

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND COMPETENCE PROFILES OF
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATORS IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND COMPETENCE PROFILES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATORS IN TURKEY

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This study aims to investigate the definition, competence, and professional development profiles of English language teacher educators in Turkey. With this general aim, this study looks into three components; definitions, competences, and professional development of teacher educators. It specifically focuses on how the profession of teacher educator is defined, what professional characteristics and personality traits teacher educators need to have, and what roles and responsibilities university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers assume. Another aim of this study is to define the domains of knowledge that constitute the knowledge base and skills of teacher educators. Also, this study aims to uncover the professional development definitions, practices, outcomes, needs, and suggestions of these English language teacher educators at universities and schools. The participants of this study include 41 university-based teacher educators, 43 school-based mentor teachers, and 193 pre-service teachers from 11 cities in Turkey. The data were collected via face-to-face interviews with the teacher

educators, and a survey with the pre-service teachers. The data were analysed using MAXQDA qualitative data analysis software and content analytic approaches. Findings of this study provide detailed definitions of teacher educators' profession, their competences and professional development profiles. At the end of this study, *a professional standards framework for language teacher educators in Turkey* is offered, which currently does not exist in Turkey. Findings of the study also provide implications for creating a professional development community for English language teacher educators and mentor teachers, and for developing the practicum component of language teacher education programs.

Keywords: teacher educator, competences, skills, knowledge base, professional development

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE'DEKİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENİ EĞİTİMCİLERİNİN MESLEKİ GELİŞİM VE YETERLİK PROFİLLERİ

Ataş, Ufuk

Doktora, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü

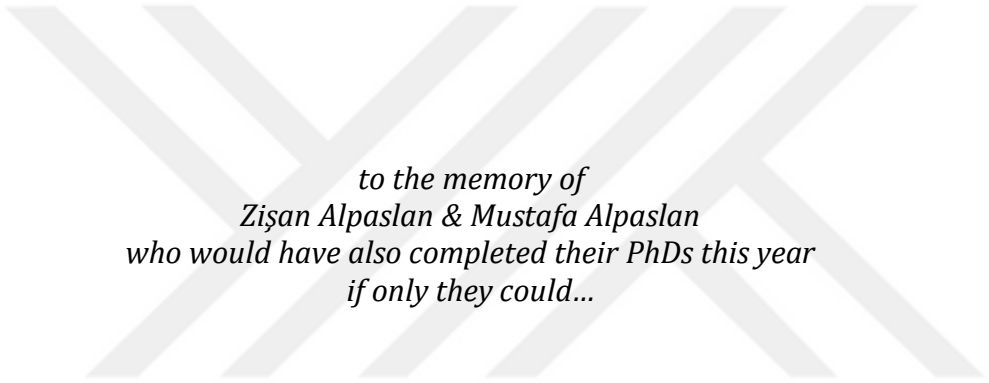
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Bu çalışma Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmen eğiticilerinin tanım, yeterlik, ve mesleki gelişim profillerini incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu genel amaç ile birlikte, bu çalışma şu üç ana öğeyi incelemektedir: öğretmen eğiticilerinin tanımları, yeterlikleri ve mesleki gelişimi. Bu çalışma özellikle öğretmen eğiticisi mesleğinin nasıl tanımlandığına, öğretmen eğiticilerinin hangi mesleki ve kişisel özelliklere sahip olmaları gerektiğine ve üniversite ve okullarda çalışan öğretmen eğiticileri ile danışman öğretmenlerin ne gibi roller ve yükümlülükler edindiklerine odaklanmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın bir diğer amacı da öğretmen eğiticilerinin bilgi tabanını oluşturan bilgi alanlarını ve yeteneklerini belirlemektir. Bu çalışma ayrıca üniversitedeki ve okullardaki İngilizce öğretmen eğiticilerinin mesleki gelişim tanımlarını, uygulamalarını, sonuçlarını, ihtiyaçlarını ve önerilerini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu çalışmanın katılımcıları Türkiye'nin 11 şehrindeki 41 öğretmen eğiticisi, 43 danışman öğretmen ve 193 hizmet öncesi öğretmenden oluşmaktadır. Çalışma verisi öğretmen eğiticileri ile yüz yüze

gerçekleşen sözlü görüşmelerden ve hizmet öncesi öğretmenlerle gerçekleştirilen anketler ile toplanmıştır. Toplanan bu data, MAXQDA nitel veri analizi programı kullanılarak içerik analizi yöntemleri ile incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleğinin detaylı bir şekilde tanımlanmasına, yeterlik ve mesleki gelişim profillerinin belirlenmesine olanak sağlamaktadır. Bu çalışmanın sonunda daha önce Türkiye’de bulunmayan bir *Türkiye’deki yabancı dil öğretmeni eğitimcileri için mesleki standartlar çerçevesi* önerilmiştir. Bu çalışmanın bulguları ayrıca öğretmen eğitimcileri ve danışman öğretmenler için bir mesleki gelişim topluluğunun oluşturulması ve yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimi programlarındaki staj dersinin geliştirilmesi için çeşitli öneriler sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: öğretmen eğitimcisi, yeterlikler, beceriler, bilgi tabanı, mesleki gelişim



*to the memory of
Ziřan Alpaslan & Mustafa Alpaslan
who would have also completed their PhDs this year
if only they could...*

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AISTL	Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership
ATE	Association of Teacher Educators
CHE	Council of Higher Education in Turkey
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
EDS/ES	Educational Sciences
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELTER	English Language Teacher Education Research
ETUCE	European Trade Union Committee for Education
FLE	Foreign Language Education
HSEC	Human Subjects Ethics Committee
IATEFL	International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
InFo-TED	International Forum for Teacher Educator Development
INGED	İngilizce Eğitimi Derneği
INSET	In-service Education and Training
MEB	Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı
METU	Middle East Technical University
MoNE	Ministry of National Education in Turkey
ÖSYM	Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi
PST	Pre-service Teachers
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
VELON	Vereniging Lerarenopleiders Nederland (The Dutch Association for Teacher Educators)
YDE	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
YÖK	Yükseköğretim Kurulu

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the background to the study. It presents the aims of the study, research questions, and discusses the overall significance of this study. Some of the key terms used in this study are also defined in this chapter. Lastly, the chapter concludes with the overview of all the chapters in this study.

1.1. Background to the Study

In teacher education programs where teaching and learning occur, one would expect a natural combination of what to be taught and what to learn. Within this perspective, teacher educators are considered not only *conveyers of knowledge*, but also *life-long learners* who not only teach about teaching, but also learn about teaching at the same time. While it is true that teachers play a key role in the education system, *teachers of teachers* are also considered to be the *linchpins* of that same system. The effectiveness of teacher educators determines, to a large extent, the success and the quality of teacher education programs (Ben-Peretz, Kleeman, Reichenberg, & Shimoni, 2013).

Although there seems to be an ever-growing interest in trying to uncover the nature of teaching and teachers from various perspectives (Taner & Karaman, 2013), little attention has been paid to teaching about teaching, and teacher educators (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Çelik, 2011; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2013; Karagiorgi & Nicolaidou, 2013; Margolin, 2011; Murray, 2008; Murray & Male, 2005; Ping, Schellings & Beijaard, 2018; Smith, 2005; van Velzen, van der Klink, Swennen, & Yaffee, 2010). In their detailed analysis of the history of teacher education research, which includes studies from 1920s up to 2005, Cochran-Smith and Fries (2008) note that different ways of constructing and studying teacher education are shaped by the changing political, professional and policy

contexts of these times. It is possible to see a vast body of research focusing on teacher education as a curriculum problem, a training problem, a learning problem, or a policy problem. Similarly, Avalos' (2011) study on a thematic emphasis of the journal articles published in *Teaching and Teacher Education* over ten years (2000-2010) demonstrates a wide range of areas investigated in teacher education research, such as professional learning, reflection processes, beginning teachers learning, cognitions, beliefs and practices, student learning and teacher satisfaction etc.

Generally, those who work in teacher education have little or no formal education for their role as teacher educators (Korthagen, 2000). Though sometimes teacher educators are conceptualized as individuals who move from school teaching to teaching in higher education, moving from first order practice to second order practice as defined by Murray and Male (2005), this is not always the case in most countries. In addition to these vast amount of studies about teachers' professional, cognitive and attitudinal characteristics, there are standardized lists of general or field specific teacher competences both in Turkey and all over the world. However, such competence frameworks are less prepared for teacher educators.

As Loughran (2014) states, it can be argued that; "an important difference between the notion of professional development in relation to teachers and teacher educators is enmeshed in the sense of professional autonomy and responsibility attached to the respective roles and their accompanying expectations" (p. 271). Many professional development activities designed for teachers involve experienced teacher educators designing and offering various workshops and courses in in-service teacher education. Similarly, in pre-service teacher education, teacher educators provide student teachers with opportunities for reflection and continuous development (Smith, 2003b). However, how teacher educators themselves develop professionally does not receive as much attention.

Lanier and Little (1986) believe that researchers tend to ignore teacher educators systematically and offer two reasons for this: though teacher educators are defined as people who educate prospective or practicing teachers, who they really are and what their practices are not defined clearly, and the definitions that exist change all the time. From a similar perspective, Swennen, Volman, and van Essen (2008) mention various reasons why research on the development and professional identity of teacher educators are scarce; some of them including the limited number of teacher educators compared to the large number of teachers, or the relatively young age of the profession of teacher education compared to the much older profession of teachers. Either way, there seems to be limited research on the professional profiles, development and identity of teacher educators in general.

In some cases, the distinction between teachers and teacher educators may not be clearly defined which might lead to the misconception that these two roles are interchangeable (Swennen et al., 2008; Murray & Male, 2005). However, teacher educators have different roles as mentors and guides responsible for the education necessary for the development of professional efficacy of teachers and teacher candidates (Korkmaz, 2013). Ducharme and Ducharme's (1995) paper on the development of the teacher education professoriate, stressing the difference between teachers and teacher educators in a way, justifies the reasons why teacher educators need serious inquiring. As known, teacher education is influenced by its substantial ties to primary and secondary schools to a great extent, especially in using school sites for field experiences. These two sites, higher education institutions and schools, are expected to influence the roles of teacher educators. When these points are considered, there is clearly a need for more studies in the literature of teacher education, focusing particularly on teacher educators. As Taner and Karaman (2013) argue, teacher educators play a major role in the identity formation of teachers. Yet, there seems to be a very limited number of studies focusing on teacher educators. Consequently, this calls for a demand to develop conceptions of

professional development for teacher educators themselves, different from those for teachers.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

This study aims to investigate the competence and professional development profiles of English Language teacher educators in Turkey. More specifically, the study focuses on the definitions, practices, needs, problems and suggestions with regard to professional development for teacher educators working at English language teacher education departments at universities, as well as mentor teachers working at the schools of Ministry of National Education (MoNE hereinafter). Also, another aim of the study is to find out the ideal teacher educators as defined by pre-service teachers. By uncovering all these opinions, definitions, practices, and suggestions, a professional development profile for English language teacher educators is aimed to be developed.

1.3. Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the defining features of English language teacher educators' profession in Turkey?
 - 1.1. How do university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers define their profession?
 - 1.2. How do university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers define the general characteristics they should have?
 - 1.3. What roles do university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers have?
 - 1.4. How do pre-service teachers define their ideal teacher educators?
2. What are the essential competences of English language teacher educators in Turkey?
 - 2.1. What constitutes the knowledge base of university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers?
 - 2.2. What are the skills that university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers should have?

- 2.3. What do pre-service teachers think about the competences and skills teacher educators should have?
- 3. What are the characterising dimensions of professional development for teacher educators?
 - 3.1. How do university-based teacher educators and school-based mentors define professional development for teacher educators?
 - 3.2. What professional development practices are they involved in as teacher educators and what are the implications of these professional development practices?
 - 3.3. What are the challenges, needs, and suggestions for professional development?
 - 3.4. What do pre-service teachers think about professional development for teacher educators?

1.4. Significance of the Study

Teacher educators are “the key players in the endeavour to improve the quality of teacher education” (European Commission, 2010, p. 3) as they are role models for teachers or teacher candidates. They also contribute to both maintaining and improving the quality of the education system as a whole whether they are guiding pre-service or in-service teachers. Therefore, studying teacher educators would not only contribute directly to their professional development, but also to an increase in the quality of teachers and teacher education programs in general. This study is significant in the following ways.

First and foremost, this study investigates the definitions of teacher educator’s profession: their professional characteristics, personality traits, roles and responsibilities, and how they became teacher educators in the first place. Even though there are guidelines and law articles specifying the duties of the teaching staff members and roles of university supervisors and mentor teachers, a detailed profile for teacher educators and mentor teachers is not available in Turkey. This study contributes to the literature on teacher

education in Turkey by describing how teacher educators define their profession, how they define the general professional characteristics that they need to have, what personality traits they believe a teacher educator needs to have, as well as defining their roles and responsibilities. In addition to that, this study also looks into the pathways that teacher educators and mentor teachers have taken for their profession. For these reasons, this study fills the gap in the Turkish context related to the definition profiles of teacher educators and mentor teachers.

Another significance of this study is that it investigates the competence profiles of teacher educators and mentor teachers. As such, it aims to develop a knowledge base for language teacher educators by identifying the specific knowledge required for being a language teacher educator, as different from those of teachers. Additionally, this study uncovers the participants' opinions regarding the skills a teacher educator needs to have. Although there are general and domain specific knowledge base and skills identified for teachers, such conceptualisation is not available for teacher educators in Turkey. Therefore, this study also fills the gap in the Turkish context with regard to a conceptualisation of the domain specific knowledge for language teacher educators.

This study is also significant in providing a base for teacher educator professional development by identifying the practices, problems, needs, and suggestions by teacher educators. With the development of a better understanding of the professional development practices of teacher educators in different institutional settings (universities and schools), professional development opportunities could be more closely aligned with the needs of the groups of teacher educators.

Also, as discussed in the later sections, this study includes university-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers and pre-service teachers in aiming to develop a standards framework for language teacher educators in Turkey. Such a comprehensive standards framework currently does not exist

in Turkey, even though there are different examples of these frameworks available in different contexts such as the USA, the Netherlands, Australia etc. The framework that is offered at the end of this study provides the first step into developing such a framework in the Turkish context.

Last but not least, this study is significant in portraying the problems and challenges faced in the teaching practicum component of the language teacher education program, as well as the suggestions provided. These problems and suggestions are told by the university-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers, and pre-services teachers, namely, the stakeholders of the practicum. Therefore, their voices provide useful implications for redesigning, developing, or making the most out of the available process related to pre-service teacher development.

1.5. Definition of Key Terms

University-based teacher educators are those academics teaching at the departments of English Language Teaching at Faculties of Education. They are also involved in pre-service teacher education by giving the School Experience and/or Practice Teaching courses; thus, supervising teacher candidates in their practicum experiences.

School-based mentor teachers are English language teachers at primary and secondary levels, teaching at the schools of Ministry of National Education. They are guiding teacher candidates in their practicum experiences.

Pre-service teachers are fourth (and senior) year students studying to become English language teachers at the departments of English language teacher education.

Practicum refers to the period in the English language teacher education program when pre-service teachers go to practice schools to have a chance to see the practical applications of what they have been learning at the universities. It is the final year in the curriculum and consists of two courses:

School Experience, where pre-service teachers usually observe mentor teachers; and Practice Teaching, where they get involved more in the actual practice of teaching.

Practicum Schools are primary, secondary, or high schools where pre-service teachers go as part of their practicum experience to observe how English language is taught in real contexts to real learners, and to practice teaching.

1.6. Overview of Chapters

The first chapter, *Introduction*, gives the background to the study, presents the purpose of the study, research questions and significance of the study. The second chapter, *Literature Review*, sets the theoretical framework of the study, focusing on the concepts of knowledge base and professional development. It presents the available teacher educators standards in Turkey and other countries, focusing on the related studies in the literature. The third chapter, *Methodology*, describes the research methodology and research design employed in the study. The fourth chapter, *Results*, presents the findings obtained in the study in line with the research questions addressed. The last section, *Discussion and Conclusion*, discusses the importance of the results obtained with relevant references to the literature.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter sets the theoretical framework for the current study. Firstly, teacher educators are defined with respect to their roles and characteristics in the literature and how they are viewed in this study. And then, it presents an outline for the knowledge base of teacher educators, specifically, as different from that of teachers, providing some of the existing frameworks for teacher educator professional development. The next section aims to define professional development in general and specific to teacher educators, focusing on a theory of human development called *ecological systems theory* by Bronfendrenner (1979) and the *situated learning theory* by Lave and Wenger (1991). The last section provides an overview of standards for teacher educators in Turkey and other countries, as well as the studies in the literature that focus specifically on teacher educator professional development.

2.1. Defining Teacher Educators

It is widely accepted that teacher educators comprise a heterogeneous group. They come from different backgrounds and work in different settings. Murray et al. (2009) define a teacher educator as a “teacher of teacher, engaged in the induction and professional learning of future teachers through pre-service courses and/or future development of serving teachers through in-service courses” (p. 29). In a general sense, they are defined as “all those who teach or coach (student) teachers with the aim of supporting their professional development” (Lunenberg et al., 2014, p.5). Emphasizing the difficulty in making a clear-cut definition of a teacher educator, Bates, Swennen, & Jones (2011) suggest that “the search for an all-encompassing definition exposes the

complexity of the role and dilemmas facing teacher educators when they seek to identify their priorities in furthering their professional development” (p. 8).

It is important to note that the definitions are various because they tend to focus on the professional role and professional identities associated with teacher educators, either by themselves as reflecting their personal images about themselves or by the positions or expectations imposed on them from the environment. As Ben-Peretz, Kleeman, Reichenber, & Shimoni (2010) point, teacher educators are those who have numerous and diverse roles:

They are lecturers in a specific field of expertise; they make the learning process accessible to student-teachers; they encourage reflective processes in the trainees; and they are involved in research and in developing research skills in their students. Beyond all these, they demonstrate the need to cope simultaneously with teaching, and training people to teach; that is, with the need to provide role models. (Ben-Peretz et al., 2010, p.113)

It is also of great significance to note that “the perception and the definition of the term ‘teacher educator’ must extend to those professionals who are practicing in schools and who have formal or informal involvement in the professional development of other colleagues” (Swennen et al., 2010, p. 132). School-based mentor teachers are also considered to be teacher educators who are involved in the professional development of teacher candidates as far as the practical side of teacher education is concerned. As such, Wentz (2001) states that these cooperating teachers at schools are mentors, examples, guides, critical advisors, and good friends to the pre-service teachers in their practicum experiences. Further elaborating on the role of the school-based mentor teachers, Wentz (2001) states that the cooperating teacher is:

The key facilitator in the professional development of any future teacher. Everything that the student teacher learns in college courses fuses during the term of student teaching, and it is the cooperating teacher who assists more than anyone else in fitting all the pieces together to form a complete picture in the novice teacher’s professional development. (p. 84)

Similarly, focusing on the particular areas of guidance for pre-service teachers, Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2004) define a mentor as:

A named teacher in the school... who has responsibility for advising student teachers how to teach their particular subjects; developing student teachers' understandings and appreciation of how students learn and how learning can be planned; advising student teachers on class management and the planning of curricula and assessment. (Cohen et al, 2004, p. 26)

Hence, a teacher educator in this study is defined in two ways: firstly, as *university-based teacher educators* who teach, support or coach teacher candidates in pre-service teacher education at the universities, and secondly; as *school-based mentor teachers* who guide them in schools in their practice teaching experience when they go to practicum in the final year of the pre-service teacher educator program.

2.1.1. Roles of Teacher Educators

Teacher educators contribute to the development of successful teachers. Their overall responsibility, thereupon, is contributing to the development of teacher education (Liston, Borko and Whitcomb, 2008). As the European Commission report on teacher educators suggests, teacher educators “are not only responsible for the initial education of new teachers, but also contribute to the continuing professional development of ... serving teachers” (European Commission, 2013, p. 7).

The multifaceted professional identities are often mentioned in studies involving teacher educators one way or another. In their review of 137 articles from a variety of countries, Lunenberg et al. (2014) found six professional roles of teacher educators; *teachers of teachers, researchers, coaches* (guides, mentors, mentor teachers, facilitators, school-based teacher educators), *curriculum developers, gatekeepers, and brokers*. Similarly, teacher educators are facilitators of the learning process of the student teacher, encouragers of reflective skills, stimulators of professional development for school teachers, team members, and collaborators (Koster, Brekelmans, Korthagen, & Wubbels, 1996).

In a similar perspective, a study by Gideonse (1989) that focuses on how faculty members in schools of education spend their time reports that university-

based teacher educators have a variety of roles and responsibilities such as; preparing for class, scheduled class instruction, evaluation of student performance, doctoral instruction, supervision of teaching practice, travel, research and scholarship, governance including service on committees, public service associated with professional association and schools, student advising, administrative duties, and ceremonial responsibilities.

Each of these roles brings their own functions to the term teacher educator as well. Although teacher educators are mainly responsible for educating prospective teachers in higher education institutions and schools, they are seen as having the main responsibility for ensuring the quality of teacher education and developing teacher education programs (Smith, 2003b). Therefore, it might be argued that “the problem of defining who the teacher educators are also exposes the difficulty in identifying teacher education as a profession itself” (Bates et al., 2011, p.8).

Similarly, Hagger, Burn, and McIntyre (1995) state that the role of school-based mentor teachers is to guide pre-service teachers into the field of teaching and enable them to gain the necessary skills to become successful teachers. More specifically, Hagger et. al. (1995) mention that school-based mentor teachers need to enable the pre-service teachers to acquire classroom competency, carry out any school-based tasks devised by the university in partnership, test their ideas and develop their own thinking about the kind of teacher they want to be. Additionally, school-based mentor teachers need to equip the mentees with the necessary skills to analyse their own teaching, and identify areas of weakness on which they need to concentrate.

Henry and Weber (2010) believe that the first role of school-based mentor teachers is *modelling*. More specifically, they state that school-based mentor teachers should:

Model instructional and classroom practices such as teaching standards-based content, using time and resources productively, using a variety of instructional strategies, providing a safe and healthy learning environment, engaging

students in active learning, and employing traditional as well as authentic methods of assessment. (Henry & Weber, 2010, p. 7)

According to Jonson (2008), mentor teachers play a significant role in the development and training of pre-service teachers, who are just on the verge of becoming teachers. Jonson (2008) expresses that the roles of the mentors include helping the beginning teachers develop and enhance: (a) competence in knowledge, skills, and applications that effective teaching requires, (b) self-confidence and the awareness of responsibility, (c) the ability to take charge of one's personal, professional, and career development, and (d) understanding and assumption of the ethics of the profession.

2.1.2. Characteristics of Teacher Educators

Apart from the discussions on the definitions and roles, there are those discussions that focus on the characteristics of teacher educators as well. According to Swennen, Shagrir, & Cooper (2009), teacher educators have to build three sets of relationships with adult students, pre-service teachers, and colleagues at the university. Firstly, even though university-based teacher educators might be experienced teachers, as Swennen et al. (2009) suggest, the relationship with young adults, who are students at a university studying to become teachers is quite different. So, at the university, teacher educators become the lecturers for these pre-service teachers. They are the ones who provide the initial theoretical education to the pre-service teachers to enable them to gain the necessary knowledge and competence about teaching. Secondly, university-based teacher educators are supervisors of teaching practice at the school settings. There, they have to build another set of relations both with their pre-service teachers and also the people in the school setting. Thirdly, they have to build a new set of relationships with their colleagues at the university (Swennen et al., 2009).

In a similar perspective, they always serve as models, either good or bad, for the pre-service teachers (Swennen et al. 2009). In a study conducted by Tunca, Alkın-Şahin, Oğuz and Bahar Güner (2015), qualities of ideal teacher educators

are categorized under five traits: professional roles and responsibilities, professional value, personal characteristics, professional ethic principles, and social responsibility. More specifically, teacher educators are modest, tolerant, open-minded, consistent, sincere, smiling, well-disciplined, humorous, punctual; and they care about students, love their profession, give necessary information and feedback, and they do not discriminate students against their diverse backgrounds and features (Tunca et al., 2015).

On the other hand, school-based mentor teachers also need to be good role models to pre-service teachers who see them as real teachers in the real school context for the first time by means of the practicum experience. Therefore, they also need to possess certain characteristics. For example, Brooks and Sikes (1997) list some characteristics for school-based mentor teachers. They state that mentor teachers should:

Be enthusiastic about teaching; be willing to reflect on their own practice; be prepared to examine their own practices critically with students; be able to articulate their professional knowledge; be open-minded with the view that their approach to teaching and learning is not the only one or the best one; be willing to develop their own skills in and understanding of teaching; be accessible with a sympathetic approach to students; have a positive and encouraging attitude; be supportive; have the ability to be critical in a constructive manner; be a good communicator and a good listener; be committed to their role as a mentor; be aware of relevant educational theories and be able to relate these to their practice. (Brooks & Sikes, 1997, p. 68)

By the same token, for Jonson (2008), a good mentor teacher is a skilled teacher, has a thorough command of the curriculum being taught, is able to transmit effective teaching strategies, can communicate openly and effectively with the beginning teacher, is a good listener, has strong interpersonal skills, has credibility with peers and administrators, is sensitive to the needs of the beginning teachers, and is not judgemental. They also need to be caring, prudent, ethical, and empathetic towards the pre-service teachers (Johnson, 2007). Given the variety of definitions and roles that university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers have, the metaphor that is used by Perry and Cooper (2001), *"luggage of all shapes and sizes"*, clearly defines teacher educators successfully.

2.2. Defining the Knowledge Base of Teacher Educators

Different attempts have been made to define the knowledge base that teachers need to have to be able to teach effectively. Generally speaking, knowledge base of teaching involves “all profession-related insights that are potentially relevant to teachers’ activities” (Verloop, van Driel, & Meijer, 2001, p.443) which might either derive from theories as well as from practical experiences teachers gain over time by teaching. These insights formed by theory-practice relations shape the knowledge base of teachers, and according to Loughran (2006), they relate to the two important foci in teacher education: learning about teaching and teaching about teaching.

When teacher educators are characterized as a special professional group, it becomes essential to identify their knowledge base, as they are the ones who “are responsible for providing teachers-to-be with strong foundations of professional knowledge and with tools for on-going, independent professional development” (Smith, 2005, p.177). One way to identify the knowledge base of teacher educators is to describe their identities, as what specific expertise they would require in teaching will depend on the work they do. For this, Murray and Male (2005) characterize first order practitioner (working at schools) and second order practitioners (working at higher education institutions). In this case, the knowledge base would be defined according to what professional support they give to the student teachers.

Another framework that offers a knowledge base for teacher educators is Tamir’s (1991) concepts of professional knowledge and personal knowledge. The first one includes “knowledge and skills needed to function successfully in a particular profession” (p.263); whereas the latter suggests that knowledge is found in the body, in other words, in the actions and practices that one does. Therefore, Tamir (1991) suggests that by the help of the knowledge that comes out through the interaction of existing cognitive knowledge and the practical knowledge, one constructs a personal and idiosyncratic pedagogical knowledge, which might form the knowledge base of teacher educators.

Referring to Aristotelian types of knowledge, Loughran (2006) suggests that the concepts of *episteme* (traditional, scientifically driven knowledge) and *phronesis* (practical wisdom derived through understanding specific situations/cases) are relevant for the knowledge base of teaching as well. As Loughran (2006) points out “in teacher education, this distinction can be an important way of better understanding how knowledge of practice might then be developed and shared both by teacher educators and students of teaching” (p. 9).

As becoming a university-based teacher educator potentially implies generating second level of thought about teaching, meaning that it does not only focus on content, but also pedagogy (Russell, 1997), the knowledge base of teacher educators is expected to be different from that of teachers. Smith’s (2005) research provides the answer to this argument by suggesting that professional expertise of teacher educators differ from teachers’ in the following ways. Firstly, teacher educators are required to have a high level of articulation of reflectivity and meta-cognition, that is, to bridge the theory and practice. Secondly, the quality of knowledge that teacher educators have needs to be rich, comprehensive and deep. Also, teacher educators are not only the consumers of knowledge, but they are expected to create new knowledge in and about teaching, through research. They are also expected to teach all age groups of learners, have a comprehensible understanding of the education system extending their own contexts, and they are expected to have professional maturity and autonomy.

Various functions and roles of teacher educators have been discussed before. In addition to the above-mentioned ones, teacher educators are also expected to be creators of new knowledge in and about teaching (Smith, 2005). As Smith (2005) argues further, “teacher educators create new knowledge of two types: practical, in form of new curricula for teacher education and for schools; and, theoretical knowledge generated from research” (Smith, 2005, p. 178).

Two frameworks offered by Shulman and Shulman (2004) and Loughran (2014) provide useful implications for university-based teacher educators. Shulman and Shulman (2004) present the concept of an “accomplished teacher” who “is a member of a professional community; who is ready, willing, and able to teach and learn from his or her teaching experiences” (p. 259). Thus, they offer the following elements for their framework: readiness (possessing vision), willingness (having motivation), being able (knowing and being able to do), reflectivity (learning from experience), and communality (acting as a member of a professional community). Shulman and Shulman (2004) state that there is a continuous interaction between the individual professional and the professional community; thus, what this implies for teacher educators is that they develop through this reflectivity that occurs among themselves and the community, and they have the potential to extend their knowledge base and contribute to their own professional development. The framework is provided in Figure 1 below.

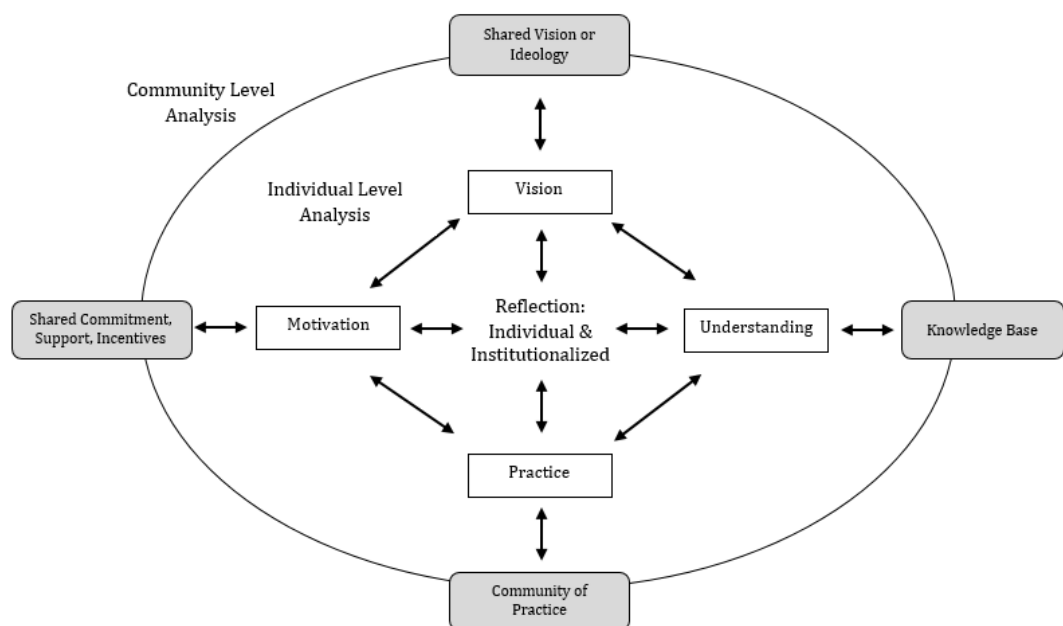


Figure 1. Learning communities at the individual and institutional level (Shulman & Shulman, 2004, p. 266).

Their view of teaching and teacher learning is seen in terms of a set of “nested polygons” (p.267) where the layers of vision, motivation, understanding, and

practice are interconnected with wider communal aspects of shared vision/ideology, shared commitment, knowledge base, and the community of practice:

Learners at any level need to develop a vision of the possible understandings and learning they can accomplish, the motivation to initiate and persist in that learning, the understanding to pursue such learning (as both impetus and outcome), and the skill at negotiating the complex participant structures of any serious and organized approach to instruction that are all necessary for accomplished learning. (Shulman & Shulman, 2004, p.26)

Considering teacher educators as members of communities of learners, this framework has potential implications for defining the knowledge base and sustaining the professional development of teacher educators.

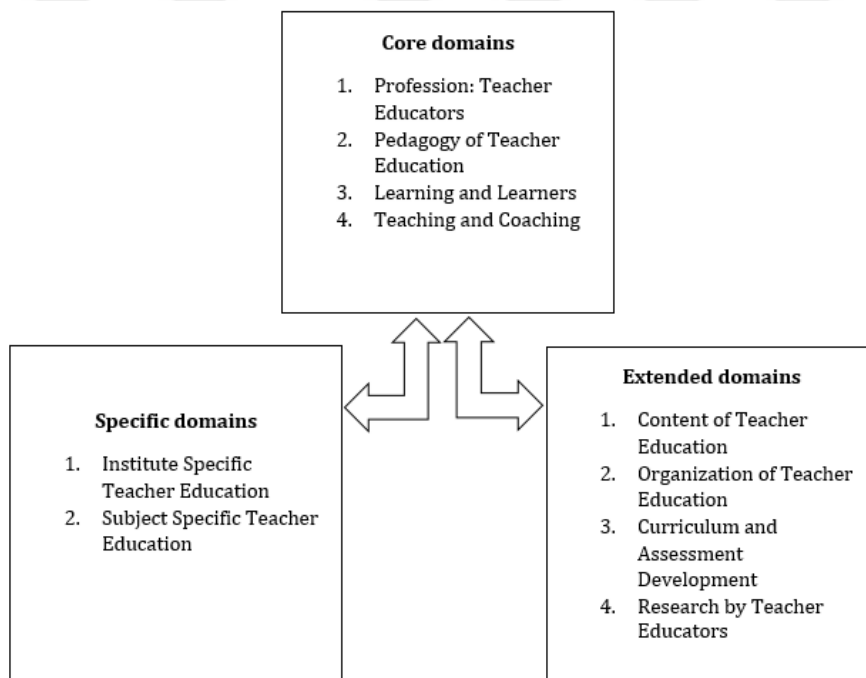


Figure 2. The model consisting of ten knowledge domains by VELON (The Dutch Association of Teacher Educators).

One successful application of the framework by Shulman and Shulman (2004) for teacher educators is seen in the various works by the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON) that define the knowledge base of teacher educators as “a structured and easily accessible collection of knowledge of the professional community. It includes theoretical, pedagogical and practical

knowledge, and offers teacher educators the opportunity to confirm, interconnect, share and develop their professional knowledge, vision, motivation and practices” (VELON, n.d, p.2). The Dutch Association of Teacher Educators also provides ten domains for the knowledge base of teacher educators on their website (VELON, n.d). These domains are given in Figure 2.

Loughran (2014) provides another framework, which specifically focuses on the professional development of teacher educators (see Figure 3 below). The framework presents the two concepts: knowledge and practice of *teaching* about teaching and *learning* about teaching. By discussing these two concepts, he moves beyond the traditional concept of teaching, or modelling teaching, and suggests that teacher educators do not simply model teaching practice; the continuous dialogue with the students of teaching would be providing a complementary aspect to the teaching pedagogy:

Teaching about teaching should not be confused with modelling teaching practice. Teaching about teaching goes beyond the traditional notion of modelling, for it involves not just teaching in ways congruent with the expectations one has of the manner in which pre-service teachers might teach, it involves unpacking teaching in ways that gives students access to the pedagogical reasoning, uncertainties and dilemmas of practice that are inherent in understanding teaching as being problematic. (Loughran, 2006, p. 6)

The first one is quite self-explanatory considering the main roles of teacher educators as he states that “the complexity of teacher educators’ work hinges around recognizing, responding and managing the dual roles of teaching and teaching about teaching concurrently” (Loughran, 2006, p.9); however, it is *learning* about teaching where Loughran (2014) contributes to the knowledge base of teacher educators. He argues that learning about teaching is “concerned with the knowledge and practices related to the ways in which students of teaching come to learn from, and then develop as a consequence of, their teaching education experiences” (p.275).

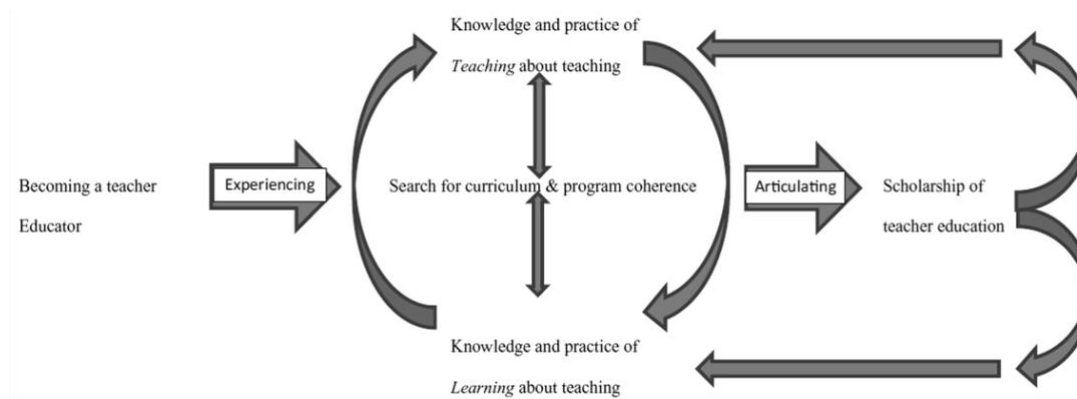


Figure 3. A research journey that shapes a teacher educator's professional development (Loughran, 2014, p.272).

In addition to the knowledge base pertaining to the university-based teacher educators, some scholars have also mentioned specific domains of knowledge for school-based mentor teachers. Achinstein and Athanases (2006), for instance, state that the knowledge base of mentor teachers operates on a bi-level nature: *knowledge domains targeting students*, and *knowledge domains targeting new teachers* which they further categorise in three levels: learners and learning, curriculum and teaching, and context and purposes. They state that mentor teachers need to know about adult learners, and how to work with novices. Specifically, they need to know their learning styles, values, and visions, as well as having and understanding of novice development, needs, and concerns. In a similar perspective, knowledge related to aspects of curriculum and teaching targeted at new teachers include: (a) professional knowledge such as content, standards, and assessment, (b) knowledge and pedagogies of mentoring, (c) roles and interactional stances, and (d) languages of mentoring. Lastly, they state that mentor teachers need to know about the embedded professional contexts and communities, policies of education systems, and leadership skills in fostering educational change, and understanding about conflicting purposes of teacher socialization.

Some scholars mention the skills and competences of school-based mentor teachers. For instance, Hagger et al. (1995) state that school-based mentor teachers need to be competent in classroom practice and opening up this

practice to student teachers. As such, they list some essential skills and strategies that are required when working with pre-service teachers coming from the university. These include: *(1) planning and coordinating student teachers' learning in schools, (2) observation, (3) assessment and supervision, (4) collaborative teaching, (5) giving student teachers access to professional craft knowledge, (6) critically discussing student teachers' ideas, and (7) supporting student teachers' self-evaluation.*

Cohen et al. (2004) state that being a mentor requires the ability to employ several sensitive and sophisticated skills such as:

Being a model of good teaching practice; listening, responding and advising; understanding situations through the eyes of the student teacher; developing observation skills in order to recognize and crystallize specific issues for discussion; and the ability to conduct reviews and appraisals of lessons seen in a supportive manner. (p. 26)

In a similar perspective, Brooks and Sikes (1997) point out that effective school-based mentor teachers need to have experience and expertise in: (a) enabling individuals to learn in the ways that are most effective for them, (b) ways of managing and organizing classrooms, (c) planning and developing curricula, (d) matching content and pedagogy to the pupils they teach, (e) dealing with difficult pupils, (f) a range of marking and assessment, recording and reporting techniques, (g) planning and managing practical work, and (h) working collaboratively with colleagues.

2.3. Professional Development

The concept of *professional development* for teachers has received a great deal of attention in teacher education research in recent years due to the factors such as the rapid changes in education systems around the globe, the demands for increasing the quality of education, and the need for teachers to adjust themselves for these changes and demands. These changes and demands in education systems suggest that teachers are not considered to be the sole variables that need to be changed anymore; they now have the double role in educational reforms as both subjects and objects of change (Villegas-Reimers,

2003) as they are also considered to be the agents to implement these changes. What professional development means and what counts as one, however, has been a subject of many discussions. According to Edwards and Nicoll (2006), the concepts of professionalism and professional development are organized in various ways with regard to different outcomes and benefits for the participators, the form it takes, and the knowledge and information to which those are given access to. As Craft (2000) suggests, it was formerly known as in-service education and training (INSET), a phrase which evolved into continuing professional development (CPD). Different names or phrases might suggest different definitions but in general, professional development covers “all forms of learning undertaken by experienced teachers from courses to private reading to job shadowing” (Craft, 2000, p.9).

Apart from these wider debates on the definition of professional development, there have also been some discussions on what it means to be professional for teachers. Hargreaves (2000) talks about being professional as opposed to professionalism. *Being professional* implies the quality of what teachers do as well as the conduct, demeanour and standards that guide it, whereas *being a professional* suggests how teachers feel when they are seen through other people’s eyes in terms of their status, standing, regard and levels of professional reward. Therefore, while making this distinction between professionalism and professionalization, he argues that “in teaching, stronger professionalization does not always mean greater professionalism” (Hargreaves, 2000, p.152).

Adding to this, he investigates teacher professionalism as passing through four historical periods: *the pre-professional age*, in which a teacher’s professional development is carried out through practical apprenticeship and individual trial and error, *the age of the autonomous professional*, which focuses on workshops and courses delivered off-site by experts as well as strong influences of individualism characterized by most teachers teaching in a box. The third phase, *the age of the collegial professional* focuses on collaborative and consultation planning with other colleagues towards a goal of building

strong professional cultures of collaboration through on-site learning experiences where teachers form communities of professional learning. Lastly, he mentions that we are now in *the post-professional age* where the profusion of various types of knowledge/information occur, the inclusion of groups outside teaching as well as their concerns makes testing and curricula centralized, thus; cutting the range of autonomy of teachers' classroom judgements.

2.3.1. Ecology of Human Development

One theory that might situate the professional development of teacher educators in a theoretical perspective is the *ecological systems theory*, or *the ecology of human development*, put forward by Urie Bronfenbrenner. It is a theory that explains human development from a five-faceted systems approach that the individual interacts throughout the life-span. As Bronfenbrenner (1979) put it:

The ecology of human development involves the scientific study of the progressive, mutual accommodation between an active, growing human being and the changing properties of the immediate settings in which the developing person lives, as this process is affected by relations between these settings, and by the larger contexts in which the settings are embedded. (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, p.21)

Bronfenbrenner (1979) believed that the interaction of four elements played an important role in the development of human being: *process* (any kind of interaction between an individual and the environment), *person* (characteristics such as demand features, dispositions, and social resources of the person), *contexts* (microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem including the school, university, neighbourhood, culture, social conditions, laws etc.) and *time* (the change that occurs over time) (Newman & Newman, 2016). According to this theory, individuals are seen as existing inside multiple and concentric social systems that move outwards from the immediate microsystem to the macro system involving more broader environments such as the neighbourhood, society, and the country (Olsen & Buchanan, 2017).

As Bronfenbrenner (1979) put it, the ecological environment in which humans develop might be seen as a set of structures that closely interact with each other. The inner level, which is called the microsystem, is the immediate setting around the person, which can be the classroom, the home, the university etc. In the outer level, which is called the mesosystem, relations between the settings occur. Settings alone, as Bronfenbrenner (1979) argues, do not provide development unless there is some kind of an interconnectedness going on among them. From a teacher educator professional development perspective, these could be the ties between the school and the university, to give a specific example. Thirdly, Bronfenbrenner (1979) states that in the next circle, which he calls the exosystem, the individual's development is greatly influenced by events that occur in the settings even if the individual is not present. Community and society can be given as examples for the exosystem. Lastly, Bronfenbrenner (1979) talks about the macrosystem which is in the outmost layer of the concentric cycle that influences human development comprising of overall customs, cultural values, and laws etc. The chronosystem, or time, can also be considered to have profound effect on an individual's development. For instance, as time goes by, individuals may react differently to aspects related to development, they may change attitudes as they learn new things. In short, as Bronfenbrenner (2005) suggest, "the relations between an active individual and his or her active and multilevel ecology constitute the driving force of human development" (p. xix). With this thought in mind, it is significant to undermine the interconnectedness between the layers of the life of a human being, as human development takes place through degrees of complex reciprocal interaction between the human being and the physical and social world surrounding that human being.

Therefore, the ecological systems theory can serve as a framework for designing a study investigating the experiences and perceptions of teacher educator professional development, as it has been referenced by others in, for instance, a study focusing on international field experiences in teacher education (e.g. Karaman, 2008).

2.3.2. Situated Learning

Another theory that might explain the professional development of teacher educators is the *situated learning theory* by Lave and Wenger (1991) which is linked to *situated cognition* and *the culture of learning* (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989). Clancey (2009) states that the word situated might be regarded as “emphasizing the contextual, dynamic, systemic, nonlocalized aspects of the mind, mental operations, identity, organizational behaviour, and so on” (p. 17) and that situated cognition “views human knowledge not as final objective facts but as arising conceptually, varying within a population, socially reproduced, and transformed by individuals and groups...” (p. 17).

According to Lave and Wenger (1991), learning is seen as a situated activity. For this, they refer to a process that they call legitimate peripheral participation. What this means is that every learner inevitable becomes a member of a community of practice and in order for these new learners to develop knowledge and skills, they need to participate in this community of practice through a sociocultural lens. They further elaborate as follows:

Legitimate peripheral participation provides a way to speak about the relations between newcomers and old-timers, and about activities, identities, artifacts, and communities of knowledge and practice. It concerns the process by which newcomers become part of a community of practice. A person's intentions to learn are encouraged and the meaning of learning is configured through the process of becoming a full participant in a sociocultural practice. This social process includes, indeed it subsumes, the learning of knowledgeable skills. (Lave & Wegner, 1991, p. 29)

The theory by Lave and Wegner (1991) also puts forwards that all theories of learning are based on the fundamental assumption of the interconnection among practice, person, and the social world. Thus, they reject the conventional explanations that view learning as being “transmitted”. In short, learning and developing is seen as participating in social practice, internalization of the culturally given, and an active interplay between the person and the community of practice. Therefore, in this study, the social lens of teacher educator professional development is underscored.

2.4. Professional Development for Teacher Educators

Much as the professional development literature is populated with studies focusing on teachers specifically, recent years have seen a great deal of discussions of the topic for teacher educators as well. Loughran (2014) argues that there is an important difference between the concept of professional development for teachers and teacher educators in that the latter group carries more professional autonomy and responsibility over teachers. He also argues that “professional development too often revolves around doing things *to* teachers rather than *with* teachers” (Loughran, 2014, p. 271) and that the same should not apply to teacher educators, who, as a distinct professional group, need to have more control and autonomy over their work than teachers. Taking this into consideration, the questions why they need professional development and how they can do it arise are dealt with briefly in the following sub-sections.

2.4.1. Why do Teacher Educators Develop Professionally?

As teacher educators are considered to be the key agents in training the future teachers either at teacher education institutions or at schools where teacher candidates practice teaching, they need to be involved too in a series of professional development activities. Teacher educators are also considered to be responsible to ensure and maintain the quality of teacher education and that “they need to become more knowledgeable professionals than they were a year ago” (Smith, 2003b, p. 203). They are required to constantly develop themselves, follow the recent developments in the field and even stay ahead of these developments so that they can contribute to the field of teacher education (Kools & Koster, 2015). Smith (2003b) gives three reasons why teacher educators need professional development: to improve the profession of teacher education, to maintain interest in the profession, and to advance within the profession by means of promotion. Thus, it might be stated that the need does not only derive from external motivations, they also need to engage in such activities for themselves. As Hökkä (2012) points out, the professional development of teacher educators is not only a matter of expanding their

knowledge base on a specific subject; it is also related to other cognitive and affective domains.

2.4.2. How do Teacher Educators Develop Professionally?

There are various ways through which teacher educators might be engaged in professional development activities. The classification by Vermunt (2006, as cited in Kools & Koster, 2015) provides an overview of the ways in which professionals learn and keep developing: *by doing* (without the intention of learning), *by experimenting* (with the intention of learning), *by reflecting on experiences*, and *by learning from the thoughts and behaviours of others*. For teacher educators, this classification would be applicable since professional development does not always mean attending in-service training courses.

Smith (2003) also provides some means of professional development for teacher educators which include attaining a higher academic degree, in-service workshops and seminars outside the teacher education institution, staff development inside the teacher education institution, feedback on teaching, voluntary or forced support, and peer tutoring. Some of these would obviously depend on the culture of learning the teacher educators are in; as not everyone might be comfortable with, for instance, peer tutoring or feedback on teaching. In study conducted by Gökmenoğlu, Beyazova, and Kılıçoğlu (2015) on how teacher educators in Turkey participate in professional development activities, it is seen that the most popular professional development activity is attending conferences and seminars, followed by reading periodicals or books, attending courses and seminars designed specifically for teacher educators, conducting research, attending doctoral programs, and even doing individual search over the internet. These relate, one way or another, to Watson's (2000) two-part model of "academic professionalism" for the knowledge and expertise for all teaching in higher education: pertaining to subject and discipline being taught, and pedagogical capability to teach their subject in the higher education setting.

Another model is provided by O'Dwyer and Atli (2015) specifically designed for school-based mentor teachers. The model presents the five elements of developing: trust, active counselling, responding to practice, imparting knowledge and experience, and thus establishing role identity. Therefore, in addition to the pedagogical capability, they are mentioning affective factors and interpersonal skills for the professional development of in-service teacher educators.

