concerning the practice, faculty members have indicated that the practice is exciting and that it has created motivation in the development of their educational skills. Similar results were achieved in previous studies. In the studies, it is found at the end of practices that trust for trying new ideas and techniques increases (Mcmahon & Patton 2000). In Missouri University, faculty members have found this programme suitable for their professional development similar to the results of this study and they have changed their teaching strategies by making use of the assessments (Happner & Johnston 1994).

Special attention is paid to cause the faculty members and students to know exactly what would be done in PBL sessions, to want to be there, to be interested in the problems related to the programme for the realization of the aim of the study and this is noted to obtain the desired results. However, although they are informed about the practice, this method applied first in medicine schools has startled the concerned faculty members and students. Unease is realized rather due to video recording. Unease and stress is more widespread among the faculty members who have attended the course, but not managed PBL before. In one to one interviews, faculty members have indicated that clinical supervision is stressful and exciting, and especially the use of video increases excitement. Similar results in other studies measuring the in-class efficiency of teachers attract attention. It is found that teachers experience excitement in video usage which captures the feeling of class environment. It is indicated that course tools installed before the start of lecture may be useful for this problem (Acheson & Gall 1997) and a custom may be provided with the increase in the practice.

Faculty members have indicated that they became aware of their inadequate aspects with the feedback of the clinical supervision and the peer consultation. In the previous interviews, faculty members have also indicated some thoughts that support the results obtained from the evaluation forms of the students, clinical supervisors and peer consultantsIn the last part of the instrument used for the qualitative data, there are opinions of the faculty members related to the advantages and disadvantages of the clinical supervision and its practice in medical schools. during the clinical supervision, it is considered that faculty members will take their tasks seriously, standardization may be provided in education and education quality will be increased. However, there are faculty members that are not satisfied with this practice and that considered it a time consuming method. The reason for this thought may be the multitask of faculty members of medical schools such as teaching, research study, and health service.

5.Conclusion

This study reveals both qualitative and quantitative effects of peer consultation and clinical supervision practices on faculty members in medical school. The results of the study exposes that peer consultation and clinical supervision have significant contributions to the professional skills of the faculty members. In addition, it is considered that clinical supervision practice by faculty members would assist to increase the quality of medical education.

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FINDINGS

Table 1: Ratio of "I agree" replies of evaluators to PBL steps

	student		himself/herself		supervisor		X^2	p
Tutor has created a positive education environment	284	94.6	32	94.1	68	100.0	4.59	0.321
Decision of group rules with the majority of group	291	97.0	33	97.1	60	88.2	10.58	0.316
Looking up for the unknown words after the scenario is read	243	81.0	30	88.2	31	45.5*	49.90	0.000
Providing the determination of problems	274	91.3*	20	88.2	55	80.8	28.84	0.000
Determination of causes leading to problems by brain storming	265	88.4	29	85.3	59	86.8	3.91	0.417
Writing the hypotheses	254	84.7	25	73.5	46	67.6*	15.12	0.004
Explanation of hypotheses' mechanisms	257	85.7*	27	78.4	48	70.6	10.07	0.039
Recording the unknown subjects as learning target	277	92.3	30	88.2	58	85.3	10.93	0.027
Writing the surveys first requested	230	78.0	30	85.3	55	80.9	1.88	0.753
Distribution of source list	263	87.6	30	88.2	60	88.2	2.08	0.720
Feedback of education moderator and students concerning the process and application	259	86.4	33	97.1*	57	83.8	12.16	0.016
Providing the presentation of education targets by the students at the beginning of second and third session	283	94.3	33	97.1	60	88.3	4.74	0.314
Providing the narrating of subjects considered to be imperfectly narrated by asking questions	265	88.3	33	97.1	56	82.4	6.74	0.149
Providing reach to diagnosis	258	86.0	33	97.1	64	94.1	6.99	0.316
Causing to summarize at the end of sessions	214	71.3	31	91.2	51	75.0	6.51	0.164
Facilitative and orienting function undertaken by tutor	270	90.0	32	94.1	63	92.6	3.22	0.522
Asking questions in relevant intensity and locations	267	89.0	29	85.3	47	69.1*	20.02	0.000
Ensuring attendance of everyone in session	236	78.6	24	70.6	55	80.9	9.28	0.054
Positive tutor behavior	287	95.7	32	94.1	66	97.1	4.73	0.315
Education moderator not informing in the process of sessions	156	52.0	24	70.6	44	64.7	14.72	0.053
Case of limiting learning targets by tutor	261	87.0*	18	53.0	42	61.8	39.36	0.000

*:$p<0.05$

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ELT STUDENTS' BELIEFS ABOUT AND STRATEGY USE OF TRANSLATION

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Abstract

Although the significance of translation for foreign language teaching had gone unnoticed for decades, the general attitude towards translation has begun to alter, and translation has started playing a vital role in language learning process and aids learners to comprehend and produce the English language. Nevertheless, solely a small number of studies have been devoted to the contribution of translation to language learning, specifically for the students in English Language Teaching (ELT) departments. Thus, this study aims to explore the role of translation in ELT students' English learning, notably regarding their learning beliefs and learning strategies about using translation in learning the language.

Keywords: translation, English language teaching, strategy use, beliefs

1. Introduction

The phenomena of how to teach or learn a new language has generated an immense literature in English, based upon various assertions, theories, observations and experiments, and have been produced upon variety of perspectives such as psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, pedagogic, educational and political. Since the late nineteenth century, the common presumption in this literature has been that a new language is best taught and learned monolingually. Thus, students' own language is not even used for explanation, translation, testing, classroom management or general communication between teacher and student. However, this monolingual assumption has been increasingly questioned, and a re-evaluation of teaching that relates the language being taught to the students' own language has begun (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Although the significance of translation for foreign language teaching had gone unnoticed for decades, the general attitude towards translation has begun to alter, and translation has started playing a vital role in the language learning process and aids learners to comprehend and produce the English language. According to Liao (2006), on contrary to their teachers' disparage towards translation, learners use translation as a learning strategy to comprehend, remember and produce English. Hence, it can be said that students' learning behaviour in using translation is inconsistent with their teachers' beliefs. He further adds:

> "*Many English teachers believe that it is necessary for students to use translation only at the initial stages of learning. At the college level, it is believed possible and even necessary to use English without translation because students at that level are believed to know English well enough to improve their linguistic skills without their mother tongue being involved. Such a viewpoint, however, is often in*

> *conflict with students' perspective, based on the findings of this study that learners draw on knowledge of their native language and rely on translation as they try to discover the complexities in English.*" (Liao, 2006:210)

This study aims to explore the role of translation for students in the departments of English Language Teaching (ELT), notably regarding their learning beliefs and learning strategies about using translation in learning the English language. The data were collected through survey questionnaires and qualitative interviews to seek answers to the following research questions:

1- What are ELT students' beliefs about using translation in learning English?

2- What learning strategies concerning translation do ELT students utilize?

3- What are the relations between learners' beliefs about and the actual use of translation?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Language Learning Strategies and Beliefs

Learning strategies are the thoughts and actions which are chosen by individuals use to accomplish a learning goal (Chamot, 2004); they are procedures that facilitate a learning task (Chamot, 2005). Particularly in the early stages of learning and while dealing with an unfamiliar language task, strategies are frequently conscious and goal-driven.

Language learners mostly pursue their own strategies to learn and to regulate their learning. Not only the term "strategy" but the terms; styles, techniques, tactics, consciously employed operations have been described and clarified by the researchers (Wenden, 1987; Cook, 1991; Ellis, 1994; Brown, 2000; Richards & Rogers, 2001) in order to explain the thoughts, students develop stages to comprehend, learn or retain new information. Researchers have focused on the research targeting the language learning strategies for nearly three decades (Chamot et al., 1999; Oxford, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Studies especially on vocabulary learning strategies (Aktekin & Güven, 2013; Balcı & Çakır, 2012; Zhang & Li, 2011; Erten & Williams, 2008; Wong, 2005) and reading strategies (Sarıçoban, 2012; Çubukcu, 2008; Lawrence, 2007; Pan, 2006; Pressley & Gaskins, 2006) are particularly notable.

According to Chamot (2005), learning strategies are crucial in second language learning and teaching for two major reasons. Initially, as the strategies used by second language learners in their language learning process paves the way for gaining insights into the metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective processes included in language. Second, less successful learners can be taught or have the opportunity to develop new strategies. Thus, they can become better language learners (p. 112).

According to a recent review by Rubin et al. (2007), with regard to the intervention studies relating to language learning strategies; teaching students learning strategies, if effectively done, increases not only their knowledge of strategies but also their motivation and performance. In a vast range of studies, it can be inferred that leading students to employ learning strategies demonstrates positive outcomes and training is also beneficial (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary & Robbins, 1999; Oxford, 1990; Mizumoto & Takeuchi, 2009).

Cook (2001) describes the L1 as providing the "scaffolding" support that the learners need to build up the L2. She suggests that the teachers should support implementing a methodology where use of L1 is 'not incompatible with use of the foreign language'. She utilizes Vygotskyan-style research and the theory of cultural learning to support her view.

