



**THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDENT
TEACHERS' CONCERNS AND THEIR PRACTICUM PRACTICES**



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Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

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THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDENT TEACHERS' CONCERNS AND THEIR PRACTICUM PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT

The present study examines the interplay between English language student teachers' teaching concerns and their observed classroom practices in a multiple case study design. More specifically, the aim of the present study is threefold: i) to reveal student teachers' concerns about teaching throughout their teaching practicum, ii) to explore their concerns about teaching English language skills (i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking) and components (i.e., grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary), and iii) to examine the (in)congruence between their stated teaching concerns and observed classroom practices. The study was carried out with seven fourth-grade student teachers enrolled in a second language teacher education programme at a state university in Ankara, Turkey. They were selected through a purposive sampling method since they represented the whole population in the research setting based on their academic success. Data were collected qualitatively through a wide range of data collection tools including in-depth semi-structured interviews (three sets of interviews for each participant), written reflective journals, screencast-mediated oral reflective journals, a follow-up written reflective journal, the researcher's log, a language learning history, professional background questionnaires, classroom observations of four macro-lessons (along with their video-recordings), and classroom artefacts (four lesson plans, materials, activities, and assignments).

The data were content analysed, and the findings indicated that the student teachers held higher self-concerns and task-related concerns than impact concerns. In addition, they held context-related concerns. The findings further showed that student teachers' concerns such as student teachers' limited writing proficiency, their insufficient preparation for teaching online, and students' low participation rates affected student teachers' observed classroom practices to a large extent. Based on the findings of the study, a concerns-based model for English language teacher preparation was proposed to portray language teachers' prominent concerns about teaching in general and teaching language skills and components in particular. The findings of the study reported in this dissertation might inform second language teacher education programmes in order to prepare English language teachers for their future practices.



Keywords : Second language teacher education, teacher concern, teaching language skills and components, English language teaching, teaching practicum

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**İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARININ KAYGILARI VE
ÖĞRETMENLİK UYGULAMASI PRATİKLERİ ARASINDAKİ
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ÖZ

Bu çalışmada, İngilizce öğretmenliği programı öğretmen adaylarının öğretim kaygıları ile sınıf içi uygulamaları arasındaki etkileşim çoklu vaka çalışması deseniyle incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın üç temel amacı vardır: i) öğretmen adaylarının öğretmenlik uygulamaları boyunca öğretmeye ilişkin kaygılarını ortaya çıkarmak, ii) İngilizce dil becerilerinin (okuma, yazma, dinleme ve konuşma) ve dil unsurlarının (dilbilgisi, telaffuz ve kelime bilgisi) öğretimine yönelik kaygılarını keşfetmek ve iii) dile getirdikleri öğretmeye ilişkin kaygıları ve gözlemlenen sınıf içi uygulamaları arasındaki uyumu/uyumsuzluğu incelemek. Çalışma, Ankara'da bulunan bir devlet üniversitesinde yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimi programında öğrenim gören yedi dördüncü sınıf İngilizce öğretmeni adayı ile yürütülmüştür. Katılımcılar, akademik başarıları göz önünde bulundurulduğunda araştırma sahasının tüm evrenini temsil ettikleri için amaçlı örnekleme yöntemiyle seçilmişlerdir. Veriler, derinlemesine yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler (her katılımcı için üç görüşme seti), yazılı yansıtıcı günlükler, ekran görüntüsü aracılığıyla sözlü yansıtıcı günlükler, bir tamamlayıcı yazılı yansıtıcı günlük, araştırmacı günlüğü, dil öğrenme geçmişi anketi, profesyonel özgeçmiş anketi, dört sınıf içi gözlem (ve derslerin video kayıtları) ve ders hazırlıklarına ilişkin materyaller (dört ders planı, materyaller, aktiviteler ve ödevler) olmak üzere çok çeşitli nitel veri toplama araçları kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Veriler üzerinde içerik analizi yürütülmüştür. Bulgular, öğretmen adaylarının öz kaygılarının ve öğretme sürecine ilişkin kaygılarının etki kaygılarından daha fazla olduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, öğretmen

adaylarının bağlama yönelik kaygıları vardır. Ek olarak, bulgular öğretmen adaylarının sınırlı yazma yeterliliği, çevrimiçi öğretim için yeterli şekilde hazırlanmadıkları ve öğrencilerin düşük katılım oranları gibi endişelerinin öğretmen adaylarının gözlemlenen sınıf uygulamalarını büyük ölçüde etkilediğini göstermiştir. Çalışmanın bulgularına dayalı olarak, yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin genelde öğretmeye ilişkin ve özelde yabancı dil becerilerinin ve unsurlarının öğretimine ilişkin öne çıkan kaygılarını betimlemek için kaygı temelli bir dil öğretimi modeli önerilmiştir. Bu tezde sunulan çalışmanın bulguları, İngilizce öğretmenlerini gelecekteki uygulamalarına hazırlamak için yabancı dil öğretmen eğitimi programlarına ışık tutabilir.



Anahtar Kelimeler : Yabancı dil öğretmeni eğitimi, öğretmen kaygısı, dil becerilerinin ve unsurlarının öğretimi, İngiliz dili eğitimi, öğretmenlik uygulaması

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CoHE	The Council of Higher Education
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
L1	First Language
L2	Second/Foreign Language
LLH	Language Learning History
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
PBQ	Professional Background Questionnaire
SLTE	Second Language Teacher Education
ST	Student Teacher

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

*"I've had a lot of worries in my life, most of which
never happened." - Mark Twain*

1.0. Introduction

This chapter presents i) background to the study, ii) statement of the problem, iii) purpose of the study, iv) significance of the study, v) limitations of the study, and vi) operational definitions of the key terms used in the study. The chapter concludes with a glimpse into the organization of the chapters.

1.1. Background to the Study

Understanding teacher concern is of pivotal importance to help student teachers to cope with their salient concerns and promote their both professional and personal development before their transition into the teaching profession (Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; O'Connor & Taylor, 1992; Poulou, 2007) since it is "the teachers' whole self that brings significance to the meaning of the teaching act" (Day, 2000, p. 108). Teacher concern might be defined as teachers' "perceived problems" (Fuller, 1969, p. 214), "worries" (Regier, 2021, p. 2), or "feelings, thoughts, attitudes or reactions of the person to certain things" (Mok, 2005, p. 55). Hagger and Malmberg (2011) further delineate teacher concern as "objects in mind that the individual deems as undesirable, or wishes to avoid" (p. 599). More broadly, in this study, teacher concern might be interpreted as both in-service and student teachers' concerns about their own teaching competencies, adequacies, and personal survival skills

in the classroom (i.e., self-concerns), their concerns about the teaching process itself in terms of teaching content such as classroom activities and materials (i.e., task concerns), and their concerns about their students' psychological, emotional, and social needs (i.e., impact concerns).