However, since teacher educators consist of a diverse group that do not have fixed roles and responsibilities, there might be some problems engaging in professional development activities. One of the main problems, as suggested by the research conducted by Gökmenoğlu et al. (2015) is that the definitions of professional development are not clear and teacher educators sometimes confuse it with in-service training. Also, Smith (2003b) presents four main reasons that prevent teacher educators in getting involved in such activities: lack of time, being a part-time employee, lack of support, and fear of change. Teacher educators are generally busy professionals with heavy teaching loads as well as other administrative and supervising duties at the institutions they work in. Thus, they might have little time left for other projects to help their professional development, or even just meeting colleagues on a regular basis. Similarly, most teacher educators are part-time employers in more than one institution and they might not feel attached enough to one place. In addition to that, even though they are willing to attend any such activities, they might not receive support from their institutions, colleagues or they might not feel confident in discussing less successful experiences. Or they might simply not be interested in any kind of change at all.

2.5. Professional Standards for Teacher Educators

In 2006, the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE) in the USA published a list of *Standards for Teacher Educators*. The association defines a teacher educator as “those educators who provide formal instruction or conduct research and development for educating prospective and practicing teachers” (ATE, 2006)

covering both the professional education component of pre-service programs and the staff development component of in-service programs. There are nine general standards: *teaching, cultural competence, scholarship, professional development, program development, collaboration, public advocacy, teacher education profession, and vision*, each followed by specific *indicators* and *artefacts*. The general aim of the standards is determining expectations or assessing the performance of teacher educators, as stated by the association. There are also several claimed uses of these standards, some of which include: guiding search process for hiring individuals who will have a primary role as teacher educator, design of a staff development program for teacher educators, and promoting dialogue among their members about the issues of teacher education.

Another example of *standards for teacher educators* comes from the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON) presented in Koster and Dengerink's (2001) article, which discusses these standards in a wider context. As Koster and Dengerink (2001) state, the Dutch Standards have two important functions: *an internal function*, contributing to the professional development and improvement of functions of teacher educators, and *an external function* towards other stakeholders involved such as the government, students, clients etc. The standards are categorized under three main headings: *foundations of instructional competencies* (such as having insight into student development, facilitating/supervising student teacher development), *general competencies* (content, pedagogical, organizational, group dynamics and communicative, developmental and personal growth), and *domain specific skills*. These standards present the functions and tasks the teacher educators should have, the knowledge and skills they should possess, and the way these competencies can be acquired. Koster and Dingerink (2001) also stress the importance of two issues in their paper: firstly, the standards to be prepared need to be observable and measureable; and secondly, they need to represent all teacher educators. For this reason, the Dutch Standards have been prepared without categorizing teacher educators as those working at higher educator

institutions (with pre-service teachers) and those working at primary/secondary levels (with in-service teachers).

One other example of teacher educator standards comes from Australia. The Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL) identifies professional standards for *lead teachers*. Lead teachers, as they define them, are those teachers “skilled in mentoring teachers and pre-service teachers, using activities that develop knowledge, practice and professional engagement in others. They promote creative, innovative thinking among colleagues” (AITSL, 2011). AITSL identifies seven key standards under three categories: *professional knowledge*, *professional practice*, and *professional engagement*. The seven standards are: (1) know students and how they learn, (2) know the content and how to teach it, (3) plan for and implement effective teaching and learning, (4) create and maintain supportive and safe learning environments, (5) assess, provide feedback and report on student learning, (6) engage in professional learning, and (7) engage professionally with colleagues, parents/carers and the community.

2.6. Professional Standards for Teacher Educators: Case of Turkey

In Turkey, there is not a comprehensive list of professional standards available as those presented by *ATE* in the USA, *VELON* in the Netherlands, and *AITSL* in Australia. There are, however, two sources of input that define the properties, roles and responsibilities of teacher educators. The first one is the *Law on Higher Education* of the Council of Higher Education in Turkey published in 1981 (CHE, 2000). Article 22 of Part Five in the Law of Higher Education defines the “duties of the teaching staff members” notwithstanding any specifications on field or institution. This article, however, is determined by law and institutions or organizations have no contributions or chance to make modifications to it. The Article 22 says that the duties of the teaching staff members are:

1. to carry out and have carried out education and practical studies at the pre-baccalaureate, baccalaureate and post-graduate (post-baccalaureate) levels in the institutions of higher education in line with the purpose and objectives of this law, and to direct project preparations and seminars;
2. to undertake scientific and scholarly research for publication in the institutions of higher education;
3. in accordance with a program arranged by the head of the related unit, to set aside certain days for the advising and guidance of students, helping them as needed and directing them in line with the aims and basic principles of this law;
4. to carry out the duties assigned by authorized organs; and
5. to perform other duties assigned by this law.

In addition to the Law on Higher Education, there are two documents which are outcomes of National Education Development Project (1994 to 1999) for Pre-service Teacher Education conducted cooperatively by Council for Higher Education in Turkey and World Bank in 1997 and 1998. These documents more specifically define the roles and responsibilities of the *institutions* (Faculty of Education, the partner school, the provincial educational directorate), and *individuals* (the student teacher, the supervisor, the department partnership coordinator, the faculty coordinator, the school mentor, school partnership coordinator, and the provincial education directorate partnership coordinator) (Sands, Özçelik, Busbridge, & Dawson, 1997; Sands & Özçelik, 1997; YÖK, 1998).

The Faculty-School Partnership Guidebook, one of these documents, specifies the roles and responsibilities of the supervisor (university-based teacher educator), and the school mentor (school-based teacher educator). According to YÖK (1998, p. 7-8), the supervisor:

- informs student-teachers about the school, school experience and teaching practice programs, teacher competencies, evaluation and rules to be followed at school
- introduces student-teachers to the school coordinator and mentor(s), and gives mentor(s) all necessary forms
- visits the school as planned, and cooperates with the mentor(s)
- ensures that student-teachers implement the school experience and teaching programs as planned:
 - guides and advises student-teachers in planning, preparing teaching aids, and others;
 - gives feedback to student-teachers in written form and orally;
 - serves as a guide and consultant in lesson planning, in preparing and using teaching aids, in record keeping, in evaluation and class management;
 - makes sure student teaches evaluate their school activities themselves;
 - observes each student-teacher's teaching on teaching practice at least twice;
 - discusses the student-teacher's performance with the mentor, takes necessary measures to increase the student-teacher's development and success;
 - ensures that student-teachers comply with the Ministry of National Education rules and regulations concerning the teaching profession;
 - in the implementation of the school experience and teaching practice programs, regularly communicates and co-ordinates with the coordinators and mentors;
 - at the end of the school experience and teaching practice, together with the mentor, evaluates the student-teacher(s)

Similarly, the school mentor, as specified by YÖK (1998, p. 8-9):

- plans and organizes, together with the supervisors, the student-teacher's school experience and teaching practice schedules
- contributes to the student-teacher's professional development, lets him observe classes and try various teaching methods
- provides the student-teacher with the necessary teaching aids, resources, and an appropriate classroom environment, and information about the school
- observes and evaluates the student-teacher's work in school
- does not leave the student-teacher alone in the classroom for long periods. If the mentor leaves the classroom, makes sure the student-teacher can easily reach him/her
- keeps a file which includes observation and evaluation reports about the student-teacher
- gives the student-teacher a copy of the completed course evaluation form after observation, together with the necessary feedback
- at regular intervals, together with supervisors, goes through the observation files of the student-teachers, to discuss progress and set targets for further development
- guides the student-teacher in extracurricular activities (including ceremonies and meetings)
- after the school experience or teaching practice is over, together with the supervisor, evaluates the student-teacher.

As seen above, there are common duties of teaching faculty staff as identified by the Law on Higher Education, and a detailed list of roles and responsibilities for teacher educators related to the practicum experience. However, a comprehensive competence and professional development profile of teacher educators in Turkey is missing. Therefore, there is a need to identify a standards framework for teacher educators in Turkey including definitions, characteristics, and knowledge base.

2.7. Related Studies

Though studied rarely, as stated before, there are a handful of studies focusing particularly on teacher educator competencies and professional knowledge of teacher educators in international contexts. Starting from 1990s, as teacher educators began to examine their own experiences and practices, such studies have gained importance (Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2017). Some of these studies, including teacher educators from countries such as the United States of America, the United Kingdom, Australia, the Netherlands and Israel, are summarized below.

In the literature of teacher education, studies specifically focusing on teacher educators try to find answers to questions such as *what does it mean to be a good teacher educator? How is the professional knowledge of teacher educators defined?* (Smith, 2005); *what do teacher educators themselves consider to be the main requirements for teacher educators? What do teacher educators –working in different types of institutes consider to be their tasks? What competencies should they possess?* (Koster, Brekelmans, Korthagen, & Wubbels, 2005); *What are the needs of beginning teacher educators?* (van Velzen et al., 2010); *What are the functions and tasks of teacher educators? What knowledge and skills should they have?* (Koster & Dengerink, 2001); *what should teacher educators know and be able to do?* (Goodwin, Smith, Souto-Manning, Cheruvu, Ying Tan, Reed, & Travers, 2014); *what professional learning activities do higher education-based teacher educators value?* (Czerniawski, Guberman and MacPhail, 2017); and *how can we stimulate, support or provide opportunities for teacher educators to develop professionally?* (Kelchtermans, Smith and Vanderlinde, 2018).

In a study about the expertise of teacher educators, conducted with both teachers and teacher educators, Smith (2005) inquired what novice teachers and teacher educators said about teacher educators' professional knowledge with a specific focus on how this professional knowledge of both parties differs. One of the most significant findings of this study is that it justifies the

differences between the professional knowledge of teachers and teacher educators. Teacher educators are expected to be self-aware in explaining tacit knowledge of teaching and making it available to prospective teachers by bridging theory and practice (articulation of reflexivity and metacognition). Their professional knowledge is expected to be more comprehensive, rich and deep; using knowledge to create new knowledge, teaching both children and adults, having a more comprehensive understanding of the educational system, and possessing professional maturity and autonomy. Additionally, in their study focusing on the induction and needs of beginning teacher educators, van Velzen et al. (2010) suggest developing activities, training sessions, and seminars to beginning teacher educators to contribute to the professional development of those teacher educators. The results of these studies indicate that the transition from becoming a teacher to becoming a teacher educator is not an automatic process and that both require domain specific competencies and abilities implying the urging need for a specific focus on teacher educators in the literature of teacher education.

Studies conducted in recent years focus on the idea that qualified teacher educators help educating qualified teachers. On the one hand, Goodwin and Kosnik (2013), for instance, list five essential knowledge domains that conceptualize learning about teaching as “deep and broad, context specific as well as integrated” (p. 338). These knowledge domains are *personal knowledge* (autobiography and philosophy of teaching), *contextual knowledge* (understanding learners, schools, and society), *pedagogical knowledge* (content, theories, teaching methods, and curriculum development), *sociological knowledge* (diversity, cultural relevance, and social justice), and *social knowledge* (cooperative, democratic group process, and conflict resolution). On the other hand, the study by Goodwin et al., (2014) tries to find out the knowledge and skills teacher educators should have from the perspective of practicing teacher educators. Referring to Cohran-Smith and Lytle’s (1999) *knowledge-practice theory*, they emphasize the call for a pedagogy of teacher education which does not simply reflect the action of

teaching but suggest integrating *learning about teaching* and *teaching about teaching*.

The literature on language teacher education pedagogy also provide useful insights into developing the knowledge base of language teacher educators. In an attempt to conceptualise the knowledge base specific to language teacher education, Freeman and Johnson (1998) provide an epistemological framework that puts emphasis on teaching itself. They contend that the knowledge base for language teacher education needs to address the following: (1) the nature of the teacher-learner, (2) the nature of schools and schooling, and (3) the nature of language teaching. Thus, their emphasis is on the *teacher-learner*, the *social context*, and the *pedagogical process*.

In a similar perspective, Johnson and Golombek (2018) provide a Vygotskian sociocultural theoretical perspective as a basis for language teacher education pedagogy, which provide useful implications for language teacher educators. They offer eight connected propositions that constitute the knowledge base of language teacher education pedagogy, suggesting that LTE pedagogy should (1) be located, (2) recognize the teacher, (3) be intentional, (4) externalize everyday concepts and internalize academic concepts, (5) contain structured mediated spaces, (6) involve expert mediation, (7) have self-inquiry dimension, and (8) have a relationship between teacher development and student development. This study by Johnson and Golombek (2018) has implications for language teacher educator knowledge-base and development. For teacher educators, this conceptualisation of the LTE pedagogy means “thinking dialectically and having a theorized idea of how, when, and into what we expect teachers to change their thinking and activity...” (Johnson & Golombek, 2018, p. 4).

As portrayed in the studies above, there is a limited number of studies in the literature of teacher education about the “teachers of teachers”. This scarcity of research maintains its current position in Turkey as well. Though there are different competence standards lists for teachers in Turkey, no such profile

exists for teacher educators and the research on this area is even scarcer. For this reason, there is a need to conduct research about the competence and professional profiles of teacher educators in Turkey.

The following chapter presents the methodological framework used in this study, along with the details of research design, participants, data collection and data analysis procedures.



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter provides a detailed description of the research methodology and research design used in the study. As such, it presents the research approach, selected research design, researcher's role, participant details and sampling procedure, data collection procedures and instruments, data analysis procedures, and lastly, discusses issues related to trustworthiness, and ethics.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study: Qualitative Research

The philosophical assumptions that have guided research studies in terms of their views on the nature of reality and what it is, along with the nature of knowledge and what it means to know that knowledge have received various labels as a concept. Morgan (2007) mentions four basic versions of this concept as *worldviews*, *epistemological stances*, *shared beliefs among members of a specialty area*, and *model examples of research*. Summarizing the main points of the concept *paradigm*, Guba (1990) in a broad sense defines it as a “basic set of beliefs that guide action” (p. 17); and Creswell (2014), more specifically defines it as “a general orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study” (p. 6), which is also favoured by the researcher.

According to Creswell (2013), qualitative research “begins with the assumption and the use of interpretive/theoretical frameworks that inform the study of research problems addressing the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (p. 44). Similarly, as Merriam (1998) states, qualitative research guides researchers in understanding the phenomenon of interest through the reality which is constructed by individuals

interacting with their social worlds with as little disruption of the natural setting as possible. From an epistemological perspective, this study is guided by social constructivist paradigm, and an exploratory qualitative case study design is used.

3.1.1. Research Approach: Social Constructivism

Building upon Searle's (1995) social construction of reality, constructivism is a paradigm that circulates between the dynamic interplay of subjectivity and objectivity. Constructivism is the view that "all knowledge, and therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context" (Crotty, 1998, p. 42).

Social constructivism asks that individuals understand the subjective meanings of things or objects that they are confronted with. According to Creswell (2013), these meanings are multiple and various, therefore, the aim of the researcher, primed by the social constructivist view, is to seek for the complexity of views and not try to reduce the meanings into a few ideas. In this respect, then, the research relies as much as possible on how participants understand and construct meaning in specific situations.

One feature of the social constructivist paradigm is that the human world is perceived in a more different sense from the natural, physical world; and thus, it needs to be studied separately. In other words, the truth is relative, and interpreted as depending on one's perspective. As Patton (2015) puts it: "Rocks don't think and feel. People do" (p. 121). However, saying that the realities are socially constructed and thus is not as objective as the existence of a "rock" does not mean they aren't perceived and experienced as real by individuals. In this sense, social constructivists view the multiple realities as constructed by different people and truth becomes a shared meaning among the members of these groups (Patton, 2015).

The “social” in constructivism, as stated by Crotty (1998), is not related to the object; rather, it is seen as a “mode” of meaning generation. As he puts it:

The object involved in the social constructionist understanding of meaning formation need not involve persons at all (and therefore need not be ‘social’ in that sense) ... Accordingly, whether we would describe the object of the interaction as natural or social, the basic generation of meaning is always social, for the meanings with which we are endowed arise in and out of interactive human community. (Crotty, 1998, p. 55)

According to Baxter and Jack (2008), one of the advantages of this paradigm is the close collaboration between the researcher and the participants. It is this collaboration that allows the participant to describe their views of reality. In this way, the researcher investigates and understands the participants’ actions better. In a similar vein, Creswell (2013) asserts that questions asked in social constructivism become broad and general to allow the participants to construct the meaning of the situation that they are in. It is this “open-ended” questioning method that provides the researcher with the knowledge about how the participants make sense of the world.

3.1.2. Research Design: Qualitative Case Study

Case studies are not easy to define since different researchers see them as methodology, strategy of inquiry, or choice of what is to be studied. Yin (2009) defines a case study as “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident”. According to Stake (1995), a case study is “the study of the particularity and complexity of a single case, coming to understand its activity within important circumstances” (p. xi). Merriam and Tisdell (2015) define a case study as “an in-depth description and analysis of a bound system” (p. 37).

Even though different definitions of a case study abound, it is consistently described as “a comprehensive, holistic, and in-depth investigation of a complex issue (phenomena, event, situation, organization, program individual or group) in context” (Harrison, Birks, Franklin, & Mills, 2017, para. 27).

An important consideration in case studies is that defining the ‘case (unit of analysis)’ is the initial step. According to Patton (2015), cases can be *empirical units*, such as individuals, families, organizations, etc., or *theoretical constructs*, such as resilience, excellence, living with HIV, etc. Miles and Huberman (1994) define the case as “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context” (p. 25). Additionally, a ‘case’ is a bounded entity. It is bounded by time, place, context, or condition (Yin, 2009; Flyvbjerg, 2011; Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2015). This process of binding is important in that it ensures the reasonability of the scope. In short, then, the researcher conducting a case study “explores real-life, contemporary bound system (a case) or multiple bound system (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information..., and reports a case description and case themes” (Creswell, 2013, p. 97).

In this study, a single-case design with multiple units of analysis is used, following the different case study research designs by Yin (2009). The case (unit of analysis) is identified as the professional development of university-based teacher educator and school-based mentor teachers. The case (unit of analysis) in the current study is bounded by time and space as there is a limit to both the number of people involved in the study and the duration of the data collection period.

3.1.3. Research Setting

This study is conducted in the university and school contexts in different cities in Turkey. The official language of people and the language of education in Turkey is Turkish, with the exception of a handful of universities and schools offering English-medium instruction. Even though there are other foreign languages that are offered at different levels in the Turkish education system, English is taught as a compulsory foreign language at all levels of education. The mentor teachers in this study, which are discussed below in detail, come from primary, secondary, and high schools in the Turkish education system, both from public and private schools. The teacher educators are working at the

departments of English language teaching at the Faculty of Education in universities that offer both English-medium instruction and Turkish-medium instruction. However, they are all educating teachers of English to the primary, secondary and high schools in Turkey. This study is also bounded by time. The data for this study is collected in a specific period of time, in the time available when the researcher visited the respective cities. The details of data collection process are provided in a later section.

3.1.4. Role of the Researcher

Considering that this study approaches research from a social constructivist perspective, the role of the researcher in this study becomes important in all aspects of the study. The overall role of the researcher in this study is based on the idea that researchers “do not ‘find’ knowledge; they construct it” (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015, p. 9). According to a constructivist case study researcher, the aim of research is not to discover but to construct the reality, as discovery is merely not possible (Stake, 1995). This does not, however, eliminate the fact that the researcher should establish neutrality (Patton, 2015) throughout the data collection and analysis processes. In other words, the researcher, while being objective throughout the data collection and analysis procedures, cannot leave aside his prior knowledge (as a researcher), beliefs, and assumptions in the interpretation of the data.

3.2. Sampling Procedures

It is an important step in qualitative case studies to identify the sample, or the unit(s) of analysis, to be investigated. As Merriam (1998) points out, in each research study, there could be numerous sites that a researcher can visit, activities or events to be observed, people who can be interviewed, documents that can be read and analysed. In other words, sampling involves identifying the participants, places, time, and events. As Fletcher and Plakoyiannaki (2010) suggest, case study research usually makes use of purposeful sampling strategies to allow for the selection of information-rich cases and a thorough

analysis. To state it in their words, “information-rich cases are those from which the researcher can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose and investigated phenomena of the study” (Fletcher & Plakoyiannaki, 2010, p. 837).

In this study, two sampling strategies are used to select the participants and the research sites: *maximum variation sampling* and *convenience sampling*. Maximum variation sampling is used to cover a wide spectrum of positions and perspectives in relation to the phenomenon under investigation (Given, 2008). Patton (2015) states that maximum variation sampling “aims at capturizing and describing the central themes cut across a great deal of variation” (p.283). In this study, maximum variation sampling strategy is used to select university-based teacher educators. In this way, it was possible to get in-depth descriptions and experiences of each teacher educator which represent both uniqueness and diversity, as well as shared patterns emerging out of heterogeneity (Patton, 2015). Convenience sampling is used to easily reach the school-based mentor teachers and pre-service teachers in the time available. Samuere and Given (2008) define convenience sampling as “a sample in which research participants are selected based on their ease of availability” (p. 125).

In order to allow for a documentation of diverse variables, and an identification of common patterns through the use of maximum variation sampling, the Higher Education Programs Guidebook of the Centre for Measurement, Selection and Placement (ÖSYM) has been consulted to identify the departments that have consistently been offering English Language Teacher Education programs for ten years since the founding of Faculties of Education in Turkish Universities in 1982. For this, the researcher contacted ÖSYM through the bureau of enquiry, was directed to personnel preparing the *guidebooks* and scheduled a meeting to visit the ÖSYM archives in order to go through the older *Higher Education Programs Guidebooks* that were not available online. Through page-by-page reading of the guidebooks, the list of universities offering education from 1982 were identified. This allowed the researcher to determine the cities and universities to be visited.

After this document analysis, the following 17 universities in 13 cities were identified; *Adana* (Çukurova University), *Ankara* (Gazi University, Hacettepe University, Middle East Technical University), *Bursa* (Uludağ University), *Çanakkale* (Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University), *Diyarbakır* (Dicle University), *Edirne* (Trakya University), *Erzurum* (Atatürk University), *Eskişehir* (Anadolu University), *Hatay* (Mustafa Kemal University), *İstanbul* (Boğaziçi University, İstanbul University, Marmara University), *İzmir* (Dokuz Eylül University), *Konya* (Necmettin Erbakan University, previously known as Selçuk University), and *Samsun* (Ondokuz Mayıs University). In addition to these, four cities and universities were identified as alternatives; *Bolu* (Abant İzzet Baysal University), *Kayseri* (Erciyes University), *Mersin* (Mersin University), and *Muğla* (Muğla Sıtkı Koçman University).

Some cities were excluded in the final data collection process due to various reasons such as ease of access to the participants in these cities and universities, permissions granted from the institutions, time restrictions, and limited resources.

Table 1

List of cities and universities

Cities	Universities
Ankara	Gazi University Hacettepe University
Çanakkale	Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University
Diyarbakır	Dicle University
Edirne	Trakya University
Erzurum	Atatürk University
Hatay	Mustafa Kemal University
İstanbul	Boğaziçi University
İzmir	Dokuz Eylül University
Konya	Necmettin Erbakan University
Mersin	Mersin University
Samsun	Ondokuz Mayıs University



Figure 4. Geographical distribution of the cities across Turkey.

3.3. Participants

In this study, data were collected from three groups of participants: university-based teacher educators, who are academicians at the universities, school-based mentor teachers, who are English teachers at primary, secondary and high schools and pre-service teachers, who are senior year students in language teacher education programs. These participants are in 11 cities, 12 universities, and 22 schools. Table 2 gives the list of all the participants in this study. Detailed information and demographics for each group are presented below.

Table 2

List of all the participants across cities visited

Cities	University-based teacher educators	School-based mentor teachers	Pre-service teachers	Total N of participants
Ankara	6	1	96	103
Çanakkale	3	3	1	7
Diyarbakır	3	3	8	14
Edirne	4	4	-	8
Erzurum	5	3	28	36
Hatay	2	3	2	7
İstanbul	2	8	38	48
İzmir	3	5	10	18
Konya	4	4	8	16
Mersin	5	3	-	8
Samsun	4	6	2	12
TOTAL	41	43	193	277

3.3.1. University-based teacher educators

A total of 41 university-based teacher educators participated in this study. University-based teacher educators are the academicians working in the English Language Teaching departments at university level. All of them are involved in pre-service teacher education through teaching practicum courses (School Experience and Practice Teaching) where they are supervising the professional development of pre-service teachers. Usually, they are the ones who establish contact with the schools where the pre-service teachers do their practice teaching; therefore, they are, most of the time, in close communication with the school teachers and the administration. The university-based teacher educators who participated in this study were either teaching the practicum courses at the time of the data collection period or have previously taught those courses. Table 3 gives the list of academic titles of the university-based teacher educators.

Table 3

Academic titles of the university-based teacher educators

Academic title	N
Professor	5
Associate Professor	7
Assistant Professor	15
Instructor, PhD	8
Research Assistant, PhD	1
Instructor	5
TOTAL	41

There are 5 professors, 7 associate professors, 15 assistant professors, 8 instructors holding a PhD degree, one research assistant holding a PhD degree, and 5 instructors who are either PhD students/candidates or graduates of MA programs.

Figure 5 shows the years that university-based teacher educators spent as English language teachers and teacher educators. Out of 41 university-based teacher educators; 9 of them have 1-4 years of experience as a teacher, 15 of them have 5-10 years of experience, 10 of them have 11-15 years of experience, 2 of them have 16-20 years of experience, and 2 of them have more than 21

years of experience as a teacher. In addition to that, 3 of the teacher educators have no experience at all as a language teacher. These experiences represent the years spent teaching to learners of English at primary, secondary, tertiary educational institutions or private language courses before they moved to teacher education departments at the Faculties of Education. Similarly, teacher education experience of the university-based teacher educators varies from 1 year to 37 years. 7 of them have 1-4 years of experience as a teacher educator, 12 of them have 5-10 years of experience, 7 of them have 11-15 years of experience, 7 of them have 16-20 years of experience, and 8 of them have more than 21 years of experience as a teacher educator. These experiences represent the years they have been involved in English language teacher education. As for the school-based teacher educators, these experiences represent their years they spent guiding the pre-service teachers at practicum schools, while simultaneously teaching to learners of English.

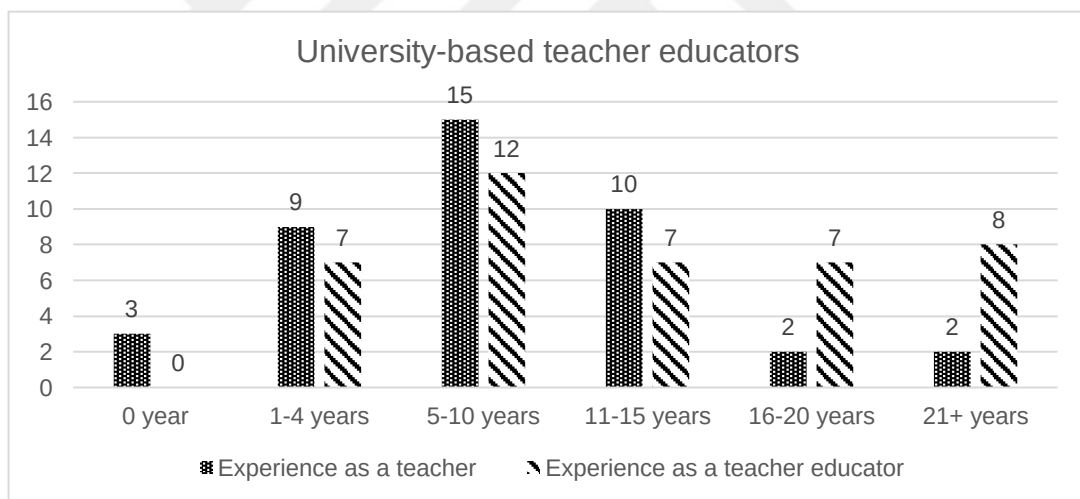


Figure 5. Teacher educators' years of experience.

3.3.2. School-based mentor teachers

43 mentor teachers from 22 schools across Turkey participated in this study. School-based mentor teachers are teachers of English who have assumed/been asked to assume the role of mentoring pre-service teachers in their practicum period. As part of the English language teacher education curriculum, fourth year students are supposed to spend the first semester of that year observing

a mentor teacher at a school, and the second semester, teaching in designated hours under the supervision of the mentor teacher at the schools. Usually, these mentor teachers are randomly assigned by the school administration as mentors, though in some cases experienced teachers are chosen for this role. Table 4 presents the schools types and levels of school-based teacher educators who participated in this study.

Table 4

School types and levels of school-based teacher educators

School type	N of schools	N of mentor teachers
Primary school (Public)	2	3
Primary school (Private)	1	2
Secondary school (Public)	10	18
Secondary school (Private)	1	3
High school (Public)	7	14
High school (Private)	1	3
TOTAL	22	43

As seen in Table 4, the number of mentor teachers is 43 and they work in 22 different schools. There are 5 mentor teachers from 3 primary schools: 3 from 2 different public primary schools, and 2 from one private primary school. Out of 21 mentor teachers from 11 secondary schools, 18 of them are from 10 public secondary schools, and 3 are from a private secondary school. Lastly, out of 17 mentor teachers from 8 high schools, 14 of them are from 7 public high schools and 3 of them are from a private high school.

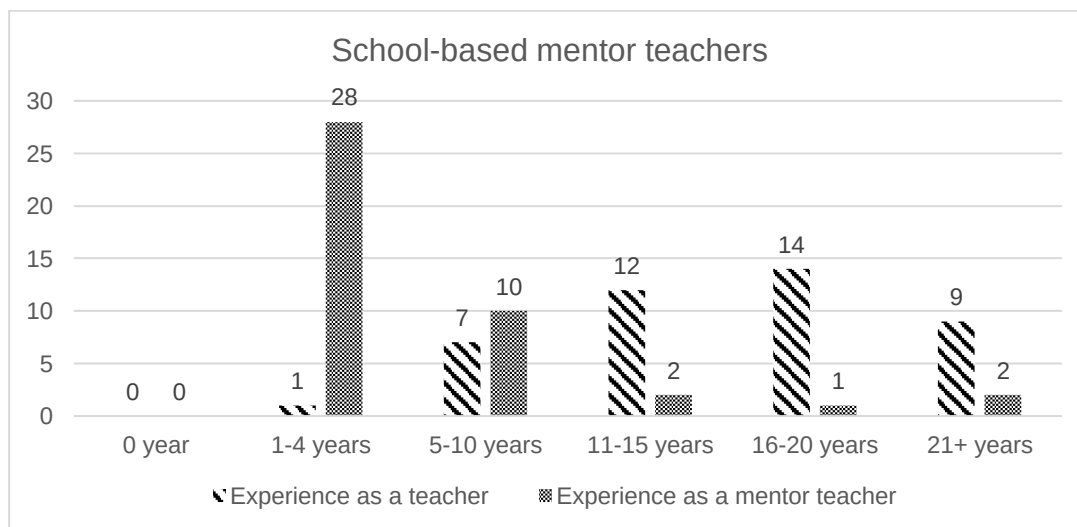


Figure 6. Mentor teachers' years of experience.

Figure 6 presents the years that school-based mentor teachers spent as English language teachers and mentor teachers. Out of 43 school-based mentor teachers, 1 of them has 1-4 years of experience as a teacher, 7 of them have 5-10 years of experience, 12 of them have 11-15 years of experience, 14 of them have 16-20 years of experience, and 9 of them have more than 21 years of experiences as a teacher. These experiences represent the years spent teaching to learners of English at primary or secondary levels, as well as private language courses. Similarly, 28 of them have 1-4 years of experience as a mentor teacher, 10 of them have 5-10 years of experience, 2 of them have 11-15 years of experience, one of them has 16-20 years of experience, and one of them has more than 21 years of experience as a mentor teacher.

3.3.3. Pre-service teachers

A total of 193 pre-service teachers from 10 different universities in 9 cities participated in this study. Pre-service teachers are teacher candidates in their fourth and final years studying to become English language teachers. They are guided by university-based teacher educators at one end of the practicum experience, and school-based mentors at the other. Table 5 gives the number of pre-service teachers and the universities they were studying at.

Table 5

Number of pre-service teachers

University	N of pre-service teachers
Hacettepe University (Ankara)	67
Boğaziçi University (Istanbul)	38
Gazi University (Ankara)	29
Atatürk University (Erzurum)	28
Dokuz Eylül University (İzmir)	10
Dicle University (Diyarbakır)	8
Necmettin Erbakan University (Konya)	8
Ondokuz Mayıs University (Samsun)	2
Mustafa Kemal University (Hatay)	2
Onsekiz Mart University (Çanakkale)	1
Trakya University (Edirne)	-
Mersin University (Mersin)	-
TOTAL	193

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

Data sources used in this study are *interviews* with teacher educators and mentor teachers, *open-ended surveys* with pre-service teachers, and *document analysis*. In case studies, collecting data that uncover, describe and represent the richness of the phenomenon is of great significance. Yin (2009) mentions six most commonly used means of sources of evidence for case study research: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant-observation, and physical artefacts. Creswell (2013) argues that much as new forms of qualitative data emerge in the literature, there are usually basic types of information: observations, interviews, documents, and audio-visual materials. As McGinn (2010) argues, in a case study, the researcher might accumulate evidence about the case under investigation through documentation, archival records, artefacts, interactions, or direct observations. She further argues that case study research involves an eclectic mix of data sources as “multiple data resources provide a description of the case from different angles and perspectives and allow researchers to address possible discrepancies or inaccuracies that could result from a single data resource” (McGinn, 2010, p. 275). Lastly, Gillham (2000) also mentions that ‘evidence’ in forms of documents, records, interviews, observation, participant-observation, and physical artefacts is the primary concern for case study research.

3.4.1. Interviews

Interviews are a widely used method of gathering data in case study research (McGinn, 2000), commonly defined as conversations with purpose and direction (Barlow, 2010). As deMarrais (2004) defines it, “an interview is a process in which a researcher and participant engage in a conversation focused on questions related to a research study. These questions usually ask participants for their thoughts, opinions, perspectives, or descriptions of specific experiences” (deMarrais, 2004, p. 54). Interviews used in this study aim to reveal the participants’ opinions as well as their experiences.

According to Patton (2015) interviews are used when researchers want to find out things that they cannot directly observe people doing and to understand what they have observed better. As he argues further, there are certain things that cannot be observed such as feelings, thoughts, intentions, behaviours taking place at an earlier time, situations which don't involve the presence of the researcher, or how people attach meaning to what is going on in the world. Therefore, we have to ask people questions to learn about these; "the purpose of interviewing, then, is to allow us to enter into the other person's perspective" (Patton, 2015, p. 426). Obtaining the descriptions and interpretations of the participants and thus, discovering and portraying the multiple views of the case are the two important foci in case study research. The interview is 'the main road' in achieving these multiple realities (Stake, 1995). The interview is also a process of "seeking knowledge and understanding through conversation" (Barlow, 2010, p. 496).

There are different types of interviews identified in the literature of qualitative case study research. Yin (2009) mentions in-depth interviews, focused interviews, structured interviews. Similarly, Barlow (2010) categorizes interviews as structured, semi-structured, unstructured, and informal. The type of interview to be selected depends on the research question, as well as the quality and quantity of data to be gathered. In this study, semi-structured interviews are used. Semi-structured interviews aim to address a number of pre-determined questions but allow for flexibility to fully understand the unique experiences of the participants (Barlow, 2010). Semi-structured interviews are in the middle, neither fully structured nor unstructured, and allow the researcher to respond to the emerging worldview of the respondent; thus, to new ideas that arise during the process (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015). In this study, even though there were pre-determined questions at hand before the interviews were conducted, the researcher was not strict about the exact wording, order, or timing of the interview questions. The most important consideration was that all questions and points were asked in each interview, the details of which are mentioned in a further section.

3.4.1.1. Developing and Piloting the Interview Questions

In the development phase of the interview questions for teacher educators a series of points were taken into consideration. The first one is the literature on professional development of teacher educators. Prior to writing the interview questions, the researcher had done extensive reading on the studies focusing on professional development of teacher educators, both nationally and internationally. Then, along with the overall aims and guiding research questions of this study, some preliminary themes were identified. After a series of discussions with the thesis advisor and other colleagues, writing, rewriting and updating the interview questions, final versions of the semi-structured interview questions were created.

Prior to the actual data collection process through these interview questions, the researcher piloted the questions to make sure that they covered all the aspects to be investigated through the aims and guiding research questions of this study. For this purpose, 8 teacher educators at the home university were interviewed. They were informed during the interview that this was the piloting phase of the overall study, so that they would give constructive feedback at the end according to their interpretations of the questions. Necessary changes were made to the questions after the feedback on the pilot interviewing process, and the final draft was prepared. Apart from that, an expert from the Ministry of National Education, Directorate General for Innovation and Education Technologies read the questions and suggested some small changes and tips on how to interview the school-based mentor teachers.

Interview questions are presented in Appendix A and Appendix B. The same interview questions are used for both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. However, a Turkish version of the questions was prepared for school-based mentor teachers. The interview questions for teacher educators include the definitions of being a teacher educator, how they define the general characteristics and personality traits of teacher educators as

well as the professional roles that they assume as teacher educators. Secondly, there are questions related to the competences of teacher educators: what the elements of teacher educator knowledge base are, how they developed this knowledge base, and whether this knowledge base is different for school-based mentor teachers and university-based teacher educators. Thirdly, there are questions focusing on professional development for teacher educators: how they define it, what their practices are in ensuring professional development, what the outcomes of these practices are, what problems and rewards they have, and what their needs are. They are also asked about the suggestions they have for better professional development opportunities. Lastly, the teacher educators are also asked about their experiences with the practicum and supervision process of pre-service teacher educators.

3.4.2. Open-ended Surveys

While one can build a case study on evidence coming from one source only, obtaining data in a variety of ways is commonly recommended (Bhatnagar, 2010; McGinn, 2010). Therefore, although qualitative case study research generally does not accumulate surveys, which are usually believed to be tools for studies that have quantitative purposes, *open-ended surveys* have been used in this study to gather data from pre-service teachers. The purpose of the survey used in this study is to identify the characteristics of teacher educators from the pre-service teachers' point of view.

According to Chmiliar (2010), case study survey does not aim for an experimental manipulation of conditions, or an explanation of cause and effect, although survey research allows for collecting data from a large number of participants. As Chasteauneuf (2010) argues, surveys used in a case study provides the researcher with "a data-gathering technique that collects, through written self-reports, either quantitative or qualitative information from an individual unit (e.g., a child, group, school, community) regarding the unit's knowledge, beliefs, opinions, or attitudes about or toward a phenomenon under investigation" (p. 769). As he further argues, surveys in case study

research can be used as the primary strategy for data collection or in conjunction with other case study techniques, such as participant observation, interviewing, or document analysis (Chasteauneuf, 2010). Within this perspective, an open-ended survey is used in this study as an additional means of gathering data from pre-service teachers, who are the beneficiaries of the practicum experience by university-based teacher educators at one end, and school-based mentor teachers at the other.

3.4.2.1. Developing and Piloting the Survey Questions

As in the interview questions for teacher educators and mentor teachers, a series of points were taken into consideration in developing the survey questions. Firstly, it was made sure that the questions were similar to the ones which were asked to teacher educators in the interview. However, not all the questions in the interview were included in the survey because some of the questions were specific to the nature of being a teacher educator. Then, along with the aims and the research questions of the study, the survey questions were identified, after a series of discussions with the thesis advisor and colleagues.

Prior to the actual data collection process, a couple of pre-service teachers at the home university were asked to answer the questions and identify any points needed clarifying. The pre-service teachers were informed before answering the questions that this was a pilot survey and that their constructive feedback was needed. Along with the feedback received from them, the final version of the open-ended survey for pre-service teachers was created, which is presented in Appendix C.

The open-ended survey for pre-service teacher educators include 5 questions: how they define their ideal teacher educators at the university and school, what competences and skills they think teacher educators need to have, their opinions about how a teacher educator should develop, and lastly, their

positive and negative experiences with teacher educators at the university and school.

3.4.3. Document Analysis

Documentation refers to various artefacts in written, audio, and visual forms including media or government reports, policy or other procedural documents, memos, videos, maps, material resources, etc. (Raptis, 2010). Collecting data through documents is similar in terms of line of thinking as observing and interviewing (Stake, 1995) as they are ready-made source of data which are easily accessible (Merriam, 1998).

In this study, various documents have been examined. Higher Education Council's "Teacher Education Series" was examined to see the roles, responsibilities, and expectations of teacher educators and mentor teachers in the faculty-school partnership, and how school experience courses were previously conducted. Also, documents presenting the previous teacher education curricula were examined to obtain information about the definitions of constructs, and to learn about the historical development of the language teacher education. Lastly, different European policy documents were examined to see how professional development of teacher educators is maintained in the world, and how faculty-school partnership is developed. Examining these documents also proved useful in providing the researcher a mind-set about important themes and questions to seek answers to in the interview process.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

In this study, the data were collected through semi-structured interviews with university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers, as well as open-ended surveys with the pre-service teachers.

After the data collection instruments were finalized, the researcher applied to the Human Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC) at the Research Centre of Applied Ethics of Middle East Technical University (METU) for the approval to

carry out the study. The first application was made in 2016 (see Appendix D) for the initial approval, and the second application was made in 2018 (see Appendix E) for the extension of the previously granted approval. Having received the approval from the Ethics Committee, which took about three weeks, the researcher then applied to the Directorate General for Innovation and Education Technologies of the Ministry of National Education for the approval to visit the schools and conduct interviews with the mentor teachers. The approval was granted from the Ministry to carry out the study in all schools in the determined cities (Appendix F). After the necessary approvals were received in mid and late 2016, the researcher sent out official letters of request to all the universities via official means through the rectorate of Middle East Technical University.

Meanwhile, the researcher visited the web pages of English language teacher education programs of the selected universities to make a list of all the teacher educators working at the departments. In this process, e-mails of those teacher educators giving the School Experience and Practice Teaching courses were identified. Later, e-mails to all the teacher educators were sent out. The e-mails sent consisted of the following: introducing the self as a doctoral candidate and a research assistant, name of the thesis advisor, title of the study, purpose of the study, the intention of writing the e-mail as well as giving information about the interview to be conducted such as the expected length, topics to be covered, etc.

The researcher had to carefully plan the timing of the interviews. Since he was also a research assistant at the department, each visit to the mentioned universities meant separate application for an official short-term domestic visit to be made one month ahead in order to get the permission and reimbursed for the expenses. Therefore, in the e-mails sent to the teacher educators, they were asked if they were available for an interview on a day in the one-week period given to them as an option (for instance, they were told that the researcher was coming to their city for 5 days between June 4-8, 2018 and they were kindly asked about when in those 5 days they were available).

As the volunteer teacher educators replied, the researcher started to plan the visits. The order of the cities and universities visited depended on the replies to the e-mails sent to teacher educators. It was made sure that an interview was planned with at least one teacher educator before applying for official permissions and arranging other details such as accommodation, travel tickets, etc. It needs to be mentioned that summer holiday period (June to September, or even October in some universities) and spring break period (January to mid-February) were avoided. The schedule for the visits to the cities is given in Table 6 below.

Table 6

Timeline of the visits to the cities

Cities	Month/Year visited
1. Çanakkale	May 2017
2. Edirne	May 2017
3. Hatay	May 2017
4. Mersin	June 2017
5. Samsun	June 2017
6. İzmir	December 2017
7. Diyarbakır	December 2017
8. Konya	December 2017
9. Erzurum	February 2018
10. İstanbul	March 2018
11. Ankara	February/March/April 2018

Scheduling with school-based mentor teachers was not as easy since they do not have official e-mail addresses to be contacted before. Yet, a visit to a city meant that interviews were also to be conducted with the school-based mentor teachers in order to avoid visiting the same city twice, due to the constraints of time and resources. To reach the school-based mentor teachers, the researcher tried different methods; sometimes the researcher asked the university-based teacher educators to recommend a mentor teacher at school, call him/her if possible, and arrange an appointment. In other cases, the teacher educator gave the names of the mentor teachers and the schools and the researcher visited the schools without a prior scheduling. In such situations, the school principal was contacted upon arriving the school, he/she was informed about the purpose of the visit and the intention to conduct an interview with mentor teachers, and then an arrangement was made. In other rare conditions, the

researcher randomly dropped by the practice teaching schools without any names of the mentor teachers and followed the same method of school principal guidance.

In order to reach the pre-service teachers, the researcher kindly asked the university-based teacher educators if it was possible to visit the classroom and administer the open-ended surveys. It was not always easy to find a classroom as these pre-service teachers were fourth year students who had fewer classes. In such cases, the researcher administered the survey to those pre-service teachers who were around.

University-based teacher educators were visited at their offices and school based-teacher educators were visited at their schools. Before each interview, the researcher informed the participant about the general purpose of the study without giving much information so as not to influence their responses. The researcher then asked the participants for a verbal consent and told them that they are free to withdraw from participating at any time. The participants were also informed about the presence of the audio recorder and their permission was taken to voice-record the interview.

Almost all the interviews were one-to-one with the teacher educators, except for three cases when they asked to talk in pairs or groups of three due to time limitations, yet still being willing to make contributions. In some other rare cases, the teacher educators were not willing to make an interview but contribute by answering the questions in written form and sending them through e-mail. Four of the participants chose this method. All the interviews were audio-recorded except for one who asked that the researcher wrote down, instead of audio-recording.

In total, there are 80 interviews. Out of these 80 interviews, 75 of them are audio-recorded, 1 of them is non-recorded, and 4 of them were received via e-mail since the teacher educators did not want to have the interviews on site, but answered the questions online and sent an e-mail to the researcher later.

Most of the interviews were in Turkish ($n=59$), some of them were in English ($n=16$), depending on the choice of the participants. The duration of the interviews varied from 13 minutes to 65 minutes, with an average of 30 minutes. Table 7 show the descriptive information of the interviews conducted in the data collection period up to now. 40 interviews were conducted with university-based teacher educators, with a total duration of 21 hours, 13 minutes. 40 interviews were conducted with school-based mentor teachers, with a total duration of 15 hours, 39 minutes. The total duration of the interviews is 36 hours, 52 minutes.

Table 7

Total number and duration of interviews conducted

Teacher educators	N of interviews	Duration
University-based	40	21 hours 13 minutes
School-based	40	15 hours 39 minutes
TOTAL	80	36 hours 52 minutes

3.6. Data Analysis Procedures

Qualitative data analysis is “the classification and interpretation of linguistic (or visual) material to make statements about implicit and explicit dimensions and structures of meaning-making in the material and what is represented in it” (Flick, 2014, p. 5). According to Patton (2015), qualitative data analysis is the transformation of the data into findings. However, “no formula exists for that transformation” (p. 521). Even though there is “guidance”, there is no “recipe”; therefore, “the final destination remains unique for each inquirer, known only when -and if- arrived at” (Patton, 2015, p. 521). From this perspective, the role of the researcher in analysing the qualitative data becomes significant in describing or portraying the perceptions of the participants through careful understanding as well as bracketing any bias about the phenomenon under investigation (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Creswell (2013) identifies three analysis strategies in qualitative research: (1) preparation and organization of the data for the analysis phase, (2) coding the data and reducing it into the themes; and (3) presenting the data in figures,

tables, or through discussions. Stake (1995) argues that data analysis does not have a particular beginning; it is a process of giving meaning to both first impressions and final compilations. Simply put, Miles & Huberman (1994) talk about three steps in data analysis: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. Merriam (1998) sees data analysis as “the process of making sense out of the data. And making sense out of data involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher has seen and read – it is the process of making meaning” (p. 178). Regardless of the approach or strategy used, it is basically “the process used to answer your research question(s)” (Merriam and Tisdell, 2015, p. 202).

As the first step of the data analysis, the data were prepared and organized (Creswell, 2013). All the interviews were transcribed verbatim using a word-processing software, keeping the grammatical mistakes as they are, in order not to interfere with authenticity of what the participants have said. The researcher transcribed all the interviews himself allowing for close observation of the data through listening again and again. In this way, the researcher had a chance of getting familiar with the data and facilitating awareness of what emerged, which can be considered the first step in the overall analysis process (Bailey, 2008).

After the transcription process finished, the data collected through the interviews were analysed via *MAXQDA Standard 2018 (release 18.0.8)* qualitative data analysis software. Even though the researchers do the actual analysis, using a computerized analysis software smooths the path for storing, coding, retrieving, comparing, and linking the data at hand; as well as speeding up the whole process of analysis (Gibbs; 2014; Patton, 2015).