2.2. Students' Use of Translation as a Learning Strategy

Although a large number of foreign language teachers might have disparaged the role of translation in language teaching, conversely, learners benefit from translation in their language learning process (Marti Viano and Orquin 1982; Politzer 1983; O'Malley *et al*. 1985; Chamot *et al*. 1987).

Translation is regarded as a phenomenon of transferring one's own languages to another and frequently classified as one of the cognitive learning strategies (Chamot 1987; Chamot and Kupper 1989; Oxford 1990). In Communicative Language Teaching approach, however, translation has not been regarded as a favored strategy by the foreign language educators.

Even though language teachers presume translation as an insufficient learning strategy, such presumption appears to lack much empirical evidence (Liao, 2006). In addition, there are studies which defend the positive and facilitative role of translation or L1 transfer in students' language learning (Baynham 1983; Titford 1985; Perkins 1985; Ellis 1985; Atkinson 1987; Kobayashi and Rinnert 1992; Kern 1994; Husain 1995; Cohen and Brooks-Carson 2001, Liao, 2006).

A great number of researchers have claimed that learners' preconceived beliefs about language learning are prone to affect the way they pursue their learning strategies and learn a second language (Abraham and Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1986, 1987). Researchers (Abraham and Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Wenden, 1986, 1987) have demonstrated connections between learners' metacognitive knowledge or beliefs about language learning and their preference of language learning strategies. In her interviews, Wenden (1987a) found that, in many examples, students follow consistent learning strategies with their beliefs about language learning. Wenden (1986a) further adds that these learners' explicit beliefs about how a language is best learnt provides rationale of their choice of learning strategies.

3. Methodology

This study primarily involved a survey, comprised of two sets of questionnaires measuring beliefs-***Survey for Beliefs about Translation (SBT)*** and strategy use- ***Survey for Translation as a Learning Strategy (STLS)***. Both surveys were designed as Likert Scale of 1 to 5. Moreover, in order to probe more deeply the relationships and among learners' beliefs about translation, strategy use, and individual demographic variables, also interviews were conducted with 12 students chosen at random. SPSS v.17 was used for data analysis. A total of 82 students who were studying in ELT departments of two different universities were selected for the quantitative survey. They were 18 male and 64 female students who were first and second graders. Majority of them studied one year prep-class.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 Descriptive Analysis of the SBT

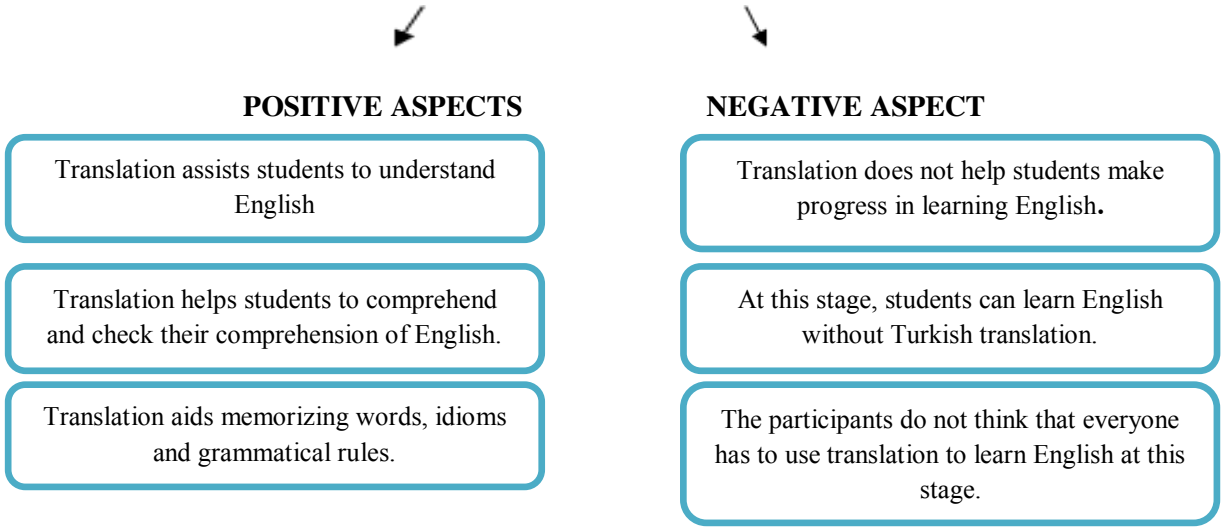
Participants responded to the SBT item on a Likert scale 1 to 5, indicating the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with statements concerning their beliefs about translation. The means and standard deviations were computed of the participants' replies to the items and presented in *Figure 1*. A large number of the participants denoted that translation plays a positive role in their current English learning process. 17 items were rated M>3.

The findings regarding the beliefs of the students about translation (*Figure 1*) are parallel with the studies of Prince and Hsieh. Prince (1996) found out that translation plays a positive role in learners' vocabulary learning and assists them in memorizing; Hsieh (2000, as cited in

Liao, 2006, p.195) claimed that translation enhances learners' reading comprehension and vocabulary learning.

Table 1. *The findings of positive and negative aspects of Learners' Beliefs about Translation*

BELIEFS ABOUT TRANSLATION					
Highest-rated Items			**Lowest-rated Items**		
Item	**Mean**	**St. Deviation**	**Item**	**Mean**	**St.Deviation**
7 5 1	4.29 4.22 4.16	,809 ,786 ,761	8 17 18	2,00 2,52 2,98	,816 1,057 1,089

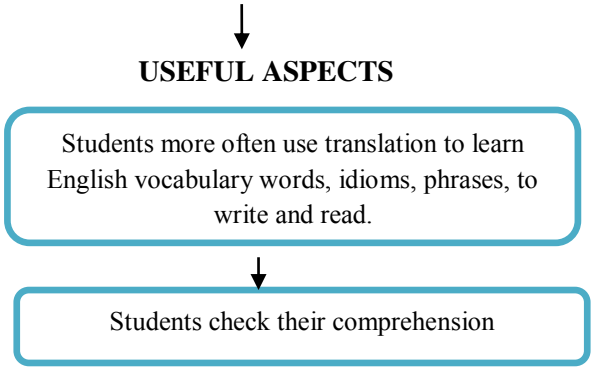


Descriptive Analysis of the STLS

Participants responded to the STLS item on a Likert scale 1 to 5, indicating the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with statements concerning their beliefs about translation. The means and standard deviations were computed of the participants' replies to the items and presented in *Figure 2*. A large number of the participants denoted that translation plays a positive role in their current English learning process. Out of 28 items, 16 items were rated M>3.

Table 2. *The findings of positive and negative aspects of Translation as a Learning Strategy*

TRANSLATION AS A LEARNING STRATEGY					
Highest-rated Items			**Lowest-rated Items**		
Item	**Mean**	**St. Deviation**	**Item**	**Mean**	**St. Deviation**
4 13 17	3,89 3,71 3,70	1,042 ,949 ,925	8 24 6	2,48 2,71 2,89	1,091 1,202 1,110



The findings also demonstrate that the learners employ translation for vocabulary learning and reading skills improvement (*Figure 2*). This is consistent with the study of Liao (2006) who came up with the same results and, in addition, with the study of Duruhan & Şad (2010) who discovered that students benefit from translation regarding vocabulary and comprehension. However, the findings are not in the same line with Kobayashi and Rinnert (1992). The results of their study show that Japanese students prefer directly English use in composition.

In accordance with Oxford's (1990) classification of learning strategies, the items rated by the students match with cognitive learning strategies such as rehearsal, organization, transfer and elaboration.

Correlation

The data correlation (*Table 3*) reveals a strong bond between beliefs and the strategy use of learners. It can be concluded, basing on the results, that unlike their educators, learners believe that translation is an assisting tool for them as they learn a language. However, they also denote that it is not one of key components of their learning process. Further, the findings indicate that learners' beliefs are consistent with their strategy use.

Table 3. *Table of correlation between beliefs and the strategy use of learners*

CORRELATION BETWEEN BELIEFS AND STRATEGY			
		SBT	**SLTS**
SBT	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	1 82	,705** ,000 ,82
SLTS	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed) N	,705** ,000 ,82	1 82
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

Interviews

Qualitative interview data was also collected from twelve students chosen at random which enabled researchers to gain deeper insight to students' beliefs and strategies about translation. Generally, students stated that they benefit from translation when they learn new vocabulary. Further, they add that when they write something in English, they initially think in Turkish. They also comprehend word-to-word translation when they are asked to talk about the use of translation in speaking. Referring to translation while they speak is the least common strategy.

Excerpt 1:

I mean, yes I use translation when I learn vocabulary for example. I write the Turkish equivalent and try to memorize. Also, in my writing class, when the instructor gives a task about writing, I first think in Turkish. Then, I write in English and of course, there is always something to be corrected. However, when I think in Turkish while I am trying to speak English, it makes me stagger. I am waiting to have English dreams...They say that when you have English dreams, you master the language.

Excerpt 2:

When I study new vocabulary, I generally write Turkish meanings; however I note down a sentence in which the word is used in English. I prefer to learn English synonyms or antonyms if possible.

Excerpt 3:

I cannot speak fluently if I think of what I will say in Turkish. Turkish is not very similar to English. Therefore, I concentrate to speak without translating in my mind even though I may make mistakes.