Teacher concern was first coined by Fuller (1969), and her concerns-based model acted as a catalyst to examine the role of in-service and student teachers' concerns in teacher education. The model is predicated on the idea that there is a linear process in the development of teacher concerns. As such, student teachers develop concerns by going through three phases respectively: i) a pre-teaching phase (non-concern), ii) an early teaching phase (concerns with self), and iii) a late teaching phase (concerns with pupils). Accordingly, during the pre-teaching phase, student teachers hold no concerns pertaining to the teaching task or teaching process. During the early teaching phase, they gradually develop concerns about themselves (i.e. self-concerns), and once they start teaching, they ask such questions: "Where do I stand [as a teacher]?", "How adequate am I?" (p. 218). In the late teaching phase, student teachers develop concerns about teaching situation or teaching task (i.e., task concerns) whereas more veteran teachers develop concerns about their students' learning with a deeper insight into their individual differences and learning needs (i.e., impact concerns) (Fuller & Bown, 1975). It is indeed this third stage that points to a difference between experienced teachers and student teachers' concerns. Some researchers advocate the linear developmental process of the teacher concern (e.g., Butler & Smith, 1989; Fuller & Bown, 1975) whereas many researchers run counter to this stance by either supporting the simultaneous development of different types of teacher concern (e.g., Boz, 2008; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Pigge & Marso, 1997; Reeves & Kazelskis, 1985) or arguing the complex or multifaceted nature of teacher concern (e.g., Burn, et al., 2003; Hagger & Malmberg, 2011; Poulou, 2007; Watzke, 2007) and its bidirectional development (e.g., Aarts, Kools, & Schildwacht, 2020; Conway & Clark, 2003). Although the existing literature is far from settled in terms of the developmental process of teacher concern, it is crystal clear that understanding the dynamics of student teachers' concerns will help to mitigate the negative impacts of their concerns, whereby nudging them towards professional development. As also echoed by Guillaume and Rudney (1993), exploring student teachers' concerns might help to gain an insight into the challenges they

encounter, thereby enabling teacher educators to “further understand the processes students undergo to become teachers.” (p. 65).

Moreover, good teachers are more than “well-oiled machines” (Hargreaves, 1998, p. 835) or “certain isolated competencies” (Korthagen, 2004, p. 79). Besides, teachers are “individuals who enter teacher education programmes with prior experiences, personal values, and beliefs that inform their knowledge about teaching and shape what they do in their classrooms” (Freeman & Johnson, 1998, p. 401). As also echoed by Banegas (2017), “future teachers' beliefs are shaped by their biographies as learners” (p. 7), which creates a gap between the pedagogies acquired during the teacher education programmes and the practices they observed during their previous years of education, especially during their practicum experiences. Furthermore, Korthagen (2011) posits that student teachers’ personal concerns about teaching are essential for them to “learn anything during teacher education” (p. 33) in order to gain an insight into the advantages of learning pedagogies.

Teacher concern is another critical and personal dimension of student teaching as well as prior experiences, personal values, and beliefs. Therefore, exploring student teachers’ concerns by drawing upon student teachers’ teaching practices might pave the way for the amelioration of the teacher education programmes considering that “the more is known about the student teachers’ experiences during teaching practice, the greater possibility of reducing the stress and maximizing the benefits of teaching practice for them” (Sharma, 2015, p. 16). In this regard, there is an array of studies examining teacher concerns in different teacher education programmes such as primary school teacher education (e.g., Swennen, Jörg, and Korthagen, 2004), elementary education (e.g., Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Poulou, 2004), secondary science and mathematics education (e.g., Boz & Boz, 2010), and music education (e.g., Regier, 2021). Nevertheless, the number of studies focusing on teacher concerns in second language education teacher education programmes is quite limited (e.g., Kaygısız & Balçıkanlı, 2021; Yalcin Arslan & Ilin, 2018). Thus, more inquiry is warranted in the field, especially given that language teaching and learning is a complex and dynamic phenomenon.

A significant body of research has revealed that there is a wide range of factors affecting student teachers’ concerns such as gender (Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Marso & Pigge, 1989; Pigge & Marso, 1997; Watzke, 2007); grade point averages (Pigge & Marso, 1997); self-efficacy beliefs (Boz & Boz, 2010; Boz & Cetin-Dindar, 2021; Ghaith & Shaaban,

1999; Kaygısız & Balçıkanlı, 2021; Regier, 2021); well-being and professional goals (Hagger & Malmberg, 2011); professional values (Aktan, Toraman, & Orakcı, 2020; Regier, 2021); and classroom learning environment (Boz & Cetin-Dindar, 2021). In these studies, student teachers have articulated their concerns with regard to classroom management (Aarts, et al., 2020; Poulou, 2007; Regier, 2021; Veenman, 1984; Watzke, 2007); dealing with the workload (Aarts, et al., 2020), adapting lessons to the students' needs (Aarts, et al., 2020, Swennen, et al., 2004); maintaining motivation (O'Connor & Taylor, 1992; Poulou, 2007; Swennen, et al., 2004); desire for teaching in the future (Poulou, 2007); classroom atmosphere and mentors' opinions (Swennen, et al., 2004); lack of public support for schools (Boz, 2008); level of familiarity with the setting (Regier, 2021); teacher and student disengagement, health and exhaustion, and depression (Hagger & Malmberg, 2011); coping with the individual differences (Veenman, 1984; Watzke, 2007); and future-oriented thoughts (Conway, 2001; Hagger & Malmberg, 2011), among many others. However, to the researcher's knowledge, no study has examined student teachers' concerns about teaching a second or foreign (used interchangeably in the present study) language and their quintessential classroom practices. From the other side of the same coin, the constructs juxtaposed above are closely related to second language teacher education, which is firmly predicated on "socially negotiated and contingent on knowledge of self, students, subject matter, curricula, and setting" (Johnson, 2006, p. 239). Building on the previous literature, this dissertation study attempts to explore the dynamics of second language student teachers' concerns such as concerns about themselves, the students in their practicum school, the school context, and the curriculum, among many others, in general. Additionally, it aims to probe their concerns about teaching English language skills and components in particular in a multiple case study design to dwell into the "in-depth portrayals of particular people" (Casanave, 2010, p. 67) as well as the congruence, if any, between their concerns and classroom practices during their practicum experience.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

It has been of particular interest to researchers specializing in teacher education to examine the role of teacher beliefs, teacher identity, and teacher emotions especially considering that teaching is "an emotional practice" (Hargreaves, 2000, p. 824). As such, these

constructs have been extensively studied in the field of second language teacher education. Nevertheless, although teacher concern has been examined over the last four decades in different teacher education programmes, it has not drawn much attention in the field of second language teacher education (SLTE, henceforth) so far (only Kaygısız & Balçıkanlı, 2021; Yalcin Arslan & Ilin, 2018). Therefore, it merits further attention in the SLTE literature since teacher educators need to become armed with new perspectives to guide student teachers for the future and help them explore new ways to deal with their concerns.

Furthermore, teaching practice in teacher education programmes, which is “the single most input to improve the quality of education” (Sharma, 2015, p. 15), enables student teachers to put their pedagogical content knowledge into practice even though this process leads them to experience a myriad of challenges. Understanding the dynamics of student teachers’ concerns thus merits further attention especially given that their practicum experience is the first step into actual classroom teaching, whereby they shape their professional identities. Nevertheless, what exactly shapes English language student teachers’ concerns during their teaching practice, to the researcher’s knowledge, has remained understudied and unobserved so far. In other words, sources or causes of teacher concerns received little or no attention in the literature (Regier, 2021). Thus, the present study aims to unveil English language student teachers’ concerns about teaching English and delve into the reasons behind their concerns to ameliorate their teaching behaviors and classroom practices. Their concerns might stem from student teachers’ English language proficiency (Başyurt Tüzel & Akcan, 2009), lack of confidence, prior teaching and learning experiences, and the teacher education programme *per se*.