Content analysis (Patton, 2015) was used in developing codes, patterns, and themes derived from the available coding categories already inherent in the research questions and especially those emerging from the data itself. Content analysis refers to the analysis of text obtained through interview transcripts, diaries, or documents. The aim is to reduce the qualitative data and apply a

sense-making effort to identify recurring themes and meanings (Patton, 2015). As this qualitative case study involves voluminous interview data in text format, reducing the data into meaningful consistencies requires the application of content analysis. Even though, historically, content analysis is quantitative in characterizing and comparing the units analysed, its use in qualitative research mainly derives from the focus on identifying the “meaning” (Merriam, 1998; Merriam and Tisdell, 2015). The overall data analysis procedure was as follows:

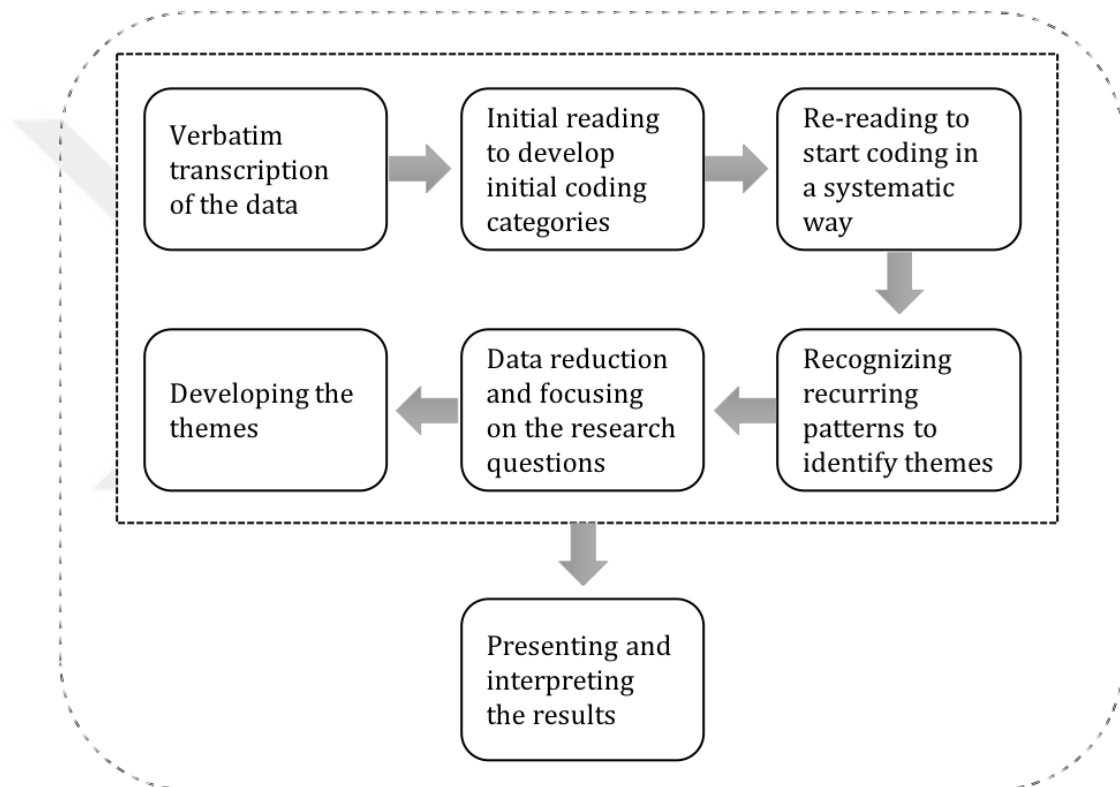


Figure 7. Steps of data analysis.

This procedure was not a linear, but cyclical process: going back and forth between the stages, consulting expert views frequently, and revisiting the themes to be developed over and over again. Coding the raw data allowed for the construction of meaningful categories that represent the relevant characteristics of the interviews in this qualitative data analysis. In other words, the coding process was the first step into understanding the meaning present in the data. The details of this coding process are presented in the next section.

3.6.1. Coding Process

Codes are defined as “tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 56). Similarly, Saldana (2009) defines a code as “a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data” (p. 3). He further argues that “coding is not a precise science; it’s primarily an interpretive act” (p. 4) to emphasize the uniqueness of the process.

Saldana (2009) offers two major coding methods through cycles: *First Cycle* coding methods are the processes that appear in the initial coding of data and *Second Cycle* coding methods are those processes that reconfigure the coded data through analytic skills before presenting the final codes and themes. In the coding process, Saldana’s (2009) *cycles of coding* guided the analysis of this study. Yet, it also needs to be acknowledged coding happened in a cyclical way, as mentioned by Saldana (2009) himself:

Coding is a cyclical act. Rarely is the first cycle of coding data perfectly attempted. The second cycle (and possibly the third and fourth, and so on) of recoding further manages, filters, highlights, and focuses the salient features of the qualitative data record for generating categories, themes, and concepts, grasping meaning, and/or building theory. (p. 8)

A segment of the coding process is given in Table 8 below. As it is seen in Table 8, the coding process consists of two major processes: first level codes and second level codes, as defined by Saldana (2009). First of all, the raw data is read to identify the general theme that the code would belong to. In the example, for instance, the first level code is identified as *knowledge base*, as the participant is mentioning what a teacher educator needs to know in other fields. Moreover, these coded utterances are read for the second time to be coded with the second level code, which is identified as *knowledge of other fields* in the given example. After these two-phase coding process, the final codes have been created.

Table 8

An example of coding procedure used in the analysis phase

Utterance	First level code	Second level code
Ben bu ortamdan uzak kaldığım için çok fazla bilmiyorum ama herhalde bir liderlik, önderlik görevleri var. Öyle olmak durumundalar. Belki biraz psikoloji ve sosyoloji de bilmek zorundalar diye düşünüyorum çünkü aşağıda staj yapan bir öğrencinin ruh halini anlayabilmeli, ona destek olabilmeli, problemlerini çözebilmek zorunda, mutlaka problem-solving olmak zorunda. Bunu yaparken ama aşağıyı da tanıyor olması gerekiyor. O sistemi, ortaöğretim sistemini tanıyor olmak zorunda ki problemleri daha önceden tahmin edebilsin. Ortaya çıkacak şeylerin önlemini alabilsin. Tek başına düz bir çizgi değil bana göre ne teacher educator ne de onun genel özellikleri. Bu bir küre gibi bir şey. İçinin dolu olması gerekiyor	→ knowledge base	→ knowledge of other fields
<i><I don't really know since I've been away from this environment but I guess they have a duty of being a leader, a pioneer. I also think that maybe they have to know a bit of psychology and sociology because they need to understand the mood of the students doing practice teaching down there [at the primary and secondary level], support him or her, solve problems, obviously problem solving. While doing this, they need to know about down there. They need to know that system, that primary and secondary education system, so that they foresee the problems, and take precaution. I don't think a teacher educator and its characteristics are on a straight line. It's like a sphere, it needs to be full> (U10)</i>	→ knowledge base	→ knowledge of education system
	→ knowledge base	→ knowledge of other fields
	→ knowledge base	→ knowledge of education system

3.6.2. Intercoder Agreement

As calculating the intercoder agreement increases the overall reliability of the analysis, a second coder also coded 10% of the whole data, which corresponds to eight interviews. For this, the template of the codebook was given to a second coder in a black MAXQDA format to check for inter-coder agreement after the

researcher finished the coding process himself. Eight interviews were randomly chosen among the 80 total interviews: four with university-based teacher educators and four with school-based mentor teachers. After the second coder coded these interviews, the two sets of coded interview documents were analysed by MAXQDA. The results of the intercoder agreement is given in Table 9 below.

Table 9

Code existence and code frequency agreements

Participant ID	Code existence agreement	Code frequency agreement
U7	93.05 %	93.23 %
U16	92.34 %	100.00 %
U23	89.30 %	88.41 %
U35	93.76 %	93.23 %
S2	94.12 %	93.76 %
S5	95.19 %	95.19 %
S26	94.83 %	94.65 %
S37	94.47 %	94.30 %

The column *code existence agreement* means same codes were used at least once in each of the documents. The column *code frequency agreement* presents the frequency of using the same codes in same amounts. In short, the analysis of the intercoder agreement reveals that there is a high degree of agreement in the two coding processes.

3.7. Trustworthiness

Qualitative researchers use different terminology to address issues of validation and reliability, partly due to the unique nature of the qualitative research itself, and to distance themselves from the understandings of positivist paradigms (Shenton, 2004). Among the prominent constructivists, Lincoln and Guba (1985) use unique terms to ensure the “trustworthiness” of a study fed by naturalistic paradigms. They offer *credibility* as an alternative to internal validity, *transferability* instead of external validity, *dependability* for reliability, and *confirmability* for objectivity. Establishing a sound qualitative inquiry involves these four concepts to ensure trustworthiness.

Credibility, as Merriam and Tisdell (2015) put it, answers the questions “how congruent are the findings with reality? Do the findings capture what is really there?” (p. 242) and is considered to be one of the most important aspects of trustworthiness of a study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It also refers to “the extent to which a research account is believable and appropriate, with particular reference to the level of agreement between participants and the researcher” (McGinn, 2010, p. 243). Credibility is ensured through triangulation, member checks, long-terms observations, peer-examinations, eliminating researcher biases (Merriam, 1998).

The researcher in this study has been involved in language teacher education as a research assistant for many years working at a university context; thus, has a sound familiarity with the culture of participating organizations (Shenton, 2004). Also, even though the universities and schools were chosen using a maximum variation sampling procedure, the teacher educators and mentor teachers voluntarily participated in the study. The researcher used different data sources in this study: from teacher educators, pre-service teachers, and documents in an attempt to triangulate the findings. Similarly, the researcher constantly asked for peer-scrutiny opportunities through meetings with the thesis advisor, thesis advisory committee meetings, discussions with fellow PhD candidates and academicians. Lastly, the researcher used thick descriptions of the design, data collection, and data reporting processes of the study to convey the actual situations as they emerged.

Dependability, a major concern for positivist research, is seen problematic in qualitative research since the nature of human behaviour is not static (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). It is further problematic in social constructivist paradigm because there is not a single truth to rely on. Yet, this does not suggest that there are no strategies that a qualitative researcher can benefit from to ensure the consistency and reliability of the analysis. For this, Merriam and Tisdell (2015) offer the following strategies: triangulation, peer examination, investigator’s position, and the audit trail. In this study, the researcher’s

position vis-à-vis the group under investigation, the basis for the overall design, and the contexts in which the data were collected have been explained in detail. Also, the coding process (codes and coded segments) has been continuously discussed with the thesis advisor, as well as a fellow researcher who is experienced in coding.

Transferability concerns in this study has been eradicated by giving a rich and thick description of the whole design: the number of participants involved, the data collection methods, the number and length of the data collection sessions, the time period over which the data is collected, and any limitations to the data collection process (Shenton, 2004). Last but not least, concerns for confirmability was dealt with by following the necessary steps to ensure the participants were given the opportunity to talk about what they wanted to talk about. It was made sure that the researcher did not influence the responses the participants gave.

3.8. Ethics

As Merriam (1998) points out, “Ensuring validity and reliability in qualitative research involves conducting the investigation in an ethical manner” (p. 198). In this study, the researcher paid utmost attention to ensure that the study is conducted under strict research ethics. Prior to the start of the study, the researcher applied to the Human Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC) at the Research Centre of Applied Ethics of Middle East Technical University (METU) for an approval for the overall research process, since this study requires the involvement of human subjects. The submitted research proposal was approved and the permission was granted (Appendix D) and extended later on (Appendix E). Also, one group of participants, school-based mentor teachers, are working at MoNE schools. Therefore, an official application was made to the Directorate General for Innovation and Education Technologies at the Ministry of National Education for a research study permission. The submitted research proposal was approved and the permission was granted (Appendix F) on condition that the mentor teachers participated in the study on a voluntary

basis, which the participant paid attention to. Last but not least, before interviewing the teacher educators and mentor teachers as well as giving the surveys to pre-service teachers, their verbal consent was taken. Teacher educators and mentor teachers were also informed about the presence of the voice recorder. Additional consent was taken for recording their voices. The participants were assured that neither the recorded voice data nor any other part of the collected data would be shared by elsewhere other than in parts of this study. In case where parts of the collected data are given to present the findings, identification numbers are used to mask their names and other private information.



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study in line with the research questions addressed. The results are organized under three main sections: definitions, competences, and professional development.

In the first section, the participants define teacher educators by focusing on the characteristics and personality traits of a teacher educator, along with the concept of an “ideal teacher educator” defined by pre-service teachers. Additionally, roles of teacher educators are given, as defined by university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. Lastly, their journeys of becoming teacher educators and mentor teachers are presented. In the second section of this chapter, competences of teacher educators are presented under three sub-sections: knowledge base, skills, and lacks with respect to the interviews conducted with university-based and school-based teacher educators as well as pre-service teachers. In the third and final section of this chapter, professional development definitions, practices, outcomes, problems (both personal and in practicum), needs, and suggestions (both personal and in practicum) are presented through the eyes of university-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers, and pre-service teachers. The chapter ends with a summary of results obtained in the study.

Where necessary, selected quotations from participants are given to support the analysis. The quotations are indented, displayed in quotation marks, and as they are without changing any word or punctuation marks, including any spelling or grammatical errors, in their original languages. Turkish quotations are presented in Turkish, along with English translations provided in <angle quotation marks> right below. The number in [square brackets] at the

beginning of the quotation is the quotation number, and the code at the end of a quotation in (parentheses) represents the participant type (U for university-based teacher educator, S for school-based mentor teacher, and P for pre-service teacher), and participant number. The numbers in the N columns given in the tables represent the number of participants stating the corresponding items, out of the total N given at the top. The numbers in the *f* columns represent the total mention frequency of the corresponding items, regardless of who state them. Total numbers in the N columns do not add up to the participant numbers since one participant mention more than one item, and not all participants report about all categories. Therefore, total numbers are not calculated under the N columns in the tables.

4.1. Definitions

In this section, the analyses of the interviews with teacher educators and open-ended survey with pre-service teachers are presented which answer the first research question of the study. In the interviews, the teacher educators are asked who a teacher educator is, what their characteristic features are, and what personality traits they possess. Also, they are asked about the roles they have as teacher educators, as well as their journey of becoming a teacher educator. The answers that pre-service teachers give in the open-ended survey about how they define their ideal teacher educators are also presented in this section.

4.1.1. Defining Teacher Educators

This sub-section presents the analyses of the interviews with regard to (1) *how participants define a teacher educator*, (2) *what characteristics they think teacher educators have*, and (3) *what personality traits they believe they should possess*. These are discussed in detail in the following sections.

4.1.1.1. Who are they?

Data analysis of the interviews with university-based teacher educators show that the participants define a *teacher educator* within the perspective of

educating and guiding pre-service teachers. Table 10 below provides the list of definitions given by the participants.

Table 10

Definitions of a teacher educator

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Definitions	N	f	N	f
- All those who educate, guide and share experience with PST	16	17	17	18
- All lecturers at a faculty of education	9	10	1	1
- In-service teacher trainers	3	3	-	-
- Mentor teachers at schools	3	3	2	2
- All those who teach practicum courses at the university	2	2	-	-
- English language teachers	2	2	-	-
- "I am not a teacher educator"	-	-	3	3

Note: Numbers in the N column do not add up to the total N since one participant has reported more than one option, or some participants have not reported opinion about this category.

As presented in Table 10, the definitions of 16 university-based teacher educators, and 17 school-based mentor teachers focus on how teacher educators *educate, guide, and share experiences with pre-service teachers*. Furthermore, there is also emphasis by university-based teacher educators on the workplace of teacher educators. In other words, nine of them define a teacher educator as *all those lecturers working at a faculty of education* regardless of the academic positions and titles they have. Three of them also mention that there are other groups of people who can be considered as teacher educators; such as *in-service teacher trainers* who help and guide teachers who are actively teaching, and three of them state that teacher educators are *mentor teachers at schools* whom pre-service teachers observe in the course of their teaching practice experiences.

[1] By nature, definitely, a teacher educator is the person who educates future teachers; or who educates teachers who are in practice anyways, working at schools, or universities as instructors so and so forth (U28)

[2] Teacher educator Türkiye’de genelde o konularda çalışsın çalışmasın staj dersinin boşluğunu, ihtiyacını dolduran kişi oluyor <In Turkey, teacher

educator is the one who compensates for the need in practicum course generally, whether s/he works in that area or not> (U34)

Another definition made by university-based teacher educators accentuates the practicum component of the program. Two of them define a teacher educator as all those people who are *responsible in teaching the practicum courses*. Lastly, two of the participants also refer to the *teaching* aspect of a teacher educator when defining it, pointing out that a teacher educator is first of all an *English language teacher*. The definitions given by school-based mentor teachers highlight the process of helping and guiding the pre-service teachers in their routes of becoming teachers:

[3] Çocukların daha bu ilk tecrübeyi yaşadıkları süreç aslında öğretmen eğitimcisi dediğimiz nokta. Bizim ayağımız olan yer, üniversite ayağından bahsetmiyorum, ilk deneyimlerini yaşadıkları yer, ve onlar kendilerinde neler eksik, neler tamam bunların farkında değiller. Bunu biz görüyoruz ilk etapta ve o deneyimleri yaşadıklarında, bunları değerlendirip, o eksiklikleri tamamlayıp, o çocukları bir sonraki adıma daha güvenli bir şekilde gönderen kişi diyeyim ben *<When we say teacher educator, actually, it is the process where these pre-service teachers have this first experience. This setting of ours, I don't mean the university setting, is where they have their first experiences, and they are not fully aware of what they are missing and what they are not. We realize these in the first step and I can say then that [a teacher educator] is the person who evaluates, makes up for, and sends the pre-service teachers to the next step in a safer way, when they have this experience> (S2)*

[4] Ben kendimi tam olarak öğretmen eğitimcisi görmüyorum çünkü bunun yeterli olduğunu düşünmüyorum. Çocuk beni gözlemlemeye geliyor, ondan sonra sadece bir defa ders anlatıyor. Yeterince onu eleştirecek ya da ona yol gösterecek fırsatım olmadığını düşünüyorum. O yüzden tam anlamıyla kendimi öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak görmüyorum *<I don't fully see myself as a teacher educator because I don't think this is enough. The pre-service teacher comes and observes me, and then he teaches just for once. I don't think I have enough opportunities to criticize him or guide him. That is why I don't fully see myself as a teacher educator> (S24)*

Although most of the school-based mentor teachers define themselves as teacher educators, there are a few mentor teachers who believe that the definition of a *teacher educator* does not include them. While three mentor teachers explicitly state that they do not see themselves as teacher educators of the pre-service teachers they are mentoring, one believes that a teacher educator is defined as the university supervisors who, both from a theoretical and practical perspective, have more experience in teacher education and who

spend more time with the pre-service teachers. It is seen in the quotation by one mentor teacher (S24) that one reason they do not define themselves as teacher educators is because they do not spend much time with the pre-service teachers and that they do not have enough opportunities to observe and guide them.

4.1.1.2. Professional Characteristics

Another aspect to the definitions of teacher educators is the professional characteristics that they have, as defined by the teacher educators themselves, as well as by pre-service teachers, as presented in Table 11 below.

It is seen in the analysis that 11 of the university-based teacher educators report being *knowledgeable and qualified* as a professional characteristic for a teacher educator, which is the most frequently stated one. Quotations [5] below illustrate this:

[5] A teacher educator is someone who is knowledgeable, I would like to say, knowledgeable in terms of competencies that a teacher should have at the end of the education period, I mean the faculty education period (U2)

One other feature that is mentioned by nine of the university-based teacher educators is that they are *curious, reflective, and open to change*; that is, they need to be continuously engaged in professional development. Being *a good role model and a guide* is another feature that emerged as an important characteristic, stated by six of them. They believe that the pre-service teachers copy them teaching and behaving in class when they become teachers themselves. One feature that is also highlighted by six of them is that teacher educators are *professionally mature, intellectual, open to criticism and objective and fair to the students/PST*. *Having education and experience in teaching* is another characteristic of a teacher educator as stated by all of the participants. Being *conscious, autonomous, and aware of their own strengths and weaknesses* is another characteristic mentioned by the participants. Lastly, they all refer to *knowing about classrooms and classroom management* as an important professional characteristic that a teacher educator needs to have.

Table 11

Professional characteristics of a teacher educator

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)		Pre-service teachers (N=193)	
Professional characteristics	N	f	N	f	N	f
- knowledgeable and qualified in theory and practice	11	12	4	4	44	44
- curious, reflective, innovative, open to changes, developments and technology, life-long learners	9	9	2	3	34	34
- a good role model and guide	6	6	3	3	16	16
- professionally mature, intellectual and open to criticism	6	7	5	5	4	4
- has education and experience in teaching	3	4	2	2	24	24
- conscious, autonomous, and aware of his own strengths and weaknesses	5	6	3	3	3	3
- objective and fair to the students/PST	1	1	1	1	15	15
- knows about classrooms and classroom management	2	2	2	2	5	5
- loves teaching and delivers enjoyable teaching	-	-	3	3	6	6
- a good observer	-	-	2	2	1	1
- addresses learner needs, styles, interests	-	-	-	-	24	24
- organized, prepared, and punctual	-	-	-	-	11	11
- promotes critical thinking and awareness	-	-	-	-	9	9
- gives feedback	-	-	-	-	7	7
- uses different techniques and materials in the classroom	-	-	-	-	4	4
- speaks English in class fluently and accurately	-	-	-	-	4	4
- enables students to do practice	-	-	-	-	4	4
- aware of the education system	-	-	-	-	3	3
- interacts with the students	-	-	-	-	2	2
- a good researcher	-	-	-	-	1	1

Note: Numbers in the N column do not add up to the total N and 193 since one participant has reported more than one option, or some participants have not reported opinion about this category.

When the interviews with school-based mentor teachers are analysed, it is seen that five of the mentor teachers report being *professionally mature, intellectual and open to criticism* as a professional characteristic for mentor teachers, since they are working with pre-service teachers who observe every step they are taking.

[6] Aklıma gelen ilk şey bence eleştiriye açık olmalı. Sınıf içinde olsun, sınıf dışında olsun, öz eleştiriye kesinlikle kabul etmeli bir öğretmen eğitimcisi <The first thing that comes to my mind is that I think s/he should be open to criticism. Whether inside or outside the classroom, a teacher educator should accept self-criticism> (S8)

Another characteristic that emerges from the analysis is that they need to be *knowledgeable and qualified in theory and practice*, just like university-based teacher educators, both in content and pedagogy, especially, in *classroom management*. Three of the mentor teachers also mention *loving teaching and delivering enjoyable teaching* as an important aspect of being a mentor, which is not mentioned by university-based teacher educators. Being *a good observer* is another characteristic that is not mentioned by university-based teacher educators but emphasized by two mentor teachers related to their mentoring role.

The analysis of pre-service teacher surveys also provides valuable insights into how they define the characteristics of teacher educators. According to the statements provided by 44 pre-service teachers, teacher educators should be *knowledgeable and qualified* in terms of theory and practice, which is the most repeatedly uttered characteristic. In addition to this, there are other frequently stated features which are parallel to the ones stated by teacher educators. These are *being a good role model and guide*, *being objective*, *experienced and trained in teaching*, and *being curious and open to changes*. An example quotation by one of the pre-service teachers is given below, focusing on the definition of an ideal teacher educator, as seen by the participant.

[7] Ideal teacher is someone who comes to the class prepared, know students, has more than one plan about the course, uses time efficiently, gives feedback and observe students carefully during the training process, behave friendly and supportive (P122)

There are some professional characteristics which are specifically emphasized by pre-service teachers, but not addressed by teacher educators. For instance, 24 pre-service teachers believe that *addressing learner needs, styles, interests* is an important aspect of a teacher educator's profession. Similarly, 11 pre-service teachers believe that being *organized, prepared, and punctual* are three characteristics for teacher educators which is mentioned solely by pre-service teachers. Other professional characteristics mentioned only by pre-service teachers are: *promoting critical thinking and awareness*, *giving feedback*, *using different techniques and materials in the classroom*, *speaking English fluently*,

enabling students to do practice, being aware of the education system, interacting with the students, and being a good researcher.

4.1.1.3. Personality Traits

In addition to the professional characteristics, personality traits also emerge as one of the defining aspects of teacher educators, according to the analyses of the interviews with teacher educators and surveys with pre-service teachers. Table 12 presents the personality traits with respect to the three groups of participants. According to the analyses of the interviews with university-based teacher educators, the most recurrent personality trait is being *respectful to pre-service teachers*, which is mentioned by nine of them, as seen in Table 12. The emphasis here is made on the communication between pre-service teachers and teacher educators. Teacher educators believe that pre-service teachers are to be treated as future colleagues and prospective teachers. They also emphasize that teacher educators need to be respectful the students they are teaching, in the same way.

Table 12

Personality traits of a teacher educator

Personality traits	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)		Pre-service teachers (N=193)	
	N	f	N	f	N	f
- <i>empathetic, not judging</i>	1	1	8	8	41	41
- <i>attentive, caring, helpful, supportive</i>	1	1	7	7	38	38
- <i>motivating, encouraging, inspiring</i>	3	4	6	6	13	13
- <i>patient and tolerant</i>	2	2	4	4	28	28
- <i>respectful to learners and PST</i>	9	10	3	3	18	18
- <i>motivated, willing, energetic, passionate, hardworking, responsible, devoted to profession</i>	9	9	2	2	33	33
- <i>friendly, approachable, flexible, relaxed sociable, outgoing</i>	7	8	9	11	35	35
- <i>open-minded, multicultural, open to criticism</i>	4	4	-	-	9	9
- <i>self-confident</i>	1	1	3	4	8	8
- <i>intelligent, problem solver, analytical thinker</i>	-	-	4	4	1	1
- <i>humorous</i>	-	-	-	-	9	9
- <i>realist</i>	-	-	-	-	3	3
- <i>idealist</i>	-	-	-	-	3	3
- <i>honest and democratic</i>	-	-	-	-	3	3

Another personality trait which nine of them refer to is being *motivated, willing, determined and passionate* in your profession. This motivational aspect, as stated by the teacher educators, brings with it the necessary skills and qualifications for being a teacher educator, which is also reflected in their academic studies. Being *friendly, approachable*, and *sociable* are other aspects of teacher educator personality that is mentioned by seven university-based teacher educators. The emphasis is especially made on establishing the communication with the pre-service teachers which is neither too strict nor too loose.

[8] Perhaps we can say being a volunteer is important. You should be motivated because it is a long process and you should have time (U1)

[9] Ben özellikle öğrencilere younger colleague gibi davranmanın çok faydasını gördüm, student evaluation'lardan öyle anlaşıldı. Öğrenciler bunu çok önemsiyorlar çünkü onlar seneye işinde gücünde insanlar olacak. Artık öğrenci gibi değil, adult gibi yaklaşarak, davranarak ve tam yeri geldiğinde boşlukları doldurarak onların yanında olmak önem kazanıyor bu aşamada <I've seen that it is especially beneficial to treat the students as younger colleagues, it was seen in the student evaluations. The students really care about this because they will teachers next year. It is important at this point to treat them as adults, not students; and be with them making up for their gaps> (U34)

Other frequently mentioned personality traits are as follows: *being open-minded, patient and tolerant, empathetic, multicultural, approachable, inspirational, encouraging and helpful, confident, willing, and energetic*.

In a similar perspective, school-based mentor teachers seem to regard being *friendly, approachable, flexible, relaxed sociable, outgoing* as an important feature of personality trait since it is mentioned by nine of them. Equally important features are: being *empathetic, not judging; attentive, caring, helpful, supportive* and *motivating, encouraging, inspiring*. The emphasis in these personality traits is on the understanding that they are just on the verge of beginning their careers and that their mistakes need to be tolerated.

[10] Empathy, understanding that the new teacher is new, that they are really struggling. And respect for that new teacher because a lot of the times more experienced teachers will think oh they are new, they don't know anything, just dismiss them off hand. At the core, the healthy respect and empathy for the new teacher (S37)

Apart from these, there are also some personality traits mentioned solely by mentor teachers, such as being *a problem solver and analytical thinker*, as well as being *intelligent*. The focus here is on the teaching profession and the role of being a mentor. In other words, four mentor teachers state that things do not always go as planned in the classroom, and the pre-service teachers are also busy with other things. Therefore, being a mentor teacher, as they put it, requires being flexible when things go out of plan, and finding ways to quickly solve problems as they arise.

[11] Ideal teacher is someone who comes to the class prepared, know students, has more than one plan about the course, uses time efficiently, gives feedback and observe students carefully during the training process, behave friendly and supportive (P122)

Similar to teacher educators and mentor teachers, the results of pre-service teacher surveys also present *empathy* as the most frequently mentioned personality trait for teacher educators. 41 pre-service teachers report that an ideal teacher educator is someone who must understand they are not teachers yet. They draw attention to the fact that they are still learning, and their mistakes need to be approached with great tolerance. 38 of them state that being *attentive, caring, helpful, supportive* is an important personality trait for a teacher educator. The pre-service teachers believe that their mentor teachers and teacher educators need to be helpful and supportive in guiding them through the course of becoming a teacher.

Moreover, *being respectful, motivating, responsible, passionate, patient, caring, open-minded, approachable, flexible, confident, intelligent, enthusiastic, hardworking, friendly, sociable, and energetic* are other traits that they think teacher educators need to possess which are similar to the ones mentioned by teacher educators. There are some personality traits that pre-service teachers think teacher educators need to possess which are not mentioned by teacher educators, such as being *humorous, realist, idealist, honest and democratic*.

4.1.2. Roles and Responsibilities of Teacher Educators

Guided by the first research question of this study, the roles and responsibilities of teacher educators are presented in this section with respect to the opinions of university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers, which are given in detail in Table 13. The results of the analyses reveal five categories for the roles of teacher educators: (1) *guiding/supervising pre-service teachers and facilitating professional development*, (2) *conducting and disseminating research in teacher education*, (3) *teaching courses/lecturing and advising graduate studies* (4) *having administrative duties*, and (5) *enabling cooperation between schools and universities*.

Table 13

Roles and responsibilities of a teacher educator

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Roles and responsibilities	N	f	N	f
1. Guiding/supervising PST and facilitating development	-	-	-	-
- <i>guiding pre-service teachers</i>	21	32	15	19
- <i>being a good role model</i>	13	13	7	7
- <i>creating awareness</i>	8	10	3	3
- <i>motivating and inspiring PST to become teachers</i>	4	4	6	6
- <i>giving feedback</i>	2	2	4	5
- <i>sharing experiences as a teacher</i>	-	-	8	12
- <i>showing the life of a teacher at school</i>	-	-	8	9
TOTAL	-	61	-	61
2. Conducting and disseminating teacher education research	-	-	-	-
- <i>doing research</i>	14	16	-	-
- <i>sharing research findings</i>	3	3	-	-
- <i>writing articles</i>	2	2	-	-
- <i>attending conferences</i>	2	2	-	-
- <i>localizing research findings</i>	1	2	-	-
- <i>reviewing/editing</i>	1	1	-	-
- <i>developing knowledge</i>	1	1	-	-
- <i>being involved in decision making</i>	1	1	-	-
- <i>developing the curriculum</i>	1	1	-	-
TOTAL	-	29	-	-
3. Teaching courses and supervising graduate studies	-	-	-	-
- <i>teaching undergraduate courses</i>	14	14	-	-
- <i>teaching graduate courses</i>	7	7	-	-
- <i>supervising graduate studies</i>	7	7	-	-
- <i>transmitting knowledge</i>	4	4	-	-
TOTAL	-	32	-	-
4. Having administrative duties	5	5	-	-
5. Enabling cooperation between schools and universities	4	4	-	-

As presented in Table 13 in detail, the interviews with university-based teacher educators show that *guiding and supervising pre-service teachers* ($f=32$) is the most frequently referred role for teacher educators. 13 of the university-based teacher educators emphasize the importance of how pre-service teachers model their behaviour and try to be like them, which is why their first role is *being a good role model* for them. Here, the role of teacher educators is *being a guide* since they are the ones guiding the pre-service teachers to the field. By doing this, the university-based teacher educator is giving the pre-service teachers the content and pedagogical knowledge, along with some practical information about being a good teacher by sharing their experiences. Other than being a role model, eight of the teacher educators mention *creating awareness*, four of them talk about *motivating and inspiring PST to become teacher*, and two of them consider *giving feedback* as their roles for pre-service teachers. One teacher educator uses the metaphor “*being a muse, an inspirational fairy*” for her role, expressing the difference between transferring knowledge to and being a role model for pre-service teachers:

[12] From my point of view, say, a teacher educator is more like a muse, more like an inspirational fairy. Knowledge is everywhere. Transferring knowledge is long gone. If you ask the same question of me and of google, google can definitely come up with thousands of answers, I can only come up with one or two. So, in this era where knowledge and technology are everywhere, educators do not transfer knowledge anymore. What they do is they become models. They become living muses, very much like, a literary person who needs a muse to write a poem, teachers also need a muse to lead the way, guide them, show them that different things are possible (U28)

Secondly, the university-based teacher educators believe that *conducting and disseminating research in teacher education* ($f=29$) is one major role that they have. On the one hand, they believe that as teacher educators, they need to be constantly *writing articles, attending conferences, reviewing/editing* etc. to fulfil the requirements of the Higher Education Council as they are academicians. On the other hand, three of them also state that an equally important role is to *share the research findings* with teachers and pre-service teachers if it is their own research, or one states that it is important to *localize the research findings* if it is borrowed from the literature. Other roles related to *research* mentioned

by the university-based teacher educators are *developing knowledge, being involved in decision making, and developing the curriculum*.

Thirdly, the analyses show that *teaching courses/lecturing* and *advising graduate studies* ($f=32$) are other major roles that university-based teacher educators have. 14 of the university-based teacher educators believe that their primary role is to *teach*, to have the pre-service teachers gain the necessary academic knowledge and competences to become a teacher. Another group of teacher educators lay emphasis on the different roles that come with different titles in academia in Turkey. They claim that in Turkey there is no distinction between academic personnel who is solely responsible to teach and to do research, as in other countries. Their role is to do both. Seven of them believe that their role also includes *teaching graduate courses* and another seven of them add that *being an academic advisor to graduate students* is another major role for university-based teacher educators. In addition to teaching, educating, and guiding pre-service teachers, they also have this role of advising graduate studies either at the departments they are working, or in some other institutes as well, upon request by the administrators.

[13] One identity is of course, teacher. I am teaching to all levels. Speaking, linguistics, phonetics. I also monitor the practicum; in that case my identity is the teacher educator. As I told you earlier, I see myself as a guide to my students. Another role, I was an Erasmus coordinator, I am no longer doing that but I continued to do the Erasmus coordinator for two years and the workload was very heavy. Also, I am a researcher. That's another identity. I am the advisor, MA and PhD advisor. I also offer Master and PhD courses as well. Also, the Institute of Education asked me to give a course for the other departments. I have 52 students in that course as well, coming from other departments. Those are my professional roles (U19)

Fourthly, five university-based teacher educators also report *having administrative duties* as part of the roles that they have. Alongside guiding pre-service teachers, teaching, and doing research, some teacher educators are involved in administrative duties such as being coordinators of different issues related to the department (Erasmus, practice teaching, etc.), taking part in different commissions (exam preparation, program development, etc.), and departmental administration (chair, vice chair, etc.).

Lastly, four of the university-based teacher educators also mention *enabling cooperation between school and universities* as one role that they assume as teacher educators. They feel that it is their role to connect with mentor teachers and administrators at schools, and collaboratively work with them so that the practicum component of the teacher education program runs smoothly.

When the interviews with the school-based mentor teachers are analysed, it is seen that mentor teachers only have one role: *guiding/supervising pre-service teachers and facilitating professional development* (f=61) as opposed to the multi-faceted roles of university-based teacher educators. More specifically, the mentor teachers state that it is their role to enable the pre-service teachers to first of all spend *the 40 minutes* in class in the most productive way possible. In order to do this, their roles include *sharing their experiences, giving them feedback, and being a role model by creating awareness*. Apart from guiding the pre-service teachers to the practical aspects of being a teacher, eight of the mentor teachers also express that it is their role to *show them the life of a teacher*; what teachers do outside the class and when they are not teaching, how they fill out required teachers' notebooks, how it is to be on duty in the break time, which rules there are for teachers in schools, etc.

[14] Öğretmen eğitimcisinin kendisinin özellikle kılığıyla kıyafetiyle, sınıfa hakimiyetiyle, çocuklarla ilişkileriyle örnek olması lazım çünkü stajyer öğrenci ilk önce bizi görüyor. Rol model olarak da bizi alıyor. O yüzden bizim görevimiz daha önemli. Akademisyenlerin çizdiği tablodansa bizi görmeleri daha önemli <A teacher educator himself/herself needs to be a role model especially in terms of clothing, classroom management, relations with the students because the mentee sees us first as a teacher. And s/he takes us as the role model. That is why our role is more important. It is more important that they see us instead of the model presented by the academicians > (S5)

Even though the mentor teachers mention that being a teacher educator brings more responsibilities on their part, they generally focus on pre-service teachers when they are asked to define their roles as teacher educators. This might not be surprising as being a teacher educator is already an additional role that these teachers are asked to assume.

4.1.3. Journey of Becoming a University-based Teacher Educator

Investigating how teacher educators became teacher educators in the first place is another aspect of how the participants define the teacher educator profile. As the analyses of the interviews with university-based teacher educators show, they have different routes that they have taken to become teacher educators. Table 14 presents these routes.

Table 14

How university-based teacher educators became teacher educators

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)	
Journey of becoming a university-based teacher educator	N	f
- Through role-modelling/apprenticeship	3	3
- After experience as a teacher	3	3
- Through administrator request	1	1
- Practical reasons	1	1
- Conscious choice	1	1

Apprenticeship/role-modelling is seen by three university-based teacher educators to be one of the ways of becoming a teacher educator, as seen in Table 14. This role modelling usually takes place in the course of graduate studies, when the graduate student is taking the faculty members of the department as a role model. Considered as a prospective teacher educator, s/he observes the classes of experienced teacher educators, combines the observations with his/her own reading, and at the end of the process when the graduate studies are over, the candidate becomes a teacher educator.

Another journey into becoming a teacher educator includes *experiencing teaching* beforehand, mentioned by three of them. This process of teaching experience is generally in the form of teaching English to learner of the language, either in schools or private language courses, right after graduating from the teacher education department. Those who have teaching experience before they start educating teachers consider this to be an important aspect to the characteristics of being a teacher educator.

In some other cases, one of them states that *practical reasons* play an important role in the decision to become a teacher educator. One participant, for instance, states that the reason s/he became a teacher educator was purely unconscious; the original aim was to become a teacher, but when there was no opportunity for being appointed as a teacher of English through the national examination system, the route changed to be an instructor at a university. Later, seeing that everyone was pursuing graduate level education, the same route was taken. After receiving the Ph.D. degree eventually, the participant became a teacher educator, with the belief that as an instructor with a Ph.D. degree, it would not be possible to teach “yes/no questions” anymore.

There are, however, other cases where *a conscious choice* plays an important role in the participant’s decision to become a teacher educator. As such, the participant was conscious about being a teacher educator all along. With this specific aim in mind at an early age, the participant went through all the education process after graduating from the teacher education department, attended specific certificate courses and participated in professional development activities consciously to fulfil the dream of becoming a teacher educator.

Lastly, another point that is raised by the university-based teacher educators is that the decision to become a teacher educator who teaches the practicum course is sometimes taken by the administrators, regardless of the qualifications of the academician. Therefore, the journey of becoming a teacher educator involves *administrator request* in this case.

[15] Ben öğrencileri staja götürdüğüm zaman doktoralı değildim ve yüksek lisansım edebiyat alanında idi. Sadece çok temel kavramları biliyordum. İlk başta da çok itiraz ettim ben bunu yapamam bu donanıma sahip değilim diye. Ama üniversitenin ya da bölümün o günkü koşulları buna izin vermedi çünkü herkesin üzerinde o kadar çok görev yükü ve öğrenci yükü vardı ki beni de işin içine soktular <I did not have my Ph.D. degree when I took the students to the practicum experience and my master’s degree was on English literature. I only knew the basic concepts. At first, I objected a lot saying that I wouldn’t be able to do this, I wasn’t qualified. But then the available conditions of the university and the department did not permit this, because everyone had a lot course load and student load, I was dragged into this> (U10)

In the given quotation for instance, the university-based teacher educator does not see himself/herself qualified enough to guide the practicum experience of pre-service teachers. Though the field of study is totally different, this participant is involved in teacher education due to lack of teacher educators to give the course, and high number of students in the program.

4.1.4. Journey of Becoming a School-based Mentor Teacher

Investigating the journey for school-based mentor teachers for how they became involved in the practice of teacher education constitutes another aspect of defining the teacher educator profile.

The analyses of the interviews reveal that school-based mentor teachers are *randomly chosen as mentors, voluntarily chosen as mentors, chosen according to experience, or chosen through administrator decision*. Mention frequencies are given in Table 15.

Table 15

How school-based mentor teachers became teacher educators

	School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Journey of becoming a school-based mentor teacher	N	f
- <i>Chosen randomly</i>	4	5
- <i>Chosen voluntarily</i>	4	4
- <i>Chosen according to experience</i>	2	3
- <i>Chosen by administrator</i>	1	1

Four mentor teachers state that *being chosen randomly* is the most common way for them to be involved in the process of practicum experience. The process usually is as follows; a formal request is forwarded to the school by the Ministry, the school administrator considers the schedule of the teachers who are suitable for the practicum, and teachers are determined randomly by the administrator.

[16] Kime verilirse o danışman öğretmen oluyor. Biraz da rastgele aslında. Benim mesela 6 saatim var. Günde 6 saat dersi olana veriliyor. Arkadaşımın mesela 4 saati var, benden az derse giriyor, ona verilmedi. Hani bilerek isteyerek şu olsun diyerek değil <*Whoever assigned becomes a mentor*

teacher. It is actually random. I, for instance, have 6 teaching hours per day. It is given to the ones who have 6 hours a day. My friend, for instance, has 4 hours, teaches less than me, and not assigned. It's not through a specific process> (S11)

In some other cases, the administrator asks the teachers at school if they want to be a mentor teacher and thus, the mentor teachers are *chosen on a voluntary basis*. Usually, the head of department, or the school administrator sends an e-mail to the teachers or just calls them and asks them to step forward if they are interested in becoming mentors of pre-service teachers to come from the university. Those who agree become mentor teachers. In some other cases, however, the participants report that one day they receive a note from the school administrator saying that there is this kind of a process and that they are involved in it. In other words, *administrator decision* is another means for teachers to become mentor teachers, as stated by one mentor teacher.

Another way for a school teacher to become a mentor teacher includes *selection based on experience*. Two of them report that as far as they observe, the administrator takes the years of experience of teachers in deciding who will be mentor teachers. One participant acknowledges that it is the first time for him/her to have mentees after teaching for the eighth year at the school. Even though eventually it is the school administrator who decides which school teacher becomes a mentor teacher, it is seen in the interviews that this decision might sometimes be shaped by factors such as experience and voluntariness.

4.2. Competences

With respect to the second research question asked in this study, this section presents the analyses of the interviews with university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers, as well as open-ended survey with pre-service teachers. In the interviews, the teacher educators were asked '*what constitutes the knowledge base of teacher educators?*' and '*what competences/skills do teacher educators have?*' The pre-service teachers were asked '*what competences/skills do you think your ideal teacher educator should have?*' in the open-ended surveys. The answers to these questions are presented below.

4.2.1. Knowledge Base of Teacher Educators

This section provides the results of the analyses regarding how teacher educators state that they construct their knowledge base as teacher educators, as well as what domains are included in this knowledge base.

4.2.1.1. How It is Constructed

The analysis of the interviews show that university-based teacher educators construct their knowledge base as teacher educators in the following three ways: through *experience*, through *academic studies and research*, and through a process of *apprenticeship*. In a similar perspective, the knowledge base for school-based mentor teachers is reported to be constructed solely through *experience*, both as a *teacher* and a *mentee*, as presented in Table 16.

Table 16

How participants constructed their knowledge base as teacher educators

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Ways for constructing knowledge base as a teacher educator	N	f	N	f
1. Through experience	-	-	-	-
- as a teacher educator	12	15	-	-
- as a teacher	1	1	7	8
- as a mentee	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	16	-	9
2. Through research	-	-	-	-
- academic studies	2	2	-	-
- conferences/seminars	2	2	-	-
TOTAL	-	4	-	-
3. Through a process of apprenticeship	2	3	-	-

Almost all university-based teacher educators who report on how they construct their knowledge base believe that it is constructed through *experience as a teacher educator*, as seen in Table 16. As such, 12 of them emphasize the point that they did not have any training in their graduate studies about teacher education, and that over the years, they started to get better and better in their profession. One teacher educator says that it is similar to how actors and actresses of the theatre and cinema become doyens in their

professions. Although most of the time this process of *learning to be a teacher educator through experience* seems to be positive for teacher educators, there are some who regard it as a negative thing that knowledge construction process is left to those processes shaped in years by individual experiences.

[17] Bu professional knowledge'i, mesleki kariyeri insan zaman içerisinde kazanır diye düşünüyorum. Tıpkı çeşitli mesleklerdeki duayenlerde olduğu gibi; film, tiyatro, sinema, romancılıkta olduğu gibi <*I believe that one gains this professional knowledge, professional career in time. Just like the doyens in some other professions, such as; films, theatre, cinema, writing etc.*> (U24)

[18] Bu maalesef bizim ülkemizdeki koşulların yetersizliği neticesinde yola giderken öğreniliyor <*Unfortunately, this is learned 'en route' due to the lack of circumstances in our country*> (U34)

In a similar perspective, *previous experience as a teacher* is also stated to be one important element in how teacher educators construct their knowledge as educators. It is mentioned by one of the participants that s/he makes use of the experience as a teacher of English when s/he deals with pre-service teachers at the university level. The importance of the experience in teaching English to learners of the language is specifically emphasized. It is, as stated, very much different from the experience gained while teaching content courses such as methodology, linguistics etc. to pre-service teachers at the tertiary level.

For school-based mentor teachers, similarly, the process of knowledge construction occurs mostly through *experience as a teacher*, according to the analyses of the interviews. Seven of the school-based mentor teachers express that they pull on their own experiences as a teacher in guiding the pre-service teachers. They emphasize that they have not taken any course on how they would mentor pre-service teachers. One example of the statements from the participants is illustrated in the following quotation.

[19] Ben şu anda mentörüm ama bununla ilgili eğitim almadım. Ben de üniversitede aynı yollardan geçtim, aynı süreci bildiğim için sadece sürecin nasıl işlediğini bildiğimi söyleyebilirim ve bununla ilgili doğru yönlendirmeleri yapabileceğimi düşünüyorum <*I am a mentor teacher now but I haven't taken any training for this. I also passes through the same process, and I know the process, so I can just say that I know how the process works and that I can do the necessary guidance*> (S36)

Similarly, *previous experience as a mentee* is stated, by one mentor teacher, to be one of the ways that help mentor teachers construct their professional knowledge base as teacher educators. Mentor teachers believe that they are familiar to this process, since they themselves have passed through the same practicum experience.

4.2.1.2. What It Includes

The analyses of the interviews with teacher educators and the survey results with pre-service teachers show that there are five components to the knowledge base of teacher educators. The details of these are presented in Table 17 below.

Table 17
Domains of knowledge base for a teacher educator

	University -based teacher educators (N=41)		School- based mentor teachers (N=43)		Pre- service teachers (N=193)	
Domains of knowledge base	N	f	N	f	N	f
1. Knowledge of content and pedagogy	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>pedagogical knowledge</i>	17	23	6	6	15	15
- <i>content knowledge</i>	13	19	9	9	43	43
- <i>English/ language/language skills</i>	7	8	1	1	5	5
- <i>literature</i>	2	2	-	-	-	-
- <i>other disciplines (sociology, psychology)</i>	1	1	-	-	2	2
- <i>digital technologies</i>	1	1	1	1	-	-
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	54	-	17	-	65
2. Knowledge of learners and learning	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>nature of learning/language acquisition</i>	8	12	-	-	2	2
- <i>learners (needs, interests, styles)</i>	6	8	7	7	15	15
- <i>classrooms/classroom management</i>	6	6	1	1	1	1
- <i>other learning environments</i>	1	1	-	-	-	-
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	26	-	8	-	18
3. Knowledge of curriculum and assessment	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>testing and assessment</i>	4	5	-	-	2	2
- <i>materials design and evaluation</i>	2	2	-	-	-	-
- <i>curriculum (MoNE and CHE)</i>	2	2	2	2	1	1
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	9	-	2	-	3
4. Knowledge of policy, system and society	-	-	-	-	-	6
- <i>education system/practices</i>	6	7	-	-	-	-
- <i>society</i>	1	1	-	-	-	-
- <i>language planning</i>	1	1	-	-	-	-
- <i>cultural/world knowledge</i>	-	-	-	-	6	6
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	9	-	-	-	6
5. Knowledge of research	4	4	-	-	-	-

As seen in Table 17, the five domains of knowledge base for a teacher educator are (1) *knowledge of content and pedagogy*, (2) *knowledge of learners and learning*, (3) *knowledge of curriculum and assessment*, (4) *knowledge of policy, system and society*, and (5) *knowledge of research*.

4.2.1.2.1. Knowledge of Content and Pedagogy

As seen in Table 17, *knowledge of content and pedagogy* is the most frequently mentioned domain for teacher educator knowledge base by university-based teacher educators ($f=54$), school-based mentor teachers ($f=17$), and pre-service teachers alike ($f=65$).

Pedagogical knowledge is seen to be the most referred domain of knowledge by university-based teacher educators. 17 of them stress that teacher educators need to have an overall picture of what an English language teacher is and what s/he should be capable of doing once graduated from university. In other words, knowing what to teach and how to teach goes hand in hand. Without the knowledge of pedagogy, knowledge of content would not suffice.

[21] First of all, field knowledge. A language teacher educator has to know the field. What I mean by field is not only limited to how to teach speaking and writing. It would be field specific. But other than that, general pedagogical knowledge. Teacher educator has to know what is suggested in the social constructivist for example...Secondly, you have to do a lot of things like theoretical knowledge but theoretical knowledge would not suffice. You have to make sense of theoretical knowledge. You have to think over them. You have to make a connection between what is actually suggested (U39)

Regarded as equally important by 13 university-based teacher educators is the *content knowledge*. University-based teacher educators define content knowledge as *concepts*, *theories*, and *terminologies* related to the field in general. They also use the terms *academic knowledge*, *subject knowledge*, and *field knowledge* interchangeably to refer to the *content knowledge* related to the field of teacher education. This also includes knowing about the *language* itself; how it is learned, how it is acquired, taught, and studied. Specifically, they state that teacher educators need to define how they approach language in general, what linguistic insights they have, along with the *competence* in the language

with regard to four skills. In addition to this, knowledge of *literature* in the English language is identified to be another constraint in content knowledge.