Excerpt 4:

While learning new words and writing, I use Turkish. It is easier for me. It helps. When my English improves, I may stop using Turkish. We are in Turkey learning English with Turkish teachers and Turkish friends. So Turkish is necessary.

Excerpt 5:

I always try to use English, speak English, write English. However, when I have difficulty, I sometimes need Turkish. I will be an English teacher, so I have to concentrate on English.

5. Conclusion

In light of our findings, it can be said that 1) Plenty number of participants denoted that they believe translation play a positive role in their English learning process. However, the results also demonstrate that they do not possess the belief that they are dependent on translation or translation is inevitable for their learning process. It can be inferred that they regard translation as an assisting tool. 2) Learners utilize translation frequently as a learning strategy. 3) It can be inferred from the statistics results that the participants' beliefs influence their learning strategies.

Overall, it can be inferred that translation plays an important facilitative role in ELT students' English learning experiences. With respect to students' shared beliefs about using translation in learning English, generally they expressed that the translation is an assisting tool for present phase of learning (Intermediate level), and considered translation as a positive learning resource for them to comprehend, memorize, and produce better English, to acquire English skills, and to complete various English tasks. On the other hand, they were concerned that translation might inhibit their thinking in English, and make learners assume that there is a one-to-one correspondence of meaning between Turkish and English, and thus become a 'bottleneck' in their advancement in English learning. For these reasons, they thought that they should gradually refrain from this tendency of translating as they make progress in learning English.

When it comes to the use of translation as a strategy to learn English, on average, students were found to have a medium to high level of translation strategy use. They employed a wide variety of learning strategies involving translation to help them strengthen their English skills and solve language problems. Specifically, the use of translation as memory, planning, cognitive, affective, and social strategies were identified as frequently used strategies among these students.

In terms of the relationship between learners' beliefs and their strategy use, although individual variations did occur, overall, students' professed beliefs on the SBT were highly consistent with their described learning strategies on the STLS. The qualitative interview data also generally supported the quantitative results.

There are some limitations of survey research. First, although the results of descriptive analysis have shown the overall patterns of learners' beliefs and strategy use related to translation, there was little we could know about the sources of these respondents' beliefs and what caused them to use such strategies. Second, the number of the participants was limited to eight two. On condition that the number reaches up to four hundred, factor analysis can be conducted and hence, these surveys may turn into inventories concerning Turkish and English.

Consequently, the results of this study were based on a sample population of ELT students in solely two universities. As we mentioned before, English language educators seems to hold prejudgment about the use of translation in language learning environment. Hence, we aimed to probe what ELT students' beliefs about translation are since they are going to become English teachers themselves.

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Appendix

SURVEYS

Survey for Beliefs about Translation

Dear Students,

We would like you to fill in the questionnaire sincerely in order to help us to conduct our research on the use of translation strategies. The information will be kept confidential. Your contribution will be of great help. Thank you in advance.

Assist. Prof. Dr. Nafiye Ç. AKTEKİN
Res. Assist. Ayşegül UYSAL

Name:
Age:
Please circle:
Gender: Female Male
Have you studied at prep-class? Yes No
Are you bilingual? Yes No

	5= Strongly agree	**4= Agree**	**3= Not sure**	**2= Disagree**	**1= Strongly disagree**
1. Translating helps me understand textbook readings.					
2. Translating helps me write English composition.					
3. Translating helps me understand spoken English.					
4. Translating helps me speak English					
5. Translating helps me memorize English vocabulary					
6. Translating helps me understand English grammar rules.					
7. Translating helps me learn English idioms and phrases.					
8. Translating does not help me make progress in learning English.					
9. Translation helps me understand my teacher's English instructions.					
10. Translation helps me interact with my classmates in English class to complete assignments					
11. The more difficult the English assignments are, the more I depend on Turkish translation.					
12. Using Turkish translation helps me finish my English assignments more quickly and save time.					
13. Using Turkish translation while studying helps me better recall the content of a lesson					

later.					
14. I like to use Turkish translation to learn English.					
15. The use of Turkish translation may interfere with my ability to learn English well.					
16. Turkish translation diminishes the amount of English input I receive.					
17. At this stage of learning, I cannot learn English without Turkish translation.					
18. I think everyone has to use Turkish translation at this stage of learning.					
19. I will produce Turkish-style English if I translate from Turkish to English.					
20. I prefer my English teachers always use English to teach me.					
21. I feel pressure when I am asked to think directly in English.					
22. I tend to get frustrated when I try to think in English.					
23. When using English, it is best to keep my Turkish out of my mind.					
24. I believe one needs to be immersed in an English-speaking culture for some time before he/she is able to think in English.					

Survey for Translation as a Learning Strategy

Dear Students,

We would like you to fill in the questionnaire sincerely in order to help us to conduct our research on the use of translation strategies. The information will be kept confidential. Your contribution will be of great help. Thank you in advance.

Assist. Prof. Dr. Nafiye Ç. AKTEKİN
Res. Assist. Ayşegül UYSAL

Name:
Age:
Please circle:
Gender: Female Male
Have you studied at prep-class? Yes No
Are you bilingual? Yes No

	5= Strongly agree	**4= Agree**	**3= Not sure**	**2= Disagree**	**1= Strongly disagree**
1. When reading an English text, I first translate it into Turkish in my mind to help me understand its meaning.					
2. I read Turkish translations in the course reference book to help me better understand English articles in the textbook.					
3. After I read English articles, I use an available Turkish translation to check if my comprehension is correct.					
4. To write in English, I first brainstorm about the					

topic in Turkish.					
5. When I write in English, I first think in Turkish and then translate my ideas into English.					
6. I write Turkish outlines for my English compositions.					
7. When I listen to English, I first translate the English utterances into Turkish to help me understand the meanings.					
8. I read the Turkish translation scripts before I listen to instructional English tapes or CDs.					
9. When I watch English TV or movies, I use Turkish subtitles to check my comprehension					
10. I listen to or read Turkish news first in order to understand English radio/TV news better.					
11. When speaking English, I first think of what I want to say in Turkish and then translate it into English.					
12. If I forget certain English words or expressions in the middle of conversation, I translate from Turkish into English to help me keep the conversation going.					
13. I memorize the meaning of new English vocabulary words by remembering their Turkish translation.					
14. I learn English grammar through Turkish explanations of the English grammatical rules.					
15. I use Turkish translation of grammatical terms such as parts of speech, tenses, and agreements to help me clarify the roles of the grammatical parts of English sentences.					
16. I learn English idioms and phrases by reading their Turkish translation.					
17. I use English-Turkish dictionaries to help myself learn English.					
18. I use Turkish-English dictionaries to help myself learn English.					
19. I use an electronic translation machine to help myself learn English.					
20. If I do not understand something in English, I will ask other people to translate it into Turkish for me.					
21. I ask questions about how a Turkish expression can be translated into English.					
22. When the teacher assigns English articles for reading, I work with others to translate them.					
23. I practice mentally translating my thoughts from Turkish to English in various situations.					
24. I take notes in Turkish in my English class.					
25. I write Turkish translations in my English textbooks.					
26. I try to clarify the differences and similarities between Turkish and English through translation.					
27. When reading English, I try to grasp the meaning of what I read without thinking of Turkish equivalents.					
28. When speaking English, I think of what I want to say in English without thinking first in Turkish.					

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A STUDY OF QUALITY INDICATORS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF HEADS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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A STUDY OF QUALITY INDICATORS FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF HEADS OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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Abstract

"A good quality education is one that enables all learners to realise the capabilities they require to become economically productive, develop sustainable livelihoods, contribute to peaceful and democratic societies and enhance wellbeing. The learning outcomes that are required vary according to context but at the end of the basic education cycle must include threshold levels of literacy and numeracy and life skills including awareness and prevention of disease." (Tikly, 2010). Education quality programme encourages policy makers to take cognisance of changing national development needs, the kinds of schools that different learners attend and the forms of educational disadvantage faced by different groups of learners when considering policy options. A good quality education arises from interactions between three overlapping environments, namely the policy, the school and the home/ community environments. Creating enabling environments requires the right mix of inputs into each. the Education quality framework highlights the importance of accompanying processes within each environment that are key for ensuring that inputs get converted into desired outcomes. (Tikly, 2010). Creating a good quality education involves paying attention to the interface between each environment and ensuring that enabling inputs and processes have the effect of closing the gaps that often exist between them creating greater synergy and coherence.

Keywords: education, quality, policy

1. Understanding Quality Education

Quality education plays an essential part of economic and social development of the nations. "Economic benefits of education flow not only to the individual but also to society through lower social transfers and through the additional taxes individuals pay once they enter the labour market"(OECD 2010, p. 136).

1.1. Suitably trained experienced and motivated teachers

Africa faces a severe shortage of suitably qualified and experienced teachers (UNESCO 2008). However, evidence suggests that initial teacher education and training and experience have a significant impact on achievement (Smith and Barrett 2010).

A major finding across the Education quality projects is that for training to impact positively on outcomes for disadvantaged learners it needs to be consistent with the demands of the curriculum. It must focus on improved pedagogical practices including the use of "structured pedagogy"; effective teaching of language and literacy in multilingual settings effective use of ICTs to support learning. (Rubagiza,Were et.al., 2010).