Student teachers hold a plethora of task-related concerns such as teaching strategies, skills, and techniques (Hagger & Malmberg, 2011). In a study, Hagger and Malmberg (2011) partially shed light on English language student teachers’ concerns, yet student teachers’ concerns germane to teaching language skills and components have remained unearthed so far. As articulated by Pigge and Marso (1997), “certain teacher preparation programs or experiences better facilitate the concerns development of teacher candidates” (p. 234). More specifically, in second language teacher education programmes, student teachers’ “language awareness is accepted as an area of perennial concern for language teacher educators” (Başyurt Tüzel & Akcan, 2009, p. 272). Nevertheless, this issue awaits more investigation in the literature. Such that, it is a well-known fact that there are concerns

about speaking English or teaching pronunciation among non-native speakers of English (Nation & Newton, 2009). Besides, language teachers somehow avoid teaching writing skills and implementing writing activities in the classroom. This situation might stem from the “complexity” (Matsuda & Silva, 2020; Polio & Kessler, 2020; Weigle, 2014) of the writing skill. Thus, the present study attempts to probe English language student teachers’ concerns about teaching English *per se* during their teacher preparation programme. With regard to second language teachers’ language proficiency, as also echoed by Richards (2017), “limitations in language teachers’ command of their teaching language is an issue that has been a concern in language teacher education for both teachers of English as well as those who teach other second or foreign languages” (p. 8). The present study might be conducive to discerning student teachers’ concerns about teaching English language skills and components, which is an issue that merits further attention, especially from a concerns-based perspective.

Additionally, the role of contextual factors has been little searched (e.g., Regier, 2021). Regier (2021) examined the role of contextual factors in music teacher education programmes. Nevertheless, no study has focused on this issue with English language student teachers. A qualitative inquiry might therefore reveal the role of contextual factors in student teachers’ concerns, thereby burgeoning second language teacher educators’ insight into the development of their concerns during their teaching practices. Some scholars firmly claim that teacher concerns might be “contextual” (Campbell & Thompson, 2007, p. 171), meaning that concerns could vary in different contexts or situations (Fuller & Bown, 1975; O’Connor & Taylor, 1992; Pigge & Marso, 1997). In this regard, teacher concern has been studied in various contexts and countries such as Greece (e.g., Poulou, 2007), the United States (e.g., Berg & Miksza, 2010; Regier, 2021), the Netherlands (e.g., Aarts, et al., 2020; Swennen, et al., 2004), yet only a few studies examined the issue in the Turkish context (e.g., Boz, 2008; Boz & Boz, 2010; Boz & Cetin-Dindar, 2021; Kaygısız & Balçıkanlı, 2021). For instance, Boz (2008) investigated student teachers’ concerns studying in science education and mathematics education programmes and found that student teachers had mostly task-related concerns such as “over-crowded classes, inflexible curricula, rigid instructional outlines, and excessive administrative interruptions”, which might indicate “the main characteristics of classes and the curriculum in Turkey” (p. 375).

Thus, the role of contextual factors in second language student teachers' concerns might vary in Turkey.

Besides, the Covid-19 pandemic has been conducive to a paradigm shift from traditional face-to-face education to distance education (emergency remote teaching or online teaching) recently, and online teaching has become widespread all around the world. Considering that changes in educational paradigms seem inevitable in the near future, teachers of the future are expected to respond to these changes. However, based on the researcher's observation in the Practicum courses, the student teachers had difficulty integrating speaking or writing skills teaching into their online classes. In this sense, teacher education programmes might fall short of imbuing student teachers with how to use cutting-edge online teaching tools in language classrooms. In a study, Farmer and West (2019) explored K-12 teachers' concerns in an online teaching institution and reported a myriad of challenges such as technical problems in the learning management system, the quality of the course content, having no time boundaries in terms of emails and assignments sent by the students, and having no face-to-face interaction with parents or students. In another study carried out with student teachers enrolled in a second language teacher education programme in Turkey, with regard to emergency remote teaching, the findings indicated that "checking students' understanding, drawing students' attention, providing immediate feedback, and developing speaking skills" (Kaygısız & Balçıkanlı, 2021, p. 494) might pose serious pedagogical challenges and concerns in language classrooms. Therefore, it is necessary to uncover the problems student teachers undergo during their practicum experiences in an online teaching platform (i.e., Zoom) and the underlying reasons behind these problems by enlightening the areas they felt concerned about.

1.3. Aim of the Study and Research Questions

The present study attempts to examine English language student teachers' concerns about teaching English in general and teaching language skills and components in particular, to unveil the reasons behind their concerns about teaching English, and to explore the (in)congruence between their concerns and classroom practices in a multiple case study design by employing seven student teachers studying in English Language Teaching

Bachelor of Arts Programme at Gazi University. Student teachers' concerns might stem from their beliefs about language teaching and learning, prior language learning experiences, lack of teaching competencies, English proficiency, or other contextual factors. Given that "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who play a central role in shaping classroom events" (Borg, 2015, p. 1), exploring the reasons behind their concerns during their practicum experiences might provide insights for SLTE programmes. At the heart of this multiple case study thus were three main research questions:

1. What are the student teachers' concerns during their Teaching Practicum experiences?
2. What are the student teachers' concerns about teaching English language skills and components?
 - 2.a. What types of concerns do student teachers have with regard to teaching language skills?
 - 2.b. What types of concerns do student teachers have with regard to teaching language components?
3. To what extent are student teachers' perceived concerns congruent with their observed classroom practices?

1.4. Significance of the Study

The present study aims to contribute to the literature on teacher concern and teaching second language skills and components in English language education in several ways. First of all, the previous literature presents little or no insight into the interplay between student teachers' concerns and their classroom practices. This dissertation research is the first study done on the convergence of teacher concern and classroom practices in an EFL setting, to the best of my knowledge. Therefore, the study aims to fill a significant void in the relevant literature and provide a new perspective for teacher educators by exploring the interplay between student teachers' concerns and classroom practices pertaining to teaching L2 language skills and components.

Secondly, a plethora of studies searched teachers' concerns in different teacher education programmes. Most of these studies have examined the issue from a quantitative

perspective through the Teacher Concerns Checklist (e.g., Boz & Cetin-Dindar, 2021; Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Watzke, 2007). However, in this study, the qualitative paradigm was adopted to explore the dynamics of student teachers' concerns as well as their classroom practices in a more flexible way given that structured data collection tools might "eliminate the very concerns" (Fuller, Parsons, & Watkins, 1974, p. 3) which require observation.

Thirdly, only a limited number of studies has specifically examined English language student teachers' concerns about teaching English (e.g., Kaygısız & Balçıkanlı, 2021; Yalcin Arslan & Ilin, 2018). Nevertheless, when taken together, the theoretical, contextual, and pedagogical background of the issue poses new areas to be examined in the field of second language teacher education. As such, this tripartite framework is required in order to examine the relationship between teacher concerns and classroom practices from a qualitative perspective by exploring the phenomenon to gain deeper insights into what the existing research lacks. As for the theoretical background, Fuller's concerns-based model fails to respond to the dynamic nature of language teachers' concerns. With regard to the contextual background, several studies explored the role of teacher concern in different teacher education programmes and contexts (e.g., Swennen, et al., 2004), yet the existing literature misses its role in the EFL contexts. Finally, with regard to the pedagogical background, there is a dearth of studies focusing on the interplay between English language teachers' concerns and their classroom practices. This pure qualitative study might contribute to the literature by providing an emic perspective on the interplay between teacher concern regarding language skills teaching in an EFL context in general and student teachers' concerns and classroom practices in particular as well as by conjuring up an image of how student teachers conceptualize their concerns about teaching English.