[20] So there are two things that I believe a language teacher educator should have. The first thing is the competencies; what purposes of language teacher education are, that sort of knowledge, consciousness, awareness; and also skills to build those competencies definitely, and the for the courses he/she teaches per se, again, that person should have an understanding of how they can help people bring about and develop those competencies (U2)

Other components of content knowledge that are considered to be significant aspects of the knowledge base for university-based teacher educators include *knowledge of other disciplines* (such as psychology, sociology, and educational sciences), and *digital technologies*. They believe that knowledge of these other disciplines is important as part of the content knowledge in order to understand the psychology of a pre-service teacher who goes through the process of practicum at school; what it means to be a mentee, how to support a mentee, what problems might occur in a school setting, what are the ways of solving these problems etc. Similarly, the content knowledge is also believed to include the knowledge of digital technologies and how they are applied into teaching. Since the new generation is considered to be *digital natives* born into a world of technology, it is crucial for a teacher educator to be aware of these as well.

Nine of the school-based mentor teachers refer to *content knowledge* as the most important constraint of knowledge. They believe that terminology related to the field changes a lot and they are not actively following these, that is why they feel like they need to catch up. In addition to that, since pre-service teachers coming from the university with a sound theoretical knowledge base, the mentor teachers also feel responsible to reply to their possible problems and questions with sufficient knowledge. That is why they think a mentor teacher needs to be knowledgeable about the *recent terminology* and *theoretical knowledge*. Additionally, a mentor teacher suggests that the content knowledge does not only consist of the knowledge related to the field, that is, English language teaching, but also includes *educational psychology* and

educational sociology since they are dealing with human beings, either with pre-service teachers as mentees, or their own learners in the classroom.

[22] Maybe recent terminology, because I noticed that terminology has changed a lot. One of my student teachers would say something, it could be a term I never heard, then they'll describe it to me and I say "oh we call that bla bla in the day". So, definitely recent terminology. Also, recent trends in education. We may have not learned these cutting-edge trends (S38)

Pedagogical knowledge is also suggested to be an important aspect in defining the knowledge base of mentor teachers. Just like university-based teacher educators, nine of the school-based mentor teachers believe that knowledge of content does not suffice on its own without the knowledge of how to deliver it in effective ways.

Other aspects to the content and pedagogical knowledge that is reported to be important by school-based mentor teachers include *competence* in all four skills in English, and *digital technologies*, as seen in Table 17. One of the mentor teachers states that they need to be role models first of all with their ability in using the language to both pre-service teachers and their own learners. Similarly, since the classrooms are equipped with smartboards that require specific applications and software, another mentor teacher expresses that they need to know how to use these.

[23] The two basic things that come to my mind are pedagogical competency and content knowledge (P71)

[24] Having the knowledge and the capacity to teach how to teach and specifying what a trainee needs is necessary to be a teacher educator (P164)

The analyses of pre-service teacher surveys also yield similar results regarding the *knowledge of content and pedagogy*, as these are found to be the most important aspects of defining the professional knowledge base of teacher educators. In other words, pre-service teachers believe that *knowledge of four skills, techniques and methods, recent terminology, and other fields such as educational psychology* are found to be important aspects of content and pedagogy.

4.2.1.2.2. Knowledge of Learners and Learning

The analyses show that *knowledge of learners and learning* is the second most frequently mentioned domain constituting the knowledge base of teacher educators, as suggested by all groups of participants.

Eight of the university-based teacher educators believe that knowledge on the *nature of learning* is an essential component in defining the knowledge base of teacher educators. As with the nature of teaching, teacher educators first need to know the *theoretical foundations of general learning and language learning*; what learning is, how people learn, how language is learned, what are the approaches on learning, etc. In a similar perspective, teacher educators also need to know the *learners* themselves; how to teach and behave to learners at different *age* groups, with different *learning styles and needs*, etc.

[25] Professional knowledge involves the philosophy of teaching and learning, the theories and approaches on teaching and learning languages, the research methodologies on teaching and learning languages (U12)

[26] They should have an understanding of what goes on in the language classrooms (U2)

In addition to these, *knowing the classrooms and the learning environments* is found to be a significant component. Since teacher educators are the ones who teach the pre-service teachers about how to teach in the classroom, how to behave in the classroom, how to ensure classroom management, six of them state that they need to have a clear understanding of the classrooms and other learning environments themselves. Additionally, it is also reported by university-based teacher educators that they need to know about what goes in the classroom; how learning takes place and what difficulties are to be expected, so that they are successful in understanding pre-service teacher practices and guide them in a more efficient way.

While university-based teacher educators prioritize the theoretical aspects of knowledge pertaining to learners and learning, school-based mentor teachers, on the other hand, refer mostly to the practical sides such as *how to behave to*

different learner groups, understanding student psychology, and classroom management. Since they are teachers of English who deal with the practical aspects of learners and learning, they believe that these are important points for pre-service teachers to see when they are having their observations. These approaches of the mentor teachers, as one participant states, are determinant in shaping the future practice of the mentee when confronted in similar situations.

[27] Bir defa ergen psikolojisini çok iyi bilmesi lazım bir öğretmen eğitimcisinin, özellikle lisede. Biz sürekli ergenlerle uğraşıyoruz... Onların çok farklı problemleri olabiliyor. Hayata bakış açıları çok farklı. Çok küçük bir şeyi büyütebiliyorlar ve ya çok büyük bir şeyi hiç önemsemiyorlar. Öğretmenin onlara yaklaşımı, stajyer öğrencinin gözünde çok belirleyici oluyor. İleride nasıl davranacağını gösterebilmesi açısından bence çok önemli <*First a teacher educator needs to know about the psychology of adolescents very well, especially in high school. We are constantly dealing with adolescents...They might have totally different problems. Their world visions are different. A small thing could be of great importance to them, or they may not care at all about important things. The teacher's approach becomes determinant for the mentee. I think it is really important for them to see it to understand how they will behave in such situation in the future*> (S5)

[28] A teacher educator must have an understanding of his/her student's levels, interests, and personalities and she should integrate them to his/her lesson for an optimal teaching (P71)

In a similar perspective, pre-service teachers, just like mentor teachers, seem to emphasize *learner needs and interests* as part of a teacher educator's knowledge base. In other words, they believe that teacher educators need to have a thorough understanding of what their learners need and what they are interested in. In addition to these, *knowledge of classrooms, and nature of learning* are other aspects to the knowledge of learners and learning that are emphasized by pre-service teachers. They believe that a good teacher educator needs to know how learning occurs in the classroom environment and other learning environments. They especially focus on these issues because they believe that a teacher educator, either at university or school, can be a good model for them only if they know these both from the perspective of teaching English to learners in schools, and addressing their needs as mentees at the university.

4.2.1.2.3. Knowledge of Curriculum and Assessment

The data analyses show that another domain of teacher educator knowledge base mentioned by all groups of participants is the *knowledge of curriculum and assessment*.

University-based teacher educators view *knowledge of curriculum and assessment* from two aspects. One aspect includes all those information present in the *curriculum of teacher education* at the university. They state that a teacher educator needs to be aware of the whole curriculum and know what to be taught to the pre-service teachers. The other aspect includes the *curriculum of English language* at the schools so that they are able to connect theory and practice when educating pre-service teachers. Besides the knowledge of curriculum itself, they believe that it is also important to know how to plan and evaluate both of the curricula. In addition to the curriculum, *testing, test preparation, assessment, and materials design and evaluation* are other mentioned components that add to teacher educator knowledge, as reported by university-based teacher educators.

[29] We should also have a good knowledge of the curriculum, to see how things are done in our country, be able to connect the theory and practice (U8)

School-based mentor teachers, on the other hand, do not refer to the assessment component at all. They regard the knowledge of curriculum that they are teaching as an important component of their knowledge base. Some teacher educators, similarly, believe that they also need to know about the curriculum of pre-service teacher education in order to be helpful for them. This also points to the issue of *lacks*, what teacher educators do not know, which is discussed in the following parts in this section.

[30] Onların ne yaptığını biliyor olmak lazım. Onlar ne için geliyorlar? Nasıl bir eğitim alıyorlar, bizden ne bekliyorlar? Bunu bilmek lazım. Bunun farkında olmak lazım, daha iyi yardımcı olmak istiyorsak. Biraz daha örnek olacağımız için daha özenli olmamız lazım <We need to know what they [pre-service teachers] are doing. Why are they coming here for? What kind of education they get, and what do they expect from us? We need to know these. We need to be

aware of these if we want to be of more help. We need to be meticulous since we will be models> (S19)

[31] Competent enough to know the curriculum of MoNE schools and to provide detailed instructions and plans for our internship (P127)

Pre-service teachers, in a similar perspective, believe that teacher educators need to know the *curriculum of MoNE*, as well as *testing and assessment*, if they are going to be modelling them in their process of becoming teachers.

4.2.1.2.4. Knowledge of Policy, System, and Society

Knowledge of language policy and education system, as well as the needs of the society is mentioned as another domain in defining the knowledge base of a teacher educator. This domain, however, is mentioned by university-based teacher educators and pre-service teachers. School-based mentor teachers have not mentioned these domains to be included in the knowledge base of a teacher educator. While university-based teacher educators mention the importance of *knowing the education system and its practices*, pre-service teachers focus more on the cultural awareness of the society. In other words, teacher educators believe that they need to know all components of the national education system, from books used in the classrooms to how teachers are selected, to provide a more realistic and efficient education for pre-service teachers. Also, this helps them, as they report, teach how to practice theory in a clearer way.

[32] Basically, we need to have a clear understanding of the system. You know, who is our main customer? The end user of our graduates is Ministry of National Education. Right? This is one of the main competences of a teacher educator. What's happening? Including myself, I cannot say I am competent enough because the system keeps changing (U38)

Language planning is found to be another component included in the knowledge of policy that makes up the knowledge base of teacher educators, which is mentioned only by university-based teacher educators. This is especially emphasized because it coincides with how to teach and how to learn, and that without the knowledge of language planning, a teacher educator, as reported, could not relate these to real teaching settings.

School-based teacher educators, on the other hand, emphasize the importance of *cultural awareness and world knowledge* as part of teacher educators' knowledge base. They also believe that teacher educators, along with the general knowledge of the education system, need to know the *needs* of the society to plan the most effective ways of teaching and education to both learners and pre-service teachers.

4.2.1.2.5. Knowledge of Research

Knowledge of research is regarded as another domain of knowledge that constitutes the knowledge base of teacher educators, though it is only put forward by university-based teacher educators. Four of them believe it is a crucial component of teacher educator knowledge to know the research methodologies on teaching and learning languages. In addition to a general understanding of research on teacher education, *classroom research* is specifically mentioned as an important research component.

[33] Bence bir kere classroom research çok iyi bilecek, teacher education demiyorum. Yani teacher education tama ayrı bir şey ama teacher education'ın bize sınıfta öğrenciler bağlamında birebir tecrübe ettiğimiz konularda yardımcı olamadığını görebiliriz. Bu yüzden classroom research iyi bilen, classroom research konusunda iyi okumuş bir hoca olacak <To me, s/he should know classroom research very well, I am not saying teacher education. I mean teacher education is something but we can see that it might not be useful in classrooms regarding the topics we experience one-on-one in the contexts of learners. Therefore, s/he should be a teacher educator who knows classroom research well, and has read about it> (U34)

School-based mentor teachers and pre-service teachers have not mentioned *research* with regard to the knowledge base of a teacher educator.

4.2.1.3. Difference between Teacher Educators and Mentor Teachers

When the interviews are analysed, it is seen that in terms of their knowledge base, university-based teacher educators also report some differences that they and school-based mentor teachers have. Table 18 presents the findings related to these differences.

First of all, teacher educators at the university believe that there is a core *difference in the profession itself* as well as *purposes for professional development*. Therefore, these differences are reflected in defining their knowledge base. Firstly, 10 of the university-based teacher educators state that while they deal more with *theoretical aspects* of teacher education, mentor teachers are involved in the *practical aspects*, which is why the knowledge base is naturally expected to be theoretical on the university side, and practical on the school side. Secondly, three of them state that the professional development purposes are different.

Table 18

Differences between the knowledge bases of a university-based teacher educator and a school-based mentor teacher

Differences (university-based teacher educator and mentor teacher)	University-based teacher educators (N=41)	
	N	f
1. Difference in profession and professional development purposes	-	17
- <i>theory/academic vs. practice</i>	10	12
- <i>differences in professional development purposes</i>	3	4
- <i>criteria for teacher educators</i>	1	1
2. Difference in curriculum and target audience	-	5
- <i>difference in purpose</i>	2	2
- <i>curriculum difference</i>	2	2
- <i>learner age differences</i>	1	1
3. No difference/same knowledge base	4	4

While there are specific criteria for university-based teacher educators to follow as part of their professional development, such as specific number and quality of articles to write which aim to develop their theoretical knowledge, school-based mentor teachers usually have no such purposes for their professional development. They usually only attend in-service teaching seminars, which aim to better practical applications.

[34] When I compare these two groups, I guess at university, we follow up the research, recent developments, we focus more on theory. School based teacher educators spend most of their time teaching, so they don't have this chance, I believe, to follow the recent developments, recent theoretical views on the field. So, they have more hands-on experience and knowledge. But we have a chance to reflect and read and teach and interact with our students, talk about

it, discuss it, think about teaching and learning in different theoretical perspectives (U19)

In addition to the difference in profession and professional development, *differences in curriculum* and *target audience* are reported to be important aspects to be considered in defining the knowledge base. While teacher educators at universities deal with young adults and adults, mentor teachers at schools teach to younger learners, usually kids, or adolescents. This *difference in the age group* requires that there is difference in the work done. Additionally, teacher educators focus on teaching how to teach, whereas mentor teachers focus on teaching. That is why, the curriculum of schools and universities are different. This means that while the teacher educators are the ones who equip pre-service teachers with theoretical aspects of teaching, mentor teachers show them the practical aspect of teaching, which, as suggested, is the actual thing.

[35] Onlar için laboratuvar kısmında aslında. Bizim öğrencilerimize bizler teorik bir takım bilgileri veriyoruz ama asıl canlı doğal ortamında ve laboratuvarında onların olayı görmeleri, gözlem yapmaları ve uygulamalarını istiyoruz. Bu açıdan tabi ki aramızda farklar var. Teorik anlamda biz belki bir adım öndeyiz ama uygulamada da onlar önde. *<They are actually in the laboratory side of the profession. We give our students some theoretical knowledge but we actually want them to see the teaching, observe and do practice in the real live and natural setting and laboratory. In this respect, we surely have differences. We might be a step ahead theoretically but they precede in terms of practice>* (U26)

Last but not least, there are four teacher educators who believe that there is essentially no difference in the knowledge base required for being a university-based teacher educator or school-based mentor teacher in the sense that both are fed by the same source. This is emphasized because both teacher educator groups graduate getting the same education, but the individual decides what to do in the future for the professional career.

[36] I don't think there is essentially any difference because more or less everyone receives sort of the same education, from people with the same background. They actually have so much in common in terms of their knowledge base. So, I don't think there is any difference (U7)

4.2.1.4. Difference between Mentor Teachers and Teachers

When the interviews are analysed, it is also seen that school-based mentor teachers report some differences that they and teachers who do not assume mentoring roles have in terms of their knowledge base. Table 19 presents the findings related to these differences.

Table 19

Differences between the knowledge bases of a school-based mentor teacher and a teacher

	School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Difference (school-based mentor teacher and teacher)	N	f
1. No difference/same knowledge base	14	15
2. Difference in content knowledge	-	2
- <i>content of teaching</i>	1	1
- <i>knowledge in mentoring problems</i>	1	1

It is found out that 14 of the school-based mentor teachers believe there is no difference between the knowledge base of being a mentor teacher and a teacher. They especially emphasize the fact that they do whatever they normally do in classes, the pre-service teachers observe them, ask questions, teach lessons, and they give feedback. They are not doing anything out of the ordinary or anything special; therefore, their knowledge base is not different from those teachers who are not mentors. Some of them also express that they have not taken any specific education to be a mentor teacher; thus, it is perfectly understandable that they share the same knowledge base as teachers of English.

[37] Standart bir öğretmende olması gerekenler. Benim ekstra bir şeyim yok. Kendimde, diğer öğretmen arkadaşlardan farklı olarak şu var diyemem. Hepimiz aynıyız <*The things that a standard teacher needs to have. I don't have anything extra. I can't say that I have this, as different from other friends. We are all the same*> (S3)

Yet, two mentor teachers assert that there are at least some things that are different such as *the content of what is taught* to pre-service teachers and students, as well as the knowledge in *problems related to practice teaching*. In other words, these mentor teachers believe that when they are mentoring the pre-service teachers, the knowledge base they need to have is naturally

different since they are not teaching the mentors the use of the passive voice, but they are showing them how they can teach it to the students, and how students understand it etc. Similarly, when they are mentoring, they state that they need to know about certain problems that they would encounter in the classroom related to teaching.

4.2.2. Skills of Teacher Educators

According to the analyses of the interviews with teacher educators and survey with pre-service teachers, skills of teacher educators are grouped under seven main categories. These seven categories are (1) *modelling teaching*, (2) *establishing communication*, (3) *conducting research*, (4) *reflecting on practices and developing professionally*, (5) *observing and reporting on learning*, (6) *modelling language use*, and (7) *investigating and solving problems*. Table 20 presents these skills with regard to the opinions from university-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers, and pre-service teachers, where applicable.

Table 20
Skills of a teacher educator

Skills	University -based teacher educators (N=41)		School- based mentor teachers (N=43)		Pre- service teachers (N=193)	
	N	f	N	f	N	f
1. Modelling teaching	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>making theory explicit</i>	7	7	-	-	6	6
- <i>transferring knowledge/effective teaching</i>	5	6	12	16	33	33
- <i>effective classroom management</i>	4	4	8	8	27	27
- <i>creating ways for practice</i>	1	1	-	-	-	-
- <i>use of board</i>	1	1	-	-	1	1
- <i>addressing learners needs and interests</i>	-	-	-	-	28	28
- <i>effective design and use of materials</i>	-	-	-	-	4	4
- <i>using technology in teaching</i>	-	-	-	-	4	4
- <i>effective time management</i>	-	-	-	-	2	2
- <i>drama techniques</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	19	-	24	-	110
2. Establishing communication	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>effective communication</i>	10	11	4	4	66	66
- <i>cooperating in a group work/collaboration</i>	1	1	-	-	2	2
- <i>making humour</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	12	-	4	-	69
3. Conducting research	4	7	-	-	3	3

Table 20 (Continued)

Skills of a teacher educator

4. Observing and reporting on learning	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>observing the practices of PST</i>	2	2	2	2	2	2
- <i>guiding and motivating PST</i>	1	1	1	1	6	6
- <i>assessing, evaluating, and giving feedback</i>	-	-	1	1	9	9
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	3	-	4	-	17
5. Reflecting on practices and developing professionally	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>adapting to contexts, changes, technology and developments in the field</i>	4	4	2	2	32	32
- <i>reflection, self-assessment and evaluation</i>	1	1	4	4	2	2
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	5	-	6	-	34
6. Modelling language use	-	-	-	-	-	-
- using language fluently and accurately with full proficiency in four skills	3	4	-	-	41	41
- helping students use the language	-	-	-	-	1	1
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	4	-	-	-	42
7. Investigating and solving problems	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>problem solving, analytical and critical thinking</i>	2	2	2	2	9	9
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	2	-	2	-	9

4.2.2.1. Modelling Teaching

Modelling teaching is identified by all three participant groups as the most frequently reported skill that teacher educators need to have (university-based teacher educators, $f=19$; school-based mentor teachers, $f=24$; and pre-service teachers, $f=110$).

When asked about the skills of a good teacher educator, seven of the university-based teacher educators reply with the ability of *making theory explicit*, and five of them, with *transferring knowledge*. They believe that teacher educators need to have the skill of teaching in a way that makes the theoretical knowledge explicit for the pre-service teachers. One emphasis here is the *transformation of the knowledge* in pre-service teacher's mind, so that it is easily applicable. Teacher educators state that most of them have this knowledge related to the field, but the ability to *transfer* it is another issue. In other words, teacher educators need to have the teaching skill to instil the content knowledge in pre-service teachers.

[38] And obviously a good teacher educator has to make a connection between what is suggested in theory and what should be done in practice (U39)

Other sub-skills related to *modelling teaching* that teacher educators find to be significant relate to classroom practices such as *effective classroom management*, *creating ways for practice* and *using the board efficiently*. Teacher educators believe that they need to have these skills themselves first, before they have the pre-service teachers gain these. In a similar perspective, while 12 of the school-based teacher educators believe that the *transferring knowledge* is an important skill, eight of them report that *classroom management* is an important skill that mentor teachers need to have. They emphasize the fact that they need to be able to transfer their professional knowledge to pre-service teachers, by modelling good teaching in the classroom environment. Moreover, some mentor teachers believe that more than fifty percent of the teaching in the classroom occurs if the teacher is able to manage classroom well. Therefore, efficient classroom management skills are also important in providing a good model for mentor teachers so that they learn from them.

[39] Hepimiz bilgiye sahibiyiz ama bunu doğru bir şekilde eğittiğimiz insanlara, stajyerlerimize anlatabiliyor olmamız çok önemli <*We all have the knowledge but it is very important that we are able to give it to the people we educate, our mentees in an effective way*> (S36)

According to pre-service teachers, *effective teaching skills* and *classroom management skills* are also the two major skills that teacher educators need to have. They state that teacher educators and mentor teachers need to be able to teach according to learner needs and interests so that they keep the learners interested in the lesson. Another component, as suggested by six of them, includes the teaching of *making use of theory into practice*. Most of the time, the pre-service teachers want to see the successful applications of the theoretical knowledge when they go to practice teaching schools. Therefore, they believe that their mentor teachers need to explicitly show them the right methods and methodologies.

[40] First of all, her/his teaching skills should be developed so that she/he can give that skill to the pre-service teachers (P129)

[41] They should be able to manage the class. They should be neither disciplined nor so relaxed to keep the class balanced. They have to have the ability of delivering the message (input) in an easy way (P145)

There are some skills that are only mentioned by pre-service teachers. For instance, while 28 of them mention *addressing learner needs and interests* as an important skill for a teacher educator, other participants do not mention this. Other sub-skills that pre-service teachers think teacher educators should have related to modelling good teaching include *using technology in the classroom, effective design and use of materials, effective time management, and using drama techniques*, which are not mentioned by teacher educators.

4.2.2.2. Establishing Communication

Effective communication skills are reported by all groups of participants to be another important skill of a teacher educator. 10 of the university-based teacher educators believe that having the ability to communicate with pre-service teachers, teachers at school, other colleagues, and society is an important aspect of being a good teacher educator. They emphasize the point that effective communication skills are required so that they can effectively guide and supervise pre-service teachers in the first place. Also, good communication skills with mentor teachers at school provide opportunities for pre-service professional development. Therefore, they pay attention to communication. Apart from that, they also state that *accessibility* is also a part of effective communication skill; pre-service teachers need to be able to find them, and ask whatever problems they might have.

[42] One important thing is having the ability to communicate with others, both with student teachers and teachers at schools, and society of course (U8)

[43] A good teacher educator is someone who has the competency of communicating well with the students and their colleagues, so that the students can develop this type of communication skills which hopefully they will use in their careers (U23)

[44] Çok iyi iletişim kurabilmek gerekiyor çocuklarla. Eğer ki iletişim ayağını çok umursamaz ve sert bir şekilde yaparsan, ya ciddiyetsiz oluyor ya da çocukları kaçıran bir durum oluyor. Yani onlarla önce dediğim gibi eksikliklerini kapatma konusunda iletişim kurarken dikkatli olunması gerekiyor, çok ince bir çizgi çünkü *<One needs to establish good communication with the kids [mentees]. If you don't care about communication and behave impolite, it either becomes insincere or you lose the kids [mentees]. I mean as I said, one needs to be careful when establishing communication with them about compensating their lacks, because this is a very fine line>* (S2)

School-based teacher educators also agree with university-based teacher educators on the fact that establishing good communication with the mentor teacher helps them become more active and more outgoing in asking questions whenever they arise and therefore, ensure professional development. If not, as they suggest, pre-service teachers might refrain and hold back. Another aspect to effective communication skills of mentor teachers is the communication that they have with their own students. They state that mentor teachers should have good communication with their own learners so that pre-service teachers see the relationship between a teacher and a student.

Last but not least, 66 pre-service teachers also report that teacher educators need to possess *effective communication skills*. They especially state that teacher educators should possess social skills, be good listeners, approachable in that they can talk about anything they want, do motivating talks and also able to *make humour* in the classroom.

4.2.2.3. Conducting Research

Conducting research is another skill that four university-based teacher educators and three pre-service teachers think teacher educators need to have. This skill is not mentioned by school-based mentor teachers as an important skill that they think mentor teachers need to have.

[45] I think the teacher educator should be a good researcher first of all. That's where the knowledge comes from. I mean reading theories, that's something of course but contextual knowledge comes from research most of the time. Therefore, first thing a teacher educator should be a researcher in my opinions (U7)

[46] Research literacy is a very crucial tool for teacher educators because in that sense, they will not be purchasing research findings without questioning (U38)

According to university-based teacher educators, they need to have good *research skills* because research enables the teacher educators to reach contextual knowledge related to teacher education. In addition to this, they believe that doing research, especially classroom research, enables the teacher

educator to see the problems themselves and suggest solutions for these. Actually, as they report, teaching skills and research skills go hand in hand because what you research is also reflected in your teaching. In other words, if you are able to do research and find what works and what does not, you are also able to also develop your teaching skills. Lastly, as one participant reports, teacher educators also need to possess the ability of *research literacy*; that is, not directly adopting research findings from the literature, but they need to be able to question it and adapt it to their own teaching contexts.

Pre-service teachers, similarly, think it is an essential skill for teacher educators to be able to conduct research in order to search and find the best method in their teaching. School-based mentor teachers, however, do not mention research as a skill that they need to have.

4.2.2.4. Observing and Reporting on Learning

Observation skill is reported to be another important skill for teacher educators and it is mentioned by all groups of participants. University-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers, and pre-service teachers all think that a good teacher educator needs to observe the practicum process, provide detailed feedback on what is good and what needs improving, and thus, report on the learning process.

One university-based teacher educator makes a detailed remark about the observation skill that a teacher educator needs to have. S/he states that a teacher educator needs to know what to observe in the classroom; instead of focusing on the little details, the observation should be specifically planned to focus on those issues that the pre-service teacher may benefit most. This, as reported, required going into different classrooms to create yourself chances to observe, just like a pre-service teacher is observing the teacher educator.

[47] İyi bir öğretmen eğitimcisi bence her şeyden önce çok iyi bir gözlemci olmalı. Neyi gözlemleyeceğini bilmeli okullarda. Ben Türkiye’de birçok öğretmen eğitimcisinin bunu bilmediğini düşünüyorum açıkçası. Gidip de mesela sadece sınıfların duvarları yeteri kadar dolu mu, appealing mi gibi detay şeylere bakılacağına mesela, öğrencinin senden istediği orada, bu

worksheet iyi mi? Burada neden management zayıf geldi? Bu reading'i neden bitiremediler? Bu gibi pratik sorunlar. Bir öğretmen eğitimcisi sınıfta o dersi iyi gözlemlemezse ve öğrenciyi iyi gözlemlemezse, bunları anlayamıyor, anlayamaz. Her şeyden evvel en az öğrencinin öğretmeni gözlemlediği kadar sizin de öğrenciyi ve sınıfı, bütün learning ortamını gözlemlemeniz lazım. Bu da ancak daha fazla sınıfa girerek olur, eğer girmediyseniz <I think a good teacher educator needs to be a very good observer first of all. S/he should know what to observe at schools. I don't think many teacher educators in Turkey are aware of this. Instead of looking at the details of whether the classroom walls are appealing, what the student asks of you is whether the worksheet is good, why there is management problem here, why couldn't they finish the reading text etc. Such practical problems. If a teacher educator cannot observe well, s/he doesn't understand these, and can't. You need to observe the pre-service teacher, as the pre-service teacher observes the teacher. And this, you can only do by going into more classrooms, if you haven't already> (U34)

In a similar perspective, school-based mentor teachers and pre-service teachers also emphasize the importance of *observing, assessing, evaluating* and *giving feedback* as part of teacher educators' skills so that they facilitate professional development of pre-service teachers.

4.2.2.5. Reflecting on Practicing and Developing Professionally

Another skill that the participants believe teacher educators need to have is the ability to *reflect on their own practices* and *find ways for professional development*. For university-based teacher educators, *reflection* and *adaptation* are two keywords. They believe that a teacher educator needs to be able to evaluate his/her own actions and change them according to the feedback from the pre-service teachers. In addition to this, the ability to *adapt oneself to technology, grasp the different needs of contexts* and work accordingly are two other skills that came up in the interviews. The emphasis that they place is on the adaptation of their teaching into such developments.

[48] A teacher educator should be able to grasp those differences and work accordingly. So, adaptation skills are important for the topic. Without this skill to adapt oneself, I wouldn't call an individual a professionally developed one (U7)

This teacher educator (U7), for instance, states that s/he teaches in five different departments in the same university, and each department has different cultures, different needs, different purposes. Therefore, s/he believes

that being able to adapt oneself to these different contexts is an important skill that a teacher educator should have.

The same skills apply to school-based mentor teachers, as reported by them. One mentor teacher, for instance, suggests that as a mentor teacher, s/he needs to be able to identify as a teacher educator what one does in class instinctively as a teacher, so that the mentee gets the opportunity to be told about it.

[49] Herkes her davranışı öğretemeyebilir. Bir de o var. Bazı öğretmen gerçekten iyi bir öğretmendir ama öğretmen eğitimcisinin öğretmen adayını eğitmesi gerekiyorsa, neyi ne için yaptığını fark etmesi gerekebilir *<Not everyone can teach every behaviour. There is also that. Some teachers could be really good teacher but if a teacher educator guides a teacher candidate, they need to be aware of why they are doing what they are doing>* (S19)

[50] What I did instinctively in my classes as a teacher, I have to actually identify and explain as a teacher educator. So, it's one thing to have fantastic classroom management skills, just instinctively, but it's another thing to be able to identify. When people are talking, I don't just say 'shut up', I say 'Jam, can you help us out here and listen respectfully?' So, I have to identify these things that I have been doing instinctively (S38)

[51] One of the most important thing is being open to change and also always finding alternatives that can be enrich both your personal knowledge and your personal behaviours (P141)

The data show that 32 of the pre-service teachers, on the other hand, believe that a teacher educator should, be able to *adapt to contexts, changes, technology and developments in the field*. They state that there are certain skills required in the 21st century, such as various uses of ICT (Information and Communication Technology), and that a teacher educator needs to possess these skills by following the trends in the field.

4.2.2.6. Modelling Language Use

Language proficiency is another skill that is suggested to be important in defining the skills of teacher educators. While proficiency in language is mentioned by three university-based teacher educators and 41 pre-service teachers, it goes unnoticed by school-based mentor teachers.

Both groups of participants focus on the issue of *good modelling* when they refer to the *language proficiency* skill for teacher educators. They believe that a teacher educator, above all, is a model with a fluent and accurate use of language, that is why, it is a must for a teacher educator to have excellent language proficiency skills.

[52] Bizim gibi EFL ya da expanding circle için bir language proficiency'den bahsetmemiz gerekiyor, özellikle pragmatic competence'in yüksek olması lazım <We need to talk about language proficiency for us in EFL contexts, or in expanding circle, especially pragmatic competence needs to be high> (U40)

[53] Teacher educator should have a good competency of speaking. It is a must for a teacher and his/her fluency supports learners (P180)

In addition to this, one teacher educator believes that the *pragmatic competence* is also an important component of language proficiency. In other words, a teacher educator is also able to use the language properly in *different social contexts*, in addition to using it fluently and accurately. Pre-service teachers especially focus on the competence of four skills as well as grammar and pronunciation so that the teacher educators deliver effective and *fluent lectures* in the university context, and *help students use the language* in the school context.

4.2.2.7. Investigating and Solving Problems

Last but not least, the participants regard *problem solving*, and *analytical/critical thinking* as other important skills that a teacher educator needs to have. They suggest that it is an important skill for teachers to cope with unexpected problems in the classroom, and act instantly; therefore, as teacher educators and mentor teachers, they need to have these skills themselves in the first place, so that they create awareness in pre-service teachers.

[54] Çünkü çok iyi giden bir sınıf ortamında hiç beklemediğiniz bir anda hiç beklemediğiniz bir öğrenciden problem çıkabiliyor. Orada mutlaka o an için geliştirilmiş bir stratejiye ihtiyaç var. Yani bir anda öğrencinin karşısında ne yapacağım dememeli. Bunlar tabi tecrübe ile gelişen şeyler, tecrübesiz öğretmenin yaşayacağı şeyler ama yine de bir öğretmen adayı olarak bunları biz, öğretmen yetiştirenler, aktarırsak, kendilerini ona göre hazırlarlarsa, bu

tecrübe süreci daha hızlı gerçekleşebilir <*In a classroom environment that goes really well, suddenly a problem can arise from a student you don't expect. At that moment, you need develop a strategy specifically for such situations. One shouldn't say 'what am I going to do' in front of the student. These things, of course, develop through experience, things that inexperienced teachers face but still, as teacher educators, if we tell about these to pre-service teachers, and if they prepare themselves for these, this experiencing period becomes faster*> (U29)

[55] S/he must have independent and critical thinking skills because most of the time there occurs some kind of problems like change in the course of study or time. So, she/he must be someone who can think immediately and act for the benefit of both parties (P142)

In addition to the problems that occur in the classrooms, university-based teacher educators report that there are some problems that they face in the course of the practicum process such as clash in the schedules, personal issues with mentor teachers, etc. A teacher educator, as reported, should also be able to analyse the situation critically and provide a solution for the benefit of the pre-service teachers.

4.2.3. Lacks of Teacher Educators

Another finding obtained in this study is that teacher educators participating in this study frequently mention *lacks* when they are asked to define their *professional knowledge base*. The results of the analyses with university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers point that teacher educators feel they lack the following points regarding the general competences. Table 21 presents the results with regard to the lacks of teacher educators.

As seen in Table 21, university-based teacher educators believe that they lack (1) *experience and practice in teaching*, (2) *training in teacher education*, (3) *knowledge of practices and changes in education*, (4) *content and theoretical knowledge of the field*, (5) *language proficiency*, and (6) *research skills*. On the other hand, school-based mentor teachers report that they lack (1) *training in teacher education and practicum process*, and (2) *language proficiency*.

Table 21

Lacks of teacher educators

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Lacks	N	f	N	f
- <i>Lack of experience and practice in teaching English</i>	10	13	-	-
- <i>Lack of training in teacher education/practicum</i>	6	7	18	23
- <i>Lack of knowledge about practices and changes in the education system</i>	4	7	-	-
- <i>Lack of content and theoretical knowledge of field</i>	5	5	-	-
- <i>Lack of language proficiency</i>	1	1	2	2
- <i>Lack of research skills</i>	1	1	-	-

University-based teacher educators most frequently report that they do not have *experience and practice in teaching English*. 10 of them state that they are theoretically competent but they are not experienced in the practical side of teaching; therefore, they cannot realistically guide pre-service teachers to become teachers. As such, they give courses which specifically focus on a group of learners, such as *Teaching English to Young Learners*, but they report that they have never taught English to young learners in their lives. That being the case, they benefit from the readings, observations, attending conferences, etc. to compensate for this lack, though it is not learning by doing.

[56] I think this is a major problem for teacher educators at the university who have zero experience at local schools. I have only half a year of experience. Sometimes I question myself, whether what I teach is really applicable or just theoretical (U23)

[57] I think in our ivory towers, I use this term in all of my presentations, we are making the gap between theory and practice even bigger and bigger. I don't know what the solutions can be but how do we develop it? I guess we just develop it only by listening. It's like without experiencing. It's not like learning by doing. It's just by learning by hearing, learning by listening. So, we just attend conferences, we attend workshops etc. It's like, from a skills development perspective, we have the declarative knowledge, but as a teacher educator, I wonder whether we are going to have very successful classes as teachers (U38)

Another point that teacher educators feel they do not have enough competence in is *training in teacher education*. Apart from one or two courses that they have

taken in their Ph.D. programs, six of them report that they have no training specifically for educating teachers.

[58] I never received any training about educating teachers. I think I've taken only one PhD level course and the name of the course was Foreign Language Teacher Education. But that's pretty much all the education I received about educating teachers (U7)

Some others, on the other hand, even report that they have not even taken any courses related to teacher education in graduate level. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the knowledge base of teacher educators is mostly shaped by experience and apprenticeship. They believe that they compensate for this lack of training as time goes by and when they become more involved in educating teachers.

[59] Bizim asıl uygulama sahamız Milli Eğitim. Teacher educator'ların uygulama sahası mevcut öğrenciler, student teacher'lar gibi görünüyor. Ben böyle olduğuna asla inanmıyorum. Bizim asıl uygulama sahamız MEB. Biz buradakini MEB için yetiştiriyoruz. Ama MEB'i bilmiyoruz <Our actual field of practice is the National Education. It seems as if the field of practice for teacher educators is the student teachers. I don't believe at all that this is so. Our actual field of practice is MoNE. We educate teachers for MoNE, but we don't know MoNE> (U21)

Not being experienced in teaching aside, four teacher educators mention that they do not even have knowledge about the *practices and changes in the education system*. While some teacher educators think that even though they are educating prospective teachers who are most likely to become teachers in the MoNE system, they believe that they pretend as if it is totally different from what they are doing. On the other hand, there are a few teacher educators who complain about the frequent changes and not being fully informed about these.

Other areas where university-based teacher educators report that they do not have enough competence in are *content/theoretical knowledge, language proficiency, and research skills*. Even though these are much less frequently mentioned, some teacher educators believe that not all teacher educators know about the theories related to teacher education, they think their language

proficiency level decreases, and that they do not feel competent in conducting research.

School-based teacher educators, similar to university-based teacher educators, complain that they lack specific *knowledge and training in teacher education and practicum* process. 18 of them contend that they do not receive any training or information neither officially by the Ministry, nor by teacher educators at the university about the practicum process; how many students will teach in how many hours? What to do when there are absentees? How to grade them? What feedback to give? etc. Some of them also state that they do not have any idea what the pre-service teachers are doing as part of their teacher training at the university.

[60] Ben dedim bu stajyerlere ne göstereceğim acaba? Daha önce stajyer öğrencisi olan arkadaşlara sordum. Eğitimim bu oldu. Ne yaptınız dedim. Öğrencilerle iletişimimizin nasıl olduğunu göstermek için taktikler gösterdik, anlattık dediler. Ama birinin dediği de birini tutmadı. Kimisi de aman hiç bir şey yapmadık, ders anlattık, gelmişler işte dediler. Ben de o yüzden kendi kafama göre ne verebilirim onlara dikkat ettim. Yani çok da süper bir şeyler yapmadım. Kendim oldum sadece. Ders anlattım. Faydalı olabildim mi bilmiyorum işte. Onun geri dönüşünü alamadım. Faydalı olmak isterdim. En azından 10 tane bir şeyden 4 tanesini vermiş olmayı dilerdim. Bunun için de bir eğitim olsa güzel olurdu *<I thought 'what am I going to show these mentees?' I asked the other friends who had mentees before. This was my education. I asked what they did. They told me that they showed how they communicated with the students, told them some strategies. But what one said was not the same with the other. Some of them said 'we didn't do anything, they came and we just taught our courses'. I thought about what I personally could do. I didn't do anything superb. I was just myself. I taught my courses. But I don't know if I was of any use. I couldn't get feedback from them. I would have preferred to be of use to them. If there are 10 things to teach them, I would have preferred to give them 4. It would have been better if there was a training for this>* (S14)

[61] Bizim için verilen herhangi bir eğitim yok. Öncesinde bizim de bir eğitimden geçirilmemiz gerekiyor, stajyer öğretmenleri mesleğe daha iyi hazırlamak için. Hangi donanımlara sahip olmamız gerektiği konusunda eğitimler verilmesi lazım. Biz kendimiz çünkü kendi tecrübelerimizi aktarıyoruz. Herhangi bir program dahilinde değil. O belki bir eksiklik. Üniversite bizden ne bekliyor? Nasıl bir yaklaşım sergileyeceğiz? Eğer o da olsa belki daha farklı yaklaşırız. Bizim de eksikliklerimiz olabilir *<There is no specific training for us. We also need to be trained beforehand to prepare the mentees in a better way. There needs to be training about which competences we need to have. We do it our way, transferring our own experiences. It's not through any program. Maybe that's something missing. What does the university*

expect from us? How are we going to approach them? If we knew these, we would approach it from a different angle. We might also have some lacks> (S28)

In addition to the abovementioned aspects, two school-based mentor teachers state that they lack *language proficiency*. They express that they tend to fall backwards in language skills since they do not use it in their daily teaching. Others complain that they lack practical skills due to the fact that they do not have the chance to talk to students in the classes since the students are not *language* students. They state that when they read academic articles, for instance, they do not remember the meaning of most of the vocabulary, since they have long been away from the academic work.

4.3. Professional Development

This section presents data analysis of participants' responses in accordance with the third research question addressed in this study with an aim of developing a professional development profile for teacher educators. For this purpose, this section first presents the definition of professional development by university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. Later, the practices they are involved in are presented as well as what they should do as part of their professional development as suggested by pre-service teachers. After that, the reported outcomes of these practices are with respect to teacher educators and mentor teachers. Professional development problems of teacher educators are also given in the following section, with specific foci on personal problems and problems in practicum. In addition to that, professional development needs of the participants are presented. Lastly, the section concludes with suggestions for professional development from all three groups of participants, with specific foci on suggestions for both personal development and practicum.

4.3.1. Defining Professional Development for Teacher Educators

Teacher educators who participate in this study are asked about how they define professional development to better understand their approach to development. The results are presented in Table 22 below. As it is seen in Table

22, both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers define professional development with regard to *updating oneself in general*, and *improving the quality of their practices*.

Some of the definitions given by the participants for professional development are given in the quotations below:

[63] It is a long-lasting, non-stop, constructivist process, in which, as if one is watching the same film or reading the same book over and over with new insights gained, with a new taste for life and for the profession (U11)

[64] Professional development or continuous professional development of teacher educators is a requirement to catch the latest trends and issues in the area and hence, to improve the quality of teaching (U13)

[65] For me, professional development is literally anything that helps me become a better teacher. It could be a conversation I have with a colleague about something great that they are doing in their class that I want to try. It could be class that I take. You know, some of the least useful professional development I've ever had is a class and some of the most useful has been just conversations with colleagues. Literally anything (S37)

As the aforementioned quotations by teacher educators and a mentor teacher display, the participants define professional development as anything that helps them get better in their profession. In this sense, it is seen that the teacher educators and mentor teachers share the same understanding with regard to how they define it.

Table 22

Definitions of professional development

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Definitions	N	f	N	f
1. Developing and updating oneself in general	-	-	-	-
- <i>developing and updating oneself</i>	21	23	11	12
- <i>knowing about (other) cultures</i>	2	2	-	-
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	25	-	12
2. Developing and updating to improve quality of teaching	-	-	-	-
- <i>educating pre-service teachers</i>	2	2	-	-
- <i>improving quality of teaching</i>	2	2	1	1
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	4	-	1
3. Personal development for promotion in profession	2	2	-	-

However, one thing that two university-teacher educators mention, as distinct from mentor teachers, is that it relates to *personal development for promotion in profession*; such as having more publications and advancing from one step to the other in the academic career hierarchy. This is not really a concern for mentor teachers, who do not have such academic career advancements in their profession. Therefore, it is not mentioned by them at all. In a similar line of thought, it is also mentioned by some teacher educators that professional development in Turkey refers to personal development. Such advancements, as one teacher educator states, might not necessarily suggest development in terms of profession. Rather, it is the individual's personal achievement. The emphasis made here is that the definition of developing professionally should include the transformation of those academic achievements into knowledge, and theories that are accepted and used by others.

4.3.2. Professional Development Practices

The analyses of the interviews with teacher educators suggest that professional development practices of teacher educators are grouped under four broad categories: (1) *research*, (2) *collaboration*, (3) *professional learning*, and (4) *reflection*. Table 23 shows the professional development practices of teacher educators in detail and pre-service teacher opinions for teacher educator professional development.

As seen in Table 23, while *research* is the most frequently mentioned professional development practice for university-based teacher educators ($f=61$), school-based mentor teachers report that they mostly engage in various forms of *professional learning* as part of their professional development ($f=39$). Pre-service teachers, similar to mentor teachers, believe that engaging in professional learning is the most important aspect of teacher educator professional development ($f=160$).

These professional development practices mentioned by the participants are presented in detail in the following sub sections.

Table 23

Professional development practices of teacher educators

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)		Pre-service teachers (N=193)	
Professional development practices	N	f	N	f	N	f
1. Research	-	-	-	-	-	-
- reading articles/journals/books	20	27	5	5	60	60
- attending/presenting in conferences/workshops	14	18	-	-	-	-
- doing self-research	13	13	2	2	18	18
- conducting projects	3	3	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	61	-	7	-	79
2. Collaboration	-	-	-	-	-	-
- collaboration with colleagues	16	18	5	6	8	8
- collaborate with/observe students/schools	3	4	-	-	25	25
- collaboration with pre-service teachers	-	-	10	11	-	-
- observing colleagues teaching	-	-	1	1	17	17
- supervising theses	2	3	-	-	-	-
- cooperation with schools	2	3	1	1	-	-
- cooperation with teacher educators	-	-	2	2	-	-
TOTAL	-	28	-	21	-	50
3. Professional learning	-	-	-	-	-	-
- attending training courses/seminars	4	4	17	19	50	50
- following technology	3	3	5	5	19	19
- following blogs/social media/programs/development	2	3	9	10	63	63
- going abroad	2	2	2	2	6	6
- improving English proficiency by reading and listening	1	1	1	1	8	8
- graduate studies	1	1	1	1	3	3
- giving seminars	-	-	1	1	-	-
- doing field experience in schools	-	-	-	-	6	6
- learning about target culture & literature	-	-	-	-	5	5
TOTAL	-	14	-	39	-	160
4. Reflection	-	-	-	-	-	-
- updating course materials	3	3	2	2	17	17
- reflecting on actions and practices	2	2	4	5	19	19
- teaching to young learners	2	3	-	-	-	-
- teaching a course for the first time	1	1	-	-	-	-
- being open to change and development	-	-	-	-	12	12
- getting help for anger management	-	-	-	-	3	3
TOTAL	-	9	-	7	-	51
5. Doing nothing	-	-	3	3	-	-

4.3.2.1. Research

Conducting and reading teacher education research is reported to be the most frequent form of professional development practice by university-based teacher educators. *Reading articles, books, and other academic publications* is the most reported form of research by university-based teacher educators. 20

of them believe that reading what is new in the field keeps them updated and fresh in terms of gaining new knowledge related to their profession. It is, as they say, an indispensable part of a teacher educator's life as an academic. While some believe the power of reading, others report that reading the literature is the only thing that they can do, since they do not have enough time to conduct research themselves.

Attending and presenting in conferences, seminars, workshops is another form of engaging in research for professional development, as suggested by 14 university-based teacher educators. They believe that such academic meetings provide fruitful opportunities for sharing and exchanging ideas, if they are carefully chosen. In addition to that, *doing research* is another aspect of research for teacher educators. 13 of them report that they contribute the field of teacher education by *writing articles, doing projects*, etc. Some teacher educators state that it is a way of testing the current theories in their teaching contexts, that's how it contributes to their professional development.

[66] I personally attend conferences and try to learn from them. I try to watch the news in English, it also helps me personally and professionally. Then, I try to read a lot, you might see that I have a small library of English books there (showing the library) and I encourage my students to come and get them. This helps them a lot too. So, reading, listening, being involved in academic research. I am constantly in touch with my foreign friends. We organize some online lectures; this helps me as well. If I find funds, hopefully, if there would be funds, I would definitely go to summer schools or winter schools, so that I can get some refreshments (U23)

[67] İnternette araştırırım. Özellikle yaşadığım problemler ile ilgili makaleler okurum. Classroom management ile ilgili okurum <*I search on the internet. Specifically, I read articles related to the problems I encounter. I read about classroom management*> (S9)

For school-based teacher educators, on the other hand, *research* seems to play a minor role in their professional development. Five of them mention *reading articles or other academic publications* and even fewer talk about *doing research*. However, as the above quotation [67] suggests, there are some mentor teachers who search on the internet to read articles about the problems that they experience: classroom management in this specific example. For pre-

service teachers, it is regarded as an important way for teacher educators to develop themselves professionally. 60 of the pre-service teachers mention that a professionally developed teacher educator is one who *reads articles, journals, books about ELT* as well as uses these in their teaching, and who *conduct research* on their own.

4.3.2.2. Collaboration

Collaboration is seen as the second most frequent way of professional development by university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers, as well as pre-service teachers. *Collaborating with colleagues* is one major form of professional development for university-based teacher educators. 16 of them state that it helps seeing things from different perspectives when you talk to a colleague about anything and he gives you feedback. Other than that, being part of a community is also mentioned frequently by the participants. It is suggested that such gatherings create opportunities for sharing and exchanging ideas on both national and international levels, even leading to outcomes in forms of publications. Moreover, some teacher educators mention that collaborating with graduate students also contribute to their professional development when they read theses on various topics and learn new things from each of them.

[68] You definitely, one; become a member of a professional society. It's really important to be a member of a teacher educator's association like INGED for example in our country, or TESOL in the States. You can also become an international member. IATEFL in the UK. These give you some kind of an opportunity to reflect internationally with different teachers, exchange ideas, share problems, share ideas. Even when you don't share, you at least cry on each other's shoulder, which gives you some strength (U28)

While university-based teacher educators tend to collaborate more with other colleagues in their small vicinity and in the wider community via establishing networks, 10 school-based mentor teachers report that they learn a lot by *collaborating with pre-service teachers*. Mentor teachers believe that working with pre-service teachers naturally leads to professional development when they see mentees use new techniques and activities. They emphasize that it is

a learning experience for mentor teachers themselves as much as it is for pre-service teachers.