1.2. Key Processes Underlying a Good Quality Education

Implementing a good quality education requires that policy making is informed by processes of dialogue, consultation and debate both within the state and between the government and interest groups including teachers and teacher unions, non-governmental and community organisations representing parents and other interests with a stake in education. A characteristic of education policy in countries that have successfully integrated into the global economy is that there has been a good match between education priorities and outcomes and changing labour market needs facilitated by processes of inter-governmental dialogue. Access to a good quality education has been an historic demand of anti-colonial movements on the African continent (Tikly 2010).

The role of education in relation to national and local development priorities, the impact of global and regional agendas and the role of the state and of the private sector in providing access to a good quality education. Consideration of these issues is important for those involved in leading an informed public debate on education quality form a social justice perspective and for beginning to elucidate a normative basis to guide future policy (Tikly 2010).

1.3. Significance of the Study

Quality education plays an essential part of economic and social development of the nations. "Economic benefits of education flow not only to the individual but also to society through lower social transfers and through the additional taxes individuals pay once they enter the labour market"(OECD 2010). School education lays the foundation for lifelong knowledge and skill development of the humanity. School effectiveness refers to the extent to which the goals set by the school management or school boards or school departments of the State governments have been achieved. It is a multi dimensional concept. One of the important measures of school effectiveness is the performance of the students in a public examination. Comparison of performance of students of various schools is no longer limited to national level. International comparative studies of student performance have come out with varied performance indicators. The Head of the school who organizes and coordinates all the activities will possess the required leadership qualities.

1.4. The Problem

The present investigation is entitled as "**A Study of Quality Indicators from the Perspective of Heads of Secondary Schools".**

1.5. Objectives of the Study

1. To study the leadership qualities of Heads of schools in high, average and low effective schools.

2. To study the dimensions of leadership qualities of Heads of schools in high, average and low effective schools.

i. Assertative administration
ii. Instructional leadership
iii. Assumption of responsibility
iv. Personal vision and character

v. Decision making

vi. Standard

3. To study the time management of Heads of schools in high, average and low effective schools.

4. To study the dimensions of time management of Heads of schools in high, average and low effective schools.

i. Knowledge of time management

ii. Attitude towards time management

1.6. Variables of the Study

The present study aims to identifying the following variables.

Heads of Schools related variables

a. Leadership qualities of Heads of schools

b. Time management of Heads of schools

2. Methodology

The present study is a descriptive survey (ex-post-facto) type research.

2.1. Hypotheses of the Study

The objectives of the study are stated above. The following hypotheses are generated based on the objectives of the study.

Hypothesis: Schools at different levels of effectiveness differ on leadership qualities of Heads of schools.

Hypothesis: Heads of school in schools at different levels of effectiveness differ in dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., assertive administration.

Hypothesis: Schools at different levels of effectiveness differ in dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., instructional leadership

Hypothesis: Schools at different levels of effectiveness differ on dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., assumption of responsibility

Hypothesis: Schools with different levels of effectiveness differ on dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., personal vision and character.

Hypothesis: Schools at different levels of effectiveness differ on dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., decision making.

Hypothesis: Schools at different levels of effectiveness differ in dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., standard.

Hypothesis: Schools with different levels of effectiveness differ on time management.

Hypothesis: Schools at different levels of effectiveness differ on dimension of time management i.e., attitude towards time management.

Hypothesis: Schools at different levels of effectiveness differ on knowledge of time

management.

2.2. Sample

The population of the sample of Dharwad Taluka numbering upto 70 secondary schools formed the sample of the study. The data was collected from schools. From each school data was collected from teachers selected at random. In all, the data was collected from 70 schools – 490 teachers.

2.3. Research Tools

The following tools were administered to students.

1.Leadership Qualities Questionnaire by Selvaraju (1993)

2.Time, Energy, Memory Survey Scale by Petrelio (1976)

2.4. Data Collection

Data was collected from, teachers and the Heads of schools. The investigator personally visited the 70 schools of Dharwad taluka and with the prior permission of the Heads of schools, administered the tools to seven experienced teachers in each school and to the Heads. Clear cut instructions were given to fill up the questionnaires.

2.5. Statistical Technique Used

For the analysis of data collected, differential analysis was used.

3. Data Analyses

Table 1. *Results of t-test for the variable Leadership Qualities of Heads of Schools*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
High	119.7778	12.5595	4.3610	<0.05	S
Average	114.9244	8.5241			
High	119.7778	12.5595	2.9255	<0.05	S
Low	115.0873	12.8903			

The results of the above table reveal that,

1. Heads in high effective schools (mean=119.7778) and average effective schools (mean=114.9244) differ significantly with respect to leadership qualities of Heads of schools. Heads in high effective schools are high on leadership qualities than in average effective schools.

2. Heads in high effective schools (mean=119.7778) and low effective schools (mean=115.0873) differ significantly with respect to leadership qualities of Heads of schools.

Heads in high effective schools are high on leadership qualities than in low effective schools.

Table 2. *Results of t-test for the Dimension of Leadership Qualities of Heads of Schools - Instructional Leadership*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
High	20.8492	3.7525	3.0644	<0.05	S
Average	19.7017	3.1967			
High	20.8492	3.7525	3.2093	<0.05	S
Low	19.3016	3.9013			

The results of the above table reveal that,

3. Heads in high effective schools (mean=20.8492) and average effective schools (mean=19.7017) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., instructional leadership. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e. instructional leadership than the average effective schools.

4. Heads in high effective schools (mean=20.8492) and low effective schools (mean=19.3016) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., instructional leadership. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., instructional leadership than the low effective schools.

Table 3. *Results of t-test for the Dimension of Leadership Qualities of Heads of Schools - Assumption of Responsibility*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
High	19.8571	3.4052	2.7574	<0.05	S
Average	18.9034	2.9900			
High	19.8571	3.4052	2.0685	<0.05	S
Low	18.9524	3.5369			

The results of the above table reveal that,

5. Heads in high effective schools (mean=19.8571) and average effective schools (mean=18.9034) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., assumption of responsibility. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., assumption of responsibility than the average effective schools.

6. Heads in high effective schools (mean=19.8571) and low effective schools (mean=18.9524) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., assumption of responsibility. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., assumption of responsibility than the low effective schools.

Table 4. *Results of t-test for the Dimension of Leadership Qualities of Heads of Schools - Personal Vision and Character*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
High	20.1190	3.6389	3.8335	<0.05	S
Average	18.8445	2.6316			
High	20.1190	3.6389	2.5709	<0.05	S
Low	18.9444	3.6140			

The results of the above table reveal that,

7. Heads in high effective schools (mean=20.1190) and average effective schools (mean=18.8445) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., personal vision and character. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., personal vision and character than the average effective schools.

8. Heads in high effective schools (mean=20.1190) and low effective schools (mean=18.9444) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., personal vision and character. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., personal vision and character than the low effective schools.

Table 5. *Results of t-test for the Dimension of Leadership Qualities of Heads of Schools - Decision Making*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
High	20.3095	3.9567	3.7807	<0.05	S
Average	18.8824	3.1103			
Average	18.8824	3.1103	2.0414	<0.05	S
Low	19.6270	3.6611			

The results of the above table reveal that,

9. Heads in high effective schools (mean=20.3095) and average effective schools (mean=18.8824) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., decision making. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., decision making than the average effective schools.

10.Heads in average effective schools (mean=18.8824) and low effective schools (mean=19.6270) differ significantly with respect to dimension of leadership qualities of Heads of schools i.e., decision making. Heads in low effective schools are high on dimension of leadership

qualities i.e., decision making than the average effective schools.

Table 6. *Results of t-test for the Variable Time Management of Heads of Schools*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
Low	43.8333	3.7456	-4.9325	<0.05	S
Average	50.4118	4.9489			
Low	43.8333	3.7456	-8.7082	<0.05	S
High	56.1111	4.6639			
Average	50.4118	4.9489	-4.0282	<0.05	S
High	56.1111	4.6639			

1. Heads in low (mean= 43.8333) and average (mean=50.4118) effective schools differ significantly with respect to time management. Heads in average effective schools are high on time management than the low effective schools.

2. Heads in low (mean= 43.8333) and high (mean=56.1111) effective schools differ significantly with respect to time management. Heads in High effective schools are high on time management than the low effective schools.

3.Heads in average (mean= 50.4118) and high (mean=56.1111) effective schools differ significantly with respect to time management. Heads in high effective schools are high on time management than the average effective schools.

Table 7. *Results of t-test for the Dimension of Time Management - Knowledge of Time Management*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
High	21.5000	1.7235	5.1278	<0.05	S
Average	24.8824	2.4956			
High	21.5000	1.7235	15.9927	<0.05	S
Low	28.3889	0.6077			
Average	24.8824	2.4956	5.8448	<0.05	S
Low	28.3889	0.6077			

The results of the above table reveal that,

1.Heads in high (mean= 21.5000) and average (mean=24.8824) effective schools differ significantly with respect to knowledge of time management. Heads in average effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., knowledge of time management than high effective schools.

2.Heads in high (mean= 21.5000) and low (mean=28.3889) effective schools differ significantly with respect to knowledge of time management. Heads in low effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., knowledge of time management than high effective schools.