Moreover, teacher concern was mostly "studied in relation to teachers' implicit and tacit knowledge" (Swennen, et al., 2004, p. 267) mostly through interviews. However, this study aimed to sift through student teachers' concerns in the real classroom setting during their practicum experiences. Additionally, the study provides deeper insights into authentic skills teaching and learning situations from a qualitative perspective by drawing upon multiple cases. As also echoed by Campbell and Thompson (2007), in practicum contexts, the qualitative paradigm might "serve to identify and/or clarify possible discrepancies or

relationships between self-report of concerns and concerns “in the moment of teaching” (p. 174). Furthermore, casting light on real-life classroom stories merits further attention in order to delve into what actually happens in language classrooms. Therefore, the study might be conducive to understanding and improving L2 skills and components instruction in EFL classes. Last but certainly not least, I hope the present study will guide the future of second language teacher education programmes based on the assumption that probing student teachers’ concerns might help relieve their concerns and then buttress their self-efficacy beliefs (Boz & Boz; 2010; Boz & Cetin-Dindar, 2021) and resilience for the future.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

As for the limitations of the present study, first of all, this multiple case study is limited to the student teachers enrolled in English Language Teaching B.A. Programme at Gazi University. The findings might therefore fall short of representing other student teachers studying in other universities and in-service English language teachers. Secondly, data were mostly obtained from self-reported data collection tools even though triangulation was established through multiple data collection tools including classroom observations and artefacts. Thus, it might be difficult to explore the student teachers’ most blatant concerns. Finally, the present study was designed as a qualitative multiple case study, and thus the sample size of the study was too small to generalize the findings of the study when compared to the studies adopting the quantitative paradigm. However, the student teachers participating in this study were selected on a representative basis. In so doing, the qualitative research findings might be transferred from one context to another based on “the similarity of the context” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 180).

1.6. Operational Definitions

Concern: It is defined as “issues that lead to worry and anxiety” (Smith, Corkery, Buckley, & Calvert, 2003, p. 60) in the present study.

Teacher concern: Teacher concern refers to teachers’ “perceived problems” (Fuller, 1969, p. 214), and it has been operationalized based on Fuller’s (1969) concerns-based model.

According to the model, all teachers experience the same developmental stages: self-concern, teaching concern (task concern), and pupil concern (impact concern), respectively (Fuller, et al., 1974).

Self-concern: It refers to teachers' concerns about their personal adequacies, teaching competencies, likeability, classroom management, survival in the classroom as well as others' positive or negative comments.

Task concern: It means teachers' concerns about the teaching task or teaching situation such as teaching methods, time management, classroom activities, insufficient classroom time, non-instructional duties, and teaching materials.

Impact (or pupil/student) concern: It represents teachers' concerns about meeting their students' social, psychological, and emotional needs, thereby indicating "a shift in a teacher's focus toward student learning" (Campbell & Thompson, 2007, p. 163). It could be further delineated as teachers' concerns about the effectiveness of their instruction on students' learning in addition to the students' well-being, motivation, and individual differences.

Second language teacher education (SLTE): It aims to "provide opportunities for the novice to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use" (Richards, 1990, p. 15) and train second language teachers "as users and creators of legitimate forms of knowledge who make decisions about how best to teach their L2 [second language] students within complex socially, culturally, and historically situated contexts" (Johnson, 2006, p. 239). Only recently has it become "an umbrella term for language teacher education in TESOL [Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages] (or ELT [English Language Teaching])" (Wright, 2010, p. 260).

Student teachers: It refers to the students or trainees who were enrolled in the English Language Teaching Bachelor of Arts Programme. They completed the methodological courses germane to teaching English language such as Teaching Language Skills, Special Teaching Methods, Teaching English to Young Learners, and Materials Evaluation and Design. Moreover, they completed School Experience in the first semester of fourth year of the programme, and they are completing their teaching practicum (or 'Teaching

Practice' course as referred in the curriculum developed by the Council of Higher Education in Turkey (CoHE) in 1998, 2018) at the time of data collection process.

Teaching practice (or teaching practicum): It has been widely operationalized as “practice teaching, field experience, apprenticeship, practical experience, and internship”, and in essence, it refers to “supervised teaching, experience with systematic observation, and gaining familiarity with a particular teaching context” (Gebhard, 2009, p. 250).

1.7. Organization of the Chapters

The remaining chapters are organized as follows. Chapter 2 provides detailed information about the theoretical background of teacher concern, the role of teaching practice in SLTE, and perceived problems about teaching English language skills and components as well as a review of the relevant empirical studies. Chapter 3 presents the research design and research questions of this dissertation study along with the data collection tools. It further describes the participants and context, the researcher, the data collection procedure, and the process of data analysis. Chapter 4 reports the findings of the content analysis by portraying the cases of the present study in detail as well as the discussion of the findings by referring to the existing literature. Finally, Chapter 5 first summarizes this dissertation study, present implications drawn from the findings for teacher education programmes, and then provide suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. Introduction

The present study aims to explore the interplay between English language student teachers' teaching concerns and their classroom practices during their teaching practicum experiences. More specifically, the study examines i) student teachers' concerns about their teaching practicum, ii) their concerns about teaching second language skills (i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking) and components (i.e., grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary), and iii) the (in)congruence between their teaching concerns and classroom practices. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to explain the theoretical background of the teacher concern as well as a review of the relevant studies. Additionally, the role of teaching practicum, or teaching practice, in second language teacher education programmes and a review of the literature devoted to teaching English language skills and components are covered. The chapter concludes with a summary of the previous research.

2.1. Teacher Concern

Teacher concern plays a major role in pre-service teacher education programmes, and a plethora of studies have focused on the role of teacher concern in various programmes in the last four decades. This section provides information about the theoretical background of teacher concern, namely Fuller's concerns-based model (Fuller, 1969), in order to provide readers with a better insight into the backdrop of the present study. Afterwards, relevant studies are provided.

2.1.1. Fuller's Concerns-based Model

When Fuller (1969) first coined the idea of *teacher concern* based on the empirical literature and clinical observations, she posited two main types of concerns: concern with self and concerns with pupils. The model was originally constructed to explain teacher development (or teaching thinking) and entrenched in two discrete stages following a linear pattern: concern with self and concern with pupils. Accordingly, *concern with self* refers to the concerns about self-adequacy including “class control, subject matter adequacy, finding a place in the power structure of the school and understanding expectations of supervisors, principal and parents” (p. 211). *Concern with pupils* means concerns about “their learning, their progress and with ways in which the teacher could implement this progress” (p. 211). Fuller's concerns-based model has a linear developmental nature since, as firmly argued by Fuller, student teachers are concerned about themselves at the beginning of their student teaching, but later they develop more concerns with pupils. In other words, student teachers first develop concerns about themselves; and once these concerns are resolved, they shift to concerns about their pupils towards the end of student teaching. Likewise, experienced teachers are less concerned about maintaining classroom discipline or receiving criticisms from administrators, but they are more concerned about their pupils' learning process and success or failure.