[69] Biz de onlardan güzel şeyler öğreniyoruz. Gerçekten bu benim aklıma neden gelmemiş diye. Bir olaya içerden bakmakla dışardan bakmak aynı şey değil. Biz de ders anlatırken, onlar da bizim eksiklerimizi görebiliyor. Bunu da kabul etmek lazım. Öğrenmenin gerçekten yaşı yok. Bir öğretmen olarak her şeyi biliyoruz demek yanlış. Tabi ki bizim de onlardan öğrenebileceğimiz şeyler çok var <We also learn nice things from them. We say 'why haven't I thought about this? It's not the same thing to consider a situation as an insider or outsider. They can also see what we're missing when we are teaching. We need to accept that as well. It's never too late to learn. It is wrong to say that we, teachers, know everything. There are surely many things that we will learn from them> (S30)

In addition to *collaborating with pre-service teachers*, mentor teachers state they *collaborate with their colleagues*, *collaborate with teacher educators* coming from the university, and *conduct projects with other schools* which all contribute to their professional development.

When the opinions of pre-service teachers are analysed, it is seen that 25 of them ask both groups of teacher educators to observe more students and get their feedback; in other words, *collaborate with/observe the students*, and use this feedback for updating their practices.

[70] They should talk and discuss how they can develop their lesson with their colleagues (P1)

[71] I think feedbacks which are given by the students can be facilitators in this step. Listening the students carefully can give many clues for the teacher educator (P193)

4.3.2.3. Professional Learning

Engaging in professional learning practices is listed as another important of aspect professional development for teacher educators. For school-based mentor teachers, it is the most frequently mentioned way through which they develop themselves professionally. *Attending training courses* related to teacher education is one form of professional learning for university-based teacher educators. Four of them believe that such courses enable them to be aware of the recent trends in the field. It is also the most common form of

professional learning practice suggested by school-based mentor teachers. 17 of them point out the *seminars* organized by the Ministry of National Education. Even though there are some mentor teachers who believe that the quality of these seminars is debatable, which is discussed further in later sections, some believe that these seminars might sometimes focus on issues that they could relate when they are guiding mentor teachers. In other cases, they also report that there are some seminars organized by university-based teacher educators, which they find beneficial.

[72] Sadece okulda değil, okul dışında da eğitimler, konferanslar, seminerler oluyor. Bir de İngilizce öğretimi ile ilgili seminerlere de çok katıldım. Bunlardan da hem çok yararlandım <*There are training sessions, conferences, seminars outside the school, not only at school. I also attended many seminars about teaching English. I really benefited from these*> (S19)

In addition to these seminars and training courses that teacher educators and mentor teachers attend, nine of them also report that they try to *follow blogs, social media* and five of them, mention *other developments related to technology*. Mentor teachers state that there are specific forums on the internet and groups on social media platforms for teachers where they share information and exchange ideas. Teacher educators also mention following recent trends in technology and integrating these in their own teaching practices. They express that technology is an indispensable part of classrooms where there are smartboards, learning management systems, etc. Therefore, keeping up with these developments are considered to be an important aspect to teacher educator professional learning.

[73] Mesleki gelişim için ben kendi açımdan teknolojiyle çok fazla haşır neşir olan birisiyim. İnternet ve teknoloji ile ilgili hemen hemen bütün yenilikleri takip etmeye çalışıyorum. Mesela derste kullandığım materyalleri her sene güncellerim, değiştiririm, yeni bilgiler katarım içine. Öğrenciler teknolojinin içinde geliyorlar. Siz onlara ayak uyduramazsanız olmuyor. Bunun için de kendinizi geliştirmek zorundasınız <*I am really into technology myself for my professional development. I try to follow almost every development related to internet and technology. For example, I always update, change the materials I use in my courses every year, I try to include new information. The students are born right into the technology. You have no choice but to adjust yourself. For this, you need to develop yourself*> (U17)

As part of professional learning, doing *graduate studies* is also mentioned as another way of developing professionally. Though not common among mentor teachers, one of them mentions that s/he is continuing the education with M.A. and Ph.D. degrees which obviously help their professional learning. Similarly, one university-based teacher educator who does not have Ph.D. degree also regards studying for a Ph.D. degree to be a means of professional learning process. Last but not least, *going abroad* is reported to be another means of engaging in professional learning that ultimately leads to professional development of teacher educators.

In addition to the reported practices by teacher educators for their professional learning, pre-service teachers also believe that there are different ways for teacher educators to engage in professional learning. 63 of them talk about *following the developments* and 50 of them mention *attending training courses/seminars* as a means for teacher educator professional learning.

[74] Some teachers in Turkey have sufficient knowledge about theories, approaches, methods for teaching but they are not proficient in practice. They are using traditional methods which has not an effect on students. They should improve themselves about practice (P122)

Other activities related to professional learning that pre-service teachers think teacher educators should engage in and which are in accordance with the practices of teacher educators include: *following technology* ($f=19$), *going abroad* ($f=6$), *continuing to graduate studies* ($f=3$), and *improving English proficiency* ($f=8$).

In addition to these, the following professional learning activities are mentioned solely by pre-service teachers that are suggested for teacher educator professional development: *doing field experience in schools* ($f=6$), and *learning about target language culture and literature* ($f=5$). In other words, pre-service teachers believe that it is especially a must for university-based teacher educators to observe more classrooms and develop their field experience skills.

4.3.2.4. Reflection

Reflecting on own practices is another domain of professional development for teacher educators. University-based teacher educators believe that they constantly need to update their practices by listening to feedback from pre-service teachers and colleagues. Doing so, as they report, contributes to their professional development. One teacher educator, for instance, expresses that s/he tries to think from the perspectives of pre-service teachers and find ways of bettering the practices so that they benefit most from what s/he is doing. Similarly, a mentor teacher states that observing the mentees teaching provides them with the chance of looking at their practices from another perspective which enables them to think about whether they work or not.

[75] Kendimi bazen sınıfa girdiğimde, amfiye girdiğimde öğrencilerin yerine koyuyorum. Acaba nasıl olmalıyım? Daha iyi nasıl olabilirim? Bu öğretmen adayları benden maksimum düzeyde nasıl faydalanabilirler? şeklinde birtakım düşüncelerle olaylara bakmaya çalışıyorum <*I put myself in the shoes of the students when I step into the classroom, the amphitheatre. How should I be? How better shall I be? How do these teacher candidates benefit from the to the full extent? I try to look at the issue from these perspectives*> (U30)

[76] Bana ekstra katkısı ne oldu? Mesela net olarak, bu sene, şunu gözlemledim. Çocukların yerine oturduğün zaman, sıkıcı bir derste zaman geçmiyor. Orada öğretmen olarak kendim o çocuklar orada sıkıldığı zaman ne yapıyorum acaba diye kendimi eleştirdiğim noktalar oldu. Bu yıl özellikle <*How did I benefit from it? For instance, I precisely observed this. In a boring lesson, time doesn't flow, when I sit in the kids' place. There were moments when I thought what I was doing when the students were board. This year especially*> (S2)

With such a mindset, the teacher educators report that they *update their course materials, reflect on actions and practices, find what they are missing and try to compensate these*. In a similar line of thinking, the pre-service teacher educators believe that teacher educators need to criticize their own actions, listen to their feedback, and learn from their experiences. They believe that teacher educators should always update themselves with creative ideas. One of the areas that pre-service teachers think teacher educators should reflect on is using different methods and materials in teaching. They generally complain that when they go to schools for practice teaching, they mostly see mentor

teachers use the same methods and follow only the coursebook. Therefore, what they see in terms of using a variety of methods and materials is limited. That being the case, when asked about how they think teacher educators develop themselves, they refer to aspects such as *being open to change* and *using different methods and materials*. One last thing that pre-service teachers report is that teacher educators should consult professionals for help for *anger management* because sometimes, they see that teacher educators have problems in controlling their anger.

In addition to the abovementioned practices that teacher educators report to be engaging in, there are some school-based mentor teachers who frankly state that they *do nothing* (N=3) as part of their professional development. The quotations below by two participants illustrate this.

[77] Kişisel anlamda, ekstra gelişim anlamında pek bir şey yaptığım söylenemez açıkçası. Branş olarak, o branşta öğretmen olarak gelişim adına ekstra bir şey yapıyor muyuz, yapmıyoruz. Özellikle ortaokulun belli bir kalıbı oluyor. O kalıp o şekilde devam ediyor. Kitaplarda belli zamanlarda değişiklikler oluyor. Kelimelerde farklılıklar oluyor. Yoksa temeli aynı <*I cannot say I do something about personal development, extra development. Do you do anything to develop in the field we are teaching, no we don't. Especially secondary school has some fixed pattern. It flows in that pattern. The books change from time to time, the vocabulary change. But it is basically the same thing*> (S12)

[78] Eğitimle ilgili ben yapıyor muyum bir şey kendimi geliştirmek için? Çok yaptığımı söyleyemeyeceğim. Zamanım olmuyor. Stajyerlerle ilgili ayrı bir şey yapacak zamanım yok. Ne yapmam gerektiğini de bilmiyorum. Kendimi onlar için geliştirmek adına ne yapacağımı da bilmiyorum. Ama yönlendirmeler oluyor. Değerlendirme kriterleri geliyor ya öğrencileri değerlendirin diye. Orada yazan bazı şeyler benim farklı düşünmemi sağlayabiliyor. O değerlendirme kriterleri de bazen gelişmemi sağlayabiliyor <*Do I do anything to develop myself in terms of education? I can't say I do much. I don't have time. I don't have time to do something related specifically to mentees. I don't even know what I should do. But there is some guidance. You know, there are those evaluation criteria, to evaluate the students. Some of the items there make me think differently. Those evaluation criteria might sometimes contribute to my development*> (S40)

As seen in quotations [77] and [78], mentor teachers state that they do nothing both as a teacher of English and as a teacher educator. One of the reasons for this is the usual lack of time. Since mentor teachers are busy with their own

teaching schedules, they cannot find time to work on professional development related to being a teacher educator. It is also added that this particular mentor teacher does not know what to do for professional development.

4.3.3. Professional Development Outcomes

Alongside the practices they are engaged in as part of their professional development, the participants also report about the outcomes and rewards that these professional development practices bring. The analyses of the interviews with teacher educators show that outcomes and rewards of professional development for university-based teacher educators include: (1) *having awareness of self and becoming more confident*, (2) *reflecting on and improving practice and knowledge*, (3) *establishing networks within the community*, and (4) *having research published*. For school-based teacher educators, on the other hand, professional development outcomes include (1) *establishing connections with the learners*, and (2) *reflecting on and improving knowledge and practice*. Table 24 presents these results.

Table 24

Outcomes of professional development practices of teacher educators

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Outcomes of professional development practices	N	f	N	f
1. Having awareness of self and becoming more confident	-	11	-	-
- <i>being up to date</i>	4	5	-	-
- <i>being aware of yourself</i>	3	3	-	-
- <i>increasing self-efficacy/motivation</i>	2	3	-	-
2. Reflecting on and improving practice and knowledge	-	9	-	1
- <i>changing classroom practices</i>	6	6	1	1
- <i>learning about the needs of pre-service teachers</i>	2	2	-	-
- <i>learning about the school system</i>	1	1	-	-
3. Establishing networks within the community	4	5	-	1
4. Establishing connections with the students	-	-	1	1
5. Having research published	2	3	-	-

Three of the university-based teacher educators believe that they become more *aware of themselves* as professionals by learning about their strengths and limitations. Two of them state that their sense of *self-efficacy increases* and

the feeling of accomplishment gives them a sense of happiness when they are engaged in professional development. This motivates them in their profession and they continue to work as teacher educators more enthusiastically. In other words, professional development practices enable teacher educators to enjoy their profession more. What is more, four of them feel they *become up to date* and six of them report that they *change their classroom practices* by applying what they learned. Additionally, through professional development, two of them report to get to know *the needs of pre-service teachers* and one states that they learn more about the *school system*, and thus; be of more guidance to the pre-service teachers.

[79] I feel happy. I feel that my sense of self efficacy increase. I started to feel that I can do something. And the feeling of accomplishment, reaching something, fulfilling your dreams perhaps. I may be too romantic about this perhaps but feeling content and feeling much more proficient at the end helps you. I realized that I started to work much more motivated. It increased my motivation (U1)

Four university-based teacher educators report that they *establish networks within the community* and two state that they *have research published* as an outcome of those professional development practices. They state that when they collaborate with schools and mentor teachers, they get to establish new friendship. In addition to this personal relation building, some teacher educators report that they get invited by schools to give seminars to students. They considered this to be an academic reward. *Publishing research* is another academic reward that some teacher educator think they have as a result of professional development. School-based mentor teachers, on the other hand, report outcomes of professional development related to their identity as teachers. One states that when they engage in professional development, they get to *establish connections with the students* and another one states that they *improve their overall knowledge and practice* as teachers.

4.3.4. Professional Development Problems

According to the analyses of the interviews with teacher educators, professional development problems are grouped into two major categories:

problems in personal professional development, and problems in practicum. When asked about the challenges they have in professional development, the participants reported issues related to their *personal professional development* as teacher educators that are further grouped under five categories for university-based teacher educators: (1) *attitudinal and institutional problems*, (2) *lack of time and heavy work load*, (3) *lack of funding and access to recourses*, (4) *challenges cause by learners and setting*, and (5) *those who report that they have no problems* at all. In a similar perspective, problems that school-based mentor teachers have in personal professional development are grouped under five categories: (1) *lack of training and support*, (2) *attitudinal problems*, (3) *lack of time and heavy work load*, (4) *challenges caused by classroom facilities*, and (5) *those who report that they have no problems whatsoever*.

In addition to these, problems in practicum that university-based teacher educators report to be experiencing are categorised as follows: (1) *lack of attention and training of mentor teachers*, (2) *lack of attention and knowledge of teacher educators* (3) *lack of attention and competences of pre-service teachers*, (4) *challenges caused by practicum design*, (5) *lack of collaboration*, and (6) *attitudinal and bureaucratic problems*. Likewise, school-based teacher educators also frequently mention *problems in practicum* when asked about the problems they have for professional development, which are categorized as (1) *lack of attention and competences of pre-service teachers*, (2) *lack of attention and knowledge of teacher educators*, (3) *lack of collaboration*, (4) *lack of experience and training in practicum*, (5) *challenges caused by practicum design*, (6) *attitudinal and bureaucratic problems*, and (7) *those who state that there are no problems* at all. These are discussed further in the following sections.

4.3.4.1. Problems in Personal Professional Development

The analyses of the data also reveal important results related to the problems in personal professional development. Table 25 provides the list of these

problems identified by university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers.

Table 25

Teacher educators' problems related to personal professional development

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
	N	f	N	f
Problems in personal professional development				
1. Attitudinal and institutional problems	-	-	-	-
- <i>negative attitudes of colleagues/administrators</i>	7	13	2	2
- <i>being on your own</i>	6	6	1	1
- <i>too much bureaucracy/paperwork</i>	5	6	-	-
- <i>course/program design not suitable</i>	5	6	-	-
- <i>no collaboration among each other</i>	2	2	1	1
TOTAL	-	36	-	3
2. Lack of time and heavy workload	-	-	-	-
- <i>time/workload</i>	19	23	2	2
- <i>balancing teaching and research</i>	3	3	-	-
TOTAL	-	26	-	2
3. Lack of funding and access to resources	-	-	-	-
- <i>limited funding</i>	13	14	-	-
- <i>limited access to resources</i>	2	2	-	-
TOTAL	-	16	-	-
4. Challenges caused by learners and setting	-	-	-	-
- <i>crowded classrooms</i>	6	7	1	1
- <i>not enthusiastic student profile</i>	2	4	-	-
TOTAL	-	11	-	1
5. Lack of training and support	-	-	-	-
- <i>no support or opportunity for training</i>	3	3	5	5
- <i>available training insufficient</i>	-	-	5	5
- <i>training schedules not suitable</i>	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	3	-	15
6. No problems or challenges	5	5	4	4

As seen in Table 25, *attitudinal and institutional problems* ($f=36$) are the most frequently mention aspects of personal problems that university-based teacher educators report. Seven of the teacher educators report that they usually do not receive support from their colleagues, administrators, or their university in general. One aspect to this is the *negative attitudes* of their colleagues. They report that when one tries to organize activities, collaborate with each other, invite speakers, and try new things in their courses, they get discouraged by their colleagues due to personal problems they have in the department community. In other words, in such situations, they are left alone,

not supported either by the department administrators, or their colleagues, merely because of personal conflicts that might emerge.

In a similar perspective, five of them believe that *course/program design* is another important personal problem that teacher educators experience for their professional development. These problems either stem from the overall design of the program by CHE, such as asking to teach a particular course for two semesters but not being able to do so due to systemic problems; or they might stem from the allocation of the courses to teacher educators inside the department. While some teacher educators complain that they teach the same courses over and over in years, which they believe impede their professional development opportunities, others express dissatisfaction about having to teach courses unrelated to their area of expertise. This, as they believe, is due to a lack of chance given to novice teacher educators by experienced teacher educators, who try not to step out of their comfort zones they have created over the years.

[80] Çok farklı dersler veriyoruz. Asla ve asla doktoramı yaptığım alanla ilgili ders veremiyorum çünkü büyük, yaşlı, bölüm başkanı gibi kapılmış köşe taşlarından dolayı hareket alanımız çok kısıtlı <*We are teaching so many different courses. Never ever I can teach a course related to my field in PhD because our area of movement is really limited because of experienced, old, and administrator faculty members*> (U27)

[81] Problemler var mı var. Bölüm içi sorunlar oluyor bazen. İnsanın bütün hevesini isteğini kaçırıyor böyle şeyler. Hocam seni neden ilgilendiriyor sen işine bak diyebilirsin ama olmuyor. Bu her zaman bu şekilde olmuyor. Etkiliyor insanı. Bu bağlamda bu tip bireysel problemlerle karşılaşıyoruz <*Do we have problems? Yes. There are sometimes departmental issues. These things really discourage me. You can say 'mind your own business' but I can't do that. It's not like that all the time. It affects you. We experience such personal problems*> (U15)

In addition to these aforementioned problems, *bureaucratic problems* are also stated by five of them as challenges to personal professional development. Teacher educators also complain about the procedures that they are asked to go through when they want to attend to a basic conference related to their profession. They also state that ethics committees at some universities do not operate based on objective values; they might confuse ethics with morals,

which they believe prevent them from getting the necessary permissions to conduct research. Similarly, some teacher educators mention that they might have to deal with a totally unrelated duty in the course of their daily lives, especially when they are in administrative positions at the department. These, as reported, take up their time and energy, which leave minimum time for personal professional development.

Another most frequently mentioned problem that hinder teacher educators' personal professional development is *lack of time and heavy workload* ($f=26$). Some universities, as the participants reported, do not have enough number of teacher educators to allow for balancing teaching and research at the same time. In other words, teacher educators complain that they are teaching way more than they are actually supposed to teach, which leaves no time for professional development. When they are confronted in such situations, teacher educators usually report to focus on teaching, rather than academic career, so this becomes a problem for their professional development. In some extreme cases, even department chairs, who usually are given less course load, are teaching around 30 hours per week. Teacher educators also add that when they have such heavy course load, this load is also transferred to their free time which they would normally spend doing things related to their professional development. Yet, combined with other duties, such as preparing course materials, grading, giving feedback etc., most of their time is spent with anything other than engaging in professional development.

[82] I am a person who is not really satisfied with his performance if the classroom is not designed in a good way or if I am not giving 100% in the class. That's a huge problem for me. When I do that, I have to neglect my academic career, which is another problem. So, I think I have difficulties in balancing them out because I don't want to miss out any of it. I don't know what would be the solution but if we have enough variety of teachers, enough number of teacher educators in the department, that would be less problematic. Because that also causes us to spend most of our time with grading, preparing syllabus. We have activities, homework, assignments that we need to check and give so that it's much more beneficial for our students. Not much time is really left for academic work. So, we tend to lean more on teaching, rather than academic work (U23)

Lack of funding and access to resources is seen to be another problem that creates difficulty for university-based teacher educators for their professional development. 13 teacher educators complain that they are not financially supported well when they either want to attend conferences themselves, or invite people to their department to attend conferences. Some of these teacher educators mention that when they write a project and apply for funding, they cannot get sufficient financial support due to a false impression that the projects are only written for attending conferences. In addition to these, two teacher educators report that they do not have enough access to resources such as library databases, books, etc.

Teacher educators also mention *challenges caused by learners and setting* ($f=11$) related to their professional development. In addition to the above-mentioned systemic and financial problems, two of them believe that the student profile affects their motivation for professional development; students do not push the teacher educators to do better, since they are not performing as good as before, or as teacher educators want them to be. This, as teacher educators believe, decreases their motivation to engage in professional development that would result in improving their teaching practices. Other than the profile of learners, six teacher educators also complain about the number of students they have to deal with might go up to 60 students per classroom, which is consequently reflected on their performances.

[83] Unfortunately, 10 years ago, we had much better students which were pushing us to do research. The good student is pushing you to be good in helping, inspiring but when the profile is going down, you just know that the students have limited performance and they don't expect anything extra to do research to push them. It also influences you negatively. So, the raw material that you work with is directly related to your professional development (U5)

Last but not least, though few, there are five university-based teacher educators who believe that they have no major problems related to professional development; they state that they find support from their colleagues and institutions, they can easily access funding and resources if they want.

In a similar perspective, the interviews with school-based mentor teachers show that they mostly complain about *lack of training and support* ($f=15$) for their professional development as teachers and mentor teachers. While five of the mentor teachers state that they do not receive any training on being a mentor teacher whatsoever, which directly influences their role as a mentor negatively, five others state that there are various problems related to the training that they receive such as inefficient training and scheduling. Mentor teachers believe that those seminar days that they are supposed to attend are not really helpful for their professional development and that they are done just to get done. One points out that the schedules of these training seminars are not arranged well; they are either in weekends when they would like to have a rest, or in the middle of the teaching period for which the school administrators do not grant permission to attend.

[84] İnsan hakikaten istiyor ki bir şey yapıyorsam değsin, gerçekten bir şey öğreneyim, kendime bir şey katabileyim, ama çok da fazla söyleyecek bir şeyi olmayıp da yapıyorum demek için bu işi yapanlar var. Bence insanlar da bunu yapmamalı çünkü çok fazla insanın vakit kaybına sebep oluyorlar... Benim karşılaştığım en büyük problem bu öğretmen eğitiminde ve profesyonel gelişim programlarında. Daha nitelikli eğitimler olmasını tercih ederim tabi ki <I say 'if I do something, it should be worth it, I learn something, I contribute to my knowledge' but there are some who don't have much to say but still do these just to say they've done it. I think people should not do it because they waste people's time... This is the biggest problem that I have in teacher education and professional development programs. I would prefer to have more high-quality programs> (S32)

In addition to these, similar to university-based teacher educators, two mentor teachers also report that they have problems related to the *negative attitudes of their colleagues* when new ideas emerge in the regular meetings that they have. This, as they believe, is an obstacle to professional development since some of their colleagues might have narrower perspectives when it comes to integrating new ideas into the classrooms. Similarly, *lack of time and heavy workload* and *challenges caused by the setting* are two other issues that mentor teachers believe play a role in hindering their engaging in professional development. Just like teacher educators at the university, mentor teachers complain about the long teaching hours and not having enough time to focus

on anything other than preparing for courses, teaching, and dealing with post-course work such as grading papers, giving feedback to students, etc. This concern multiplies when they have to address many learners in crowded classrooms. Last but not least, similar to teacher educators, there are some mentor teachers who state that they do not experience any problems or challenges whatsoever related to professional development, mostly because they teach in well-known schools which care for the professional development of their teachers.

4.3.4.2. Problems in Practicum

When the participants are asked about problems related to professional development, they also frequently refer to problems they have in practicum. Within this perspective, this section presents the analyses of the interviews with university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers, as well as survey results with pre-service teachers about the problems they have in the practicum experience. Table 26 presents these problems.

Table 26
Problems related to practicum

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)		Pre-service teachers (N=193)	
Problems in practicum	N	f	N	f	N	f
1. Problems related to mentor teachers at school	-	-	-	-	-	-
- lack of training/preparation for practicum	6	9	9	12	3	3
- not updating themselves/traditional teaching/dependent on the coursebook	5	7	-	-	33	33
- being burnout/not a good model for pre-service teachers	4	5	-	-	6	6
- not taking practicum seriously, not willing	4	5	-	-		
- speaking Turkish	1	1	-	-	6	6
- leaving the class to pre-service teachers	1	1	-	-	-	-
- negative attitudes towards the students	-	-	-	-	27	27
- not attentive, not providing chance to practice	-	-	-	-	22	22
- not providing feedback	-	-	-	-	15	15
- inefficient classroom management	-	-	-	-	10	10
- asking PST to do other things	-	-	-	-	5	5
- inefficient time management	-	-	-	-	3	3
- not competent in content knowledge	-	-	-	-	2	2
TOTAL	-	34	-	12	-	132

Table 26 (Continued)

Problems related to practicum

2. Problems related to teacher educators	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>not taking practicum seriously</i>	6	6	3	3	16	16
- <i>not competent in evaluation/evaluating once</i>	-	-	1	1	1	1
- <i>not knowing the real setting</i>	-	-	3	3	-	-
- <i>too much coursework in practicum sessions</i>	-	-	-	-	8	8
- <i>not empathetic</i>	-	-	-	-	2	2
- <i>favouring some students</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	6	-	7	-	28
3. Problems related to pre-service teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>not taking practicum seriously, not willing</i>	2	2	16	19	-	-
- <i>inefficient classroom management</i>	-	-	7	8	10	10
- <i>inefficient time management</i>	-	-	5	5	1	1
- <i>anxiety/stress</i>	-	-	2	2	1	1
- <i>not proper use/knowledge of English</i>	2	4	-	-	-	-
- <i>concerns for grades</i>	2	2	-	-	-	-
- <i>lack of knowledge and competence in teaching</i>	-	-	9	11	-	-
- <i>not knowing the real setting</i>	-	-	8	8	-	-
TOTAL	-	10	-	53	-	12
4. Challenges caused by practicum design	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>arranging schedules</i>	3	3	8	9	2	2
- <i>forced schools/classes/mentors/educators</i>	3	3	1	1	4	4
- <i>school program/activities interfering</i>	3	3	1	1	-	-
- <i>not enough courses/practice</i>	2	2	3	3	2	2
- <i>number of pre-service teachers</i>	2	2	-	-	-	-
- <i>too late in the program/lack of continuity</i>	1	1	4	4	-	-
- <i>crowded classrooms</i>	-	-	2	2	4	4
- <i>boring weekly university course sessions</i>	-	-	-	-	3	3
- <i>evaluation by only one mentor teacher</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1
- <i>lack of guidelines</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	19	-	20	-	17
5. Lack of collaboration among practicum stakeholders	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>collaboration with teachers /schools /universities and teacher educators</i>	10	12	10	12	-	-
- <i>collaboration among teacher educators</i>	2	3	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	-	15	-	12	-	-
6. Attitudinal and bureaucratic problems	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>negative attitudes towards practicum courses</i>	3	3	-	-	-	-
- <i>bureaucracy and grading</i>	1	1	13	19	-	-
TOTAL	-	4	-	19	-	-
7. Lack of match between university education and real schools	-	-	-	-	-	-
- <i>ideal (lesson plans) vs. real (lessons)</i>	-	-	-	-	4	4
- <i>methods and approaches are not used</i>	-	-	-	-	2	2
- <i>use of coursebook vs. designed materials</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1
- <i>use of target language vs. native language</i>	-	-	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	-	-	-	-	8
8. No problems	-	-	5	5	29	29

As the analyses of the interviews with university-based teacher educators point out, presented in Table 26, *problems related to mentor teachers* ($f=34$) is the most frequently mentioned problem related to practicum. Six of the

university-based teacher educators believe that mentor teachers are not given *training* related to guiding pre-service teachers, which leads to them being not so interested in mentoring and not knowing what to do when the mentee comes to school. Moreover, four of the teacher educators state that these mentor teachers are generally not involved in professional development activities; they feel *burnout* through years of teaching and this has a negative effect on the development of pre-service teachers. Similarly, they believe that mentor teachers are usually speaking Turkish in classrooms, they do not care about objective evaluation, and they are leaving the classroom to the pre-service teachers seeing them as substitutes instead of guiding them towards being a teacher.

[85] Benim gittiğim okul öyleydi mesela, ilk defa stajyer gelmiş ona. Hiç bir bilgisi yok. Bazen şöyle durumlarla da karşılaşırız. Öğretmen stajyer almak da istemiyor. Farklı gerekçeleri var, sanki bunlar beni teftişe geldi diye düşünüyor. Emeklilik yaşına gelmiş, 25-30 senelik öğretmen, hiç bir şey yapmamış, kendini geliştirmemiş, yeni bir mezun öğrenci geliyor. Farklı donanımlarla geliyor. Öğrenciye farklı bir şey sunduğu zaman bu defa dersin hocası öğrencinin gözünde kötü duruma düşüyor. Bu durumda bazıları istemiyor, rahatsız olanlar da var <The school I went was like that, it was the first mentee of the teacher. Knows nothing. Sometimes we face with such situations. Teachers do not want mentees. They have various reasons for this, they think we are going there to evaluate them. They are about the age to retire, a teacher of 25-30 years, done nothing, never been updated and a newly graduate comes. Comes with different competences. When the pre-service teacher presents something new to the students, the teacher becomes [old-fashioned] in the eyes of the students. That's why some teachers do not want mentees. They become uncomfortable> (U17)

[86] The problem with the teacher educators at the schools is that they are often not engaged in any type of in-service professional development course or activities. The courses or programs offered by MEB are typically the ones that they don't pay much attention or they are at the end of the school year which we all know are not practical (U23)

Another problem related to practicum that university-based teacher educators report refers to the *challenges caused by the practicum design* ($f=19$) in general. These include *arranging schedules, number of pre-service teachers, forced schools, lack of opportunities for practice, and introducing the practicum too late in the program*. Teacher educators express that it becomes really challenging for them to arrange the *practicum schedule* with each pre-service teacher since

there are also other things that both teacher educators and students need to do. They add that even though they believe it is their duty to observe the pre-service teachers in real settings and give feedback in multiple occasions, even arranging the schedule once becomes problematic since the number of mentees per teacher educator is too many. In addition to that, some teacher educators state the issue of *forced schools* also poses problems for the practicum. Schools and mentor teachers are randomly assigned to them and therefore, they do not have much to say when there are problems related to the school environment, level of the students, and mentor teachers. When the pre-service teacher is randomly assigned to a mentor teacher, that teacher might not have teaching hours from which the pre-service teacher might benefit from. For instance, that teacher might have English classes to eight graders where the teacher would not be teaching much English due to the students' focus on preparing for the high school entrance exam. Such problems frequently occur when schools and mentor teachers are assigned to them randomly. Some other teacher educators believe that the practicum courses are *introduced too late into the program* which poses some other problems. They believe that first of all, when it is in the final year only, the pre-service teachers do not get enough chance for practicing teaching because they have an exam to prepare for and the schools are especially busy with activities such as April 23, May 19 etc. which limits the possibilities for pre-service teachers to do practice teaching.

[87] Önceden ikinci üçüncü sınıfta gözlem de vardı. Şimdi son sene birinci dönem gözlem, ikinci dönem ders anlatıyorlar. Biz de tabi kontrol etmeye çalışıyoruz ama çok kalabalık olduğu için takip edemiyoruz. Hangi birisiyle ilgileneceksin? Burada derslerim de var. Dersimin olmadığı saatler, öğrencinin orada dersi yok. Böyle karışıklıklar var <*We used to have observation in second and third years. Now they observe in the first and teach in the second semester of the fourth. We try to control them but we cannot follow them since they are really crowded. Which one of them are we going to care about? I also have courses here. When I don't have courses, my student is not there. There are such complications*> (U24)

Lack of collaboration ($f=15$) is another issue that teacher educators regard as problematic in terms of practicum. Teacher educators state that they find it difficult to collaborate with both mentor teachers at schools and other teacher educators at the university. This is caused by the heavy work load that both

parties have. While teacher educators agree that they need to have more contact with the teachers at school, they admit that this can only happen once or twice when they have to go to schools to observe the teaching practice experiences of pre-service teachers. Similarly, they see it as a problem when they cannot collaborate much with other colleagues regarding the design of the practicum courses and discussing other issues related to it. In a similar line of thought, teacher educators also refer to the *problems related to teacher educators* at the university. From a sort of a self-critical point of view, six teacher educators complain about some colleagues *not taking practicum seriously*. Some of them admit that they do not have time to connect with mentor teachers, and some other believe that not everyone who is teaching practicum courses pays enough attention in helping the pre-service teachers.

[88] Öğretim üyeleri zaten teacher educator olmuyor ki. Öyle bir sorun yok. Kim gidiyor teacher education'ın başına? Prof'lar doçentler gidiyor mu? Kendisine bu ders geliyorsa, araştırma görevlisini gönderiyor. Teacher educator olsa bile, o konuda kendisinin geliştirmiş olsa bile, o konuda Professional development'ı olsa bile, bütün bilgilerini, kendi ürettiği şeyleri yaysa bile, aşağıya inmiyor. Practice görmüyor. Ne anlamı kalıyor o zaman? <Faculty members do not become teacher educators. There is no such problem. Who deals with teacher education at schools? Do the professors, associate professors go there? If they are asked to teach this course, they send their research assistants there. Even if they become teacher educators, develop themselves professionally in that area, they don't [visit schools] even if they disseminate their research findings. They don't see practice. What's the use then?> (U10)

Teacher educators also report problems related to practicum caused by *problems related to pre-service teachers* ($f=10$), such as *not proper use of English, concern for grades rather than focusing on learning, not taking practicum seriously, and being irresponsible*. When they go to schools to observe pre-service teachers, they observe that pre-service teachers have problems related to the use of language, especially in the language they write on the board which becomes a model for the students in the classroom. Similarly, when pre-service teachers focus too much on the grade that they will get for their practice teaching, they get carried away and become stressed out, thus; they cannot deliver efficient teaching, as reported by teacher educators.

Last but not least, it is also seen in the analysis that *attitudinal and bureaucratic problems* are also reported by teacher educators related to practicum. Teacher educators complain that neither mentor teachers see pre-service teachers as prospective teachers, nor pre-service teachers see the students as their real students. In other words, there seems to be an artificial and obligatory process going on, instead of a process in which learning occurs. Some others, on the other hand, state that the bureaucratic side of the practicum is really problematic, such as arranging schools and schedules, talking to administrators, dealing with paperwork, etc.

[89] Bir de staj dersinden kalınmaz diye bir anlayış var. Aslında öğrencinin bu uygulamadan kalması gerekiyor yapamıyorsa. 4 yıl boyunca ne öğrendiniz? Biz sizden bunu uygulamanızı istiyoruz. Sen bunları uygulayamıyorsan, demek ki başarısızsın, kalacaksın. Bunun bütünlemesi de yok, bir sene beklersin, seneye staj dersini tekrar alırsın. Bunun zorunluluk haline getirilmesi lazım. O zaman burada okumana gerek yok ki, kaydını yaptır, 4 sene sonra gel diplomanı al. Herkeste sorun var, bizde var, MEB'te var, öğretmenlerde var, öğrencide var, okullarda var, yönetimde var... <There is also this understanding that you cannot fail the practicum course. In fact, the student should fail if s/he cannot do it. What have you learned in 4 years? We would like to see the application. If you cannot apply it, means that you are unsuccessful, you'll fail. There is no re-sit exam. You should wait for a year and take the practicum course again. This should be made obligatory. If not, there is no need for university education; register yourself, come here for 4 years and get the diploma. There are problems with everyone; us, the ministry, teachers, student, schools, administrator...> (U17)

The last remark made by teacher educators, as seen in quotation [89] relates to the *negative attitudes towards the practicum*. S/he objects the dogmatic idea that nobody fails the practicum course. The participant here complains about the course being not objective enough to allow those who cannot fulfil the requirements to fail and repeat the course. S/he also adds that the problem included all stakeholders involved in the practicum.

When the interviews with school-based mentor teachers are analysed, it is seen that *problems related to pre-service teachers* ($f=53$) are the most frequently stated problems in practicum by mentor teachers. 16 of the mentor teachers complain that pre-service teachers are *not taking practicum seriously*. Since pre-service teachers are dealing with courses at the university and are

preparing for the *KPSS* (Public Personnel Selection Examination for Teachers), they do not give much importance to practicum, as reported by mentor teachers. Therefore, they are not willing to be in the classrooms when they can be elsewhere studying for other things. In addition to the attention issue, nine of the mentor teachers also report *competence problems in teaching* related to the pre-service teachers. They say that pre-service teachers come to schools with a lack of experience without knowing the difference between ideal and real which causes problems in *classroom management* and *time management*, as well as increasing their *anxiety* level. In addition to these, they also report that some pre-service teachers are not aware of what they are doing in the classrooms when they are teaching, and mentor teachers need to re-teach the same course after pre-service teachers.

[90] One of my colleagues is frustrated because she has particular things she needs to get done and she is not being flexible enough to allow the student teacher to do the things she needs to get done. They come from the university with very specific goals from the university that they have to do this kind of lesson but it doesn't fit it with what I am doing so, how are we going to make this fit as opposed to sort of relinquishing control for a minute? (S37)

[91] One of the problems is that the first lesson they will teach, they will have 10 times more materials for the amount of time, or too little amount, one or the other. That's really hard to figure out what you will do in a limited amount of time taking into account possible extra questions from students. Also, the responsibility, I think for a lot of them, they don't have this sense of responsibility (S38)

Similar to university-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers also report *challenges caused by practicum design* ($f=20$) when they are asked about the professional development problems. Though mentor teachers also report similar issues such as *arranging schedules, not enough practice, forced schools, crowded classrooms, and introducing the practicum experience too late in the program*, causing a *lack of continuity* in the current practices as well. Mentor teachers believe that it is wrong for pre-service teachers to change schools in the first and second semesters of their final year when they go to teaching practice. This, as reported, prevents both mentor teachers and pre-service teachers alike from getting used to each other, to students, and it hinders the professional development of these teacher candidates. Also, they

believe that even in the same semester, the pre-service teachers come to schools every once in a while, and are not able to follow the whole lesson plan.

[93] Asıl işi yapan biziz, bizi gözlemliyorlar ama şu da var beni gözlemleyerek çok fazla şeye sahip olamaz, neden? Sınıfı kendi sınıfı değil. Kendi sınıfı olduğu zaman daha rahat eder. Mesela haftada bir geliyor, diyelim biz bir üniteye başladık, ikinci hafta diğer üniteye geçiyoruz. Bir başladığımızı görüyor, bir de bitiş. Arada ne yaptığımızı bilmiyor. Nerede eksikliği var bilmiyor. Yoksa haftada bir kere ile zor *<We are the ones doing the real job, they observe us, but they cannot learn much by observing me. Why? The classroom is not their own classroom. They will be more relaxed when they have their own classes. They come once in a week, we had started a unit, we move on to the next the other week. They see the beginning and the end. They don't know what we are doing in between. They don't know what's missing. It's difficult when it's once in a week>* (S11)

Attitudinal and bureaucratic problems are also reported by 19 mentor teachers, much like university-based teacher educators. However, while university-based teacher educators report more frequently on the attitude aspect, school-based mentor teachers mention more about the bureaucratic side. Most of them complain about the fact that nobody gives them training about how to fill in the specific mentee guidance and observation forms available online on *MEBBİS* (Data Processing System of Ministry of National Education). What is even more frustrating, as mentor teachers report, is that nobody knows about how they should go about these when they try and reach someone either in MoNE or at the university. This bureaucratic problem, as they report, takes up most of their time.

[94] Mesela şeyde çok sorun yaşadık. Öğrenciler en son bizim MEB sistemimize kayıtlı oluyorlar. Orada 14 haftayı tek tek işledik. Hocaları arıyoruz, onlar da bilmiyorlar, Milli Eğitim sorumlu diyorlar. Milli Eğitimi arıyoruz, onlardan bir şey alamıyoruz. Bu uygulamada çok zorluk çektik. Üniversitedeki akademisyenin bize gelip şu tarihte şu öğrenci ile ilgili şöyle bir şey doldurmanız gerekiyor demesi lazım. Bize kimse bilgi vermedi ve bizi çok yordu *<For instance, we have a lot of problems in this; the pre-service teachers are registered to our MEB system. We filled out the 14 weeks one by one. We call and ask the university-based teacher educators, they don't know it. They say the Ministry is responsible. We call the Ministry, we can't learn anything. We had a lot of problems in this application. The academician at the university needs to guide us about filling the forms and the schedules. No one informed us, and this tired us a lot. >* (S5)

Another aspect relating to problems that mentor teachers have in practicum is the *lack of experience and training in practicum* process. Nine of the mentor teachers believe that when they do not have enough experience as a teacher educator, they find it difficult to deal with mentees because they do not receive any training about what the process is like. In a similar perspective, they find the *lack of collaboration* between the universities and schools to be a problematic aspect for the practicum process. There are some mentor teachers who state that they have not met or even contacted with the university-based teacher educators who are responsible for supervising the pre-service teachers' practicum experiences. In cases where they are able to connect with each other, they complain about *the lack of attention and knowledge of teacher educators*, claiming that teacher educators at the university are not taking responsibilities, they just come to school once to observe the mentee, and even when that happens, they cannot effectively evaluate the mentee since they are not much aware of the practice at schools.

[95] Ne öğrenciler ciddiye alıyor, ne de sanırım üniversite hocaları ciddiye alıyor. Alsaldı bizimle daha fazla iletişim içinde olurlardı <Neither the pre-service teachers, nor the university supervisors take it seriously. If they did, they would be in more contact with us> (S21)

Lastly, there are five mentor teachers who believe that they do not have any problems related to practicum whatsoever. They state that all parties, pre-service teachers, teacher educators, and they can collaborate well with each other and that this experience is really beneficial.

The analysis of the survey questions with pre-service teachers reveal that *problems related to mentor teachers* ($f=132$) is seen to be the most frequently mention problem. They report the following problems about mentor teachers: (1) *negative attitudes to students*, (2) *traditional teaching seen in the classroom*, (3) *not attentive to pre-service teachers and learners*, (4) *not a good role model in terms of classroom/time management, teaching and language proficiency*, (5) *not providing enough opportunity for practice*, (6) *asking pre-service teachers for unrelated duties*, and (7) *not being competent in their field*.

[96] Bizler okullardaki hocalarımızın bizimle deneyimlerini paylaşmalarını beklerken öğretmenler ders ve müfredat yoğunluğundan pek fazla vakit ayıramıyor *<While we ask the mentor teachers at schools to share their experiences with us, they cannot spare much time due to intense course and curriculum load>* (P46)

[97] I have some problems because of the fact that my mentor teacher does not care about me. Sometimes I have difficulty in being a part of my internship school (P76)

[98] Stajda ders anlattıktan sonra öğretmenimizden geri dönüt alamıyoruz *<We cannot get feedback from our mentor teacher when we do practice teaching>* (P125)

As seen in the quotations above, pre-service teachers complain about their mentor teachers from a variety of aspects. In a similar perspective, the pre-service teachers express their dissatisfaction about the following aspects for *the lack of attention and knowledge of university-based teacher educators* related to practicum: *(1) not interested in the practicum experience of pre-service teachers, (2) too much coursework in the practicum sessions, (3) not being empathetic, (4) not competent in lesson planning and evaluation and (5) favouring some pre-service teachers.*

[99] İkinci dönem üniversitedeki hocamız bizi bilgilendirmedi. Bu yüzden okula giderken ne yapacağımızı bilmeden gittik. Bu dönemin nasıl olacağını staj okullarındaki öğretmenlerden öğrendik *<Our teacher educator at the university did not inform us in the second term. That's why we went to the school without knowing what to do. We learned how this semester would be like from our mentor teacher at the school>* (P100)

[100] Our teacher educator didn't talk to school and plan our time and lessons so we needed to talk with school management and this was so hard for us because they didn't want interns (P107)

The third aspect to problems related to practicum as reported by pre-service teacher educators are *caused by the practicum design*, similar to those reported by teacher educators and mentor teachers. Pre-service teachers believe that classrooms are crowded and there is usually more than one mentee in the classroom which prevents them from having an effective observation and teaching experience. Similarly, they mention about forced schools, classrooms, mentors, and teacher educators. They also say that sometimes the practicum courses they take at the university are boring and they have a lack of

experience in practicing theory. Likewise, as they report, arranging schedules with schools and mentors can sometimes be problematic since they have other things to do. Moreover, they also report that lack of guidelines about practicum and being evaluated by one mentor teacher only are other problematic issues caused by the practicum design.

Lack of match between university education and real school practices (f=8) is another problem that pre-service teachers report to be experiencing in practicum. They state that the ideal lesson plans they learn to write at the university do not really match with the real classroom settings. Also, the theoretical approaches that they see in their courses are not really used in real classrooms; the mentor teachers are mostly using *Grammar-Translation Method*. While they focus on designing and using different materials for teaching, they report that mentor teachers only use one coursebook all the time. And lastly, they say that mentor teachers generally use Turkish, although they learn about the importance of using the target language in their courses at the universities.

In addition to the problems that pre-service teachers report to be caused by *mentor teachers, teacher educators and practicum design*, the analyses of the survey questions also point to *some problems that pre-service teachers themselves face* in the course of their practicum experiences. These include *classroom management, timing, and overall stress of teaching* in front of the students. They state that these are some areas they personally have problems when they are doing their practicum.

Last but not least, 29 pre-service teachers, similar to mentor teachers, report that there are *no problems related to practicum* and that they have the chance to see the practical applications of the theoretical knowledge they learn at the universities by means of successful guidance from both their mentor teachers at schools and teacher educators at universities.

4.3.5. Professional Development Needs

According to the analyses of the interviews with university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers, it is seen that university-based teacher educators need (1) *additional training and opportunities for development*, (2) *more time and reduced workload*, and (3) *more funding and resources*. School-based mentor teachers, on the other hand, only report that they need *additional training and opportunities* for engaging in different professional development practices. Table 27 provide the results in detail.

Table 27

Professional development needs of teacher educators

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Professional development needs	N	f	N	f
1. Additional training and opportunities for development	-	-	-	-
- <i>more opportunities for development</i>	6	8	1	1
- <i>going abroad</i>	3	4	4	5
- <i>collaboration with schools/universities</i>	3	3	2	2
- <i>institutional support for academic studies</i>	3	3	1	1
- <i>fewer students</i>	2	2	-	-
- <i>projects</i>	1	1	-	-
- <i>training in supervision/teacher education</i>	-	-	10	13
- <i>training in technology</i>	-	-	1	1
- <i>support for non-academic activities</i>	-	-	1	2
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	21	-	25
2. More time and reduced work/course load	-	-	-	-
- <i>time</i>	6	6	-	-
- <i>reduced teaching hours</i>	5	5	-	-
- <i>taking time off</i>	1	1	-	-
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	12	-	-
3. More funding and resources	-	-	-	-
- <i>funding</i>	3	3	-	-
- <i>technological facilities</i>	1	1	-	-
<i>TOTAL</i>	-	4	-	-

As Table 27 displays, university-based teacher educators mostly report that they need *additional training and more opportunities for development* ($f=21$). Six of them believe that they need *more opportunities*, though they usually take their own initiatives and engage in professional development practices. They mention that institutionalized forms of help are always needed. They especially state that there is a need for professional development communities and these

communities need to inform teacher educators about all the processes and stakeholders in the national education system.

Other professional development needs for additional opportunities for development mentioned by university-based teacher educators include; *going abroad, more collaboration with colleagues and teachers, institutional support, fewer students and more opportunities for conducting projects.*

[101] Biz öğretmeni sadece sınıfa yönlendirmiyoruz. O sınıfta tek tek bireylere gönderiyoruz. O okuldaki yöneticilere gönderiyoruz. Okul yöneticileri Milli Eğitim'in en önemli ayağını oluşturuyor. Okul yöneticilerinin öğretmenlerle olan diyalogları, öğretmenden beklentileri, A okulunda farklı beklentiler sunuluyor, B okulunda farklı beklentiler sunuluyor. Öğrencilerin velileriyle öğretmeni muhatap ediyoruz. Öğrencinin yetiştiği sosyal çevre ile öğretmeni muhatap ediyoruz. O yüzden de tüm faktörler hakkında, en azından günümüz faktörleri hakkında öğretmen yetiştiricilerinin kesinlikle bilgilendirilmesi gerekiyor <*We don't send the teacher to the classroom only. We send them to the individuals in the class, to the administrators at schools. The school administrators are the most important stakeholders of the National Education. The dialogues that they have with teachers, their expectations... School A has different expectations than School B. We make the teachers communicate with the parents of the students. We make them communicate with the social environment they live in. That's why teacher educators need to be informed about all these factors, at least the current ones*> (U29)

Time is also frequently mentioned as a need for professional development by university-based teacher educators ($f=12$). Six of them refer to needing *more time* and five of them ask for *reduced teaching hours* so that they focus more on their development. In addition to that, one teacher educator mentions *taking some time off*, doing nothing and just relaxing for a period of time away from the university. Lastly, *more funding opportunities* is reported to be another important professional development need for teacher educators, either for going to different conferences, or conducting research projects.

As the data also reveal, 10 school-based mentor teachers, on the other hand, mention *additional training in supervision/teacher education* as their primary need for professional development. Mostly, what they need is a specific training for supervising and guiding pre-service teachers. They state that most of the time they are not aware of what to do with the mentees coming. They ask the

university to inform them or give them a seminar about the whole process, so that they feel more helpful for the pre-service teachers.