3.Heads in average (mean= 24.8824) and low (mean=28.3889) effective schools differ significantly with respect to knowledge towards time management. Heads in low effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., knowledge of time management than average effective schools.

Table 8.*Results of t-test for the Dimension of Time Management - Attitude towards Time Management*

Levels	Mean	SD	t-value	P-value	Significance
High	28.9444	1.0556	5.7915	<0.05	S
Average	25.2647	2.5739			
High	28.9444	1.0556	25.5429	<0.05	S
Low	21.6111	0.6077			
Average	25.2647	2.5739	5.9100	<0.05	S
Low	21.6111	0.6077			

The results of the above table reveal that,

4. Heads in high (mean= 28.9444) and average (mean=25.2647) effective schools differ significantly with respect to attitude towards time management. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., attitude towards time management than average effective schools.

5. Heads in high (mean= 28.9444) and low (mean=21.6111) effective schools differ significantly with respect to attitude towards time management. Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., attitude towards time management than low effective schools.

6. The average (mean= 25.2647) and low (mean=21.6111) effective schools differ significantly with respect to attitude towards time management. Heads in average effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., attitude towards time management than low effective schools.

4. Major Findings

1.Heads in high effective schools are high on leadership qualities than in average effective schools.

2.Heads in high effective schools are high on leadership qualities than in low effective schools.

3.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., instructional leadership than the average effective schools.

4.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., instructional leadership than the low effective schools.

5.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., assumption of responsibility than the average effective schools.

6.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., assumption of responsibility than the low effective schools.

7.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., personal vision and character than the average effective schools.

8.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., personal vision and character than the low effective schools.

9.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., decision making than the average effective schools.

10.Heads in low effective schools are high on dimension of leadership qualities i.e., decision making than the average effective schools.

11.Heads in average effective schools are high on time management than the low effective schools.

12.Heads in High effective schools are high on time management than the low effective schools.

13.Heads in high effective schools are high on time management than the average effective schools.

14.Heads in average effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., knowledge of time management than high effective schools.

15.Heads in low effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., knowledge of time management than high effective schools.

16.Heads in low effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., knowledge of time management than average effective schools.

17.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., attitude towards time management than average effective schools.

18.Heads in high effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e., attitude towards time management than low effective schools.

19.Heads in average effective schools are high on dimension of time management i.e.,

attitude towards time management than low effective schools.

5. Conclusions of the Study

During the past two decades much research has been conducted in the field of school effectiveness and improvement of the quality of schooling. The major concern in schools should be educational excellence meaning that students become independent, creative thinkers and learn to work more co-operatively.

1.A great deal of successful development in schools depends on a thoroughly professional teaching force. With this foundation, the school system can achieve much progress, with effective schools, having teachers with high expectations and positive views of the capabilities of their pupils, providing good models of behaviour, exhibiting good time management, involving in school activities and remaining satisfied in the job.

2.There appears to be agreement that the quality of leadership exercised by the head us crucial to the effectiveness of the school. The Head of the school sets the love for learning by the educational beliefs and values he or she holds and with a decision making proves in which all teachers feel that their views are represented. The Head's educational philosophy, management of time concern for teachers' and staff development activities show how central these processes are for school's development.

On the basis of the findings of the present study it is revealed that the schools having better Heads of schools and institution performance were identified as more effective schools. It is essential to identify schools which are less-effective and provide necessary help to develop their facilities and other aspects so as to develop the performance of students in order to increase school effectiveness.

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ENRICHING MICROTEACHING IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO YOUNG LEARNERS (TEYL): AN ACTION RESEARCH

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ENRICHING MICROTEACHING IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO YOUNG LEARNERS (TEYL): AN ACTION RESEARCH

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Abstract

This action research is conducted upon noticing the need to provide pre-service teachers of English with a deeper insight into their microteaching demonstrations in TEYL course, which takes place in third year of the teacher training program before the practicum. Regarding the microteachings in TEYL course, the pre-service teachers complained about not being sure how children learn, think and act. Their concerns and dissatisfaction about the performance and feedback stages of microteaching sessions were also acknowledged by the researchers. Thus, 71 pre-service teachers were required to re-conduct their storytelling with target age children and complete a reflection questionnaire. The qualitative analysis of the data reveals that microteachings had some drawbacks in preparing pre-service teachers to the teaching profession. Actual practices with children enabled the pre-service teachers experiencing the natural atmosphere of teaching and developing understanding how children think, learn and react.

Keywords: teacher training, teachers of young learners, young learners of English, microteaching, video-recorded reflection

1. Introduction

The recent decades have witnessed the increasing importance of English as a lingua franca of international communication, commerce, science, technology, culture and tourism. As in the model of concentric circles proposed by Kachru (1988), English is not only spoken by its native speakers or as a second language but also by millions of speakers with no historic or colonial connection to it. The importance of English has magnified as it has become the language of globalisation- world economy and trade, international affairs, even leisure, internet and the other media. The trend to start learning a foreign language, English in most cases, at a lower age has its roots in governments' desire to catch up with and eventually excel in commerce, science, information and communication technologies. To meet the demands of the 21st century, governments have taken steps to introduce English language courses as a compulsory part of primary school curricula.

Not long ago learning a foreign language in schools was reserved for the secondary level. However, today children all over the world are being taught foreign languages in state schools and in growing private sector education organizations at an increasingly early age. According to the *Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe 2012* report, several countries in Europe have lowered the starting age for compulsory language learning in the past 15 years and some even offer it in pre-school. The objective "mother tongue + 2" was set by EU heads of state and government at the Barcelona Summit in March 2002, that is, everyone is taught at least two languages in addition to their mother tongue from a very early age (Eurydice, 2005). Furthermore, European Commission Press Releases (as of 20 September 2012) report that

English is the most taught foreign language in nearly all of the 32 countries covered in the survey which are 27 Member States, Croatia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Turkey. Graddol (2006) also states that "English learners are getting younger. Across the world,... English is being introduced in primary schools, with greater compulsion, and at a steadily lowering age" (p. 88). Many countries like China, Malaysia, Japan, Korea, and Brazil have also lowered the age of learning English as a compulsory subject (Kırkgöz, 2005).

This global trend to introduce early language instruction is regarded as "possibly the world's biggest policy development in education" (Johnstone, 2009, p.39). Yet, disregarding how children are different socially, emotionally, cognitively and physically different from older learners might put the success of early introduction of English at stake. Girard (1974) points to important conditions to be taken into consideration in early introduction of English: having appropriately trained teachers, proper timetabling with sufficient timing, appropriate methodology, continuity and liaison with secondary schools, provision of suitable resources and integrated monitoring and evaluation (cited in Brewster, Ellis & Girard, 2002)

Hastily planned and implemented programs may be ineffective or even counterproductive, particularly in cases where the numbers devoted to English instruction are limited and the training of TEYL teachers suffer (Butler, 2009; Graddol, 2006; Nunan, 2003; Enever & Moon, 2009). Enever and Moon (2009) highlighted the importance of ongoing teacher development and training for the successful implementation of such programs (cited in Tomlinson, 2013, p.258). Graddol (2006) states that teachers of young learners should be proficient in English, have wider training in child development, and are also able to motivate young children. Wang (2009) also draws attention to the concerns regarding teachers' quality in terms of language proficiency and Teaching English to Young Learners (hereafter TEYL) pedagogy and about the teacher supply in case of rapid introduction of English into the primary schools.

In the Turkish education context, English as a foreign language became a part of primary school curriculum starting from Grade 4 with a law that took effect in 1997. This move was a part of a major curriculum innovation project (5+3 compulsory continuous education). With the introduction of English to Grade 4 and Grade 5, foreign language learning shifted from the secondary school to the primary school. The most recent revision was made in 2012 and the age to start learning a foreign language was dropped lower. In the current practice in Turkey, English as a foreign language starts at Grade 2 (6 and 7 year olds) in the new educational reform, called as 4+4+4 model. The name 4+4+4 model refers to the duration of each tier; four years for primary, secondary and high schools. Private schools, on the other hand, introduce foreign language instruction from earlier grades, even from the kindergarten in most cases.

However, lowering the starting age does not bring along success necessarily. The new trend has required a number of renovations to be done in pedagogy and training. After the Ministry of National Education (MONE) introduced English as a foreign language at the primary schools, it became apparent that teachers were not equipped with necessary skills, knowledge, and experience to teach younger learners. In fact, due to alternative recruitment policies to meet the demand over the years, there are teachers who have not been trained to teach English. Regardless of their major, graduates of an English medium university can also become language teachers provided that they have a pedagogical certificate in Turkey. As to those who have graduated from an English Language Teaching (ELT) department, a substantial number of practicing teachers have not specifically been trained to teach at that age level. The MONE established the In-Service English Language Teacher Training and Development Unit (INSET) and organized seminars and in-service teacher training workshops around the country for the practising teachers to be able to adapt the changing

conditions and requirements (Gürsoy, Korkmaz & Damar, 2013). One other important aspect is the training of prospective teachers of young learners. Similarly, Turkey renewed the curriculum of FL departments of faculties of education in 1997. The "Pre-Service Teacher Training Project" was conducted with the collaboration of the Ministry of National Education (MONE) and The Turkish Higher Education Council (HEC) with the aim of re-structuring education faculties to help them train highly qualified, specialized teachers who can keep up with the rapidly changing world. To this end, a new course "Teaching English to Young Learners" (TEYL) was introduced to help pre-service teachers (hereafter PSTs) develop skills and knowledge related to teaching children (Gürsoy et al., 2013).