In 1974, Fuller, Parsons, and Watkins re-conceptualized teacher concern after performing content analysis on the data which included 1359 teacher concerns statements. Based on the ensuing findings, they offered three major categories of concerns: self-concern, teaching concern, and pupil concern. Within this framework, *self-concern* refers to “survival dimension” (p. 41) in which teachers are concerned about their own adequacy as a teacher and their concerns about their teaching performance and survival skills in the classroom. This dimension is more closely related to pre-service teachers than in-service teachers. *Teaching concern* or task concern (Fuller & Bown, 1975) refers to concerns about the teaching process itself in terms of teaching performance and content to be taught. Finally, *pupil concern* or impact concern (Fuller & Bown, 1975) means concerns about the students' needs and benefits. Fuller and her colleagues highlighted the stark contrast between in-service and pre-service teachers' concerns by claiming that in-service teachers held more pupil concerns whereas pre-service teachers held more self-concerns. They further posited that there was a linear relationship between these concern types as

previously mentioned; however, all three types of concern aimed at explaining both in-service and pre-service teachers' concerns. In other words, pre-service student teachers hold mostly self-concerns, but in-service teachers go through different types of concerns respectively. Predicated on this model, a significant body of research studies have been conducted to date. Nevertheless, this model does not suffice to explain the complex nature of teaching development (Watzke, 2007). Therefore, a wide range of qualitative data collection tools have been developed for the present study by the researcher based on the existing literature and the sub-factors discussed in recent studies (e.g., Aarts, Kools, & Schildwacht, 2020; Borich, 1992, 2017; Swennen, Jörg, & Korthagen, 2004, Watzke, 2007).

First of all, the Teacher Concern Checklist (TCC) is an encompassing questionnaire developed by Borich (1992, 2000, 2017), and it is still prevalently used in the literature to examine both student teachers' and in-service teachers' concerns. There are 45 close-ended items in the questionnaire (Borich, 2017) with regard to self, task, and impact concerns, and each concern type included fifteen items. The interview questions prepared for the present study were partially predicated on these items juxtaposed in Table 1 (Borich, 2017, p. 421).

Table 1

Items related to Self, Task, and Impact Concerns

Self-Concern	Task Concern	Impact Concern
2. Whether students respect me	1. Having insufficient clerical help	5. Helping students to value learning
4. Doing well when I'm observed	3. Having too many extra duties and responsibilities	15. Increasing students' feelings of accomplishment
8. Managing my time efficiently	6. Having insufficient time for rest and class preparation	17. Diagnosing students' learning problems
9. Losing the respect of my peers	7. Not having enough assistance from specialized teachers	19. Whether each student is reaching his or her potential
13. My ability to prepare adequate lesson plans	10. Not having enough time for grading and testing	22. Recognizing the social and emotional needs of students
14. Having my inadequacies become known to other teachers	11. The inflexibility of the curriculum	23. Challenging unmotivated students
18. What the principal may think if there is too much noise in my classroom	12. Too many standards and regulations set for teachers	29. Understanding why certain students make slow progress
20. Obtaining a favorable evaluation of my teaching	16. The rigid instructional routine	34. Understanding ways in which student health and nutrition problems can affect learning
24. Losing the respect of my students	21. Having too many students in a class	36. Meeting the needs of different kinds of students
26. My ability to maintain the appropriate degree of class control	25. Lack of public support for schools	37. Seeking alternative ways to ensure that students learn the subject matter
28. Getting students to behave	27. Not having sufficient time to plan	38. Understanding the psychological and cultural differences that can affect my students' behavior
30. Having an embarrassing incident occur in my classroom for which I might be judged responsible	31. Not being able to cope with disruptive students in my classes	39. Adapting to the needs of different students
32. That my peers may think I am not doing an adequate job	33. My ability to work with disruptive students	41. Guiding students toward intellectual and emotional growth
35. Appearing competent to parents	40. The large number of administrative interruptions	43. Whether students can apply what they learn
44. Teaching effectively when another teacher is present	42. Working with too many students each day	45. Understanding what factors motivate students to learn

According to the categorization of teacher concern reported in Watzke (2007, p. 111), self-concerns include “professional development, performance appraisal, school policies and culture, relations with students”; task concerns encompasses “adequacy of instructional

materials/curriculum, instructional deterrents to teaching, classroom conduct, non-instructional demands on time, student personal problems, and professional (instructional) freedom”. Finally, impact concerns comprise “student academic growth, student motivation, student social-emotional growth, and individual student differences”. Furthermore, Swennen and her colleagues (2004) designed a card sorting instrument based on the questionnaire above. In addition to these three categories of concern frequently discussed, they proposed overall educational concerns as another essential factor which highlighted the role of the contextual dimension in teacher concern, and each sub-factor of teacher concern comprised four main items (p. 270). Accordingly, self-concerns included such items as “whether the pupil like me or not, getting a favorable evaluation from my mentor, pupils who disrupt my class, and becoming a good teacher”. Task concerns consisted of “selecting and teaching content well, the socio-pedagogical climate, too many pupils in one class, and adequately presenting all of the required material”. Besides, impact concerns included “diagnosing pupils with learning problems, being fair and impartial, adapting myself to the needs of different pupils, and motivating pupils to learn”. Finally, overall educational concerns encompassed “lack of freedom to initiate innovative instruction, staff collaboration, too many non-instructional duties, and inadequate teaching salaries”. It is noteworthy to take these factors into consideration while planning a study to conjure up a holistic perspective into the dynamics of teacher concern especially given that the close-ended items above might provide a comprehensive but restricting framework to delve into the issue.

In addition, Aarts, Kools, and Schildwacht (2020) further expanded these categories of concerns especially for beginning teachers under four main headings as follows (p. 279):

Self as capable professional

- Appearance, identity, and relationships with supervisors and students (‘do they like me, accept me?’)
- Professional freedom and autonomy
- Professional development and performance appraisal
- Self-efficacy

Tasks in teaching

- Classroom organization and discipline
- Workload and time management
- Non-instructional demands on time like attending meetings and administration

Impact on students

- Motivating students
- Dealing with individual differences

Concerns that cannot be categorized into the main categories of Fuller's model

- Relationships with colleagues and working together in a team/department
- Relationships with parents
- School bureaucracy
- Lack of support and the feeling of being left on your own to succeed or fail within the confines of the classroom

Based on the categorizations above, classroom or behavior management fell into the category of either task concern or self-concern. As such “instructional deterrents to teaching”, “classroom conduct” (Watzke, 2007), and “classroom organization and discipline” (Aarts, et al., 2020) were categorized under task concern whereas “pupils who disrupt my class” (Swennen, et al., 2004), “my ability to maintain the appropriate degree of class control”, and “getting students to behave” (Borich, 1992, 2017) were categorized under self-concern. Besides, “having too many pupils in one class” was categorized under task concern. Considering that maintaining the classroom discipline is closely related to teachers’ management skills and the number of the classroom size is determined by a macro-level mechanism, in this study, this distinction was kept in mind. To wit, classroom management was regarded as self-concern whereas classroom size was regarded as a task-related concern.