[102] Üniversite ile devamlı irtibat halinde olmalıyız. Üniversiteden bize seminerler de verilmesi gerekiyor bu konuyla ilgili. Stajyerleri eğitirken nelere dikkat etmeliyiz neler yapmalıyız? Biz de sonuçta her şeyi bilemeyiz <*We need to be constantly in touch with the university. We need to be given seminars by the university about these too. What should we do and be careful about when guiding mentees? We cannot know everything*> (S6)

Other needs for professional development, as mentioned by school-based mentor teachers include *going abroad, collaboration with universities, training in technology, and support for non-academic activities*. Two mentor teachers state that they have previously been involved in projects that allow for international collaboration and thus, visited abroad. Similarly, being in constant collaboration with the universities, going to universities when necessary is believed to be a must for mentor teachers since they are involved in the training of mentees. Lastly, one mentor teacher states that they need training in technology to allow them to use it in class and be a good model for their pre-service teachers in terms of how to use it in class.

4.3.6. Suggestions for Professional Development

Alongside the needs for professional development, the participants also report their suggestions about how to develop themselves professionally in a better way as teacher educators. These suggestions are grouped under two main categories: *suggestions for personal professional development*, the data for which come from the interviews with university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers; and *suggestions for practicum*; for which the analyses of the survey with pre-service teachers also provide data along with the interviews with teacher educators.

4.3.6.1. Suggestions for Personal Professional Development

The data analyses reveal that university-based teacher educators have some suggestions for personal professional development. These are presented in Table 28 below.

Table 28

Suggestions for personal professional development

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)	
Suggestions for professional development	N	f	N	f
1. A specific program/training for teacher educator education	-	-	-	-
- <i>training for teacher education/supervision</i>	11	15	18	25
- <i>designing a program for teacher educators</i>	12	13	-	-
- <i>awareness of school systems/changes</i>	5	6	-	-
- <i>apprenticeship</i>	2	2	-	-
- <i>seminar period to be used efficiently</i>	-	-	6	7
- <i>level specific training for being a teacher educator</i>	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	36	-	33
2. Opportunities for engaging in development	-	-	-	-
- <i>conferences/seminars</i>	5	7	-	-
- <i>institutional support</i>	5	6	-	-
- <i>going abroad</i>	4	4	1	1
- <i>following recent trends/technology</i>	4	4	1	1
- <i>research projects</i>	3	3	-	-
- <i>less teaching hours</i>	1	1	-	-
TOTAL	-	28	-	2
3. Opportunities for experiencing English language teaching	7	12	-	-
4. More collaboration with colleagues, teachers, and community	-	-	-	-
- <i>collaboration among/observing colleagues</i>	6	7	3	3
- <i>collaboration with universities/schools</i>	4	4	5	6
- <i>inviting teachers from schools</i>	1	1	-	-
- <i>joining courses at universities</i>	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	12	-	10

As seen in Table 28, these suggestions are: (1) *a specific program and training for teacher educator education*, (2) *more opportunities for engaging in professional development*, (3) *experiencing English language teaching*, and (4) *more collaboration*. On the other hand, school-based mentor teachers mention (1) *a specific program for mentor teacher education*, and (2) *more collaboration as suggestions for professional development*.

It is suggested by 11 university-based teacher educators that there should be a *specific training for teacher educator education*. Some of them state that this could be via in-service training for those who are already working at the universities as teacher educators. 12 others suggest that there should be *a separate program for educating teacher educators*. They believe that there is not a formal process for educating people who will be educating teacher

candidates; therefore, there should be a separation of roles at the university level for those who will be teaching practicum courses.

[103] I think getting a specific education regarding this profession would be much more beneficial also for students because I often see that many teacher educators do not even know how to behave future teachers. They think they are just students and that's the way you have to approach them. However, it's completely different. So maybe we should have some workshops, training camps for teacher educators. That might be a solution (U23)

Awareness of schools and changes in education system are suggested by five university-based teacher educators to be an aspect in training teacher educators. They report that even though their actual field of practice is MoNE schools, they behave as if it is the university itself. Since they are educating teachers for MoNE schools, they suggest that they should be made aware of the students, school settings, the system, and any changes that almost frequently occur in the education system. Some other teacher educators suggest that they know whatever is going on inside the MoNE, in other words, they believe that the lack of information flow from the MoNE to universities should be eliminated and they should continuously be made aware of the recent developments. This way they would be more successful and realistic in preparing the pre-service teachers. *Apprenticeship* is seen as another form of training teacher educators. Two of the teacher educators suggest that research assistants, who are teacher educator candidates, need to be guided and educated by the faculty members, rather than asking them to be involved in other administrative departmental duties.

In addition to these aforementioned ways for training, university-based teacher educators suggest various opportunities for engaging in professional development for teacher educators. These include *attending conferences and seminars, receiving institutional support, going abroad, following recent technological trends, conducting research projects, and having less hours of teaching* so that they have time to engage themselves in professional development. *Experiencing English language teaching* is another frequently mentioned suggestion for professional development by university-based

teacher educators. Seven educators suggest that those who become teacher educators without an actual teaching experience could teach in a school before educating pre-service teachers. Just like the undergraduate students, they suggest that teacher educators could go through a candidate teacher educator period where they are practitioners for a year before teaching at the Faculty of Education, as seen below in quotation [104]

[104] In my opinion, we should teach for a year in the MoNE before teaching how to teach, like candidate teachers. Our undergraduate students become teachers and for the first year, they are candidates, practitioners. We should also be like that. We should also teach in the MoNE for a year. We have a school experience course for example. Most of the teacher educators are talking about activities, things and all but when you go into the actual classroom, most of them don't work (U3)

[105] Aslında öğretmen yetiştirecek kişiler bir sene iki sene ortaokul olur lise olur, İngilizcenin öğretildiği yerde ders vermeliler ki, pratiği görsünler. O farklı bir şey. Ben daha önce özel okullarda da çalıştım, direkt üniversitede çalışmaya başlamadım. Dört sene özel okullarda çalıştım. Sonra buraya geçtim. 2008'e kadar Yabancı Diller'de, sonra buraya geldim. Onların çok faydasını gördüm, hala da görüyorum <In fact, teacher educators who will be training teachers need to see the practice by teaching in place where English is taught, be it one year, two years, secondary level or high school. That's a different thing. I previously worked at private schools, didn't directly start at the tertiary level. I worked at private schools for 4 years. And then I came here, to the School of Foreign Languages until 2008, and this department later. I had a lot of benefits of those, and I still have> (U20AB)

Teacher educators believe that it is really useful to have a previous experience as a teacher in your job as a teacher educator; therefore, they suggest that there should be one means of gaining experience. Lastly, university-based teacher educators suggest that *more collaboration* ($f=12$) should be established between colleagues and mentor teachers at schools. As they suggest, interdisciplinary activities by means of team work and group work need to be prioritized. In addition to these, *action research* is also mentioned to be another form of collaboration that can be cooperatively conducted with mentor teachers at school.

Similar to university-based teacher educators, 18 of the school-based mentor teachers also suggest a *specific training program for mentor teacher education*. Mentor teachers say that they attend seminars and in-service training sessions

from time to time; however, they are usually about teaching, not teacher education. They believe that there should a seminar designed for mentor teachers that focus specifically on how to guide pre-service teachers. The usual seminar period, as they suggest, is suitable for such professional development seminars. Some mentor teachers suggest that there should even be level specific training for mentor teachers.

[106] Aday öğretmenlerle alakalı değil de öğretmenin kendini geliştirmesiyle alakalı şeyler oluyor. Ama aday öğretmenler ile ilgili hiç bir çalışma yapmadık. Böyle bir çalışmamız olmadı. Ben hatırlamıyorum. Olabilir mi? Olabilir. Hepimize aday öğretmen gelebilir. Bu da bir seminer konusu olabilir *<There is some stuff related to teacher professional development, not related to teacher candidates. We haven't done anything related to teacher candidates. We didn't have such a course. I don't remember. Could it be? Yes. We could all be given teacher candidates. This could be a seminar topic>* (S31ABC)

[107] Belki biz onların derslerini dinleyebiliriz. Bakayım nasıl anlatıyor oradaki üniversitedeki öğretmen dersi. Öğrencilerle iletişimi nasıl? *<Maybe we could observe their [university-based teacher educators] courses. Let me see how the university lecturer teaches a lesson. What's his/her communication with the students like?>* (S31)

Additionally, *more collaboration* with colleagues and universities is suggested to be another aspect contributing to the professional development of mentor teachers. Five of them believe that as stakeholders, they need to come together and decide on the nature of the practicum course together, so that both sides know what to expect and what to do better in guiding the pre-service teachers. In addition to this, *joining courses at universities* is another suggestion made by a mentor teacher which actually would be really useful if put into practice.

4.3.6.2. Suggestions for Practicum

The analyses of the interviews with the participants also reveal their suggestions related to the aspects that they believe are problematic regarding the practicum component of the teacher educator program. When the participants are asked about their suggestions for professional development, they link it to the practicum and mention various ways for the practicum component to be improved.

The data analyses of the interviews with teacher educators and mentor teachers, as well as the survey with pre-service teachers reveal that the following suggestions are in made for practicum: (1) *redesigning the practicum courses*, (2) *redesigning the practicum setting*, (3) *more collaboration among practicum stakeholders*, and (4) *training mentor teachers as teacher educators*. In addition to these, pre-service teachers have some suggestions for mentor teachers and teacher educators. Table 29 presents these suggestions made by the participants in detail below.

Table 29
Suggestions for practicum

	University-based teacher educators (N=41)		School-based mentor teachers (N=43)		Pre-service teachers (N=193)	
Suggestions for practicum	N	f	N	f	N	F
1. Redesigning the practicum courses	-	-	-	-	-	-
- moving practicum to schools	3	4	1	1	-	-
- more chance for teaching practice	2	2	7	8	1	1
- earlier school experience	2	2	9	9	-	-
- level-specific teacher training	1	1	1	1	-	-
- integrating research in practicum	1	1	-	-	-	-
- more reflection in practicum	1	1	-	-	-	-
- extended practicum opportunities	-	-	6	6	-	-
- flexibility in scheduling	-	-	3	4	-	-
- additional course in schools just for PST	-	-	2	3	-	-
- more guidelines about what is expected	-	-	-	-	2	2
TOTAL	-	11	-	32	-	3
2. More collaboration	-	-	-	-	-	-
- collaboration among stakeholders	7	10	1	1	2	2
- MoNE-CHE collaboration	2	2	-	-	-	-
TOTAL	-	12	-	1	-	2
3. Training mentor teachers as teacher educators	8	10	7	10	2	2
4. Redesigning the practicum setting	-	-	-	-	-	-
- choosing mentors/schools/classes/levels	4	5	11	12	2	2
- teacher training schools	4	4	2	2	-	-
TOTAL	-	9	-	14	-	2
5. Suggestions for mentor teachers at school	-	-	-	-	-	-
- mentors should change style of teaching	-	-	-	-	10	10
- mentors should be interested and willing	-	-	-	-	2	2
- not asking PST to do other things	-	-	-	-	1	1
TOTAL	-	-	-	-	-	12
6. Suggestions for teacher educators at university	-	-	-	-	-	-
- teacher educators should be interested and willing	-	-	-	-	3	3
TOTAL	-	-	-	-	-	3

4.3.6.2.1. Redesigning the practicum courses

Data analyses show that university-based teacher educators have the following suggestions redesigning the practicum: *moving practicum to schools* ($f=4$), *having earlier school experience* ($f=2$), *having more chance teaching practice* ($f=2$), *level-specific teacher training* ($f=1$), *integrating research in practicum* ($f=1$) and *having more reflection in practicum* ($f=1$).

Three of the teacher educators suggest *moving practicum to schools* totally when asked about suggestions for professional development. They state that the connection between the faculty and the school is not usually on a desired level, and that pre-service teachers have the chance to see actual teaching experience only in schools. For these reasons, the practicum component of the teacher education program could be managed by the schools and mentor teachers themselves. Another suggestion related to this is that university-based teacher educators could give the practicum courses in schools, instead of universities. Similar to teacher educators, one school-based mentor teacher also suggests that the practicum component should only be carried out by the school for pre-service teachers, just like they do with novice teachers. In this way, the pre-service teachers could visit the schools every weekday and could observe other teachers and other classrooms too, rather than being tied to only one.

[108] Aday öğretmenlerde olduğu gibi sadece burası olmalı. Okulla beraber yürütülmemeli. Bir yarım dönemse, 5 gün boyunca burada olmalı stajyer. Bir de tek bir öğretmene bağlı kalmamalı. Belki bende gördüğü bir şeyi, diğer öğretmende farklı görecektir. Tek bir öğretmene bağlı kalınca sadece o öğretmenin prensiplerini görüyor *<It should be here only, just like with novice teachers. It shouldn't be simultaneously carried out with the university education. If it's half a semester, the pre-service teacher should be here five days. They shouldn't be fixed to one mentor teacher. Maybe they will observe different things in the other one. When fixed with one, they only see the principles of that teacher>* (S15)

[109] Belki bu dersi tamamen okula kaydırabiliriz. Bunu fakülteden uzaklaştırıp tamamen okula kaydırıp oradaki işbirliğini arttırmamız gerekir. Bu anlamda, yeterlik anlamında da eksiklikler buradan kaynaklanıyor bence. Uygulamaya yönelik adımlar atılabilirse ve bu collaboration sağlanabilirse bence çok daha farklı sonuçlar olacağına inanıyorum *<Maybe we can move this*

course to schools totally. We need to increase the collaboration by moving this away from the Faculty and to the schools. I think the lacks in competences stem from this. I believe that there will be different results if measures are taken towards the practical side of the practicum> (U16)

Another suggestion by two school-based mentor teachers is that there should be a *specific elective English course at schools* where pre-service teachers do their practice teaching. There are, as reported by these two mentor teachers, many benefits of having such an additional course for pre-service teachers to teach. Firstly, the lack of continuity issue is eliminated when they have a specific course to teach every week. They would know the students, go on teaching from where they have left and thus, be more aware of what teaching a whole course would be like. Secondly, some mentor teachers believe that they may have to re-teach the course after the mentee has taught, due to various reasons (mentee cannot teach well, the students are not used to their teaching style etc.), and an additional course would also eliminate this problem.

In addition to these mentioned above, teacher educators and mentor teachers both suggest that there should be *more opportunities to practice teaching* for pre-service teachers. One way of ensuring this is introducing *earlier school experience* in the teacher education program. The participants suggest that the students who are studying to become teachers should go to schools as early as possible. Currently, language teacher education programs have two courses related to practicum: one is focused on observation and the other is on teaching practice. The participants, both mentor teachers and teacher educators, believe that this is too late in the program. The students should start observing and teaching as early as the first year in the program.

[110] Bence 1. sınıftan başlamalılar staja. Haftanın bir iki saati gelip sınıfa girmeli. Ayda bir ders anlatabilir. O sınıf atmosferine bir aşinalık sağlanmalı üniversite eğitimi içerisinde. Üniversiteyi bitirdiği zaman artık sınıf ortamına girdiğinde rahat hissetmeli kendisini <*I think they should start teaching practice in the first year. hey should come into the class one/two hours per week. They can teach once in every month. There needs to be some exposure to classrooms integrated into the university education. When they graduate from the university and go into the class, they need to feel relaxed*> (S6)

[111] Okul deneyimi dersinin yine birinci sınıfa alsın, öğrenci bir görsün, öğretmenlik havasını bir koklasın. Sonra, öğretmenlik uygulaması da dördüncü sınıfta iki dönem olmalı <They can take the School Experience course in the first year, they should see, feel the sense of being a teacher. And then, the teaching practice should be for two terms in the final year> (U7)

Six mentor teachers also suggest *extended practicum opportunities* for pre-service teachers. They believe that it should either be extended in duration or in format. They report that currently pre-service teachers do teaching practice for 13 weeks, and in limited hours which they believe is not enough. They suggest that this duration is extended to enable pre-service teachers to be exposed to more teaching. In a similar perspective, they also believe the concept of practicum might be extended to preparing materials and helping the teachers as well. Teachers state that they have challenges in preparing course materials and pre-service teachers could step in and they could design materials together to use in the classroom, which could be counted as one part of the practicum experience too.

Level-specific focus in teacher training is mentioned by both mentor teachers and teacher educators as a suggestion for practicum. One university-based teacher educator believes that Faculties of Education give the same education to all pre-service teachers, regardless of the levels they are going to teach at: primary, secondary, high schools or tertiary levels. These levels, as suggested, could be separated, so that the practicum component becomes more efficient. Similarly, one mentor teacher also suggests that university education includes level-specific courses since being a teacher in high school and primary school are two different things.

Integrating research in practicum courses is another suggestion made by a university-based teacher educator. It is stated that theory and practice should go hand in hand and that they need to conduct more research in the schools; this could even be a component in the practicum course. By doing this, more detailed and unstructured reflection possibilities would arise that contribute to the professional development of pre-service teachers.

In addition to these, three mentor teachers suggest that they need to be *given flexibility in scheduling* both for themselves and for pre-service teachers. They state that in the current system, the pre-service teachers coming for teaching practice also have other duties such as courses to take, final exams to study, a general KPSS exam to think about, etc. These all decrease the motivation of pre-service teachers and they suggest that the schedule of pre-service teachers should be flexible to allow prioritizing the practicum above others. By the same token, mentor teachers state that their course load is not decreased when they have mentees coming. This limits the possibility of mentor teachers' working with mentees before they go into the classrooms. Mentor teachers suggest that they need to be given free time as part of the practicum in which they could specifically focus on pre-class work with the mentees.

[112] Mesela şu yapılabilir, stajyer öğrenciler için. Öğretmenlere boş saat verilip, hem orada öğrencilerle çalışma hem de planlama yapılabilir. Bence dersin en önemli aşaması planlama. Gelecek olan stajyer ilk önce bunu öğrenmeli. Derse girdi, ders 15 dakika erken bitti, ne yapacak? Hemen aklından bir şeyler geliştirmeli. Başlamadan önce o yetiyi geliştirmeli. Planlama süreci de olmalı *<For instance, this could be done for pre-service teachers; teachers could be given free hours, and in those hours, they can work together and do planning. I think that the most important step of a lesson is the planning. The pre-service teachers need to learn about these first. They go into the class, and the lesson plan ended 15 minutes earlier than expected, what to do? They instantly need to come up with ideas. They need to develop that ability before starting. The planning phase should also be included>* (S4AB)

In addition to the teacher educators, pre-service teachers also have some suggestions for *redesigning the practicum courses*. They suggest that the courses they take at the universities should focus more on practical aspects of teaching, with realistic goals set beforehand about how to be a teacher in real classroom settings. A quotation from one of the pre-service teacher participants illustrate this as follows, focusing on the fact that the real classroom is more different than the theoretical knowledge.

[113] Knowing theoretical aspect can be helpful for some areas but in reality, practicing is a different world. They could have taught more practical aspects (P58)

Apart from this, the pre-service teachers also suggest that there should be clear *guidelines about what schools and universities expect* in practicum. They complain that sometimes the practices of schools and the expectations of the university do not match, they are left alone in the practicum, and this affects their motivation in a negative way. For this reason, they suggest that mentor teachers and teacher educators design the practicum courses together to have consistency in expectations, which is also suggested by teacher educators and mentor teachers themselves. Lastly, the pre-service teachers also suggest that they need to be able to *design activities in practicum courses* that address the needs of the students in schools and which would be useful for them when they are practicing teaching.

4.3.6.2.2. Redesigning the practicum setting

Suggestions related to redesigning the practicum setting have been made by teacher educators, mentor teachers, and pre-service teachers. *Choosing schools, mentors, and classrooms* is one suggestion related to the practicum setting made by all participants. University-based teacher educators believe that working with mentors who are willing and interested in the practicum experience of pre-service teachers makes a huge difference in terms of professional development. Therefore, four of them suggest that they need to be able to choose the mentors. Similarly, when the schools and levels for teaching practice are forced but not chosen, they sometimes do not have the chance to take pre-service teachers to private schools, or other levels in specific schools, which limits the variety of teaching contexts to be observed and experienced. In a similar way, including tertiary levels, such as English preparatory classes of universities, is also suggested to be an option for redesigning the practicum setting, since graduates of teacher education departments also start teaching in such institutions. Same suggestions are also made by mentor teachers and pre-service teachers who believe that the overall quality of the school, willingness of the mentor teachers, and having the chance to see different mentor teachers, levels, or school types affect the practicum experience for better or for worse.

[114] I wish we had more guidelines, for how to choose mentor teachers, how to choose practice schools. Because in the past I worked with very successful mentors. It makes a huge difference. I observe it when I go to the schools that our students who work with those really good mentor teachers develop a lot, learn a lot, in terms of classroom management. It is one of the weakest areas for our students because they don't have any experience. For instance, if we can work with them again and again, those good mentor teachers, that would be great. So, I wish we had some saying or we can give some feedback to the administration and the process doesn't change so much. We can work with certain schools, certain mentor teachers, more than the others (U19)

[115] I think it's very important that they are put in quality schools. I think the more they can see obviously different kinds of schools but I definitely think that to get into a good quality school where they can see some really interesting and effective teachers. I think the quality of the schools they are placed should be established and controlled. If they get into a school which has little or no discipline, if everything's out of control and the students are not behaving, they could be scared of. I think they should make the effort to put them into quality schools if possible (S38)

[116] The internship schools and teachers should be chosen by considering better (P5)

Having practicum in teacher training schools is another suggestion that comes out in the analysis. Teacher educators and mentor teachers suggest that there should be specific schools, much like in many European countries where pre-service teachers go to teaching practice. They state that many universities have their own foundation schools and these could be good for teaching practice. They also state that the needs of students and teachers are not the same in every city; therefore, localizing teacher training and teaching practicum would be beneficial to address the local needs better, instead of having one curriculum that fits all. University-based teacher educators also suggest that such localization of teacher training schools would enable more projects to be conducted collaboratively with schools and universities.

[117] Bir de bir şey daha var. Bir şehirde olan bir şey diğer şehirde de geçerli olacak diye bir şey yok. Acaba Diyarbakır'daki öğrencilerle Ankara, İstanbul'dakilerin ihtiyaçları aynı mıdır? Milli Eğitim'den gelen karar bütün şehirlerde uygulanıyor. O konuda da belki bölgesel bir şeye gidilebilir aslında. Avrupa ülkelerinin çoğu yapıyor bunu. Bizim öğrencilerimiz burada okula başladığında mesela daha Türkçe bilmeyenler var *<And there is one more thing. There is no such thing as what's valid in one city will be valid in another. I wonder if the needs of the students in Diyarbakır are the same with those in Ankara and İstanbul? The decisions taken at the MoNE are applied in all cities. Maybe there could be*

regional stuff. Most European countries do this. For instance, when our students start school here, there are some who don't even speak Turkish>
(U22)

4.3.6.2.3. Collaboration among practicum stakeholders

University-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers, and pre-service teachers all suggest that there should be *more collaboration* between teacher educators and mentor teachers in managing the practicum experience of pre-service teachers.

[118] Both supervisor and mentor teacher should be in contact or else we prospective teachers have problems and stress (P64)

[119] There are really good mentors that we can work in collaboration. We could continue to work with them. For instance, in teaching skills courses, we can invite mentor teachers. For instance, for classroom management topic, I would love to invite a mentor to share his/her experiences. I share my experiences as a teacher who worked at elementary school. That's why I said it is a must to have some experience with some level. But an experienced mentor would share more in that area. They deal with problem makers everyday so they develop their own ways of dealing with those students. (U19)

Focusing on the practical side of teaching, as seen in the quotations above, university-based teacher educators especially propose the idea that they need to invite mentor teachers from schools to teach them about classroom management and share their real experiences. Some other teacher educators suggest that they could also go to schools and work together with the mentor teachers to see the practical applications of the theory they are studying at the university. In addition to these, as seen in quotation [118] for instance, the pre-service teacher is suggesting that both teacher educator and mentor teacher come together since when they do not, it is the pre-service teacher himself who experiences the stress caused by a lack of unity in what they are doing in practicum.

4.3.6.2.4. Training mentor teachers

Training mentor teachers as teacher educators is another suggestion mentioned by all groups of participants. All of the participants, including mentor teachers themselves, state that they have neither enough knowledge nor authority

about what goes on in the practicum period of pre-service teachers. While teacher educators at the university blame mentor teachers claiming that they are not aware of the recent theories and developments in the field, mentor teachers blame teacher educators saying that they do not orient them about what to do with pre-service teachers. Pre-service teachers on the other hand complain that mentor teachers are careless and not attentive to their practicum experiences.

[120] Aslında üniversitelerden bize öğrenci geldiği zaman bizim ne yapacağımız, ya da üniversitenin gözlem konusunda kurumun ne beklediği bize daha net bildirilse daha iyi olur çünkü bazen onların bile farkında olmadığı şeyler olabiliyor. Geçen gün mesela bir not uygulaması vardı, internet üzerinden bir şeyler yapıldı. Herkes bilmeyebiliyordu. Daha kendileri hakim değildi. Bize de ne söyleyeceklerini bilmiyorlardı. Biz ne yapacağımızı bilemez gibi olduk. Bunlar boşluklar doğurdu tabi *<It would in fact be better if we are precisely told about what to do when pre-service teachers come from the universities, or what the institution expects us to do because there are some things even they are not aware of. A few days ago, there was this evaluation application, done online. Not everyone knew how to do it. They weren't competent themselves. We couldn't also know what to do. These created some gaps>* (S19)

[121] Oradaki hocalara bu eğitim verilebilir. Ben veririm diyemiyorum. Kendimi bu konuda yeterli görmüyorum açıkçası. Ama gerek sınıf yönetimi olsun, gerek sınıf içi iletişim, sınıf içi dil olsun, yönergeler nasıl verilir, bununla ilgili eğitimler verilmesi gerekiyor oradaki hocalara *<Those teachers could be given this training. I don't say that I can do that. I don't really think I am competent in that but those teachers need to be given training about classroom management, classroom communication, use of language, how to give instruction etc.>* (U31)

4.3.6.2.5. Suggestions for teacher educators

Last but not least, pre-service teacher survey results reveal some aspects related to their suggestions for practicum, especially about their experiences with mentor teachers and teacher educators. The most frequently mentioned suggestion is about *mentors changing their style of teaching* ($f=10$). Pre-service teachers report that they observe traditional teaching using Grammar Translation Method when they go to schools. They also state that mentor teachers make use of only the coursebook as the course materials. Therefore, they suggest that these mentor teachers update themselves in line with the recent trends in language education and provide a better role model in terms

of teaching. Two others advise that mentor teachers should *be more interested in the practicum experience* of pre-service teachers. They state that mentor teachers sometimes do not observe their progress, do not give them feedback and even demotivate them with their actions. In this sense, pre-service teachers would like to observe mentor teachers who care about their development and needs as future teachers.

[122] Our mentor teacher at school must have experience about practicing process. We have problems what to do at school (P45)

[123] For the first time we do teaching in class, we are not good enough. And our mentor teacher didn't treat and say anything well. And it puts us on pressure. She could be more positive (P111)

In addition to these, one pre-service teacher states that they are asked to do other things such as being their substitutes, doing translations, grading student papers, etc. Other than these, three of the pre-service teachers also suggest that teacher educators at university should be *more interested in their practicum experience*. They complain that sometimes teacher educators do not establish contact with the schools, do not give them detailed feedback, and only observe them once in their teaching practice experience. In other words, they suggest that teacher educators should be with them more.

All in all, the detailed analyses of the results, presented above, show that teacher educators are defined from a variety of perspectives: professional characteristics, personality traits, roles and responsibilities. Moreover, it is also seen that there is a specific knowledge base for being a teacher educator. The participants also mention certain skills that a teacher educator needs to have. Lastly, the results related to professional development show that teacher educators have various practices for professional development as well as problems and suggestions for both personal professional development and practicum. The next chapter of this study discusses these results in detail with relevant references to the literature.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter discusses the importance of the results of the study with relevant references to the literature. Firstly, it provides the discussions of the results obtained in this study which are presented in detail in the previous section. The discussion is based on three constructs in accordance with the three research questions: *definitions*, *competences*, and *professional development*. Secondly, it presents the implications of the results, provides recommendations for future studies, and addresses the limitations of the study.

5.1. Discussion on Defining Teacher Educators

The opening question in the interviews was “*Whom do you call a teacher educator?*” This question was asked purposefully to see whether they identify themselves as teacher educators or not, and how they identify themselves if they do not consider themselves to be teacher educators. Their responses show that whom they refer to as teacher educators is varying. Academics at the universities as well as teachers at schools all have several definitions related to whom they call a teacher educator. While some of their responses revolve around the general definition “all those who guide and educate students who are studying to become teachers”, some others define a teacher educator depending on the work they do. For university-based teacher educators, for instance, they are “all lecturers at the university”; or they are only those lecturers “who give the practicum course”, but not the ones offering the *linguistics course*, to give an example. Likewise, while some university-based teacher educators also define mentor teachers at schools as teacher educators, some do not. The case is also similar in the responses of school-based mentor teachers. As far as the question “whom do you call a teacher educator?” is

concerned, the general orientation in the responses is towards defining it as “all those who share experiences with students coming from the university about what it means to be a teacher” which coincide with the definitions offered by Wentz (2001), and Cohen et al. (2004), among many others. While this is a general definition, as it is the case with university-based teacher educators, there are also those who identify themselves specifically as “mentor teachers” and “teacher educators”. There are however, some who explicitly state that they are not teacher educators, or at least they would not identify what they are doing as teacher education, leaving that identity to those at the university. There is also the distinction of in-service vs. pre-service teacher educators, mentioned by some of the participants, but since the focal point in this study is pre-service teacher education, that discussion is left aside.

This exploration into the categorical definition of a teacher educator is in line with what others have been suggesting in the literature of teacher education: ‘defining the label “teacher educator” is not an easy endeavour due to the various roles and titles embedded in it’ (Ben-Peretz, Kleeman, Reichenberg, & Shimoni, 2011; Davey, 2013; Lunenberg et al., 2014). Similar results have been reported by Korth, Erickson, and Hall (2009) who found out that the answer to the question “are you a teacher educator?” depends on whether the participants have worked with pre-service teachers before or define their work as *educating* others. According to ETUCE (2008), the various profiles of teacher educators include academic staff in Higher Education, teachers of didactics, education researchers, supervisors of practice in schools, teachers in schools, and tutors (mentor, guide, counsellor, coordinator). The term ‘teacher educator’ is historically used for the *pre-service* side of teacher education, though it also includes in-service teacher mentors (Davey, 2013). It might be including mentor teachers at schools as well which is also seen in the responses of the participants in this study.

Characteristics and personality traits of teacher educators have also been defined in this study with respect to university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. *Being a role model* is one of the most frequently

mentioned characteristics for teacher educators. This means that pre-service teachers not only learn about teaching and learning, they also learn how to behave as a teacher. Therefore, personal qualities of teacher educators play a significant role in defining the teacher educators, as well as professional qualities (Helterbran, 2008) as teacher educators become role models for the pre-service teachers (Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007; Griffiths, Thompson, & Htyniexicz, 2014; Tunca et al., 2015).

In this study, the teacher educators report both professional characteristics and personality traits related to being a teacher educator. The most frequently mentioned professional characteristics by university-based teacher educators include *being open to change and developing yourself*, and *being knowledgeable in content and pedagogy*. For personality traits, they mostly mentioned *being respectful and empathetic*, and *creating a supportive and encouraging learning environment*. These findings are similar to those reported by others (Griffiths et al., 2014; and Tunca et al., 2015). In a similar perspective, Hau-Fai Law, Gordon, Kennedy, Tse, and Ming Yu (2007) find out in their study with teacher educators that the characteristics of teacher educators include eclectic teaching and learning strategies, sensitivity towards student needs, theory-based instruction, feedback as a pedagogical instrument, and showing professional commitment and passion. The findings of this study also overlap with Hau-Fai Law et al. (2007) study. This might suggest that these are the essential characteristics to be seen in teacher educators.

The professional characteristics and personality traits of school-based mentor teachers also play a significant role in the professional development of pre-service teachers. Both teacher educators and pre-service teachers highlight that there are certain characteristics and personality traits that teacher educators need to have. Similar to university-based teacher educators, they also believe that being knowledgeable and open to development are the most important characteristics. For personality traits, they believe that it is important to be supportive, helpful, motivating, and empathetic. Such characteristics and personality traits have been offered by other scholars in the

literature previously (Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Johnson, 2007). According to Johnson (2007), characters virtues of mentors are also important in defining an overall competent mentor, as “the character virtues serve as the foundation for one’s behaviour in relation to students” (p. 74). Thus, Johnson (2009) mentions three character virtues: *integrity*, *caring*, and *prudence*. In this study, *being objective, democratic, honest*, and *ethical* correspond to Johnson’s (2007) *integrity*. Similarly, personality traits such as *friendly, empathetic, caring*, and *not judging* identified by the participants correspond to *caring*. *Being intelligent, autonomous*, and *conscious* seems to overlap with being *prudent*.

Still, even though teacher educators mention that they need to be supportive, knowledgeable, and attentive, pre-service teachers complain about some aspects related to professional characteristics and personality traits. They complain that their university-based teacher educators are not interested in their practicum experiences and not guiding them, even leaving them alone to deal with the problems that occur in the schools. Similarly, the pre-service teachers also state that their mentor teachers at school do not respect them, do not see them as teachers, and they are not knowledgeable. Therefore, it might be concluded that pre-service teachers are not happy with how teacher educators and mentor teachers treat them in the course of their practicum experience.

5.2. Discussion on the Roles of Teacher Educators

The results obtained in this study show that teacher educators have various roles and responsibilities which are both related and unrelated to teacher education. It is found that both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers have the primary roles of guiding and supervising pre-service teachers, and facilitating their professional development. They not only model good teaching practice to teacher candidates, they also reflect on how they teach and communicate this to the pre-service teachers. This is in line with the findings in the literature. The European Commission published a report on *The Profession of Teacher Educator in Europe* in 2010 and a more detailed one

in 2013. These documents state that facilitating professional development of student teachers is the first role associated with teacher educators. According to Koster, Korthagen, Wubbels and Hoornweg (1996), there are several functions that teacher educators fulfil, the first of which is facilitating the learning process of student teachers. Similarly, teacher educators are regarded as “*model pedagogues*” (Ben-Peretz et al., 2011, p. 128) that contribute to the professional development of mentor teachers (Shagrir, 2015). In a similar perspective, Loughran (2006) asserts that “the complexity of teacher educators’ work hinges around recognizing, responding and managing the dual roles of teaching and teaching about teaching concurrently” (p. 11). However, it is also important to note that the different roles that teacher educators assume are linked to the different requirements in different contexts. For instance, while some countries require teacher educators to have a doctorate degree to be able to teach at the universities, some countries do not. In the same way, some contexts make a distinction between University of Applied Sciences (e.g. Finland, the Netherlands) while, for instance Turkey does not. What this implies is that in some contexts, there might be a separation of the roles between a teacher educator and a researcher, while in Turkey, there is not such a distinction.

One interesting finding is that the school-based mentor teachers do not mention any further roles, while university-based mentor teachers think that their roles also include doing research, teaching and lecturing, having administrative duties, and enabling cooperation between schools and universities. One reason for this could be that they do not identify themselves as teacher educators. When asked to define a teacher educator, they most frequently mention “those who guide and share experience with pre-service teachers”. Some even explicitly state they do not consider themselves teacher educators. Therefore, it is not surprising that they believe their only role is to guide them into the field of being a teacher, as far as teacher education is concerned.

According to Feiman-Nemser (1998), mentor teachers do not see themselves as teacher educators for the following reasons. For one thing, they believe that whatever they do, *learning to teach* is learned through experience. They expect that pre-service teachers will develop their own strategies themselves, in time, as they teach. Also, they believe that it is the role of the university and the faculty member to teach pre-service teachers how to teach. Their mission is only to be there, to be observed, to step in when they have questions, and to provide feedback on teaching. Feiman-Nemser (1998) also add that the reasons they do not see themselves as school-based teacher educators go deeper, having to do with *epistemological reasons*. In other words, the dominant theoretical knowledge base for teaching given at the university and the actual practice in schools create a gap between theory and practice. Therefore, “the gap between the visions of teaching promoted at the university and the gritty realities of uninspired classrooms compounds the problem” (p. 65). In this study, school-based mentor teachers do not seem to assume any further roles, rather than being an example to pre-service teachers about what a teacher does. This finding is linked to the arguments by Feiman-Nemser (1998). It is seen that some school-based mentor teachers define a *teacher educator* as those people at the university who teach the pre-service teachers more. In addition to that, there are a few school-based mentor teachers who complain about the university-based teacher educators’ not knowing about the real practice in schools. Therefore, the abovementioned arguments by Feirman-Nemser (1998) seem to be justified in this study.

On the other hand, university-based teacher educators identify various other roles which are also present in the literature, such as researchers (Cochran-Smith, 2005; Smith, 2011), curriculum developers (Lunenberg et al., 2014; Bouckaert & Kools, 2018), teachers, supervisors, and having administrative duties (Korth et al., 2009; Smith, 2011; Korkmaz, 2013).

Gideonse (1989) asked the faculty to keep logs of the activities they do for one *seven-day* period. The result is fourteen identified categories of activities: preparation for class, scheduled class interaction, evaluation of student

performance, doctoral instruction, supervision of practicum, travelling, research, serving on committees, public service for professional associations, public service for schools, public service for governmental bodies, student advising, administrative duties, and ceremonial responsibilities. The results of this study report the same activities for university-based teacher educators. The participants in this study report that there is not a balance among these various roles and responsibilities. Quite a few teacher educators state that assuming one role does not eliminate the other. For instance, in some universities, especially those who have relatively smaller number of faculty, teacher educators can teach up to 30 hours per week in addition to being, say, the chair of the department. In a similar way, teaching the practicum course and dealing with pre-service teachers one to one does not decrease the teaching load in other courses. Moreover, these teacher educators need to simultaneously engage in professional learning and development activities. In short, the results of the study show that university-based teacher educators feel overwhelmed with the multi-faceted roles and responsibilities they have (Izadinia, 2014).

One last point to be made about the roles of teacher educators is the following; there are situations which force both mentor teachers at schools and teacher educators at the university to be involved in guiding pre-service teachers in their teaching practice, even while becoming a teacher educator in the first place. Transition from being a teacher to teacher educator is one recent aspect of studying teacher educators professionally (Murray & Male, 2005; Dinkelman, Margolis, Sikkenga, 2006; Berry, 2007; Williams & Hayler, 2016). In some cases, becoming a teacher educator is an “accidental career” in academe (Mayer, Mitchell, Santoro & White, 2011) since they have no choice but teach the practicum course. Davey (2013) talks about two pathways of becoming teacher educators: the *academic pathway* and the *practitioner pathway*. The academic pathway is taken when the teacher decides directly to further into the academic study through a doctorate degree, ultimately becoming a teacher educator at a university level. The practitioner pathway is

taken when a successful and experienced teacher takes up a position in a teacher training institution. By the same token, Berry (2008) refers to two pathways for teacher educators: one coming from *research* and the other from *classroom teaching*.

Becoming a teacher educator through taking the academic route is common in Turkey. Generally, when they graduate from teacher education departments, teachers go on their careers as research assistants, doing graduate studies, and ultimately becoming teacher educators. Yet, though less common, teachers spend some time in the field doing actual teaching, later decide to go on with graduate studies, and become teacher educators, which is also an *academic pathway*. It is seen in this study that while some university-based teacher educators choose the academic pathway directly after graduation in becoming a teacher educator, some others spend some time teaching in the field, and then decide to go for the academic pathway, which is the only way to become a teacher educator at a university in Turkey. For school-based mentor teachers, the journey of becoming a mentor teacher is complicated. Even though they might take some seminars (and sometimes they are supposed to) related to teacher education, these are generally for in-service teacher education. Usually, they are teachers of English at schools who assume the role of supervising pre-service teachers totally randomly while they continue teaching English, notwithstanding a lack of specific training and guidance in pre-service teacher education.

5.3. Discussion on Knowledge Base and Skills of Teacher Educators

It is seen in the results that teacher educators need special knowledge base, as distinct from that of teachers. The results of this study are parallel to the literature on teacher educator knowledge base. Russels (1997) states that “becoming a teacher educator (or teacher of teachers) has the potential (not always realized) to generate a second level of thought about teaching, one that focuses not on content but on how we teach” (Russell, 1997, p. 44). In this study, the participants report that there are five domains of knowledge that

constitute the knowledge base of teacher educators. These are presented in Table 30 below.

Table 30

Knowledge base for teacher educators identified in the study

Domains of knowledge for teacher educators
1. <i>Knowledge of content and pedagogy</i>
2. <i>Knowledge of learners and learning</i>
3. <i>Knowledge of curriculum and assessment</i>
4. <i>Knowledge of policy, system, and society</i>
5. <i>Knowledge of research</i>

This result is in line with what others have offered before (Tamir, 1991; John, 2002; Goodwin & Kosnik, 2003; Smith 2003, 2005; Goodwin et al., 2014; Kosnik et al., 2015). In this study, the domains of knowledge related to *content and pedagogy* overlaps with *literary and literacy teaching* (Kosnik et al., 2015); *professional knowledge* and *personal practical knowledge* (Tamir, 1991); *practical professional knowledge* (John, 2002); *pedagogical knowledge* (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2003). Likewise, the domains of *knowledge related to learners and learning* identified by the participants in this study coincides with *contextual knowledge* of Goodwin & Kosnik, (2003). The *pedagogical knowledge* identified by Goodwin & Kosnik (2003) include the knowledge of *curriculum; social knowledge and sociological knowledge* (Goodwin & Kosnik, 2003) corresponds to *knowledge of policy, system, and society* in this study. Kosnik et al. (2015) also identify *research* as a separate knowledge domain for teacher educators, as it is identified in this study.

These domains of knowledge define the knowledge base of both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. However, school-based mentor teachers do not mention knowledge of research and knowledge of policy, system and society as part of a teacher educator's knowledge base. What is more interesting is that there are quite a few mentor teachers who believe that the knowledge base for mentor teachers actually does not differ from the knowledge base for teachers. This again might be due to the fact that not all mentor teachers consider themselves to be teacher educators.

The difference between the knowledge base of teachers and teacher educators (both school-based and university-based) is documented. According to Smith (2003a) even though there is much overlap between the knowledge and expertise of teachers and teacher educators, there are also distinct differences in the following areas: articulation of reflectivity and meta-cognition, quality of knowledge, knowledge of how to create new knowledge, teaching children vs. teaching adults, comprehensive understanding of the education system, and professional maturity and autonomy. Similar results are obtained in this study. The differences between teacher educators and (mentor) teachers stem from the differences in profession and professional development purposes, and curriculum and target audience. It is found out that teacher educators' professional knowledge should be more comprehensive, rich and extensive.

In this study, it is also reported that there is no difference in the knowledge base of mentor teachers and teachers who have not assumed mentoring roles. Few of them identify distinct aspects of knowledge, such as the *content of what is taught* and the *knowledge related to mentoring problems*. Yet, most of the school-based mentor teachers report that they share the same knowledge base both for their role as teachers, and mentor teachers. This is an interesting finding considering that the literature is populated with studies that identify distinct knowledge base for mentor teachers (Brooks & Sikes, 1997; Hagger et al., 1995; Jonson, 2008; Cohen et al., 2004; Achinstein & Athanases, 2006). Again, this might be due to the fact that mentor teachers believe they are not teacher educators, rather, they see themselves as teachers of English who do whatever they do whether they have pre-service teachers observing them or not.

Another finding of this study is that the participants believe there are specific skills that teacher educators need to have. Even though school-based mentor teachers do not identify distinct knowledge base, they believe that someone who is mentoring pre-service teachers need to have certain skills. Likewise, university-based teacher educators and pre-service teachers mention certain skills that teacher educators need to have. These are given in Table 31 below.

Table 31

Categories of skills for teacher educators identified in the study

Categories of skills for teacher educators
1. <i>Modelling teaching that makes theory explicit</i>
2. <i>Establishing communication</i>
3. <i>Conducting research</i>
4. <i>Reflecting on practices and developing professionally</i>
5. <i>Observing and reporting on learning</i>
6. <i>Investigating and solving problems</i>
7. <i>Modelling language use</i>

With the exception of *being able to conduct research*, all other skills have been reported by both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. School-based mentor teachers do not mention research skills. Koster et al. (2005) identify a *competence profile* for teacher educators, dividing it in four groups: content competence, communicative and reflective competence, organizational competence, and pedagogical competence. Similarly, Hagger et al. (1995) mention skills and strategies that school-based mentor teachers need to have: planning and coordinating learning, observation, assessment and supervision, collaborative teaching, etc. The results of this study are in line with those skills identified in the literature. For instance, Hagger et al. (1995) propose the following skills for school-based mentor teachers: (1) planning and coordinating student teachers' learning in schools, (2) observation, (3) assessment and supervision, (4) collaborative teaching, (5) giving student teachers access to professional craft knowledge, (6) critically discussing student teachers' ideas, and (7) supporting student teachers' self-evaluation. In this study, both school-based mentor teachers and pre-service teachers mention guiding skills, observation and feedback, communication, and modelling skills that correspond to those skills and strategies offered by Hagger et al. (1995). Yet, *collaborative teaching* of Hagger et al. (1995) has not been identified as a skill in this study.

Teacher educators are generally not educated formally (Davey, 2013; van Veen, 2013). This being the case, there are some lacks that they believe they have as far as knowledge base and skills are concerned. In this study, university-based teacher educators report that they have a lack of experience in teaching English

and school-based mentor teachers report that they do not receive any training at all. Considering the pathways to become teacher educators, mentioned above, university-based teacher educators usually take the path that involves graduate studies. One can become a teacher educator at a faculty of education with no experience in English language teaching to primary and secondary levels in Turkey. This route is the route taken by many teacher educators in Turkey. Therefore, they usually do not have experience as a teacher. Similarly, mentor teachers do not receive any training related to their role as a mentor. It is assumed by those who assign the role to them (usually the school administrator) that a teacher is by default capable of mentoring pre-service teachers.

5.4. Discussion on Professional Development for Teacher Educators

Defining professional development is the first step in defining the professional development profile of teacher educators. In this study, the participants have responded to the question “what is professional development?” from two different perspectives. The first one is *updating oneself in general*, and the second one is *improving the quality of teaching*. For university-based teacher educators, there is a third dimension which includes *personal development for promotion in the profession*. Smith (2003b) identifies similar definitions for the professional development of teacher educators. As Loughran (2014) points out, “professionally developing as a teacher educator is shaped by the nature of one’s evolving identity as it is buffeted by expectations of knowledge and practice inherent in the enterprise of teacher education itself” (p. 273). In other words, teacher educators conceptualize professional development as shaped by their identity and expectations of the development (Smith, 2011; Dengerink et al., 2015). This means that while professional development additionally means “promotion” in terms of academic career for university-based teacher educators, this is not a concern for school-based mentor teachers since they do not have such career advancements in their profession as a school teacher, unless they decide to further their education with graduate studies.

Another dimension in investigating the professional development profile of teacher educators is to look at what they are doing. The categories for professional development practices are given in Table 32 below.

Table 32
Categories of professional development practices

Categories of professional development
1. <i>Conducting and reading teacher education research</i>
2. <i>Collaborating</i>
3. <i>Engaging in professional learning</i>
4. <i>Reflecting on practices</i>

The results present that while university-based teacher educators are involved in *research* mostly (either by publishing and creating or just learning from it), school-based mentor teachers are engaged in professional learning activities (such as attending conferences, seminars, etc.). In the literature of teacher educator professionalism, similar results have previously been obtained in different contexts. That is, teacher educators mostly conduct and benefit from research, as well as attend conferences, seminars, symposiums, workshops, training sessions, etc. (Smith, 2003b; Karagiorgi & Nicoladiou, 2013; Gökmenoğlu et al., 2015; Czerniawski, 2017). A teacher educator’s practice, according to Tack et al. (2018), is “always situated in multiple contexts, which include but are not limited to institutions of higher education, cooperating schools, and national and international policies regarding teacher educators’ work and professional development” (p. 88). This justifies that while there are certain areas of development that teacher educators in both contexts prioritize, they are all involved in various other practices.

One important finding regarding professional development practices of teacher educators is *collaboration*. Both university-based teacher educators and mentor teachers mention collaborating among colleagues, students, and the community. Collaboration is emphasized as one of the most important aspects to professional development of teacher educators. Standards available for teacher educator professional development, knowledge base, and

competences all focus on collaboration one way or the other (ATE, 2006; AITSL, 2011; VELON, n.d.; InFo-TED, 2015).

Another important finding related to professional development practices of school-based mentor teachers is that they *do nothing*, as they report, even though few. These mentor teachers are either not aware of what to do and how to develop themselves even if they wanted to do something; or they do not have enough time to deal with professional development.

The outcomes and rewards of professional development practices of teacher educators also justify their purposes and definitions. The results point out to *being up to date, being aware of oneself, changing classroom practices, and having research published*. In other words, teacher educators' practices and outcomes of these practices are the starting point in how they conceptualize professional development (Czerniawski et al., 2017; Lunenberg et al., 2017; Vanassche et al. 2015; Tack et al., 2018), as it is seen in this study. Gökmenoğlu et al. (2015) report the following outcomes of teacher educator professional development: *contributing to teacher education knowledge, having awareness, establishing networks, gaining skills, being up to date, gaining experience, increase in motivation, increase in cultural knowledge, becoming self-confident, ethical development, and fast learning*. While this study reports most of the outcomes reported in the mentioned study, this study also reports that teacher educators *change their classroom practices and learn about their pre-service teachers' needs* as an outcome of professional development, which is not seen in Gökmenoğlu et al. (2015). In a similar perspective, Dengerink et al. (2015) also report in their study that by participating in professional development activities, teacher educators have *improved their teaching*. A similar result is also reported in this study. Dengerink et al. (2015) also report that teacher educators have significantly improved their research skills as a result of engaging in professional development. Yet, this study does not report such an outcome of professional development.