Teacher training programs primarily aim to train teachers equipped with specialized professional knowledge. The training and education process of teachers comprises theoretical knowledge and microteachings and practice teaching. Mere knowledge of a teaching skill does not automatically guarantee its mastery (Lewin et al.,1998; Seferoğlu, 2006). Teaching skills can only be acquired when teachers are actively engaged in real teaching act (Shulman, 1987). Therefore, pre-service teacher education programs use microteachings to integrate theory and practice.

Microteaching has been used as a training technique and a professional development tool in pre-service teacher education since its first introduction by Dwight Allen in 1960. Allen and Eve (1968) explained microteaching as "a system of controlled practice that makes it possible to concentrate on specific teaching behaviour and to practice teaching under controlled conditions". Nowadays, microteaching is used in teacher training programs due to its contribution to development to PSTs. Microteaching has been found effective by helping prospective teachers transfer their knowledge and skills into action, having reflective teaching practices and experiencing teaching profession (Amobi, 2005; Benton-Kupper, 2001; Çakır, 2000; Görgen, 2003).

Moreover, microteaching is in line with Wallace's (1991) two dimensions of knowledge for second language teacher education: received knowledge and experiential knowledge. The former is about the scientific theories related to research findings about second language teaching while the latter is about practices of the profession based on knowing in action and reflection. However, it has also been acknowledged that microteaching applications in pre-service teacher education have certain negative aspects and limitations in itself. These negative aspects or limitations can be summarised as: the artificiality of classroom environment, the problems in material development such as the time allotted, the difficulty and the high cost of material development (Cripwell & Geddes, 1982; He & Yan, 2011; Stanley, 1998 and Ogeyik, 2009). Pertaining to the non-natural atmosphere of the classroom, Ogeyik (2009) concluded that PSTs mostly do not feel themselves as they are in real classroom settings since they practice teaching to their own classmates.

Tütüniş (2014) reports that generally pre-service teacher training programmes lack observation of target learners and actual practices. In Turkey, only in fourth grade of their education, PSTs have a chance to meet the target learners. Especially in TEYL context, it is stated that pre-service teacher education programmes need more actual practices (Bekleyen, 2014, Büyükyavuz, 2014 and Tütüniş, 2014). Since there are differences between teaching children and teaching adults (Gürsoy, 2010) due to several peculiar characteristics of young learners, the need for more practice in TEYL context is salient. It is significant that practicing teachers and prospective teachers of young learners of English should comprehend the reasons for an early start to learn foreign languages, the characteristics of young learners, their cognitive, social, emotional, physical, psychological and motor development, how they differ from older learners and adult learners and the implications of these differences in the classroom instruction. The TEYL course serves an important purpose by combining theory

and practice through microteaching. It is one of the teacher training courses in the curriculum, in which the student teachers are asked to plan and teach certain parts of a lesson.

PSTs during microteaching with their peers somehow experience what it is like to teach. However, they may not be able to understand and experience what it is like to teach young learners since teaching to young learners require different skills. A language teacher of young learners should be competent in how children think and learn, activating children's interests, managing age-appropriate classroom activities, motivating tasks and interesting materials (Butler, Sameya & Fukuhara, 2014; Copland & Garton, 2014; Coyle & Gomez Gracia, 2014). Moreover, Büyükyavuz (2014) suggests that the micro-teachings in TEYL course may be practiced in actual YL classrooms in the day-care centres located on almost each campus at universities. Bekleyen (2014) has studied the experiences of PSTs with very young learners to identify the differences before and after short-term teaching experience with very young learners. The results of the study revealed that applying the syllabus in real context and practicing self-reflection has led progress in understanding how young learners think and learn as prospective teachers.

Furthermore, recent studies on in-service language teachers at state schools in Turkey reveal that there is a gap between the policy, teachers' beliefs and classroom implementations in TEYL contexts at state schools. (Gürsoy et al., 2013; Haznedar, 2012; Kırkgöz, 2009). Garton, Copland and Burns's (2011) research on investigating global practices in TEYL concludes that there is still a lack of fully qualified teachers, particularly to teach English in primary schools in Europe. To this end, they suggest that the pre-service and in-service training of teachers for TEYL should be considerably strengthened and more opportunities for sharing ideas and experiences in this sense are needed. Therefore, the importance of TEYL in PST education has special significance as there is a need for qualified teachers in primary schools.

Along with the literature presented so far, the researchers, who are at the same time teacher trainers of TEYL course, have felt the need to enrich the microteaching experience of the PSTs taking TEYL course with field experience. In TEYL courses, during feedback stages of the microteaching sessions, the PSTs expressed their concerns and dissatisfaction about the inabilities to develop materials, to conduct developmentally appropriate instruction to children and receive natural reactions in classrooms. Similarly, the teacher trainers have also observed and acknowledged these problematic issues of microteachings. Therefore, the artificiality of classroom environment, the lack of knowledge about how to really appeal to young learners instead of classmates (adults) and the need for qualified teachers in TEYL have been the basic driving forces of this study. Moreover, as Copland and Garton (2014) reports, there is still lack of research in training teachers in the field of English for young learners. In this sense, the researchers conducted an action research to provide PSTs with a more actual and reflective sense of teaching to young learners of English. To this end, the PSTs were required to re-conduct their storytelling microteaching to have actual teaching experience with children. As a result of the action research, it is hoped that the results of the study would shed some light on PST education to improve TEYL such as developing and re-examining PST training programmes in this respect.

The research questions guided the study are in the following:

1. What are the reflections of the PST ELT students regarding the field experience?
2. What are the differences between microteaching with peers and field experience with children in the view of the PSTs?
3. Are there any differences between the perceptions of the PSTs towards TEYL after the field experience?

2. Methodology

2.1. Participants

The participants of the study were third year PST ELT students attending the TEYL II course at spring term at a large state university in Turkey. TEYL I at the first term and TEYL II at the second term are two obligatory four-hour courses per week as it is stated in the National Curriculum for English Language Teaching Program in Turkey. TEYL I includes the following topics: the characteristics and needs of young learners, the learning theories and multiple intelligences, the materials specific for young language learners, classroom management, classroom activities. They also do microteaching activities particularly song, craft and game activities. TEYL II is the follow-up course of TEYL I and includes storytelling practices and skill-based activities for TEYL. The study was conducted at the second term at TEYL II so the students have certain level of knowledge and microteaching experience in TEYL. Thus, convenience sampling was used. There were 71 PSTs participating in the study. Their ages ranged from 20 to 28. Of the 71 trainees, 14 % were males and 86 % were females. This gender ratio is normal in language teaching departments in Turkey. Only 14 % of the PSTs had previous teaching experience with young learners such as part-time work in language courses, tutoring or as a requirement of social services course. The rest of the PST (86 %) had no actual teaching experience with young learners.

2.2. Design

This classroom-based study is an action research that aims at bringing about change in a practice with the hope of finding a new and more effective procedure. The researchers are the teacher trainers, as the research is centred on real problem to see immediate benefits and tangible improvements in practice (Nunan & Bailey, 2009).

As a result of dissatisfaction of the PSTs about failing to figure out the reactions and abilities of children, this study followed the steps below: As a course requirement, the PSTs were to re-conduct the same storytelling task that they had done in the class as a microteaching demonstration. The task was obligatory and to be graded. As to the number of children, the trainees studied with, the number varied from a single child to a group as many as twenty-five. The difference in numbers was because of the availability of target learners. The PSTs teachers found the participant children with their own efforts. Some were lucky to have classes with groups, some persuaded the parents they knew, and some studied with cousins. The age of the children ranged between five and twelve. It was important that the PSTs should find children at the age that they had prepared the task for. Last but not least, consent from parents was sought after for each and every child. The PSTs reported that all children were beginners or starters in terms of their level of English. The PSTs recorded the storytelling so as to be able to reflect of the experience. The recordings were submitted to the instructors along with the reflection reports.

2.3. Data Collection

To research the objectives of the study, the data were collected through reflection reports. After the field experience, the participants were required to write a reflection report and submit it by e-mail. The report included 20 guiding open-ended questions about their reflection on the experience (see Appendix 1). The reflection questions were designed by the researchers to elicit the reflections of the participants regarding the experience with young learners. The questions were explained to the participants in detail. Also, the participants were informed that there were no right or wrong answers to the questions so that they could state their sincere thoughts about the experience. All of the participants signed written informed consent forms for the data collection instruments to be used in this research.

2.4. Data Analysis

Qualitative design of data analysis was used to reach the objectives of the study. Particularly, content analysis was conducted on the data collected from the reflection reports. Content analysis includes the processes such as coding for themes, searching patterns and making interpretations to draw conclusion on the recurrent themes (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). For the reliability of the qualitative analysis, the themes and sub-themes were defined by two researchers and with feedbacks, they were finalized. The analysis has researcher triangulation in this sense. The intercoder reliability with two researchers was calculated as 95 %, which was interpreted as reliable (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Another critical researcher who has PhD in the field and an expert in qualitative analysis was also asked to evaluate the themes suggested by the researchers.