Last but not least, it is of primary importance to underline that Miksza and Berg (2013) carried out a longitudinal study employing eight student teachers enrolled in a music education programme throughout a period of one year and six months, and they expanded Fuller’s concerns-based model by juxtaposing the following critical arguments (p. 58):

1. Although a shift in emphasis seems to occur generally from self to task to student-impact concerns, no concerns categories “disappear” over time.
2. Concerns categories seem to be overlapping.
3. The extent to which concerns categories overlap may shift over time.
4. Context, and whether a context is new or familiar, will interact with any shift in concerns due to attentional resources being devoted to one dimension or another.
5. The developmental trajectory is likely multidimensional:
 - a. Self-concerns generally diminish with experience, although they may resurface in minor ways as comfort in a context is disturbed (i.e., change in setting).
 - b. Task concerns (a) grow initially as teachers begin to analyze what is necessary to work in the setting they are in, (b) diminish as teachers are able to automatize task-related issues that seem to them to be productive, and (c) will reappear as a primary emphasis of concern if or when a teacher has to adapt to a new context (i.e., attentional resources need to be brought to teaching tasks once again).
 - c. Student concerns [impact concern] (a) become the primary emphasis when enough experience is accrued to settle teacher concerns and when the tasks necessary to operate in a particular context are somewhat automated due to familiarity and mastery (or at least perceived familiarity or mastery) but (b) may diminish when attentional resources are shifted back to self or task concerns due to changes in context.

With this background in mind, the next section fleshes out the major studies carried out employing both in-service and pre-service teachers.

2.1.2. Studies on Teacher Concern

After Fuller (1969)’s article sparked off an interest in the field of teacher education, a bulk of studies on teacher concern have mushroomed in the literature. In an oft-cited study, Reeves and Kazelskis (1985) conducted an inquiry into teacher concern of 128 student teachers and 90 experienced teachers working in different schools located in the southern region of Mississippi. Data were collected using the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire, which included three types of concerns previously discussed, developed by George (1978). The findings indicated that both student teachers and experienced in-service teachers held

higher impact concerns than self-concerns or task concerns. Additionally, there was no difference between experienced teachers' levels of self- and task-related concerns. However, student teachers had greater levels of self-concerns than task concerns. Moreover, there was no difference between student teachers' and experienced teachers' levels of task concern.

Marso and Pigge (1989) investigated the role of teaching experience in student teachers' and in-service teachers' attitudes towards teaching and their concerns employing three different groups of student teachers and three different groups of in-service teachers as well as the interplay among these two constructs (attitude and concerns), teaching field, and gender. The study was carried out in Ohio, the USA, and a total of 1193 student teachers and in-service teachers from different fields such as elementary and secondary education, special education, and music education participated in the study through random selection. Data were gathered via the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire developed by George (1978), the Attitude Toward Teaching as a Career Scale, and a demographic information questionnaire including items about teaching field and gender. The overall findings showed that as teachers gained teaching experience, their self-concerns decreased whereas their task-related concerns increased once they started teaching. These findings partially supported Fuller's concerns-based model. However, both student teachers' and experienced teachers' impact concerns remained stable and the highest across all the groups. Besides, experienced teachers were concerned about "feeling under pressure on the job and having too many non-instructional duties" (p. 38) whereas student teachers were mainly concerned about "maintaining class control and the presence of a superior" (p. 38). Finally, there was a relationship between teachers' concerns and attitudes towards the profession and the teaching field and gender. More specifically, female teachers felt more positive towards the teaching profession than male teachers. There were also changes in teachers' levels of concerns based on their teaching fields.

In addition, O'Connor and Taylor (1992) examined student teachers' concerns at the beginning and at the end of their teacher education programme. 171 student teachers, who majored in different teacher education programmes such as music, English language, mathematics, and social science at California State University, the USA, participated in the study. Data came from the Teacher Concerns Checklist (developed by Fuller & Borich, 1974; revised by Borich & Rogan, 1989). This questionnaire was administered to the

student teachers twice before and after their student teaching experience. The findings demonstrated that student teachers held mostly impact concerns such as encouraging unmotivated students, promoting students' intellectual development, and exploring alternative ways to facilitate students learn the subject matter. Based on these findings, the researchers intimately put forward that student teachers might "have their hearts and minds in the right place" (p. 23). Nevertheless, they further argued that student teachers might be concerned about the students' low motivation they observed in the actual classrooms since they could "see the difficult challenge which lies ahead of them as they enter the teaching profession" (p. 23). Finally, student teachers had task concerns such as having too many students in the classroom, their competencies to deal with the disruptive students, and lack of sufficient time for classroom preparation and planning as well as self-concerns such as using time efficiently and having a teaching position after graduation.

In another study, drawing upon the qualitative paradigm, Guillaume and Rudney (1993) searched student teachers' concerns and the changes in their concerns over time in a year-long study. To this end, 19 elementary student teachers participated in the study. The study was carried out at the University of California, and data came from student teachers' reflective journals in which they reflected upon their teaching and shared their thoughts and concerns regarding their classroom teaching experiences. Based on the data analysis, six different categories of teacher concern were determined: i) lesson planning and evaluation, ii) discipline, iii) working with pupils, iv) working with cooperating teachers and adjusting to their classrooms, v) working with others in the profession, and vi) transition from student to professional teacher. Accordingly, student teachers' concerns about lesson planning diminished whereas their concerns about discipline, or classroom management, remained stable throughout the whole data collection process. Besides, they were concerned about their relationships with both the students and cooperating teachers throughout the year. On the other hand, their concerns about the others in terms of others in the profession, parental involvement, and parents' opinions were high at the beginning yet diminished toward the end of the year. Furthermore, they felt more adequate and gained confidence in the teaching profession toward the end of the year. Finally, with regard to the changes in teacher concern, the findings showed that student teachers developed "independence from student into teacher" (p. 70) over time, thereby experiencing a transition from student role to teacher role. Considering these findings, the researcher

marked that student teachers developed multiple concerns simultaneously rather than following a linear development pattern posited by Fuller (1969).

Pigge and Marso (1997) conducted a longitudinal study throughout a seven-year period to examine teachers' developmental processes of teacher concern discussed in Fuller's model during their two-year period of teacher preparation and beginning years of their teaching practice over five years. Additionally, the relationship between their concerns and university grade point averages, gender, personality traits, their teaching performance graded by the university supervisors, teaching fields, their presence and absence in family, American College Test scores, and locus of control tendencies were also investigated. To explore the developmental changes in student teachers' self-, task, and impact concerns, the Teacher Concerns Questionnaire (George, 1978) was administered employing 60 teachers at four different points in their professional career: at the beginning of teacher preparation, at the end of teaching practicum, at the end of third and fifth years of their teaching experience respectively. The findings revealed that teachers developed task concerns and their self-concerns diminished as they gained experience in teaching as argued in Fuller (1969). On the contrary, their impact concerns were stable and higher than both self- and task concerns in four different assessments. The researchers attributed the reasons behind these changes or lack of changes to teachers' grade point averages. As such, the teachers with the highest grade point averages had higher self-concerns at the beginning of their teacher preparation, yet their self-concerns diminished after they experienced success in actual classroom teaching.

Likewise, Burn, Hagger, Mutton, and Everton (2003) studied the adequacy of Fuller's concerns-based model in explaining the development of teacher concern by employing twenty-five student teachers studying in English language, mathematics, and science education programmes. The study was carried out in England, and the student teachers were enrolled in one-year Post Graduate Certificate of Education courses for secondary school teachers. Within the course, they taught four lessons at different times throughout the year, and their teaching practices were observed. Following each practice, they participated in an interview session in which they commented on or evaluated their performance in addition to explaining the rationale behind their planning of the lessons. The findings focused on the reasons behind their practices and their evaluations of their practices. Accordingly, the student teachers had the highest level of concerns pertaining to

the pupils' progress and achievement. They were concerned about the pupils' emotions such as enthusiasm, motivation, and confidence, the pupils' behaviors and actions, and developing a positive relationship with them. Besides, they were also concerned about their own learning to teach process in terms of developing their teaching skills, yet this concern diminished in time. On the other hand, their concerns about the pupils' achievement increased towards the end of the year. Of particular interest was the fact that student teachers were cognizant of "the complex nature of teaching" (p. 317). In other words, "they were conscious of a wide range of conditions impinging on what they could and should do" (p. 319). Moreover, the researchers run counter to the simplistic linear nature of the development of teacher concern by advocating its simultaneous development and the complexity of teacher thinking.