Problems also play a significant role in defining the professional development profiles of teacher educators. In this study, the participants mention the following problems that they believe hinder their engagement in professional development, which is presented in Table 33.

Table 33

Problems of teacher educators for professional development

Problems to professional development
1. <i>Attitudinal and institutional problems</i>
2. <i>Lack of time and heavy course load</i>
3. <i>Lack of funding and access to resources</i>
4. <i>Challenges causes by learners and setting</i>
5. <i>Lack of training or support</i>

While university-based teacher educators complain more about problems related to *attitudes and institutions*, school-based mentor teachers mostly complain about *lack of training and support* for professional development. *Lack of time* and *heavy workload* seems to be a common problem for all, which is also reported in other studies as problems hindering professional development (Smith, 2003b; Qureshi, 2016). Smith (2003b) identifies four major problems related to teacher educator professional development: *time*, *lack of support*, *part-time employment*, and *fear of change*. According to Smith's (2003b) study, some teacher educators are interested in neither innovation nor promotion as they might fear change itself. Similarly, some teacher educators might not feel attached to the institution since they have part-time employment contracts. This study, while reporting the lack of time and support as problems for professional development, does not report fear of change or part-time employment as problems. In a similar way, Qureshi (2016) reports that insufficient *access to resources*, *lack of professional support from management*, and *excessive workload* are three major sources of problems hindering teacher educator professional development. The problems mentioned in this study also overlap with Qureshi's (2016) study. Both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers report the same problems.

Two types of *needs* emerge in the data for teacher educator professional development: those required to progress in their academic careers and enable

promotion, and those related to their daily roles and responsibilities (such as teaching, advising etc.). University-based teacher educators state that they need the following: additional training and opportunities for professional development: more time and reduced course work, and more funding and resources. School-based teacher educators report, however, that they only need additional training and opportunities for professional development. Other studies in the literature also report that similar needs for teacher educator professional development (Qui, 2015; Czerniawski et al., 2017; Tack et al., 2018). In that sense, the results found in this study coincides with those in the literature. However, in Czerniawski et al., (2017) for instance, *research skill* is found out to be the most frequent need while this study is void of such a need.

As Kelchtermans et al. (2018) state, “teacher educators often enter the job from very different pathways, and their needs for development will be different depending on the career stage” (p. 129). This seems to be true in this study as well. Since teacher educators at the university level are already involved in academic work and continuously engaged in research, they do not need *research skills*, but *more opportunities* in which they do research. By the same token, the mentor teachers at schools are not usually trained in teacher education, therefore; their most frequently stated need is “*being trained for supervising pre-service teachers*”.

Another fundamental result of this study with regard to suggestions for professional development is the need for a specific professional development community for teacher educators and mentor teachers. Both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers suggest that there needs to be more opportunities for teacher educators and mentor teachers to come together and discuss about their practices. Teacher educator professional development is beginning to emerge as a field of study (Kelchtermans et al., 2018). Within Europe especially, national organizations and associations that take initiatives related to teacher educator professional development are growing in number. The Netherlands is one example. A professional standard

of teacher educators has been published by VELON, Dutch Association for Teacher Educators. It involves ten domains of knowledge, namely: the profession of teacher educators, pedagogy of teacher education, learning and learners, teaching and coaching, institute specific teacher education, subject specific teacher education, content of teacher education, organization of teacher education, curriculum and assessment, and research (VELON, n.d). Similarly, InFo-TED, an international forum working on professional development of teacher educators in Europe, proposes a conceptual model of professional development that includes personal, local, national and global level practices (InFo-TED, 2015). In this study, it is also suggested by the participants that such a conceptual framework is necessary for teacher educator professional development.

Another important result related to suggestions for professional development include more collaboration among the stakeholders of the teacher education process: university-based teacher educators, school-based mentor teachers, pre-service teachers, school administrators, and the wider community of MoNE and CHE. As Douglas (2017) suggests, the roles of university-based teacher educators must extend to collaborating with school-based mentor teachers. This is also suggested by the university-based teacher educators in this study. In addition to that, school-based mentor teachers also suggest giving courses at the universities related to the practical aspects of the theoretical courses taught there. They believe that a dichotomy exists between the theory and practice given at the university courses. Framing a course design that includes the exchange of university-based teacher educators and mentor teachers would provide useful in decreasing this dichotomous perspective in theory and practice. For instance, in Estonia, such placement exchanges between schools and teacher education institutions occur. In this way, mentor teachers with much practical experience have the opportunity to share their experiences with university-based teacher educators and pre-service teachers. At the same time, university-based teacher educators who have long been away from the practical side of teaching gain experience (European Commission, 2013).

5.5. Discussion on Teacher Education Practices

In addition to the definitions, competences, and professional development profiles of teacher educators, the participants also provide problems and suggestions with regard to teaching practicum experience when asked about aspects of professional development. All in all, the results of the study show that there is a lack of trust between university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. Both groups of participants state that the other group is: (1) not competent or trained in the practicum process, and (2) not interested or willing to organize the process. University-based teacher educators complain about mentor teachers, saying that they are not taking the job seriously, they do not know what to do, they are not updating themselves, and they are not collaborating. Similarly, mentor teachers at schools complain that teacher educators at the university are not taking the job seriously, and they do not have enough experience related to practice at schools. There are even some mentor teachers who state that they have not met the university-based teacher educators. A similar finding is reported in Baştürk (2008) who investigates the teaching practice component from the point of mentor teachers.

In addition to this, the results of the study also point to a lack of trust among pre-service teachers and teacher educators at schools and universities. They are not content about the practices of teacher educators at the university and mentor teachers at the school. They complain that school-based mentor teachers have negative attitudes towards the students in the classes, employ traditional teaching methods, do not attend to pre-service teachers' needs, do not provide feedback, and are not good at classroom management. Likewise, they also complain that university-based teacher educators are not interested in their practicum experience, do not guide them well, require too much coursework, and are not empathetic about their problems. These findings also coincide with the studies in the literature. For instance, Aslan & Sağlam (2018) also find that pre-service teachers think teacher educators are not competent enough, and they do not inform them about what to do. The issue of lack of trust

is also seen in other studies in the literatures. For instance, Baştürk (2016) mentions that pre-service teachers complain about the competence of school-based mentor teachers, just as mentor teachers think pre-service teachers are not competent in teaching.

Apart from the issue of lack of trust, the participants also report that there is not enough practice involved in the practicum period. That is, pre-service teachers state that they do not get the chance to teach enough to gain the necessary skills to become efficient teachers. School-based mentor teachers, too, believe that teaching is a profession that develops as you do it; therefore, more opportunities for practice are needed. Aslan and Sağlam (2018) also report similar results. In their study with pre-service teachers, it is found that the practicum component of the teacher education program does not provide enough practice for teacher candidates. The participants also made suggestions for a better practicum period, the details of which are discussed further in the implications for teacher education section.

5.6. A Professional Standards Framework for Language Teacher Educators in Turkey

As presented in the previous chapter and discussed in the previous section, the results of this study provide a *professional standards framework for teacher educators in Turkey* (See Appendix G). This framework defines teacher educators as “those individuals working in higher education institutions and schools enabling students to develop into competent teachers”. The framework identifies three profiles: a *definition profile* (professional characteristics and personality traits of teacher educators) a *competence profile* (knowledge base and skills of teacher educators), and a *professional development profile* for teacher educators.

The framework which is presented in Figure 8 is the product of this study. The sub-headings under *Professional Definitions* (A1, A2, A3) come from the first research question in this study, which focuses on the defining characteristics of teacher educators. The sub-headings under *Professional Competences* (B1,

B2) are the results of the second research question in this study, which emphasizes the essential competences of teacher educators. Likewise, the last section in the framework, Professional Engagement (C1) represents the results of the third research question, characterising dimensions of professional development for teacher educators.

It is important to note that no such framework exists in Turkey. As mentioned in the previous sections, there are two sources which define the duties, roles and responsibilities of the teaching staff members at the universities, and the mentor teachers at schools. One of these, the article 22 of the Law on Higher Education of the Council of Higher Education in Turkey (CHE, 2000) specifies the following five duties to be performed by these teaching staff members at the universities: carrying out education and practical studies, undertaking scientific research, advising and guiding students, carrying out duties assigned by authorized organs, and performing other duties assigned by the law. These are general duties with no specification of neither scope nor field. In a similar perspective, the faculty-school partnership guidebook (YÖK, 1998) presents more specific roles and responsibilities of the university supervisors and mentor teachers who take care of the practicum component of the teacher education programs. However, these roles and responsibilities are also not field specific.

Besides, they only present roles related to the practicum component, not emphasizing the needs or ways for professional development of the mentioned teacher educators. In this sense, this framework is unique in Turkey for its detailed scope in covering the three major components; definitions, competences, and professional development. Besides, it focuses on aspects such as professional characteristics, personality traits, knowledge base, skills, and professional development which have not been investigated for language teacher educators in the Turkish context in detail before.

PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS FRAMEWORK FOR LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATORS IN TURKEY

PROFESSIONAL DEFINITIONS			PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCES		PROFESSIONAL ENGAGEMENT
A1. Professional Characteristics	A2. Personality Traits	A3. Roles and Responsibilities	B1. Knowledge Base	B2. Skills	C1. Professional Development Practices
A1.1 Trained, experienced and competent in teaching and teacher education	A2.1 Respect pre-service teachers and show empathy	A3.1 Guide and supervise pre-service teachers and facilitate their professional development	B1.1 Knowledge of content and pedagogy – know the content related to discipline and how to teach it	B2.1 Model teaching that makes theory explicit in an enjoyable way employing efficient time and classroom management strategies, using a variety of methods and materials	C1.1 Research – follow publications, attend and present in conferences, and conduct research
A1.2 Model teaching that facilitates professional development	A2.2 Create a supporting and encouraging learning environment	A3.2 Teach undergraduate and graduate courses, give lectures, and supervise graduate studies	B1.2 Knowledge of learners and learning – know about the nature of learning, language acquisition, classrooms and how learning takes place in other learning environments	B2.2 Use technology and integrate it into teaching	C1.2 Collaboration – observe and cooperate with pre-service teachers, colleagues, schools, universities, and other educational administrators
A1.3 Pursue a mature, intellectual and ethical stance towards profession	A2.3 Be motivated, passionate and self-confident in profession	A3.3 Conduct and disseminate academic research in teaching and teacher education	B1.3 Knowledge of system, policy, and society – have a comprehensive understanding of the education system and its practices, outcomes, and possible changes, language planning as well needs of society and culture	B2.3 Establish communication and collaboration with pre-service teachers, colleagues, administrators, and society	C1.3 Professional learning – follow new trends and developments, go abroad, do field work, learn about target language culture and literature, and improve language proficiency skills
A1.4 Reflect on own practices and engage in professional development	A2.4 Be friendly, approachable, patient and tolerant towards pre-service teachers	A3.4 Assume administrative roles and duties in and out of the institution	B1.4 Knowledge of curriculum and assessment – have a comprehensive knowledge about teacher education and school curriculum; as well as testing, assessment, materials design and evaluation	B2.4 Read, localize, conduct and share academic research in teaching and teacher education	C1.4 Reflection – reflect on actions and be open to develop with the changes, constantly updating teaching styles and course materials, as well as teaching new courses to new levels
	A2.5 Be open-minded and open to criticism	A3.5 Enable cooperation between schools, universities, community, and educational authorities	B1.5 Knowledge of research – know how to read, design and conduct studies, and localize research findings in teacher education at a theory and practice level in forms of classroom research	B2.5 Observe, guide, provide feedback, evaluate and report on pre-service teacher learning and teacher education practices	
	A2.6 Be honest and democratic			B2.6 Model proficiency in language use and promote its development	
				B2.7 Analyse unexpected situations, act promptly, and have the pre-service teachers gain problem solving strategies	

Figure 8. Professional standards framework for language teacher educators in Turkey (please see Appendix G for a detailed version).

Such frameworks are available in different parts of the world though. In the US, for instance, there is a list of standards for teacher educators prepared by the Association of Teacher Educators (ATE). Just like the one proposed in this study, the US framework is intended for all personnel who are responsible for teacher education of both pre-service teachers to novice in-service teachers. A similar framework is offered by the Dutch Association of Teacher Educators (VELON) and the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL). While this framework is similar in scope to these mentioned frameworks available in different contexts, it is unique in that it also includes the professional characteristics and personality traits of teacher educators, which are not explicitly emphasized in others.

5.7. Implications of the Study

This study has implications for teacher educator professional development, teacher education practices, curriculum development, and recommendations for future research. These will be discussed in this section in detail.

First of all, this study concludes that there is a need for a professional development community for university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers. It is shown in this study that engaging in professional development activities such as going to conferences, writing articles, and sharing research is one thing. Yet, the participants also emphasized the need to have a professional development community where teacher educators come together periodically, work collaboratively and develop understandings of teacher education practices, reflect on their own practices, share their ideas, and learn from each other in a sociocultural environment. In this way, they would be contributing their professional development.

One way of creating such a professional development community for teacher educators is providing teacher educators with the necessary incentives to form an association of teacher educators in Turkey. Such non-governmental organizations are common in international contexts, especially in Europe. For instance, the International Forum for Teacher Educators (InFo-TED) is one

successful example. Having partners from many different countries (Belgium, Norway, the Netherlands, England, Ireland, Scotland, Australia, Israel, and the USA, the forum aims to develop and implement knowledge bases of teacher educators, translate these knowledge bases in to an international program, and develop and implement supportive guidelines for induction of teacher educators. Such a professional development community is also needed in Turkey involving both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers.

In addition to international collaboration, such a professional development community might also be formed in the national context with the help of teacher unions, associations, universities, schools, and other non-governmental organizations. Teacher educators from different cities might come together periodically, conduct and share research, discuss about their teacher education practices, etc. One successful example in the Turkish context is *English Language Teacher Education Research Group* (ELTER). While mainly aiming to contribute to the improvement of the overall quality of English language teacher education in Turkey, ELTER also focuses on teacher educators and researchers by providing a forum for them to share their practices, experiences, and research. There is a need for such research groups to multiply and work actively towards contributing the professional development of teacher educators.

In addition to professional development communities, *forms of apprenticeship* might provide useful implications for teacher educator professional development, as identified by Lave and Wenger (1991). It is seen in this study that apprenticeship plays a significant role in how teacher educators become teacher educators in the first place. What this implies is that experienced teacher educators might help novice teacher educator in constructing their identities and improving their practices as teacher educators. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), participation as a way of learning, of both absorbing and being absorbed in, the culture of practice, and the participating organization is a crucial step in a community of practice. Therefore, novice

teacher educators might benefit from the experiences of experienced teacher educators through a process of social relation of apprenticeship.

In a similar perspective, university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers can learn from each other by being actively involved in common projects, courses, meetings, discussions etc. Both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers suggest that there needs to be a specific way for them to come together, engage in professional learning opportunities and share ideas. University-based teacher educators in this study identify their knowledge base and skills to be mostly related to academic and theoretical. In other words, they know about theory, they engage in professional development to the extent that facilities allow, but they lack practical knowledge and experience in teaching. Likewise, school-based mentor teachers are pedagogical experts since they have long years of experience in English language teaching, they can do guidance to pre-service teachers (or any beginning or candidate teachers for that matter). However, they lack training in teacher education. Therefore, teacher educators and mentor teachers might benefit from the experience of each other. Such practices might also provide basis for policy implication with regard to the selection of teacher educators (both university-based teacher educators and school-based mentor teachers). There needs to be some guidelines and criteria related to who becomes teacher educators giving the practicum course at the university, or becoming mentors at the schools. Rather than the “whomever assigned” approach, a more systematic approach is needed.

Teacher educators are autonomous intellectuals who have multifaceted roles of contributing to their own professional development, teacher professional development, and teacher education research. From the beginning of 1990s, teacher educators started to examine their own experience and practice as teacher educators. Thus, a new strand of research emerged, called self-study in teacher education research (Pinnegar & Hamilton, 2017; Lassonde, Galman, & Kosnik, 2009; Berry, 2007). One implication of this study is that teacher educators can also focus on self-study research along with participating in

communities of practice. As Pinnegar and Hamilton (2017) suggest, the practices and experiences of teacher educators are multidimensional. As they engage in what they call “intimate scholarship”, teacher educators work on their experiences and practice, inquire into these, and ultimately learn and develop. Therefore, teacher educators also need to be provided with opportunities to engage in self-research, such as allocation of more budget to professional development needs, and other research purposes.

Another suggestion that comes out of this study is training mentor teachers as teacher educators. In the Turkish context, there are some guidelines regarding the roles and responsibilities of school-based mentor teachers as identified by the Higher Education Council (YÖK, 1998). In addition to that, the Ministry of National Education provides, from time to time, training sessions for teachers who assume the role of mentoring pre-service teachers. They also publish guidelines related to the process to be followed when a teacher becomes responsible for the professional development of pre-service teachers in the practicum period. However, these do not seem to suffice as it is seen in the responses of the participants in this study. Most of the time, mentor teachers complain that they are not informed well about the process of teacher education. In some other cases, these training sessions and guidelines, as they suggest, fail to reflect the particularity of their own contexts since they come top-down from central authorities to care for all the needs of the country. Some mentor teachers, thus, complain that they do not know how to observe, how to give feedback to the pre-service teachers. That being the case, the practicum experience of the pre-service teacher might ultimately not be as beneficial as it is desired to be. For these reasons, it is strongly recommended that mentor teachers are trained and informed about the practicum process and the teacher education process in a systematic way. Such information sharing and training sessions might be provided collaboratively by teacher educators at the university and experienced mentor teachers who have been involved in mentoring for years.

Last but not least, it is concluded in this study that the practicum component of the teacher education program is introduced too late into the curriculum. Year 4, which is the final year, is not enough for pre-service teachers to gain necessary skills and insights about becoming a teacher. Therefore, there needs to be changes in the language teacher education curriculum to include more opportunities for pre-service teachers to have earlier exposure to real school settings. It is believed, as stated by many teacher educators in this study, that pre-service teachers need to be exposed to the school environment right in the first year of the teacher education program. This early exposure to school experience would allow for bridging the theory and practice in a more beneficial way, enabling the pre-service teacher to prepare for the school setting better. In the course of conducting this study, the teacher education program has been changed in May 2018, including an update to the practicum component. Previously, there were two practicum courses: *School Experience* in the first semester of Year 4, and *Practice Teaching* in the second semester of Year 4. With the update, it is seen that the School Experience course has been opted out and instead, the Practice Teaching course is divided into two: Practice Teaching I and Practice Teaching II. The two courses are still at Year 4, first and second semesters respectively. However, more opportunities for pre-service teachers to practice teaching before too late are needed.

5.8. Limitations, Delimitations, and Suggestions for Future Research

This study is an attempt to investigate the definitions, competences, and professional development profiles of English language teacher educators in Turkey. As such, it aims to investigate how university-based teacher educators, pre-service teachers, and school-based mentor teachers define a *teacher educator*, its *professional characteristics*, and *personality traits*, as well as *roles and responsibilities*. In addition to that, *knowledge bases* and *skills* of a teacher educator are also identified, limited to the study sample. Lastly, the *professional development profiles* are investigated: definitions, practices, outcomes, problems, needs, and suggestions. However, as every other research study, this study might have potential limitations.

First of all, this study is conducted with 41 university-based teacher educators, 43 school-based mentor teachers, and 193 pre-service teachers in 11 cities across Turkey. Even though there were initially more cities to be included in the sample, it was seen in the course of the data collection process that data saturation was being reached. That is, it was decided by the researcher and the jury members in one of the thesis advisory committee meetings that the data collection process reached a point in which new data started to repeat what was expressed in previous data (Fusch & Ness, 2015). For this reason, additional cities were excluded in the data collection process.

One limitation is that this study does not include opinions from school administrators or other people in decision maker positions (such as authorities from MoNE and CHE). Even though this study is an attempt to investigate teacher educator profiles and suggests what the implications of these profiles to the authorities are, future studies might include those authorities as participants.

Lastly, although this study does not specifically focus on the practicum component of the teacher education process, it is found out that there are many problems related to the practicum experience overall, as presented in Chapter 4. What is more interesting is that these problems are reported by all three groups of participants. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that future studies investigate the practicum component in detail and design a framework that would enable the efficient cooperation between mentor teachers, teacher educators, pre-service teachers, and administrators.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS (ENGLISH)

1. What is the *definition* of a teacher educator? Whom do you call a “teacher educator”?
2. How do you define the *general characteristics* of a teacher educator?
3. What *professional roles* of a teacher educator can you identify?
4. What does it mean to be a (good) teacher educator? What *competencies and skills* does a teacher educator need to have?
5. How would you define the “*professional knowledge*” of a teacher educator? What knowledge does a teacher educator bring to the teacher education profession?
6. How does the professional knowledge of teacher educators differ from the professional knowledge of (school-based) teachers?
7. How would you define “*professional development*”?
 - a. What *practices* are you involved in ensuring “professional development”? How do you contribute to your own professional development?
 - b. What are the *outcomes* of these professional development activities?
 - c. To what extent does a teacher educator need to participate in professional development activities?
 - d. What are some *problems* that you have in ensuring professional development?
 - e. To what extent do you receive *support from your institution* that helps you contribute to your own professional development?
8. What are the *challenges and rewards* that you experience/have experienced in your role as a teacher educator?
9. What are your *needs* as a teacher educator for professional development?
10. What are your *suggestions* for better professional development opportunities?

APPENDIX B – INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS
(TURKISH)

1. Sizce “öğretmen eğitimcisi” kimdir? Öğretmen eğitimcisini nasıl tanımlarsınız?
2. Öğretmen eğitimcisinin *genel özellikleri* nelerdir?
3. Öğretmen eğitimcisi hangi farklı *mesleki rollere* sahiptir?
4. Bir öğretmen eğitimcisinin sahip olması gereken *yeterlik ve beceriler* nelerdir?
5. Öğretmen eğitimcisinin “mesleki bilgisini” nasıl tanımlarsınız?
6. Öğretmen eğitimcisinin mesleki bilgisi, öğretmenlerinkinden farklı mıdır?
7. Mesleki gelişimi nasıl tanımlarsınız?
8. Mesleki gelişiminize katkı sağlamak için neler yapıyorsunuz? Bunların mesleğinize katkıları nelerdir?
9. Sizce bir öğretmen eğitimcisi kendini ne ölçüde geliştirmelidir?
10. Mesleki gelişiminiz için çalışırken karşılaştığınız sorunlar var mı?
11. Bir öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak mesleki gelişim ihtiyaçlarınız nelerdir?
12. Mesleki gelişim için yapılması gerekenler konusunda önerileriniz nelerdir?

APPENDIX C – PRE-SERVICE TEACHER SURVEY

Bilgilendirme Formu

Bu çalışma ODTÜ Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Eğitimi bölümü doktora öğrencilerinden Ufuk ATAŞ tarafından, bölüm öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr. Ayşegül DALOĞLU'nun danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı Türkiye'deki üniversitelerin İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümlerinde çalışan hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitimcileri ile Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı okullarda çalışan hizmetiçi İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim yöntemlerini, ihtiyaçlarını ve görüşlerini inceleyerek ortaya bir "öğretmen eğitimcileri profili" çıkarmaktır. Türkiye'nin çeşitli şehirlerindeki üniversitelerdeki İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümleri ve bu bölümlerin öğretmenlik deneyimi ve uygulaması dersleri için anlaşma yaptıkları Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı okullarda görev yapan İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinden seçilecek olan İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerine ulaşılması hedeflenmektedir.

Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Herhangi bir yaptırıma maruz kalmadan çalışmaya katılmayı reddedebilir veya çalışmayı bırakabilirsiniz.

Araştırmaya katılanlardan toplanan veriler tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Ayrıca toplanan verilere sadece araştırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları bilimsel ve profesyonel yayınlarda veya eğitim amaçlı kullanılabilir. Kişisel bilgilerinizi yazmanız gerekmemektedir.

Detaylı bilgi için aşağıdaki iletişim yollarından ulaşabilirsiniz.

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

Arş. Gör. Ufuk ATAŞ
ODTÜ Eğitim Fakültesi
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü
atas@metu.edu.tr
0312 210 6488

Open-ended questions for pre-service teachers

University/Department : _____

Year of Study : _____

1. How do you define your ideal teacher educator at university/school?
2. What competences and skills should a teacher educator have?
3. What should a teacher educator do to develop himself/herself in his/her profession?
4. Considering your School Experience course and/or Teaching Practice course, what positive experiences did you have with your teacher educators (your mentor teacher at school and teaching practice supervisor at university)?
5. Considering your School Experience course and/or Teaching Practice course, what negative experiences did you have with your teacher educators (your mentor teacher at school and teaching practice supervisor at university)? What suggestions do you have for these negative experiences?

APPENDIX D – METU ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL I

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARASTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

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03 AĞUSTOS 2016

Sayı: 28620816 / 325

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderilen: Prof.Dr. Ayşegül DALOĞLU
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın : Prof.Dr. Ayşegül DALOĞLU;

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız doktora öğrencisi Ufuk ATAŞ'ın "Ortaöğretim ve Yükseköğretimde Çalışan İngilizce Öğretmen Eğitimcilerinin Mesleki Karakteristik ve Yeterlik Profilleri Analizi" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2016-EGT-124** protokol numarası ile **01.09.2016-30.10.2017** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımızla sunarız.


Prof. Dr. Canan SÜMER

İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başkanı

Prof. Dr. Meliha ALTUNIŞIK
İAEK Üyesi


Prof. Dr. Mehmet UTKU
İAEK Üyesi


Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
İAEK Üyesi


Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
İAEK Üyesi


Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR
İAEK Üyesi


Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
İAEK Üyesi

APPENDIX E – METU ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL II

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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08 ŞUBAT 2018

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof. Dr. Ayşegül DALOĞLU ;

Danışmanlığını yaptığımız doktora öğrencisi Ufuk ATAŞ'ın "*Ortaöğretim ve Yükseköğretimde Çalışan İngilizce Öğretmen Eğitimcilerinin Mesleki Gelişim ve Yeterlik Profilleri Analizi*" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay 2018-EGT-016 protokol numarası ile 08.02.2018 - 30.12.2018 tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.


Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN

Başkan V



Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye


Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Üye



Doç. Dr. Yaşar KONDAKÇI

Üye



Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK

Üye



Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Üye



Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Üye

APPENDIX F – RESEARCH STUDY APPROVAL FROM MONE



T.C.
MİLLÎ EĞİTİM BAKANLIĞI
Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 81576613/605/11511379
Konu: Araştırma uygulama izni

18.10.2016

T.C.
ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİNE
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi: a) 13/10/2016 tarih ve 54850036-300-4237 sayılı yazınız
b) 07/03/2012 tarih ve B.08.0.YET.00.20.00.0/3616 sayılı genelge

İlgi (a) yazı ile Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Yabancı diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi doktora programı öğrencisi Ufuk ATAŞ'ın "Ortaöğretim ve Yükseköğretimde Çalışan İngilizce Öğretmen Eğitimcilerinin Meslekî Karakteristik ve Yeterlik Profilleri Analizi" konulu doktora tezi kapsamında hazırlamış olduğu veri toplama aracının Adana, Ankara, Bolu, Bursa, Çanakkale, Diyarbakır, Edirne, Erzurum, Eskişehir, Hatay, İstanbul, İzmir, Kayseri, Konya, Mersin, Muğla ve Samsun illerinde bulunan resmî ve özel, ilkokul, ortaokul ve liselerde görev yapmakta olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine uygulanmasına yönelik izin talebi Genel Müdürlüğümüzce incelenmiştir.

Denetimi il, ilçe millî eğitim müdürlükleri ve okul/kurum idaresinde olmak üzere, eğitim öğretim faaliyetlerini aksatmadan, gönüllülük esasına göre; onaylı bir örneği Bakanlığımızda muhafaza edilen ve uygulama sırasında da mühürlü ve imzalı örnekten çoğaltılmış veri toplama aracının Adana, Ankara, Bolu, Bursa, Çanakkale, Diyarbakır, Edirne, Erzurum, Eskişehir, Hatay, İstanbul, İzmir, Kayseri, Konya, Mersin, Muğla ve Samsun illerinde bulunan resmî ve özel, ilkokul, ortaokul ve liselerde görev yapmakta olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine ilgi (b) genelge doğrultusunda uygulanması hususunda;

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Bilal TIRNAKÇI
Bakan a.
Genel Müdür

Güvenli Elektronik İmza
Aşlı İle Aynıdır

19 Ekim 2016

Ek: Veri toplama aracı (1 sayfa)

Erdoğan GÖRLER
Bilgisayar İşletmeni

Konya Yolu Nu:21/ANKARA
Elektronik Ağ: www.meb.gov.tr
atiladimirbas@meb.gov.tr

Ayrıntılı bilgi için: Atilla DEMİRBAS
Seyda KARABULUT
Telefon:0-312-2969400/9582

Bu evrak güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır. <http://evraksorgu.meb.gov.tr> adresinden ae19-8a5e-38fe-871c-5c82 kodu ile teyit edilebilir.

APPENDIX G – A PROFESSIONAL STANDARDS FRAMEWORK FOR TEACHER EDUCATORS IN TURKEY

A Professional Standards Framework for Teacher Educators in Turkey

This framework defines teacher educators as “those individuals working in higher education institutions and schools enabling students to develop into competent teachers”. The professional standards framework identifies three profiles:

1. a <i>definition</i> profile	-professional characteristics, personality traits, and roles
2. a <i>competence</i> profile	-knowledge base and skills
3. a <i>professional development</i> profile	-professional engagement

Definition Profile

The definition profile of teacher educators in Turkey include professional characteristics, personality traits, and roles and responsibilities as presented below.

Professional Characteristics of Teacher Educators

Teacher educators:

1. are knowledgeable and qualified in terms of theories and practices of teacher education
2. are trained, experienced and competent in teaching and providing a good role model
3. are life-long learners interested in change and curious for development
4. are professionally mature, ethical and objective to each student
5. address different learner needs, styles, and interests providing enjoyable teaching
6. are able to teach at all levels from young learners to adults
7. are critical and reflective, and promote critical thinking and awareness
8. use a variety of materials and teaching techniques
9. enable students to do practice
10. are conscious and aware of his/her own strengths and weaknesses
11. are aware of education system and its practices

Personality Traits of Teacher Educators

Teacher educators:

1. show understanding and empathy towards pre-service teachers, are not judging.
 2. are attentive, caring, helpful and supportive to facilitate professional development of pre-service teachers
 3. are encouraging, motivating, and inspiring pre-service teachers to become competent teachers
 4. are patient and tolerant when pre-service teachers make mistakes
 5. are respectful to pre-service teachers; treat and introduce them as future teachers
 6. are motivated individuals who are passionate, energetic and devoted to profession
 7. are friendly towards pre-service teachers; approachable in and out of class, and flexible in planning
 8. are open minded and open to criticism coming from pre-service teachers
 9. have high self-esteem and confidence in teaching and teacher education
 10. are intelligent, problem solvers, and analytical thinkers
 11. have a good sense of humour
 12. are honest and democratic individuals
-

Roles and Responsibilities of Teacher Educators

Teacher educators:

1. guide and supervise pre-service teachers and facilitate their professional development into becoming a competent teacher
 2. teach courses, lecture, and supervise graduate studies
 3. conduct and disseminate teacher education research
 4. assume administrative roles and duties in and out of the institution
 5. enable cooperation between schools and universities
-

Competence Profile

The competence profile of teacher educators in Turkey include the knowledge base and skills, as presented below.

Knowledge Base of Teacher Educators

Teacher educators have the following domains of knowledge base:

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. <i>Knowledge of content and pedagogy</i> | Teacher educators know the content related to their own discipline such as content being taught, theories of education, approaches and methods, English language, as well as other related disciplines such as literature, psychology and sociology. Besides, teacher educators know about how to teach the content. |
| 2. <i>Knowledge of learners and learning</i> | Teacher educators know about the nature of learning, theories of learning, language acquisition process as well as what their learners' needs, interests, and learning styles are. They also need to know about classrooms and how learning takes place in other learning environment |
| 3. <i>Knowledge of policy, system, and society</i> | Teacher educators have a comprehensive understanding of the education system and its practices, outcomes, and possible changes as well as language planning. They also know about the needs of the society and the culture they teach in. |
| 4. <i>Knowledge of curriculum and assessment</i> | Teacher educators have a comprehensive knowledge about the teacher education and school curriculum as well as testing, assessment, materials design and evaluation. |
| 5. <i>Knowledge of research</i> | Teacher educators know how to read research, design and conduct studies, and localize research findings in teacher education at a theory level as well as practice level in forms of classroom research coming from real settings. |
-

Skills of Teacher Educators

The skills of teacher educators are grouped under seven categories: modelling teaching, establishing communication, conducting research, observing and reporting on learning, reflecting on practices and developing professionally, modelling language use, and investigating and solving problems.

Teacher educators have the following skills:

1. Modelling Teaching

Teacher educators are able to:

- provide a good model conducting effective teaching that makes theory explicit
- supervise and guide well creating ways for teaching practice
- transfer knowledge to address all learners in the classroom
- teach in accordance with the interests, needs, and styles of different students in an enjoyable way to keep the learners interested in the lesson
- employ effective classroom management and time management strategies
- design own materials and make effective use of existing materials
- employ a variety of teaching methods and techniques
- integrate language skills and components in their teaching
- use the boards in the classroom effectively
- use technology and integrate it in teaching

2. Establishing communication

Teacher educators are able to:

- communicate and collaborate well with students, pre-service teachers, and their colleagues

3. Conducting research

Teacher educators are able to:

- carry out research related to their field
 - research current teaching methods and teacher education practices; and make use of them in their profession
 - share research findings with students, pre-service teachers, colleagues, and the community
-

4. <i>Observing and reporting on learning</i>	<i>Teacher educators are able to:</i> • observe and give feedback related to pre-service teaching and (student) learning • make critical suggestions to facilitate professional development of pre-service teachers • assess practices and evaluate in an objective and timely manner
5. <i>Reflecting on practices and developing professionally</i>	<i>Teacher educators are able to:</i> • follow recent developments in the field and update in their teaching and guiding practices • reflect on, self-assess and evaluate own practices • adapt oneself to different teaching levels and contexts • engage in collaborative practices with pre-service teachers, students, and colleagues • engage in various professional learning activities
6. <i>Modelling language use</i>	<i>Teacher educators are able to:</i> • use four skills fluently and accurately themselves • helps pre-service teachers use four skills fluently and accurately providing a role model for pre-service teachers and students
7. <i>Investigating and solving problems</i>	<i>Teacher educators are able to:</i> • analyse unexpected situations in the classroom and act promptly and wisely • think critically and enable pre-services teachers and learners to gain critical thinking skills

Professional Development Profile

Professional development profile of teacher educators in Turkey include the list of practices that they engage in for developing themselves in their profession, as presented below.

Professional Development for Teacher Educators

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| 1. <i>Research</i> | <i>For professional development, teacher educators need to:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• systematically follow articles, journals, books related to teaching and teacher education, and do research in teacher education and classroom research• regularly attend and present in conferences, workshops etc.• conduct or be part of research projects in teaching and teacher education |
| 2. <i>Collaboration</i> | <i>For professional development, teacher educators need to:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• collaborate and cooperate with pre-service teachers, colleagues, schools, universities• observe their pre-service teachers, learners, colleagues regularly in an attempt to learn from them |
| 3. <i>Professional Learning</i> | <i>For professional development, teacher educators need to:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• systematically follow recent trends, blogs, social media, technological developments, program updates related to teaching and teacher education• go abroad and engage with other professionals as much as they can• improve their language proficiency by constantly reading and listening in the target language• do field experience in schools and universities to update their practices• learn about target language culture and literature |
| 4. <i>Reflection</i> | <i>For professional development, teacher educators need to:</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• continuously reflect on their own actions and practices• be open to changes and developments• update their teaching styles and course materials regularly• teach new courses and to new levels given the change |
-

APPENDIX H – CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, given name	: Ataş, Ufuk
Gender	: Male
Date of writing the CV	: September, 2018
Date and place of birth	: 25 July 1987, Istanbul – Turkey
Citizenship	: Turkish
Current residence	: Ankara – Turkey
E-mail	: atasufuk@gmail.com

EDUCATION BACKGROUND

<i>Degree</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Year</i>
Ph.D.	Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey, <i>Major: English Language Teaching</i>	2018
M.A.	Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey <i>Major: English Language Teaching</i>	2012
B.A.	Mersin University, Mersin, Turkey <i>Major: English Language Teaching</i>	2009
	University College Sjælland, Holbæk, Denmark (Erasmus Exchange) <i>Major: English Language Teacher Education</i>	2007-2008
High School	Yaşar Dedeman Foreign Language Intensive High School, Istanbul, Turkey	2005

RESEARCH INTERESTS

language teacher education, teacher professionalism, teacher educator professionalism, language skills, code-switching, and receptive multilingualism

WORK EXPERIENCE

<i>Duration</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Job Title</i>
Mar 2010 – Sep 2018	Middle East Technical University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education, Ankara, Turkey	Research Assistant
Oct 2015 – Apr 2016	University of Helsinki, Faculty of Behavioral Sciences, Department of Teacher Education, Helsinki, Finland	Visiting Researcher
Nov 2009 – Mar 2010	Artvin Çoruh University, Faculty of Education, Department of Foreign Language Education, Artvin, Turkey	Research Assistant

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English (C2), Intermediate French (B1)

PUBLICATIONS and OTHER ACADEMIC WORK

Journal Articles

Ataş, U., Daloğlu, A., & Hilden, R. (under review). Teacher educators in Finland and Turkey: Their roles, knowledge base, and professional development profiles. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*.

Ataş, U. (2018). The role of receptive vocabulary knowledge in advanced EFL listening comprehension. *TESL-EJ*, 21(4).

Ataş, U. (2012). Investigating Turkish EFL Learners' beliefs about learning second foreign languages. *International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications*, vol. 3(1), pp.108-117

Conference Proceedings

Ataş, U., & Akkuş, M. (2013). *Input and interaction: Corrective reactions used by teachers in EFL classrooms*. Proceedings of the 13th International Language, Literature and Stylistics Symposium: Simple Style, Kafkas University, Kars, Turkey, September 26-28, 2013, pp. 1099-1109.

Conference Presentations

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Conference Organization

Organizing committee member: the 16th International Conference on Turkish Linguistics, September 18-21, 2012 – Ankara, Turkey

Organizing committee member: the 8th International METU Postgraduate Conference on Linguistics and Language Teaching, November 24-25, 2011 – Ankara, Turkey.

Assistant to organizing committee: the 6th International Symposium on Politeness: Corpus Approaches, July 11-13, 2011 – Ankara, Turkey.

Assistant to organizing committee: 24. Ulusal Dilbilim Kurultayı (the 24th National Linguistics Symposium), May 17-18, 2010 – Ankara, Turkey

Other Academic Work

Member of the board of reviewers: The Electronic Journal for English as a Second Language (TESL-EJ).



APPENDIX I- TURKISH SUMMARY/TÜRKÇE ÖZET

TÜRKİYE'DEKİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENİ EĞİTİMCİLERİNİN MESLEKİ GELİŞİM VE YETERLİK PROFİLLERİ

GİRİŞ

Eğitim sistemine bütüncül bir yaklaşım ile bakıldığında öğretmenlerin önemli ve kritik bir role sahip oldukları açıkça görülmektedir. Bununla birlikte, *öğretmenlerin öğretmenleri* olarak adlandırılan grubun da aynı eğitim sisteminin temel taşı olduğundan bahsetmek mümkündür. Bir diğer deyişle, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin yetkinliğinin, öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının başarısını ve kalitesini belirleyeceğinden bahsetmek mümkündür (Ben-Peretz, Kleeman, Reichenberg, ve Shimoni, 2013). Öğretme ve öğrenmenin gerçekleştiği öğretmen yetiştirme programlarında ne öğretileceği ve ne öğrenileceği hususunda doğal bir uyum gereklidir. Bu açıdan bakıldığında, öğretmen eğitimcileri nasıl öğretileceğini öğreten kişiler olmanın yanı sıra, nasıl öğretileceğini de öğrenen kişiler olarak, salt *bilgiyi aktarmaktan* ziyade, *hayat boyu öğrenmenin* en büyük örnekleri olarak tanımlanabilmektedirler.

Öğretmen eğitimi literatürü incelendiğinde, öğretme ve öğretmen doğasını farklı açılardan açıklamaya çalışan araştırmalara epey yoğun bir ilgi olduğu gözlemlenmektedir (Taner ve Karaman, 2013). Bununla birlikte, öğretmeyi öğretme ve öğretmen eğitimcileri ile ilgili çalışmalara daha az önem verildiği de göze çarpmaktadır (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Çelik, 2011; Goodwin ve Kosnik, 2013; Karagiorgi ve Nicolaidou, 2013; Margolin, 2011; Murray, 2008; Murray ve Male, 2005; Ping, Schellings ve Beijgaard, 2018; Smith, 2005; van Velzen, van der Klink, Swennen, ve Yaffee, 2010). Örneğin, 1920'lerden 2005'e kadar öğretmen eğitimi alanında yapılan çalışmalara tarihsel açıdan baktıkları çalışmalarında, Cochran-Smith ve Fries (2008) şu sonuca varmıştır: öğretmen eğitimi alanında yapılan ve bu alanı oluşturan çalışmalar genellikle içinde

bulunulan deęişik politik, mesleki ve sistemsel durumlar tarafından şekillenmiştir. Bu yüzden, öğretmen eęitiminde müfredat sorunu, öğretmen yetiştirmenin genel sorunları, öğrenmeyle ilgili sorunlar, ya da sistem ile ilgili sorunlar gibi alanları kapsayan çalışmalar sıklıkla görölmektedir. Benzer bir şekilde, Avalos'un (2011) "Teaching and Teacher Education" dergisinde 2000-2010 yılları arasında yayınlanan makaleleri inceledięi çalışmasında görölmektedir ki, öğretmen eęitimi alanında yapılan çalışmaların büyük bir kısmı mesleki öğrenme, yansıtma süreçleri, mesleęe yeni başlayan öğretmenlerin öğrenme süreçleri, öğretmenlerin bilişsel süreçleri, fikirleri ve uygulamaları, öğrencilerin nasıl öğrendięi ve öğretmenlerden ne kadar memnun oldukları vb. konulara yoğunlaşmaktadır.

Korthagen (2000) öğretmen yetiştirme programlarında çalışanların genellikle öğretmen eęitimcisi rolü için ya formal eęitimleri olmadığından ya da sadece çok azının böyle bir eęitime sahip olduğundan bahsetmektedir. Her ne kadar bazı ölkelerde öğretmen eęitimcileri, okul öğretmenliğinden yükseköğretime geçiş yapan bireyler olarak kavramsallaştırılsa da (Murray ve Male, 2005), bu durum, çoęu ölkede her zaman geçerli değildir. Öğretmenlerin mesleki, bilişsel ve tutumsal özellikleriyle ilgili çok sayıda çalışmanın yanı sıra hem Türkiye'de hem de dünyada genel veya alana özgü öğretmen yeterliklerinin standartlaştırılmış listeleri vardır. Bununla birlikte, bu yeterlilik çerçeveleri öğretmen eęitimcileri için ya hazırlanmamaktadır ya da daha az hazırlanmaktadır.

Lanier ve Little (1986), araştırmacıların öğretmen eęitimcilerini sistematik olarak görmezden geldiklerine inanmaktadır ve bunun için iki neden sunmaktadırlar: birincisi, öğretmen adaylarını ve hizmet-içi öğretmenleri eęiten öğretmen eęitimcilerinin tanımları ve hangi uygulamaları yaptıkları tam olarak bilinmemekte, çünkü öğretmen eęitimcilerinin rolleri, yapmaları gereken şeyler ve uygulamalar çeşitli ölkelerde ve eęitim sistemlerinde farklılık göstermektedir. İkincisi de var olan tanımlar sürekli deęişmektedir. Dolayısıyla, öğretmen eęitimcisini tanımlamak ve araştırmak her zaman kolay

olmamaktadır. Yine aynı bakış açısı ile, Swennen, Volman ve van Essen (2008), öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişimi ve mesleki kimliği ile ilgili araştırmaların görece daha az olmasının çeşitli nedenlerinden bahsetmektedir; bunlardan bazıları, öğretmenler ile karşılaştırıldığında öğretmen eğitimcilerinin sayıca daha az olmaları veya öğretmen eğitimcisi eğitimi alanının, öğretmen eğitimi alanına göre nispeten daha yeni bir alan olmasıdır. Hangi açıdan bakılırsa bakılsın, öğretmen eğitimi alanında, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki profilleri, gelişimi ve kimliği hakkında sınırlı sayıda araştırma olduğu görülmektedir.

Bazı durumlarda, öğretmenler ve öğretmen eğitimcileri arasındaki ayrım, bu iki rolün birbiriyle değiştirilebilir olduğu konusundaki yanlış düşünceye yol açabilecek şekilde açıkça tanımlanamayabilir (Swennen ve ark., 2008; Murray ve Male, 2005). Bununla birlikte, öğretmen yetiştiren kişilerin, öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen adaylarının mesleki yetkinliklerinin geliştirilmesi için gerekli eğitimden sorumlu rehber ve yönlendirici olarak farklı rolleri vardır (Korkmaz, 2013). Ducharme ve Ducharme'in (1995) öğretmen eğitimcilerinin gelişimini inceledikleri çalışma, öğretmenler ve öğretmen eğitimcileri arasındaki farkı vurgulayarak, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim profillerinin neden çalışılması gerektiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu noktalar dikkate alındığında, öğretmen eğitimi literatüründe özellikle öğretmen eğitimcilerine odaklanan daha fazla araştırmaya ihtiyaç olduğu gözlemlenmektedir. Taner ve Karaman'ın (2013) belirttiği gibi, öğretmen yetiştiren kişiler öğretmenlerin kimlik oluşumunda önemli bir rol oynamaktadır. Dolayısıyla, öğretmen yetiştirenlerin kendileri için, öğretmenlerinkinden farklı olarak mesleki özelliklerini, rollerini, bilgi tabanlarını, yeterliklerini ve mesleki gelişimlerini tanımlayacak bir çalışmaya ihtiyaç olduğu görülmektedir.

Çalışmanın Amacı

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin yeterlik ve mesleki gelişim profillerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Daha ayrıntılı olarak, bu çalışma, üniversitelerde İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümlerinde çalışan öğretmen

eğitimcileri ile Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı'na bağlı okullarda görev yapan danışman öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişim ile ilgili tanımlarına, uygulamalarına, ihtiyaçlarına, sorunlarına ve çözüm önerilere odaklanmaktadır. Ayrıca, çalışmanın diğer bir amacı da öğretmen adaylarının ideal öğretmen eğitimcisini nasıl tanımladıklarını belirlemektir. Tüm bu görüşleri, tanımları, uygulamaları ve önerileri ortaya çıkararak, bu çalışma sonucunda Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcileri için mesleki gelişim ve yeterlik profili geliştirilmesi hedeflenmektedir.

Araştırma Soruları

Bu çalışma aşağıdaki üç ana soruya cevap bulmayı amaçlamaktadır:

1. Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleğinin tanımlayıcı özellikleri nelerdir?
2. Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin gerekli olduğunu düşündükleri yeterlik ve beceriler nelerdir?
3. Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim profillerini oluşturan temel boyutlar nelerdir?

Çalışmanın Alana Sağladığı Katkı

Öğretmen eğitimcileri, öğretmen adaylarına ve öğretmenlere rol model olduklarından dolayı, "öğretmen eğitiminin kalitesini arttırmaya yönelik çabaların en önemli oyuncularıdır" (Avrupa Komisyonu, 2010, s. 3). Öğretmen eğitimcileri aynı zamanda, hizmet öncesi ya da hizmet-içi öğretmenlere rehberlik ederek bir bütün olarak eğitim sisteminin kalitesinin korunmasına ve geliştirilmesine katkı sağlarlar. Bu nedenle, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin eğitimi sadece mesleki gelişimlerine doğrudan katkıda bulunmakla kalmayıp, aynı zamanda genel olarak öğretmenlerin ve öğretmen yetiştirme programlarının kalitesinin artmasına da katkıda bulunur. Bu çalışmanın alana sağladığı katkılar aşağıda belirtilmiştir.

İlk olarak, bu çalışma öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleğinin tanımlarını, mesleki özelliklerini, kişilik özelliklerini, rollerini ve sorumluluklarını ve ilk etapta nasıl

öğretmen eğitimcisi olduklarını araştırmaktadır. Türkiye’de genel olarak öğretim elemanlarının görevlerini ve staj dersi bağlamında okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin rollerini belirten bir kılavuz ve yasa maddesi olmasına rağmen (bknz. Yüksek Öğretim Kanunu, 5/22) üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenler için detaylı bir tanım, yeterlik ve mesleki gelişim profili bulunmamaktadır. Bu çalışma, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleklerini nasıl tanımladıklarını, sahip olmaları gereken genel mesleki özellikleri nasıl tanımladıklarını, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin sahip olmaları gerektiğine inandıkları kişilik özelliklerini, rollerini ve sorumluluklarını nasıl tanımlandıklarını belirleyerek, Türkiye’de öğretmen eğitime ilişkin literatüre katkıda bulunmaktadır. Buna ek olarak, bu çalışma aynı zamanda üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin “öğretmen eğitimcisi” olmak için geçtikleri süreçleri incelemektedir. Bu nedenlerden dolayı, bu çalışmanın, üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin mesleki profilleri ile ilgili Türkiye bağlamında var olan eksiği gidermesi açısından önemli olduğu düşünülmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın bir diğer önemi de üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin yeterlik profillerini araştırmasıdır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, öğretmenlerinkinden farklı olarak, bir dil öğretmeni eğitimcisi olmak için gerekli olan alan özelindeki bilgileri tanımlayarak, dil öğretmeni eğitimcileri için bir bilgi tabanı geliştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca, bu çalışma, katılımcıların bir öğretmen eğitimcisinin sahip olması gereken becerilere ilişkin görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemektedir. Öğretmenler için belirlenmiş genel ve alana özgü bilgi tabanı ve beceriler olmasına rağmen, Türkiye’de öğretmen yetiştiren eğitimciler için bu türden bir bilgi tabanı mevcut değildir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, dil öğretmeni eğitimcileri için alan bilgisine özgü bir bilgi tabanı oluşturması bakımından, Türkiye’deki eksikliği gidermektedir.