3. Results and Discussion

Below are the findings yielded through the content analysis of the reflection reports. The data is presented under recurring themes. The data is also enriched with quotes from the PSTs and discussed in line with the research questions.

Table 1. *Concerns prior to the storytelling with children*.

Themes and Subthemes	***n***	***f (%)***
Concerns about children	**84**	**73**
Failing to comprehend	39	34
Little English	18	16
Possibility of boredom	16	14
Lack of participation	11	9
Concerns about self	**31**	**27**
Failure in classroom management	17	15
Afraid of having to teach children	6	5
Unfamiliar me as a teacher	5	4
Inappropriate level of the presentation	3	3
SUM	**115**	**100**

Table 1 illustrates that 73 % of all concerns prior to the teaching experience were about the children. The underlying reason for most of the concerns was related to not knowing children, their abilities, their motives and reactions. Though a small number, six PSTs (5 %) even described the situation as frightful.

Regarding the reactions of the children to the story, all the PSTs stated that the children enjoyed the storytelling activity with an exception of three cases in which the PSTs were not sure whether the children liked the experience. The majority of the PSTs (*n:* 47, *f:* 66 %) pointed out that the stories were appropriate for the children because they were able to follow the stories. Twenty-one PSTs (30%) reported the stories to be difficult and beyond their level whereas only three (4 %) said that the stories were below their level. The PSTs (*f:* 80 %) found that the activities were mostly appropriate for the level and age of the children while 20 % of them commented that their activities were either too easy or difficult for the children. The materials used are reckoned as effective and helpful for comprehension (*n:* 52, *f:* 63 %) and motivating (*n:* 31, *f:* 37 %).

Table 2. Appropriateness of instructions during the storytelling.

Themes	***n***	***f (%)***

Simple and easy to understand instructions	39	35
Support with body language	31	27
Support with demonstration	13	12
Support with L1	13	12
Support with slow pace	2	2
Support with repetition	2	2
Support with visuals	2	2
Still difficulty in understanding instructions	9	**8**
SUM	**111**	**100**

Most PSTs stated that they achieved giving clear, simple easy to understand instructions. The PSTs also reported that they supported understanding of the children using body language, demonstration, L1, slow pace, repetitions and visuals along with their instructions and thus had no difficulty. However, a small number of the PSTs mentioned failure to provide appropriate instructions.

When asked how well the children followed them 65 % of the PSTs said the children easily followed the story. In addition, 32 PSTs stated that they used body language and demonstration to overcome the problem. Fifteen PSTs said they had used puppets, visuals to help children understand the story. Lastly, seven PSTs mentioned that the children had difficulty on the first round but better comprehended on the second or third telling.

Nineteen PSTs (27 %) reported that they had unanticipated problems during the storytelling such as power cut, children losing concentration while playing with puppets or materials or children not displaying any reaction. Below is a sample quote from a PST:

> *The child who is 6 year-old stood up and walked around the room. It is too difficult an experience for me. I didn't know what I should do, so I preferred ignoring his behaviour. I continued to tell my story. Finally, he came back to his seat. He went on listening to me. (PST 3)*

When assessing their performance on controlling and directing the class, the majority of PSTs (*n:* 59, *f:* 83 %) regarded their performance as good and eight PSTs (11%) thought they performed fair enough. Only four PSTs (6 %) found their classroom management as problematic.

Table 3. *Use of L1*.

Themes		***N***	***f (%)***	**Subthemes (n)**
Use of L1 by the PSTs	Yes	28	39.5	Comprehension problems (15) Instruction giving (12) Classroom management problems (4)
	No	43	60.5	No need because of body language, visuals, puppets (26)
Use of L1 by children	Yes	54	76	Answering questions (20) Always (11) Translating (6) When summarizing story (5) Talking to each other (3)
	No	17	24	No need (5) Did not speak at all (4)

When asked using L1 during the storytelling, most PSTs (60.5 %) managed to conduct the storytelling in the target language only with the help of body language, visuals and puppets. Some of them also acknowledged that L1 can be used when they had difficulty in instruction, classroom management and comprehension. On the other hand, children used their mother

tongue in most cases (76 %) such as summarizing the story, asking and answering questions and interacting. The quotes below illustrate some instances of L1 use:

> *They used the native language generally. While I was introducing the characters, they said their names in Turkish because of not knowing the English version. When they had a question or problem with any activity, they used their native language. Actually, they used the target language only when they said 'teacher, thank you very much, good morning teacher and fine, thanks and you.' Other than these, they usually used their native language. (PST 22)*

> *Mostly I tried not to use Turkish. When they really really couldn't understand what I said, I helped them. (PST 17)*

> *I used it but I used it in target language. For example they said ''Tırtıl.'' And I said ''Yes it is tırtıl in Turkish but in English it is a caterpillar. (PST 13)*

> *I didn't use any native language. I finished my task. When I was about to leave the classroom, I used my native language. They all were surprised when they saw me while I was speaking Turkish. Speaking English in the classrooms is a little bit difficult in Turkey, but it isn't impossible. The teachers should insist on using their target language. The learners will be motivated if the teachers keep on using it. (PST 7)*

In terms of participation, most of the PSTs (*n:* 60, *f:* 84.5 %) regarded their children's participation as satisfactory during storytelling while 11 PSTs (*f:* 15.5%) were not content with their participation. However, the children's participation differed, in that, some children were quiet but they listened very attentively while others participated enthusiastically or could only do so on the second telling. The PSTs also mentioned the presence of the camera as the distractor for children. The following quote is given as a sample instance for the children's participation:

> *When I introduced the characters of the story by showing pictures and by asking questions about them, they could give one word answers, at lexical level. Also, when I told the story by acting out they were saying the native equivalent of what was said. Sometimes they could repeat the words said. (PST 26)*

Pertaining the general behaviour and the attitude of the children, the reflections showed that the children mostly (*n:* 56, *f:* 79 %) held a positive attitude and were motivated while 15 PSTs (21 %) mentioned shy, tense and bored children.

When asked if they achieved the objectives of the lesson, a significant number of PSTs (*n:* 57 *f:* 80%) believed that they fulfilled their goals and six PSTs (9 %) thought they partially achieved the objectives. However, only eight PSTs (11 %) thought they had failed to achieve the planned learning outcomes.

The PSTs listed the strengths of their storytelling performance as materials and activities they developed (*n:* 31, *f:* 37 %), body language and gestures (*n:* 19, *f:* 24 %), voice and intonation (*n:* 11, *f:* 13 %), establishing rapport (*n:* 9, *f:* 11 %), the story itself (*n:* 7, *f:* 8 %) and using appropriate language (*n:* 7, *f:* 8 %).

As to their weaknesses, the PSTs believed that they should improve giving effective instructions (*n:* 17, *f:* 29 %), their use of body language and voice (*n:* 6, *f:* 10 %), their pronunciation and fluency (*n:* 10, *f:* 17 %) and classroom management (*n:* 7, *f:* 12 %). They also stated that they should have used more speaking activities and dramatization (*n:* 11, *f:* 18

%). They also commented that they needed much more experience with children (*n:* 8, *f:* 14 %).

One of the most significant findings of the study was to highlight the differences between the microteachings with peers and the actual teaching experience with children. All of the PSTs defined both procedures as "completely different" and Table 4 illustrates the main points.

Table 4. *Microteaching with peer PSTs versus real teaching with children*.

Microteaching with peer PSTs	***n***	***f* (%)**	**Real teaching with children**	***n***	***f* (%)**
Easier as peers always understand	49	71.1	More difficult because they may really fail to understand	29	34.1
Artificial experience	17	24.6	Difficult to simplify language	4	4.7
More stressful	3	4.3	Difficult to make them participate	2	2.3
			Difficult to manage them	7	8.2
			Difficult in instruction giving	2	2.3
			Difficult in time management	2	2.3
			Natural	17	20
			More fun	12	14.1
			More eager and enthusiastic children	4	4.7
			More relaxed with children	6	7
SUM	**69**	**100**		**85**	**100**

A quick glimpse at Table 4 shows that the majority of the PSTs found microteaching with peers easier whereas the actual teaching experience with children involved a number of difficulties. But this "ease" with peers is not a desirable one; on the contrary it shows the shortcoming of microteaching experience. The PSTs felt at ease because they were sure that their peers would understand and answer regardless of the level or the appropriateness of their teaching. They also reported microteachings as artificial while actual teaching experience as natural and fun. Thus, it can be concluded that microteaching experience with peers falls short of preparing PSTs for being a teacher of young learners. These findings are in line with Ogeyik (2009) and He & Yan (2011) in that the PSTs do not feel the real teaching profession while they are doing with microteachings with peers.