Conway and Clark (2003) similarly probed the adequacy of Fuller's hierarchical concerns-based model in understanding the nature of teacher development. To this end, six student teachers, in their fifth year of the teacher education programme, were interviewed three times about their hopes and fear (the combination of both was construed as possible selves in the study). In this regard, teacher fear was likened to teacher concern, and hope was regarded as a "counterpoint to concerns and fears" (p. 467). The study spanned over a two-semester period during their practicum experience, six months in total, and it was carried out at Michigan State University in the USA. Drawing upon "anticipatory reflection or future-oriented reflection" (p. 468) of student teachers, data came from interview sessions carried out one-to-one as well as focus group interviews. The findings revealed that teachers' developmental processes followed an outward movement by underpinning a shift from self-concerns to task concerns and later to impact concerns as in Fuller's original model. However, the researcher further pointed to an inward trajectory claiming that student teachers developed self-knowledge, self-organization, and self-development respectively. More specifically, four participants went through an outward movement whereas two participants experienced an inward movement. For instance, a participant was concerned about curriculum and instruction at the very beginning, then he developed concerns regarding children, and finally his concerns shifted to self-concerns. Given these findings, the researchers re-conceptualized teacher development postulating the existence of a bidirectional nature in the developmental process.

In another study, Swennen, Jörg, and Korthagen (2004) examined student teachers' concerns before and after their first year of teaching practice period and explored whether drawing was a reliable data collection tool to reveal their mental images of teaching practice or not. The study was carried out with 37 first-year student teachers majoring in primary education in a Dutch teacher education institute. The data were gathered using a card sorting instrument, student teachers' drawings, and interviews. For the study, the researchers developed a card sorting instrument based on Fuller and Borich's (1988) Teacher Concern Checklist. The instrument included 16 items written on a set of cards, and students were asked to rank the cards according to their perceived concerns. Additionally, student teachers were asked to draw themselves by imagining their teaching practice situation at the beginning and at the end of their teaching practice period. Finally, six of them participated in a semi-structured interview session to clarify the nuances in their drawings and their rankings in the card sorting instrument. The card sorting instrument included four main categories: a) self-concerns, b) instructional concerns, c) pupils' needs concerns, and d) overall educational concerns. The findings from the card sorting instrument showed that student teachers were highly concerned about the pupils' needs, and then they mostly held instructional concerns. However, their self-concerns and overall educational concerns were found quite low. More specifically, they were concerned about three important issues: selecting and teaching content well, motivating students to learn, and adapting themselves to the students' needs. In addition, the findings from their drawings pointed to eight different areas of concerns: i) a cozy classroom atmosphere, ii) the pupils and their feelings, iii) maintaining discipline in the classroom, iv) mentors' opinions, v) pupils' learning, vi) matters outside the classroom such as colleagues, parents, and neighborhood, vii) (concerns about) themselves as teachers, and finally viii) their decision to become a teacher. Nevertheless, their concerns about their mentors' opinions diminished over time. Succinctly, student teachers mostly held pupils' concerns and then instructional concerns whereas they had fewer concerns with regard to self-concerns or overall educational concerns. Based on the findings, the researchers posited "a move from a more idealized view of teaching towards a more realistic view" (p. 278), which means that student teachers become less romantic about teaching as they experience teaching (Fuller & Bown, 1975).

Campbell and Thompson (2007) investigated student teachers' concerns as well as the relationship between their concerns and their current level in the programme (introduction to music education, methods class, field experience-practicum, or student teaching), gender, teaching interest (such as choir, band, orchestra, or general music), and desired teaching levels. To this end, 1121 student teachers, who were studying in a music education programme, participated in the study from 16 different institutions located in the USA. Data were collected in four different points using the teacher concerns checklist (TCC) developed by Borich (2000).^{*} The findings indicated that field experience students had significantly higher self-concerns than that of methods class students. Similarly, field experience students had significantly higher task concerns than that of introduction to music education students. Furthermore, field experience students had significantly higher impact concerns than that of student teaching students. The researchers underscored that these findings contradicted the premise of linear development of teacher concern. Besides, the findings also showed a statistically significant difference between student teachers' concerns and gender. However, there was no significant relationship between concerns and teaching interest. Finally, as for the desired teaching levels, only those preferring early childhood expressed higher levels of concern when compared to the other groups.

Furthermore, Poulou (2007) studied student teachers' concerns after their teaching practice. A total of 59 fourth-year students who were enrolled in the Elementary Education Department at a Greek university participated in the study. They were asked to write reflective journals for five weeks after their teaching experience by reflecting upon their concerns about the teaching process, concerns about the teaching profession, and their emotions about the teaching process. Data were analyzed through content analysis based on these three guiding frames. The findings indicated that student teachers were concerned about classroom management and teaching subject at the very beginning of their teaching sessions, but their concerns decreased later on. They were further concerned about "the essential qualities of teachers such as empathy, compassion, understanding, flexibility, tolerance, love of children, and whether the teaching profession actually suits them as well as the competencies and skills needed for classroom management" (p. 102). In addition, they held concerns with regard to the fear of professional fading owing to the repetitive nature of the teaching itself as well as 'future-oriented concerns' which mean keeping

^{*}There are different versions of the same questionnaire (Borich, 1992, 2017, elsewhere)

motivation and passion for teaching in the future. Last but certainly not least, the findings run counter to Fuller's linear development of teacher concern based on the claim that there is "a complex and multi-faceted nature" (p. 103) in student teachers' thinking.

Watzke (2007) carried out a longitudinal study on teacher development employing beginning teachers throughout two years in which the adequacy of Fuller's linear concerns-based model was scrutinized in terms of explaining teacher development. The participants were 79 beginning teachers working at different schools in the USA. Data came from the teacher concerns checklist (TCC) that was applied systematically at six different points throughout two years of full-time teaching. The findings demonstrated that impact concern was found highest in all measurements whereas self- and task concerns decreased or remained almost in the same levels. With regard to impact concerns, the beginning teachers held the highest concerns about students' "academic growth" and "motivation" (p. 111) over two years, yet their concerns about students' socio-emotional situation and individual differences diminished in time. As for task concerns, "classroom conduct" which includes "disruptive students, lack of respect from students, and maintaining control of the classroom" (p. 111) was rated highest, but it decreased in time. Finally, self-concern was found high at the beginning but diminished thanks to teaching experience. Based on these findings, the researcher argued that beginning teachers developed "complex and student-oriented thinking" (p. 118) rather than following a linear developmental pattern.