Bu çalışma aynı zamanda öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim yöntemlerini, sorunlarını, ihtiyaçlarını ve önerilerini tanımlayarak öğretmen eğitimcisi mesleki gelişimine bir temel sağlama açısından da önemlidir. Farklı kurumsal ortamlardaki (üniversiteler ve okullar) öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim yöntem ve uygulamalarının daha iyi anlaşılmasıyla, öğretmen yetiştiren kişilerin mesleki gelişim ihtiyaçlarına hitap eden mesleki gelişim fırsatları yaratılabilmesine olanak sağlanmaktadır.

Ayrıca, daha sonraki bölümlerde ele alındığı gibi, bu çalışma Türkiye'de öğretmen yetiştiren öğretmenler için bir mesleki standartlar çerçevesi geliştirmeyi amaçlamaktadır. ABD, Hollanda, Avustralya gibi farklı ülkelerde bu çerçevelerin farklı örnekleri mevcut olsa da bu tür kapsamlı bir standartlar çerçevesi şu anda Türkiye'de bulunmamaktadır. Bu çalışmanın sonunda sunulan çerçeve, Türkiye bağlamında geliştirilen ilk çerçeve olması bakımından önem taşımaktadır.

Son olarak, bu çalışma İngilizce öğretmeni yetiştiren eğitim programının öğretim pratiği bölümünde karşılaşılan sorunların ve zorlukların yanı sıra sunulan önerilerin ortaya konması açısından önemlidir. Bu sorunlar ve öneriler, üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcileri, okullardaki danışman öğretmenler ve öğretmen adayları, yani Okul Deneyimi/Öğretmenlik Uygulaması derisinin paydaşları tarafından anlatılmaktadır. Bu nedenle, bu paydaşların yaşadıkları sorunların ve bu sorunlarla ilgili önerilerinin belirlenmesinin, hizmet öncesi öğretmen yetiştirme ile ilgili mevcut süreçten en iyi şekilde faydalanmak adına sürecin yeniden tasarlanması veya geliştirilmesi anlamında önemli katkılar sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

YÖNTEM

Searle'in (1995) gerçekliğin sosyal yapısalcılığı kavramından yola çıkarak, bu çalışmada sosyal yapısalcılık yaklaşımı ile nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden birisi olan durum çalışması araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır. Yapısalcılık, öznenliğin ve nesnenliğin karşılıklı etkileşim içinde olan bir paradigmadır.

Yapısalcılığın en önemli olgusu, “tüm bilgi ve dolayısıyla tüm anlamlı gerçekliğin, insan uygulamalarına bağlı olması, insan ve dünya arasındaki etkileşimin içinde ve dışında inşa edilmesi ve temelde sosyal bir bağlam içinde geliştirilmesi ve aktarılması” olduğu düşüncesidir (Crotty, 1998, sayfa 42). Sosyal yapısalcılık ise bireylerin, karşı karşıya oldukları şeylerin veya nesnelerin öznel anlamlarını anlamlandırmalarını ister. Creswell'e (2013) göre, bu anlamlar çok yönlü ve çeşitlidir, bu nedenle, sosyal yapısalcı anlayışı benimseyen bir araştırmacının amacı, görüşlerin karmaşıklığını ve çok yönlülüğünü araştırmaktır. Bu görüşleri birkaç düşünceye indirgemeye çalışmak değildir. Bu bakımdan, sosyal yapısalcılık paradigması ile yola çıkan bir araştırma, katılımcıların belirli durumları nasıl anlamlandırıdığına ve anlamı nasıl oluşturduklarına dayanmaktadır.

Creswell'e (2013) göre nitel araştırma, “birey ya da grupların sosyal ya da insani bir soruna atfedilmesine işaret eden araştırma problemleri hakkında bilgi veren varsayımlar ve yorum / teori çerçevelerinin kullanılmasıyla başlar” (s. 44). Benzer şekilde, Merriam (1998)'in de belirttiği gibi, nitel araştırma, araştırmacıların, sosyal dünyaları ile etkileşim içinde olan bireyler tarafından inşa edilen gerçekliğin ve doğal ortamın mümkün olduğunca az kesintiye uğramasıyla, ilgi olgusunu anlamalarına yol gösterir. Bu çalışmada Yin (2009) tarafından önerilen farklı durum çalışması araştırma desenlerinden seçilen çoklu analiz birimlerine sahip durum çalışması deseni kullanılmıştır. Durum (analiz birimi), üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcileri ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimi olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Mevcut çalışmada yer alan durum (analiz birimi), hem araştırmaya katılan kişi sayısı hem de veri toplama süresinin bir sınırı olduğu için zaman ve mekân tarafından sınırlandırılmıştır.

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki farklı illerdeki üniversite ve okul ortamlarında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Aşağıdaki bölümde de ayrıntılı olarak bahsedildiği gibi, bu çalışmaya katılan danışman öğretmenler hem devlet okullarından hem de özel okullardan olmak üzere, Türk eğitim sisteminde yer alan ilköğretim,

ortaöğretim ve lise seviyelerindeki İngilizce öğretmenlerinden oluşmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, çalışmaya katılan üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri üniversitelerin Eğitim Fakültesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümlerinde çalışmaktadır. Bu çalışma için gerekli veri, araştırmacının, ilgili şehirleri ziyaret ettiği zamanlarda, belirli bir zaman diliminde toplanmıştır. Veri toplama sürecinin detayları aşağıda anlatılmaktadır.

Bu çalışmada, katılımcıları ve araştırma alanlarını belirlemek için iki örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır: *maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme* ve *kolay ulaşılabilir durum örnekleme*. Maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme, incelenen olguya ilişkin geniş bir yelpazedeki pozisyonları ve perspektifleri kapsayacak şekilde kullanılmaktadır (Given, 2008). Patton (2015), maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleminin “merkezi temaları büyük bir çeşitlilikte kestirmeyi ve tanımlamayı amaçladığını” belirtmektedir (s.283). Bu çalışmada üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcilerini belirlemek için maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Bu sayede hem teklik hem de çeşitliliği temsil eden her bir öğretmen eğitimcisinin tanımları ve deneyimleri ile birlikte ortaya çıkan ortak kalıpları derinlemesine incelemek mümkün olmuştur (Patton, 2015). Okullardaki danışman öğretmenlere ve öğretmen adaylarına çalışma için ayrılan mevcut sürede kolayca ulaşmak için *kolay ulaşılabilir durum örnekleme* kullanılmıştır. Samuere ve Given (2008), *kolay ulaşılabilir durum örnekleme*ni “araştırma katılımcılarının uygunluk düzeylerine göre seçildiği bir örnekleme” olarak tanımlamaktadır (s. 125).

Farklı değişkenlerin belgelenmesini sağlamak için maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme kullanılarak, çalışmaya konu olacak üniversite ve bölümleri belirlemek üzere Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi (ÖSYM)’nin *Yükseköğretim Programları Kılavuzu’na* başvurulmuştur. Bunun için, Türkiye’de Eğitim Fakültelerinin kurulduğu yıl olan 1982 yılından bu yana on yıl boyunca sürekli olarak İngilizce Öğretmenliği programı olup bu programlarda eğitim veren üniversiteler belirlenmiştir. Bunun için, araştırmacı *bilgi edinme başvurusu* aracılığıyla ÖSYM ile temasa geçerek,

Yükseköğretim Programları Kılavuzu'nu hazırlayan kurum personeline yönlendirilmiş ve çevrimiçi olmayan eski Yükseköğretim Programları Kılavuzlarını inceleyebilmek için ÖSYM arşivlerini ziyaret etmek üzere bir görüşme planlanmıştır. Yükseköğretim Programları Kılavuzlarının sayfa sayfa incelenmesi sonucu, 1982'den bu yana İngilizce Öğretmenliği eğitimi veren üniversitelerin listesi belirlenmiştir. Dolayısıyla, araştırmacının ziyaret edeceği şehirler ve üniversiteler de bu sayede belirlenmiştir. Bu belge analizinden sonra, 13 ilde aşağıdaki 17 üniversite tespit edilmiştir; Adana (Çukurova), Ankara (Gazi, Hacettepe, ODTÜ), Bursa (Uludağ), Çanakkale (Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart), Diyarbakır (Dicle), Edirne (Trakya), Erzurum (Atatürk), Eskişehir (Anadolu), Hatay (Mustafa Kemal), İstanbul (Boğaziçi, İstanbul, Marmara), İzmir (Dokuz Eylül), Konya (daha önce Selçuk olarak bilinen Necmettin Erbakan) ve Samsun (Ondokuz Mayıs). Bunlara ek olarak şu 4 şehir ve üniversite alternatif yerler olarak belirlemiştir: Bolu (Abant İzzet Baysal), Kayseri (Erciyes), Mersin (Mersin) ve Muğla (Muğla Sıtkı Koçman). Erişim kolaylığı, izin, zaman ve kaynak sınırı gibi çeşitli nedenlerden dolayı bazı şehirler çalışma dışı tutulmuştur. Şehirlerin ve üniversitelerin son listesi aşağıda Tablo 1'de verilmiştir. Aynı zamanda, Şekil 1, şehirlerin ülke çapında coğrafi dağılımını göstermektedir.

Tablo 1

Çalışmaya konu olan şehirlerin ve üniversitelerin listesi

Şehirler	Üniversiteler
Ankara	Gazi Üniversitesi Hacettepe Üniversitesi
Çanakkale	Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart Üniversitesi
Diyarbakır	Dicle Üniversitesi
Edirne	Trakya Üniversitesi
Erzurum	Atatürk Üniversitesi
Hatay	Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi
İstanbul	Boğaziçi Üniversitesi
İzmir	Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi
Konya	Necmettin Erbakan Üniversitesi
Mersin	Mersin Üniversitesi
Samsun	Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi



Şekil 1. Şehirlerin ülke çapında coğrafi dağılımı.

Katılımcılar

Bu çalışmanın verileri üç grup katılımcıdan toplanmıştır. Bu katılımcılar, üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcileri, okullardaki danışman öğretmenler ve İngilizce öğretmenliği programlarının son sınıfında okuyan hizmet öncesi öğretmenler, yani öğretmen adaylarıdır. Katılımcılar, Türkiye'nin 11 şehrindeki 12 üniversiteden ve 22 okuldan yukarıda bahsedilen örnekleme yöntemleri ile seçilmiştir. Çalışmaya katılan tüm katılımcıların listesi, Tablo 2'de verilmiştir.

Tablo 2

Çalışmaya katılan tüm katılımcıların listesi

Şehirler	Öğretmen eğitimcileri (Üniversite)	Danışman öğretmenler (Okul)	Öğretmen adayları	Toplam katılımcı
Ankara	6	1	96	103
Çanakkale	3	3	1	7
Diyarbakır	3	3	8	14
Edirne	4	4	-	8
Erzurum	5	3	28	36
Hatay	2	3	2	7
İstanbul	2	8	38	48
İzmir	3	5	10	18
Konya	4	4	8	16
Mersin	5	3	-	8
Samsun	4	6	2	12
TOPLAM	41	43	193	277

Bu çalışmaya üniversitelerde çalışan 41 öğretmen eğitimcisi katılmıştır. Üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcileri, İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümlerinde çalışan akademisyenlerdir. Bu katılımcıların hepsi öğretmen adaylarının mesleki gelişiminin sağlandığı öğretmenlik stajı derslerini vererek (Okul Deneyimi ve Öğretmenlik Uygulaması) hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitimine katkı sağlamaktadırlar. Bu öğretmen eğitimcileri genellikle, öğretmen adayları ile öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik uygulaması yaptıkları uygulama okullarının arasındaki bağı sağlayan kişilerdir; bu nedenle, çoğu zaman, okuldaki danışman öğretmenler ve okul yönetimi ile yakın iletişim halindedirler. Bu çalışmaya katılan üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri, çalışmanın verisinin toplandığı dönemde aktif olarak öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerin veren kişilerdir. Ya da en azından daha önce bu dersi veren kişiler çalışmaya katılmıştır. Bu öğretmen eğitimcilerinin 5'i profesör, 7'si doçent, 15'i doktor öğretim üyesi, 8'i doktora unvanına sahip öğretim görevlisi, 1'i doktora unvanına sahip araştırma görevlisi ve 5'i ya yüksek lisans mezunu ya da doktora programı öğrencisi olan öğretim görevlisidir. Çalışmaya katılan 41 üniversite öğretmen eğitimcisinden; 9'unun öğretmen olarak 1 ila 4 yıllık deneyimi, 15'inin 5 ila 10 yıllık deneyimi, 10'unun 11 ila 15 yıllık deneyimi, 2'sinin 16 ila 20 yıllık deneyimi ve 2'sinin 21 yıldan fazla deneyimi vardır. Buna ek olarak, bu öğretmen eğitimcilerinin 3'ünün dil öğretmeni olarak hiç deneyimi yoktur. Bu deneyimler, ilkokul, ortaokul, yüksek öğretim kurumlarında veya özel dil kurslarında, İngilizceyi yeni öğrenen gruplara öğretilen dil eğitimi deneyiminden oluşur. Benzer şekilde, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin öğretmen eğitimi deneyimleri 1 yıldan 37 yıla kadar değişmektedir. Bunlardan 7'si öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak 1 ila 4 yıl, 12'si 5 ila 10 yıl, 7'si 11 ila 15 yıl, 7'si 16 ila 20 yıl arasında değişen sürelerde çalışmıştır. Yalnız bir tanesi, öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak 21 yıldan fazla deneyime sahiptir. Bu deneyimler, İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümünde, öğretmen eğitiminde yer aldıkları yılları temsil etmektedir.

Üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin yanı sıra, bu çalışmaya ayrıca Türkiye genelinde 22 okuldan 43 danışman öğretmen katılmıştır. Bu danışman

öğretmenler, İngilizce Öğretmenliği programlarının staj derslerinde öğretmen adayları öğretmenlik gözlem ve uygulaması için uygulama okullarına gittiklerinde onlara rehberlik etme görevini üstlenen ve bu süreçleri takip eden İngilizce öğretmenleridir. İngilizce Öğretmenliği eğitim programının müfredatının bir parçası olarak, dördüncü sınıf öğrencilerinin bir okuldaki İngilizce öğretmenini gözlemleyerek o yılın ilk dönemini geçirmeleri beklenir ve ikinci yarıyıl, okullardaki danışman öğretmenin gözetimi altında belirlenen saatlerde ve derslerde, ders anlatmaları gereklidir. Genellikle, bu danışman öğretmenler okul yönetimi tarafından belirlenir, ancak bazı durumlarda deneyimli öğretmenler de bu rol için seçilebilir. Bu danışman öğretmenlerin hangi okullarda çalıştıklarına baktığımızda, ilkokul, ortaokul ve lise seviyesinden özel ve devlet okullarından öğretmenler olduğunu görmekteyiz. Bu 43 danışman öğretmenden 1'inin öğretmen olarak 1 ila 4 yıllık deneyimi, 7'sinin 5 ila 10 yıllık deneyimi, 12'sin 11 ila 15 yıllık deneyimi, 14'ünün 16 ila 20 yıllık deneyimi ve 9 tanesinin ise 21 yıldan fazla deneyimi vardır. Bu deneyimler, İngilizceyi yeni öğrenen gruplara ilkokul, ortaokul ve lise düzeylerinde ve özel dil kurslarında geçirilen yılları temsil etmektedir. Benzer şekilde, okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin 28'i danışman öğretmen olarak 1 ila 4 yıllık bir deneyime sahipken, 10 tanesi 5 ila 10 yıllık deneyime, 2 tanesi 11 ila 15 yıllık deneyime, biri 16 ila 20 yıllık deneyime ve yine biri 21 yıldan fazla deneyime sahiptir. Son olarak, bu çalışmaya Türkiye'deki 10 farklı üniversitede ve 9 farklı şehirde İngilizce Öğretmenliği bölümlerinde son sınıfta öğrenim gören 193 hizmet öncesi öğretmen katılmıştır. Bu öğretmen adayları, İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümlerindeki staj uygulaması kapsamında bir taraftan üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri, diğer taraftan ise okullardaki danışman öğretmenler tarafından öğretmenlik mesleğinin incelikleri konusunda rehberlik edilen ve yol gösterilen kişilerdir.

Veri Toplama Araçları ve Yöntemi

Bu çalışmada iki temel veri toplama aracı kullanılmıştır. Üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenler ile sözlü görüşme

yoluyla, öğretmen adayları ile açık uçlu sorulardan oluşan bir anket yardımıyla veri toplanmıştır.

Belirli bir amacı ve yönelimi olan konuşmalar olarak tanımlanan sözlü görüşmeler (Barlow, 2010), durum çalışmalarında yaygın olarak kullanılan bir veri toplama yöntemidir (McGinn, 2000). DeMarrais'in (2004) belirttiği gibi, “sözlü görüşme, bir araştırmacının ve katılımcının, bir araştırma çalışmasıyla ilgili sorulara odaklanan bir konuşmaya dahil olduğu bir süreçtir. Bu sorular genellikle katılımcılardan düşüncelerini, görüşlerini, bakış açılarını veya belirli deneyimlerin açıklamalarını istemektedir” (deMarrais, 2004, s. 54). Bu çalışmada kullanılan sözlü görüşme yöntemi katılımcıların görüşlerini ve deneyimlerini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Öğretmen eğitimcileri için görüşme sorularını oluşturma aşamasında birkaç husus dikkate alınmıştır. Birincisi, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişimi üzerine halihazırda var olan literatürdür. Görüşme soruları yazılmadan önce, araştırmacı, ulusal ve uluslararası düzeyde öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişimine odaklanan çalışmaları kapsamlı bir şekilde okumuştur. Daha sonra, bu çalışmanın genel amaçları ve yol gösterici araştırma soruları ile birlikte, bazı ön temalar belirlenmiştir. Tez danışmanı ve diğer meslektaşlarla yapılan bir dizi tartışmadan sonra görüşme sorularının yazılması, düzenlenmesi ve güncellenmesi ile görüşme sorularının son hali oluşturulmuştur. Oluşturulan bu görüşme soruları aracılığıyla veri toplama sürecine geçilmeden önce, araştırmacı, bu soruları, çalışmanın araştırma sorularını tüm yönleri ile ele aldığından emin olmak için pilot uygulama gerçekleştirmiştir. Bu amaçla, araştırmacının kendi üniversitesindeki 8 öğretmen eğitimcisi ile görüşülmüştür. Görüşme sırasında katılımcılar bu görüşmenin genel çalışmanın pilot aşaması olduğu konusunda bilgilendirilmiştir, böylece yapıcı geri bildirimler vermeleri istenmiştir. Pilot görüşme süreci sonrası ilgili geri bildirimlerden sonra sorulara gerekli değişiklikler yapılmış ve son taslak hazırlanmıştır. Bunun dışında sorular Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı, Yenilik ve Eğitim Teknolojileri Genel Müdürlüğü'nden bir uzmana gösterilmiş, soruların

okullardaki danışman öğretmenler tarafından nasıl karşılanacağına dair bazı öneriler alınmıştır.

Sözlü görüşme soruları Ek A ve Ek B'de sunulmaktadır. Aynı görüşme soruları hem üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcilerine hem de okullardaki danışman öğretmenlere sorulmuştur. Görüşme soruları, katılımcıların öğretmen eğitimcisi olmayı nasıl tanımladıklarını, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin genel özelliklerini ve kişilik özelliklerini nasıl tanımladıklarını ve öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak üstlendikleri mesleki rolleri içermektedir. Görüşme sorularında ayrıca öğretmen eğitimcilerinin yeterlilikleri ile ilgili sorular da mevcuttur: öğretmen yetiştirme bilgi tabanının unsurlarının neler olduğu, bu bilgi tabanının nasıl geliştiği ve bu bilgi tabanının okullardaki öğretmenler ve üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri için farklı olup olmadığı. Ayrıca, öğretmen eğitimcileri için mesleki gelişime odaklanan sorular da bulunmaktadır: mesleki gelişimi nasıl tanımladıkları, mesleki gelişimi sağlamada ne gibi yöntemlere başvurdıkları, bu uygulamaların sonuçlarının neler olduğu, hangi sorunların olduğu ve ihtiyaçlarının neler olduğu gibi.

Öğretmen eğitimcileri ile yapılan sözlü görüşmelerin yanı sıra, öğretmen adaylarına açık uçlu sorulardan oluşan kısa bir anket verilmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarına yönelik bu açık uçlu anketin 5 sorusu bulunmaktadır: ideal öğretmen eğitimcilerini nasıl tanımladıkları, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin sahip olmaları gereken yeterlik ve becerilerin ne olduğu, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin kendilerini nasıl geliştirmeleri gerektiğine ilişkin görüşleri, son olarak da üniversite ve okuldaki öğretmen eğitimcileri ile ilgili yaşadıkları olumlu ve olumsuz deneyimleri. Sözlü görüşme sorularında olduğu gibi, asıl veri toplama işleminden önce, araştırmacının kendi üniversitesindeki birkaç öğretmen adayının soruları yanıtlamaları ve varsa açıklığa kavuşturulması gereken noktaları belirlemeleri istenmiştir. Öğretmen adaylarına, bunun pilot bir anket olduğu söylenmiş ve yapıcı geri bildirimlere ihtiyaç duyulduğu belirtilmiştir. Onlardan alınan geri bildirimle birlikte, öğretmen adayları için açık uçlu anketin son hali oluşturulmuştur. Anket soruları Ek C'de sunulmuştur.

Veri toplama süreci Mayıs 2017 ile Nisan 2018 arasında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Süreleri 13 ila 65 dakika arasında değişen toplam 80 adet sözlü görüşme ve 193 adet anket bulunmaktadır. Üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri ile 21 saat, okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerle 15 saat olmak üzere, sözlü görüşmelerin toplam süresi 36 saat 52 dakikadır. Veri analizinin nasıl yapıldığı, bir sonraki bölümde anlatılmıştır.

Veri Analizi

Veri analizinin ilk adımı olarak veriler hazırlanmış ve organize edilmiştir (Creswell, 2013). Tüm görüşmeler, katılımcıların söylediklerinin gerçekliğine müdahale etmemek için dilbilgisi hatalarını olduğu gibi tutarak bir kelime-işlemci yazılımı kullanılarak çözümlenmiştir. Araştırmacı, tüm görüşmeleri kendisi çözümlemiş, bu sayede tekrar tekrar dinlemiş olarak veriyi yakından takip etmiştir. Böylelikle, araştırmacının veriyi henüz çözümleme aşamasında içselleştirmesi sağlanmıştır. Bu da genel analiz sürecinde ilk adım olarak düşünülebilir (Bailey, 2008). Transkripsiyon süreci bittikten sonra sözlü görüşmeler yoluyla toplanan veriler MAXQDA standart 2018 (18.0.8 sürümü) nitel veri analizi yazılımı ile analiz edilmiştir. Verilerin incelenmesinde, içerik analizi (Patton, 2015) yöntemi kullanılmıştır. İçerik analizi, çeşitli tekniklerle elde edilen metnin analizini ifade eder. İçerik analizinde amaç, niteliksel verileri azaltmak ve yinelenen temaları ve anlamları tanımlamak için bir anlamlandırma çabası uygulamaktır (Patton, 2015). Bu nitel durum çalışması, metin formatında epeyce fazla görüşme verisi içerdiğinden, verileri anlamlı bir şekilde inceleyip yorumlamak için içerik analizinin uygulanmasını gerektirmektedir. Genel veri analizi prosedürü aşağıdaki gibidir: 1) görüşmelerin olduğu gibi çözümlenmesi (transkripsiyon), 2) ilk kodları oluşturmak için ilk okumanın gerçekleştirilmesi, 3) sistematik bir şekilde kodlama yapmak için tüm verinin tekrar okunması, 4) temaları belirlemek için tekrar eden kavramların belirlenmesi, 5) verinin azaltılıp çalışmanın araştırma sorularına odaklanması, 6) temaların oluşturulması, 7) sonuçların sunulup tartışılması. Bu prosedür doğrusal değil, döngüsel bir süreçte ilerlemiştir. Bir diğer değişle, belirtilen aşamalar arasında gidip gelinmiş, uzman görüşlerine

sık sık başvurulmuş ve ortaya çıkan kodlar ve temalar tekrar tekrar gözden geçirilmiştir.

Bu çalışmada kodlama sürecinde Saldana (2009)'nın kodlama metodu kullanılmıştır. Saldana (2009)'ya göre kod "bir dil ya da görsel verilere ait bir bölüm için özetleyici, göze çarpan, özü yakalayan ve / veya çağrıştıran bir özelliği sembolik olarak atayan bir kelime ya da kısa bir ifade" olarak tanımlanır (s. 3). Ayrıca, "kodlamanın kesin bir bilim olmadığını; bunun daha ziyade sürecin benzersizliğini vurgulamak için öncelikle bir yorumlama eylemi" (s. 4) olduğunu belirtir. Saldana (2009), *iki aşamalı* bir kodlama metodu sunmaktadır: Birinci aşama kodlama yöntemi, verilerin ilk kodlamasında ortaya çıkan süreçlerdir ve ikinci aşamadaki kodlama yöntemi, kodlanmış verileri, nihai kodları ve temaları sunmadan önce analitik becerilerle yeniden yapılandıran süreçlerdir.

Saldana (2000)'nın kodlama metoduna göre kodlama yapıldıktan sonra, analizin ve kodların güvenilirliğini arttırmak için verinin %10'unu oluşturan ve rastgele seçilen 8 adet sözlü görüşme, ikinci bir kodlayıcı tarafından daha kodlanmıştır. Bu ikinci kodlayıcı, öğretmen eğitimi alanında doktora derecesine sahip ve daha önce MAXQDA nitel veri analizi programı ile kodlama yapmış deneyimli bir alan uzmanıdır. İkinci kodlayıcı ile araştırmacının kendi kodladığı veriler karşılaştırıldığında, %89 ila %100 arasında değişen oranlarda kodlama benzerliği görülmüştür. Bu da yapılan kodlamanın güvenilirliğini artıran bir faktör olarak görülmektedir.

Çalışmanın Güvenilirliği

Nitel araştırmacılar, bazen kısmen nitel araştırmaların kendilerine özgü doğasından dolayı ya da kendilerini pozitivist paradigmaların anlayışından uzaklaştırabilmek adına doğrulama ve güvenilirlik konularını ele almak için farklı terminolojiler kullanırlar (Shenton, 2004). Önemli yapısalcılardan, Lincoln ve Guba (1985), natüralist paradigmalar tarafından beslenen bir çalışmanın "güvenirliğini" garantilemek için özgün terimler kullanırlar. İç

geçerlilik (internal validity) yerine inanılrlık (credibility), dış geçerlilik (external validity) yerine aktarılabilirlik (transferability) güvenilirlik (reliability) yerine güvenilebilirlik (dependability) ve nesnellik (objectivity) yerine onaylanabilirlik (confirmability) terimlerini alternatif olarak sunarlar.

Bu çalışmada genel olarak güvenilirliği sağlamak amacıyla şu unsurlardan bahsedilebilir. Öncelikle, bu çalışmanın araştırmacısı, uzun yıllar boyunca bir üniversite bağlamında çalışan bir araştırma görevlisi olarak yabancı dil öğretmen eğitiminin içinde yer almıştır. Bu sayede araştırmaya konu olan ortamların kültürünü iyi bilmektedir (Shenton, 2004). Ayrıca, üniversiteler ve okullar maksimum çeşitlilik örnekleme yöntemi kullanılarak seçilmesine rağmen, öğretmen eğitimcileri ve danışman öğretmenler çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmıştır. Yine başka bir husus şudur: araştırmacı, tez danışmanı ile, tez izleme komitesi toplantılarında jüri üyeleri ile, diğer doktora adayları ve akademisyenler ile çeşitli görüşmeler yaparak sürekli fikir alışverişinde bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, kodlama süreci (kodlar ve kodlanmış bölümler), tez danışmanı ve kodlama konusunda deneyimli bir araştırmacı tarafından sürekli olarak tartışılmıştır.

BULGULAR ve TARTIŞMA

Genel olarak bakıldığında, bu çalışmadan çıkan sonuçlar şu şekilde özetlenebilir. Öncelikle, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleklerini çeşitli perspektiflerden tanımladıkları söylenebilir: mesleki özellikler, kişilik özellikleri, roller ve sorumluluklar. Dahası, öğretmen eğitimcisi olmak için belirli bir bilgi tabanı olduğu da görülmektedir. Katılımcılar ayrıca bir öğretmen eğitimcisinin sahip olması gereken belirli becerilerden de bahsetmektedir. Son olarak, mesleki gelişim ile ilgili sonuçlar, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim için çeşitli uygulamalara ve hem kişisel mesleki gelişim konusunda hem de öğretmenlik deneyimi dersi bağlamında çeşitli sorun ve önerilere sahip olduklarını göstermektedir. Bu sonuçlardan daha ayrıntılı bir şekilde aşağıda bahsedilmektedir.

Sözlü görüşmelerde öğretmen eğitimcilerine “bir öğretmen eğitimcisini nasıl tanımlarsınız?” diye sorulduğunda verilen cevapların çeşitli olduğu görülmektedir. Katılımcılardan bazıları öğretmen eğitimcisini “öğretmen olmak için eğitim gören öğrencilere rehberlik eden ve onları eğiten herkes” şeklinde genel bir ifade ile tanımlarken, bazıları ise öğretmen eğitimcisi mesleğini yaptıkları işe bağlı olarak tanımlamaktadır. Örneğin, üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri için, bir öğretmen eğitimcisi, “üniversitedeki tüm öğretim elemanları” ya da sadece “staj dersini veren” öğretim elemanlarıdır. Aynı şekilde, bazı öğretmen eğitimcileri okullardaki danışman öğretmenleri de öğretmen eğitimcisi olarak tanımlarken, bazıları onları bu tanıma dahil edemeyeceğimizi söylemektedir. Bu durum, okuldaki danışman öğretmenlerin cevaplarında da benzerlik göstermektedir. Katılımcıların çoğu, öğretmen eğitimcisini “üniversiteden gelen öğrencilere öğretmenliğin ne olduğu ile ilgili deneyimlerini paylaşan herkes” olarak tanımlamaktadır. Bu tanımlar, Wentz (2001) ve Cohen ve ark. (2004) tarafından sunulan tanımlarla benzerlik göstermektedir. Bununla birlikte, katılımcılar arasında öğretmen eğitimcisi olmadıklarını açıkça belirtenler de vardır.

Çalışmanın bir diğer sonucuna göre, öğretmen eğitimcileri mesleki ve kişilik özelliklerini tanımlamak için çeşitli ifadeler kullanmaktadırlar. *Rol model olmak*, öğretmen eğitimcileri tarafından en çok bahsedilen özelliklerden birisidir. Bu, öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen eğitimcilerinden sadece nasıl öğreteceklerini öğrenmekle kalmayıp, mesleğe başladıklarında bir öğretmen olarak nasıl davranacaklarını da görmeleri anlamına gelmektedir. Bu nedenle, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin kişilik özellikleri, öğretmen eğitimcilerini tanımlamanın yanı sıra öğretmen adaylarına rol model olmaları için gerekli mesleki niteliklerin (Helterbran, 2008) tanımlanmasında da önemli bir rol oynamaktadır (Lunenberg, Korthagen, Swennen, 2007; Griffiths, Thompson, Htyniexicz, 2014; Tunca ve ark., 2015). Üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri tarafından en çok bahsedilen diğer mesleki özellikler, *değişime ve kendini geliştirmeye açık olmak, alan bilgisi ve pedagojiyi iyi bilmek* olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Kişilik özellikleri için, çoğunlukla *saygılı olmak, anlayışlı*

olmak, destekleyici ve teşvik edici bir öğrenme ortamı yaratabiliyor olmaktan söz etmişlerdir. Okullardaki danışman öğretmenler de benzer mesleki özelliklerden bahsetmektedirler. *Alan bilgisine sahip olmak ve kendini geliştirmeye açık olmak* bahsedilen en önemli özelliklerden ikisidir. Danışman öğretmenlerin kişilik özelliklerine baktığımızda ise, *destekleyici, yardımcı, motive edici ve anlayışlı* olmanın önemli olduğundan bahsettikleri görülmektedir.

Bu çalışmada elde edilen sonuçlar, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin öğretmen eğitimi ile ilgisi olan ya da olmayan çeşitli rolleri ve sorumlulukları olduğunu da göstermektedir. Katılımcılar hem üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin hem de okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin en önemli rolünün öğretmen adaylarına rehberlik etmek ve onların iyi birer öğretmen olabilmeleri için mesleki gelişimlerine katkı sağlamak olduğunu düşünmektedir.

Çalışmada ulaşılan ilginç bir sonuç da şudur; okullardaki danışman öğretmenler, üstlenmeler gereken başka herhangi bir rolden bahsetmemektedirler. Bununla birlikte, üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin, araştırma yapmak, ders vermek, idari görevlerde bulunmak, okul ile üniversite arasındaki iş birliğini sağlamak gibi diğer görevlerinin de olduğu katılımcılar tarafından belirtilmektedir.

Çalışmanın önemli sonuçlarından bir tanesi de öğretmen eğitimcilerinin, öğretmenlerinkinden farklı bir bilgi tabanına sahip olduklarının belirtilmesidir. Katılımcılar, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin bilgi tabanını oluşturan beş bilgi alanının olduğunu bildirmektedir. Bunlar:

1. Konu/alan ve pedagoji bilgisi
2. Öğrenciyi tanıma ve öğrenmenin nasıl gerçekleştiğinin bilgisi
3. Müfredat ve değerlendirme bilgisi
4. Toplum, eğitim politikası ve eğitim sistemi bilgisi
5. Araştırma bilgisi

Bu çalışmanın bir başka sonucu da şudur: katılımcılara göre öğretmen eğitimcilerinin sahip olması gereken belirli beceriler vardır. Bu beceriler yedi ana grupta toplanmaktadır:

1. Teori ve pratik ilişkisini göstererek öğretme konusunda model olabilmek
2. İletişim kurabilmek
3. Bilimsel araştırma yapabilmek
4. Uygulamalar üzerine düşünerek kendini geliştirebilmek
5. Öğrenmeyi gözlemleyebilmek ve değerlendirebilmek
6. Problemleri araştırabilmek ve çözebilmek
7. Dil kullanımı konusunda rol model olabilmek

Bununla birlikte, bu çalışma öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim tanımları, yöntemleri, bu yöntemlerin sonuçları, mesleki gelişim sorunları, ihtiyaçları ve önerilerini de belirlemeyi amaçlamıştır. Buna göre, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişimi iki yönlü tanımladıkları görülmektedir. Birincisi, öğretmen eğitimcilerine göre mesleki gelişim, en geniş ifade ile *kendini geliştirmek* olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Bunun yanı sıra, mesleki gelişimin katılımcılar tarafından *öğretim kalitesinin geliştirilmesi* olarak da tanımlandığı görülmektedir. Üniversitedeki öğretmen eğitimcileri mesleki gelişimi *alanda yükselmek için kişisel gelişim* şeklinde de tanımlamaktadır. Bu tanımların yanı sıra, katılımcılar mesleki gelişim yöntemleri ile ilgili şu dört kategoriden bahsetmektedirler:

1. Öğretmen eğitimi ile ilgili araştırma yapmak ve alanı takip etmek (makale yazmak, okumak, proje üretmek, konferanslara katılmak ve sunum yapmak vb.)
2. Çeşitli kişilerle iş birliği yapmak (meslektaşlarla, öğrencilerle, öğretmenlerle birlikte çalışmak vb.)
3. Çeşitli kişisel mesleki öğrenme yollarına başvurmak (seminerlere, kurslara katılmak, yurtdışına gitmek, teknolojik gelişmeleri takip etmek, lisansüstü eğitim vb.)

4. Kendi uygulamalarının üzerine düşünmek (ders materyallerin güncellemek, yeni bir ders açmak, gelişmeye ve yeniliklere açık olmak vb.)

Okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerinin mesleki gelişim yöntemleri ile ilgili önemli bir bulgu, mesleki gelişim konusunda hiçbir şey yapmadıklarından bahsetmeleridir.

Öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim yöntemlerinin sonuçlarına bakıldığında şunlar görülmektedir. Bu mesleki gelişim yöntemleri sonrası öğretmen eğitimcileri bilgilerini güncel tutma, kendini fark etme, sınıf uygulamalarını değiştirme ve yaptıkları araştırmaların yayınlanıyor olmasından bahsetmektedirler.

Öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim konusunda yaşadıklarından bahsettikleri sorunlar şunlardır: 1) kurumsal ve tutumsal sorunlar (kurumun desteklememesi, meslektaşlarının olumsuz tutumları vb), 2) zaman eksikliği ve aşırı ders yükü, 3) bütçe azlığı ve kaynaklara erişim yetersizliği, 4) öğrencilerin bilgisinin ve öğrenme ortamlarının yetersizliği, 5) eğitim ve genel destek eksikliği.

Mesleki gelişim konusundaki ihtiyaçlara bakıldığında, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim için ek eğitim ve fırsatlara, daha fazla zamana ve daha az ders yüküne, daha fazla bütçeye ve kaynağa erişime ihtiyacı olduğu görülmektedir. Öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim konusundaki önerileri incelendiğinde hem üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin hem de okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin, daha sık bir araya gelip uygulamalarını tartışmaları için daha fazla ortam olması gerektiğinden bahsettikleri görülmektedir. Mesleki gelişim önerileri ile ilgili bir diğer önemli sonuç da öğretmen eğitimi sürecinin tüm paydaşları arasında daha fazla iş birliğinin olması gerektiğidir.

ÖNERİLER

Bu çalışmanın en önemli sonuçlarından bir tanesi, çalışma sonunda önerilen “*Türkiye’deki İngilizce öğretmen eğitimcileri için bir standartlar çerçevesi*”dir. Çerçeve, üç profil temelinde geliştirilmiştir: *tanım profili* (öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki özellikleri ve kişilik özellikleri), *yeterlilik profili* (öğretmen eğitimcilerinin bilgi tabanı ve becerileri) ve öğretmen eğitimcileri için bir *mesleki gelişim profili*. Bu standartlar çerçevesinin detaylarına Ek G’den ulaşılabilir. Bu noktada, Türkiye’de böyle bir çerçevenin şu ana kadar bulunmadığını belirtmek gereklidir. Önceki bölümlerde de belirtildiği gibi, üniversitelerde öğretim elemanlarının görevlerini, rollerini ve sorumluluklarını ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenleri tanımlayan iki kaynak vardır. Bunlardan birincisi, Yükseköğretim Kanunu’nun 22.nci maddesinde geçen “öğretim üyelerinin görevleri” ile ilgili husustur. Bu maddede belirtilen görevler, alan ayrımı olmaksızın, üniversitedeki tüm öğretim üyelerini kapsayan genel görevlerdir. Benzer bir bakış açısıyla, Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayımlanan Fakülte-Okul İş birliği kılavuzunda (YÖK, 1998), öğretmen yetiştirme programlarındaki paydaşlar olan üniversite öğretim elemanları ve danışman öğretmenlerin rolleri ve sorumlulukları tanımlanmıştır. Fakat, bu rol ve sorumluluklar da alana özgü değildir. Ayrıca, söz konusu kılavuzda öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişimi ya da mesleki özellikleri ile ilgili bir şey söylememektedir. Bu bağlamda, bu çerçeve, öğretmen eğitimcisinin mesleki tanımları, özellikleri, yeterlik, bilgi tabanı ve mesleki gelişim profillerini kapsaması bakımından yeni bir çerçevedir. Ayrıca, yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimcileri için Türkiye bağlamında daha önce ayrıntılı olarak incelenmemiş olan mesleki özellikler, kişilik özellikleri, bilgi tabanı, beceri ve mesleki gelişim gibi konulara da odaklanmaktadır.

Bu çalışma sonunda, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişimi, öğretmen eğitimi uygulamaları, müfredat geliştirme ve gelecekteki araştırmalara yol gösterme noktasında çeşitli öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Öncelikle bu çalışma, üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcileri ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenler için bir *mesleki gelişim topluluğuna* ihtiyaç duyulduğu sonucuna varmıştır. Mesleki gelişim için konferansa katılmanın, makale yazmanın ve yapılan araştırmaları paylaşmanın yanı sıra, katılımcılar, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin belirli aralıklarla bir araya geldikleri, iş birliği içinde çalıştıkları ve öğretmen eğitimi uygulamalarını tartıştıkları, kendi uygulamalarını değerlendirdikleri, fikirlerini paylaştıkları bir *mesleki gelişim topluluğuna* sahip olma ihtiyacının altını çizmektedirler. Öğretmen eğitimcileri için böyle bir mesleki gelişim topluluğu oluşturmanın yollarından bir tanesi, öğretmen eğitimcilerine bir “öğretmen eğitimcileri derneği” kurma yönünde gerekli teşvik ve özendirme sağlamaktır. Bu tür sivil toplum kuruluşları, özellikle Avrupa’da, uluslararası bağlamlarda yaygındır. Örneğin, Uluslararası Öğretmen Eğitimi Forumu (InFo-TED) buna başarılı bir örnek olarak gösterilebilir. Birçok farklı ülkeden (Belçika, Norveç, Hollanda, İngiltere, İrlanda, İskoçya, Avustralya, İsrail ve ABD) katılımcıyı buluşturan bu forum, öğretmen eğitimciliğinin bilgi tabanlarını geliştirmeyi ve bu bilgi tabanlarını uluslararası bir programa dönüştürmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin eğitilmesi için destekleyici kılavuzlar geliştirmek ve uygulamak da bu forumun amaçlarından biridir. Türkiye’de de hem üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcilerinin hem de okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin ortak bir platformda buluştuğu bir mesleki gelişim topluluğuna ihtiyaç vardır.

Mesleki gelişim topluluklarına ek olarak, Lave ve Wegner (1991) tarafından tanımlandığı gibi “*ustadan öğrenme*” yöntemi, öğretmen eğitimcisinin mesleki gelişimi için yararlı sonuçlar sağlayabilir. Diğer bir deyişle, tecrübeli öğretmen eğitimcilerinin yeni başlayan öğretmen eğitimcilerinin “öğretmen eğitimcisi kimliğini” inşa etmelerine ve öğretmen eğitimcileri olarak uygulamalarını geliştirmelerine yardımcı olabileceklerdir. Bu nedenle, yeni başlayan öğretmen eğitimcileri, deneyimli öğretmen eğitimcilerinin deneyimlerinden faydalanabilir.

Benzer bir bakış açısıyla, üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcileri ve okullardaki danışman öğretmenler, ortak projeler, kurslar, toplantılar, tartışmalar vb. oluşumlarda aktif olarak yer alarak birbirlerinden öğrenip kendilerini mesleki anlamda geliştirebilirler. Bu çalışmada görülmektedir ki bazı öğretmen eğitimcileri, bilgi tabanlarını ve becerileri çoğunlukla akademik ve teorik konularla ilişkilendirmektedir. Başka bir deyişle, teoriyi bildiklerini, fakat İngilizcenin öğretimi konusunda deneyimlerinin az olduğunu söylemektedirler. Benzer şekilde, okullardaki danışman öğretmenler, uzun yıllardır akademiden uzak kaldıklarından dolayı, her ne kadar İngilizce öğretimi konusunda pedagojik uzmanlar olsalar da teorik bilgi noktasında eksikleri olduğundan bahsetmektedirler. Bu nedenle, bu iki grup daha sık bir araya gelip birbirlerinin deneyimlerinden yararlanabilirler.

Bir başka açıdan bakıldığında ise, öğretmen eğitimcileri, kendi mesleki gelişimlerine, öğretmenlerin mesleki gelişimine ve öğretmen eğitimi araştırmalarına katkıda bulunmak gibi çok yönlü rolleri olan *özerk entelektüeller* olarak tanımlanabilir. Bu çalışmanın bir çıkarımı da şudur: öğretmen eğitimcileri mesleki gelişimleri için çeşitli toplulukların bir parçası olmanın yanı sıra, kendi kendilerine de araştırmalarına odaklanabilen bireylerdir. Bu nedenle, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin mesleki gelişim ihtiyaçlarını karşılayabilmeleri için daha fazla bütçe, zaman ve kendi kendine araştırma yapma fırsatlarına sahip olmaları da gerekmektedir.

Bu çalışmadan çıkan diğer bir öneri de okullardaki danışman öğretmenlerin *öğretmen eğitimcisi* olarak eğitilmeleridir. Türkiye bağlamında, YÖK ve MEB tarafından bu danışman öğretmenlerin rolleri ve yapmaları gerekenler konusunda belirlenen bazı kriterler bulunmaktadır (YÖK, 1998). Buna ek olarak, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, zaman zaman öğretmen adaylarına rehberlik etme görevini üstlenen öğretmenler için seminerler düzenlemektedir. Ayrıca, öğretmenler için staj döneminde öğretmen adaylarının mesleki gelişimleri için izlenecek süreçle ilgili yönergeler de yine MEB tarafından yayınlanmaktadır. Ancak, bu çalışmadaki katılımcıların cevaplarında görüldüğü gibi bunlar yeterli

olmamaktadır. Çoğu zaman, danışman öğretmenler, öğretmen eğitimi süreci hakkında iyi bilgilendirilmediklerden bahsetmektedirler. Bu durumlarda, öğretmen adayının (son sınıf öğrencisinin) öğretmenlik uygulaması deneyimi, istenildiği kadar faydalı olamamaktadır. Bu nedenlerle, danışman öğretmenlerin öğretmen eğitimi ve staj süreci hakkında sistematik bir şekilde eğitilmesi ve bilgilendirilmesi şiddetle tavsiye edilmektedir. Bu eğitim ya da bilgi paylaşımı, üniversitelerdeki öğretmen eğitimcileri ve uzun yıllar danışmanlık yapan deneyimli danışman öğretmenler tarafından ortaklaşa bir biçimde verilebilir.

Son olarak, bu çalışmada, öğretmen eğitimi programının bir parçası olan son sınıftaki öğretmenlik uygulaması stajının programda çok geç verildiği sonucuna varılmıştır. Programın son yılı olan 4. sınıf, öğretmen adaylarının öğretmen olma konusunda gerekli beceri ve anlayışları kazanmaları için yeterli değildir. Bu nedenle, öğretmen adaylarının gerçek okul ortamlarıyla daha erken tanışmaları için daha fazla fırsat sunulması noktasında İngilizce öğretmenliği eğitim programında değişiklikler yapılması gerekmektedir. Bu çalışmaya katılan birçok öğretmen eğitimcisinin ve öğretmen adayının da belirttiği gibi, okul deneyimi ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinin programda birinci sınıftan itibaren ve daha fazla sayıda yer alması gerektiği düşünülmektedir. Okul deneyimi ile erken tanışmak, teori ve pratiğin daha faydalı bir şekilde birleştirilmesini sağlayarak, öğretmen adayının okul ortamına daha iyi hazırlanmasına imkân tanıyacaktır. Bu çalışmanın yürütüldüğü esnasında, öğretmen eğitim programlarının Öğretmenlik Uygulaması dersleri YÖK tarafından Mayıs 2018'de güncellenmiştir. Fakat yeni programda da görülmektedir ki, değişen sadece Okul Deneyimi dersinin yerine Öğretmenlik Uygulaması I dersinin geldiğidir. Bu ders, Öğretmenlik Uygulaması II dersi ile birlikte yine programın son yılı olan 4. sınıfta verilmektedir. Ancak, öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik deneyimi için daha fazla fırsata ihtiyacı vardır. Bu bağlamda, programın tekrar güncellenmesi ve öğretmenlik uygulaması derslerinin sayısının çoğaltılması ile, bu derslerin

programa birinci sınıftan itibaren entegre edilmesinin gerekli olduđu düşünölmektedir.

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimcilerinin tanımlarını, yeterliliklerini ve mesleki gelişim profillerini araştırmaya yönelik bir girişimdir. Bununla birlikte, diğher her araştırmada olduđu gibi, bu çalışmanın da potansiyel sınırlamaları olabilir.

Her şeyden önce, bu çalışma Türkiye genelinde 11 ilde, üniversitelerdeki 41 öğretmen eğitimcisi, okullardaki 43 danışman öğretmen ve 193 öğretmen adayı ile yürütölmüştür. Başlangıçta örnekleme yer alacak daha fazla şehir olmasına rağmen, veri toplama sürecinde *veri doygunluğuna* ulaşıldığı düşünöldüğünden veri toplama sürecinde ek şehirler dahil edilmemiştir.

Bir diğher kısıtlama da bu çalışmanın okul yöneticilerinin veya karar merciindeki diğher kişilerin (MEB ve YÖK yetkilileri gibi) görüşlerini içermemesidir. Bu çalışma, öğretmen eğitimcilerinin profillerini araştırmaya yönelik bir girişim olsa da konu ilgili gelecekte yürütölecek olan çalışmalara bu yetkilileri de kapsayan bir örneklem oluşturmaları önerilmektedir.

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AND COMPETENCE PROFILES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATORS IN TURKEY

TEZİN TÜRÜ / DEGREE: Yüksek Lisans / Master

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