Some sample quotations:

> *In microteaching demo, all people in the classroom know what they will do, and the atmosphere is predictable and artificial and we are in a utopia. However, in the story telling with children, the atmosphere is natural and some of things happening are unpredictable and children behave themselves and sometimes they don't care you. (PST 26)*

> *When I saw their sincere reaction to the story, I got really happy. I just thought that I achieved something good but in the class it was not like that because in the class, sometimes we do something only if we are forced to do that. (PST 4)*

> *Our peers understand us easily and our task is easier in microteachings. (PST 43)*

The main difference is the ability of understand each other. In microteaching demo with my peers, I'm sure that my friends will understand me and give answers without hesitation. Storytelling with a child is more challenging of course. Children couldn't totally understand me and their reactions are also different. I had to repeat my instructions again and again. (PST 27)

This was the first time I had an experience with "real" children in real life. This is the biggest difference. When we are at class, our friends don't act like children. We know they understand everything we say and we don't know what children can understand or not. Our peers' reactions and responds aren't real also. (PST 65)

In microteaching demo with my peers I am more relaxed because they are my friends; I know them and they know me. But they cannot behave as if they did not know the meaning of a sentence like 'Where is Amy?' So, there is an unexpected success in my microteaching demo with my peers. But when it comes to storytelling with children, I am not relaxed and it is even harder. This was my first teaching experience. (PST 33)

All of the PSTs acknowledged the efficiency and benefits of storytelling in TEYL and reported the following as the main reasons: stories are interesting and motivating (*n:* 47, *f:* 70 %); they improve the whole language (skills and L2 knowledge) (*n:* 11, *f:* 17 %); they are good for retention (*n:* 5, *f:* 7 %); they enrich the classroom (*n:* 4, *f:* 6 %). The characteristics of the storytelling to young learners pointed by the PSTs are all in line with the necessary tasks and activities to be used for young learners stated by previous studies (Copland & Garton, 2014; Coyle & Gomez Garcia, 2014).

About the contributions and the best parts of the experiences, the PSTs mentioned the following as the main benefits: getting to know more about the children (their abilities, cognitive development and their nature) (*n:* 45, *f:* 29 %); linking theory and practice (*n:* 33, *f:* 21 %), reinforcing the desire to be a TEYL teacher (n:29, f: 18 %); realizing the need for more real experiences (*n:*16, *f:* 10 %), increasing self-confidence as a teacher (*n:*12, *f:* 8 %), to be able to teach children (*n:*12, *f:* 8 %) and increasing self-awareness (*n*:10, *f:* 6 %). According to the report of Tütüniş (2014) PST training programs need more actual practices and observations of target learners. Thus, as stated by the PSTs in terms of contributions of the experiences, this kind of field experience helped them understand more about the children, which corresponds with Büyükyavuz (2014).

Real children, real atmosphere does not have anything to do with the one in our school. We saw the reality. (PST 18)

Teaching a language to young learners is not as easy as it seems. It is so tiring. But, this fatigue reminds us of the most beautiful part of being a teacher, I guess. After I finished the story, children came to me and hugged me. It showed me that I would love this job so much. And also it taught me that it was so hard to teach something to someone. (PST 70)

It was a very important experience. I experienced personally what works and what doesn't work in young learner's classroom. I wish I could have that more. As prospective teachers we should get more real experiences. (PST 17)

Before that, in the courses, I thought very young children wouldn't understand stories in English because they didn't know English much. But then I saw they really understood the story. So it works. (PST 64)

I understood one more time that I was created to be a teacher. It was amazing to teach something to the children. I saw in their eyes that they were enjoying the lesson and they wanted to learn something. They loved my lesson and me, and I loved them. They were very pure; I could easily see in their eyes what they felt. I saw my weak and strength sides. I saw what should be improved and what I could achieve. Although we have done many presentations, real life teaching is very different. Therefore, I think it was my first presentation. Thank you very much for giving this chance to us. In a way, we saw how the work goes on in the real class. (PST 22)

The best one is being with children because they are enjoyable and they loved me. (PST 9)

They made me feel like a teacher, which was the best part. (PST 42)

The best part is watching students while they were acting out the story. (PST 11)

About the frustrating parts of the experience, the reflections showed that the PSTs had difficulties due to lack of experience and the unpredictable reactions of children. These involve children's failure to follow (*n:* 18, *f:* 58 %), unanticipated children reactions (*n:* 5, *f:* 16 %), lack of motivation of the children (*n:* 4, *f:* 13 %) and unfamiliarity with children (*n:* 4, *f:* 13 %). Finally, it is clear that the benefits of the experience outnumber the drawbacks.

Along with the findings and discussion above, the study has attained the answers to the research questions. It can be inferred from the findings that the PSTs have gained deeper insights about TEYL through the field experience. They have experienced how it was really like to conduct appropriate activities, to give appropriate instructions and to support their teaching with body language, voice, illustrations and demonstrations. In this way, they have realized how theory linked to practice. Thus, the PSTs mentioned positive attitudes towards having field experience in addition to the microteaching. The results showed that such a field experience have filled the gaps of microteaching. He and Yan (2011) have also found out that microteachings, to some extent, limit PSTs' development in terms of real-life teaching competence, so that microteachings should be supported with other kinds of practices. Particularly, in young learner context, the microteachings alone would not enhance PSTs regarding how children really think, learn and react. In order to prepare the PSTs for the teaching young learners of English, more actual practices should be conducted. Moreover, this study revealed that in TEYL course of the ELT programs, microteaching applications should be supported with field experiences. As it has also been supported by the previous studies (Copland & Burns, 2011; Gürsoy et al. 2012), in spite of the developments and innovative implementations in language teaching, there is still lack of fully qualified teachers for young learners of English. Thus, English teacher training programs might have graduates who are capable of the skills that a young learner English teacher should have.

4. Conclusion

Microteaching, as an important practice to improve the quality of teacher education by providing teacher trainees with the opportunity to teach in controlled environment, is widely used in teacher education programs worldwide (Amobi, 2005 and Benton- Kruper, 2001). Microteachings help teacher trainees develop desired teaching skills (Benton-Kupper, 2001; Fernandez & Robinson, 2006; Higgins & Nicholl, 2003); positive attitudes and self-confidence and reduce first-time teaching anxiety (Şen, 2009). Despite its obvious benefits, microteaching is not free of drawbacks. It inherently involves artificial interaction. The

effectiveness and success of microteaching heavily depends on the quality of informal discussions with peers and the supervisor (Brandl, 2000; Jerich 1989). Any defect in the process would harm the benefits to be obtained.

The worldwide trend of early introduction of English to primary schools has revealed a weakness in teacher education programs to come to the fore, that is, teachers are not fully and appropriately trained to teach primary level English (Copland & Garton, 2014; Enever, 2014). Despite a number of books suggesting good practice when studying with children, research-based publications into effective practices for teaching YLs continue to be quite rare (Copland & Garton, 2014). More empirical evidence is needed on the micro (in-class) level to be able to make sound decisions on the macro (policy) level. Hence, the present study aimed to provide PSTs with deeper insight into TEYL via a short practice opportunity.

The main concerns of the PSTs resulted from not knowing what children are capable of practically. As a result, the PSTs were dissatisfied about the storytelling microteaching in terms of level of appropriateness. They also expressed doubts about the feedback that they provided and about their own performance acting like children. An actual teaching experience with children was thought to help the PSTs to get a deeper insight into the procedure and find answers to the above questions. The PSTs reflected on the experience. This kind of experience helped them to reflect on themselves and their teaching. By mirroring their experience with children, the PSTs have enriched their knowledge about the children and tested their theories that they have learnt so far in real atmosphere. The positive outcomes of the field experience have put forward the necessity of more real experiences in TEYL courses of the ELT programs. Thus, it is suggested that similar experiences should be integrated into TEYL courses. Yet, this study is conducted with 71 PSTs and this limitation might be eliminated if it is duplicated in other ELT programs. For more effective implementation of the procedure, a practicum-like process should be used rather than leaving the PSTs to find groups of children for the experience. It is also suggested that the faculties should run a small scale practicum officially and in cooperation with schools.

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APPENDIX 1:

Dear prospective teacher,

Below are some questions to guide your reflection on your storytelling experience with young learners. Your sincere answers will be appreciated.

There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. Do you give consent for your answers to be used for a research on the evaluation of this course? YES NO

Please send your reflection report to the following address: goncayangin@gmail.com; asuman.asik@gazi.edu.tr

Name:
Age:
Sex:
Any previous teaching experience with children (if yes, please specify):

Name of the story:

Materials used:

Number / Age/ level of participating children:

1. What were your concerns before you started storytelling with children?
2. Did the children like the story?
3. How appropriate was your story (in terms of children's level of comprehension)?
4. How appropriate were the activities?
5. How appropriate were your instructions?
6. How appropriate and effective were illustrations and the materials you used?
7. How well did the children follow you? Did you know when children were having trouble understanding you? If yes, how did you understand and what did you do then?
8. Were there any unanticipated situations? Describe what happened and what you did.
9. How was your classroom management (controlling and directing the class)?
10. Did you (have to) use any native language? If yes, when?
11. Did the children use native language?
12. Describe the children's participation.
13. What was the general behavior and attitude of the children?
14. Do you believe you achieved the objectives of your lesson?
15. What were the strengths of your storytelling performance?
16. What areas need improvement?
17. In what ways is *storytelling with children* different from *microteaching demo with your peers*?
18. Based on your experience, do you think storytelling is an effective tool in teaching English to young learners?
19. How did this experience contribute to you as a prospective teacher?
20. What was the best and most frustrating part of this experience?