Boz (2008) investigated student teachers' concerns and analyzed how their concerns differed among different grades. The participants were 339 student teachers studying in science education and mathematics education programmes in two different Turkish universities, and they were first graders ($n=80$), second graders ($n=74$), third graders ($n=71$), fourth graders ($n=60$), and fifth graders ($n=54$). Data were collected quantitatively through the teacher concerns checklist (TCC) developed by Borich (1992). The overall findings demonstrated that student teachers had mostly task-related concerns rather than self or impact concerns. These task-related concerns included "having too many students in a class, lack of public support for schools, the large number of administrative interruptions, the inflexibility of the curriculum, and the rigid instructional outline" (p. 374). Besides, the student teachers held self and impact concerns simultaneously unlike Fuller's (1969) linear developmental model of teacher concerns. Additionally, fifth-graders had fewer self-concerns when compared to second and third graders, and this difference was statistically

significant. With regard to task and impact concerns, on the other hand, there were no statistically significant differences among different grades. Based on these findings, the researcher posited that experience helps to decrease teachers' self-concerns as also stated by Fuller (1969).

Additionally, Çakmak (2008) searched student teachers' concerns about the teaching process as well as the relationship between their concerns, gender, and teaching fields. Data were collected from 156 fourth-grade student teachers studying in different teacher education programmes at Gazi University, Turkey, through a questionnaire developed by the researcher in addition to an open-ended item asking about their concerns about the teaching process. The findings showed that student teachers were mostly concerned about classroom management. Following that, they were also concerned about drawing students' attention, motivating them, and adapting their lessons in accordance with the students' level, using time effectively, and the classroom size. Finally, there was no significant relationship between their concerns and gender whereas their concerns varied depending on their teaching fields.

Berg and Miksza (2010) explored the development of student teachers' concerns by capitalizing on Fuller's concerns-based model. Eleven student teachers majoring in music education programme at an American university participated in the study. At the time of data collection, student teachers were completing their practicum course, and the data came from a wide range of tools including a goals essay and a reflection on this essay, two self-evaluation reports of teaching, two teaching videos, and two lesson plans. The analysis of the data revealed that student teachers mostly held task concerns such as "adequate levels of knowledge about teaching, familiarity with repertoire, and conducting-related issues" (p. 45) in addition to time planning. With regard to self-concerns, student teachers were mostly concerned about rapport, personality, and adapting to the practicum setting. Besides, they further developed impact concerns in terms of motivating students and affecting them as individuals. The overall findings showed that task concern was ranked the highest category of concern throughout the practicum experience when compared to self- or impact concerns. Besides, it remained as the most pervasive one. Additionally, as a student teacher with prior teaching experience developed more impact concerns, the researchers posited that prior teaching experience might have exerted an impact on student teachers' concerns. Last but not least, the findings of the study run counter to Fuller's

hierarchical development of teacher concern. The researchers attributed the reason behind this implication to the fact that participants in their study “had more teaching experience than Fuller’s (1969) student teachers” (p. 53).

In another study predicated on the quantitative paradigm, Boz and Boz (2010) examined the relationship between student teachers’ concerns and self-efficacy beliefs. Data were collected from 339 student teachers enrolled in science education and mathematics education programmes in two different universities located in Turkey through two questionnaires: the teacher concerns checklist (TCC) developed by Borich (1992) and the teachers’ sense of efficacy scale developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2001). The findings showed that teacher concern was negatively related to self-efficacy beliefs, which means that student teachers with lower self-efficacy beliefs had more concerns. In other words, student teachers who had fewer concerns held higher self-efficacy beliefs. Another important finding was that student teachers who held higher impact concerns had lower self-efficacy beliefs “in terms of classroom management, instructional strategies, and student engagement” (p. 288). Based on these findings, the researchers put forward that “high confidence in one’s ability to teach was negatively correlated with teaching concerns” (p. 288).

Hagger and Malmberg (2011) investigated the interplay between student teachers’ concern, ideographic professionally-related goals, future-time extension of the goals, and well-being (depression and self-esteem). The study was carried out with 88 student teachers enrolled in a one-year Post Graduate Certificate in Education course for secondary school teachers at Oxford University, England. They were trained in different programmes such as modern foreign language, mathematics, and history. Data were gathered using the hopes and fears questionnaire, and this instrument was altered to determine student teachers’ professional goals, future-time extension of their goals, and finally their concerns. Besides, two standardized well-being scales focusing on self-esteem and depression were utilized. Based on the data analysis, thirteen common categories were identified for both goals and concerns, and two additional categories were determined with reference to concerns. The findings indicated that student teachers were mostly concerned about behavior management, and they held career-related concerns in terms of finding a job and maintaining their career. Additionally, they had a high level of self-concerns which were related to “an elevated level of depression” (p. 604). Finally, there was an association

between student teachers' stated goals and concerns. As such, "those who expressed more goals also expressed more concerns" (p. 606).

Miksza and Berg (2013) examined the development of student teachers' concerns in a longitudinal study. The study was carried out with eight student teachers studying in a music education programme over a period of one year and six months. Data came from essays, electronic journals, a growth plan, teaching observation reports written by a university supervisor, and lesson plans. Student teachers wrote three essays wherein they stated their goals at the beginning of the first semester, at the beginning of the second semester, and at the end of their student teaching. They completed four journals based on the prompts provided by the researchers. The findings demonstrated that student teachers' self- and task concerns diminished while their impact concerns increased throughout the data collection process. Nevertheless, four sub-categories of their self-concerns including "rapport, personality, identity (e.g., sense of self as teaching professional), and adapting" (p. 49) remained stable over time. In this regard, rapport was operationalized as "worries that the participants had about their own abilities to develop rapport" (p. 52), and personality was construed as "demonstrate[ing] teacher personality characteristics" (p. 55). Moreover, their concerns with regard to "communication, evaluation from others, peer and colleague interactions, and maintaining work-home balance were no longer apparent after the start of student teaching" (p. 49) were prevalent only at the beginning of the student teaching. However, they developed concerns regarding remembering students' names and being the authority figure later on. Besides, the number of their task concerns was found higher than their self- and impact concerns throughout the whole process. These task concerns included "teaching knowledge, instrument-specific techniques, rehearsal-teaching strategies, classroom management strategies, pacing, planning, age- and ability-appropriate strategies, and repertoire selection" (p. 49-50). On the other hand, concerns for time management disappeared in time whereas clarity of instruction came out later on. As for impact concerns, although the number of impact concerns was limited, students' motivation and "differentiation of instruction for individuals and groups" (p. 51) were stated repeatedly over time. Furthermore, as student teachers' self-concerns decreased whereas their impact concerns increased over time, the findings of the study partially supported Fuller's model, yet the researchers have alleged that "no category of concern

ever will be likely to disappear altogether” (p. 57). They further added that “music teacher development may interact significantly with contextual change” (p. 57).

Powell (2013) studied the development of student teachers’ concerns and the differentiating roles of peer- and field-teaching in their concerns based on Fuller’s concerns-based model. The participants were 12 fourth-year student teachers enrolled in a music education programme at an American public university. The student teachers carried out two peer-teaching episodes in a lab and two field-teaching episodes in a public school throughout a semester. Each episode spanned almost ten minutes and was video-recorded. After each episode, the student teachers participated in a video-assisted stimulated-recall interview session, a total of 48 sessions. The findings showed that task concerns were ranked the highest in all the four teaching episodes, yet the frequencies of task concerns diminished from the first episode to the fourth episode. Then, self-concern was reported as the second highest category of teacher concern. Additionally, impact concerns were reported the least across all four teaching episodes, but their frequencies increased from the first field-teaching episode to the second field-teaching episode. Finally, student teachers expressed that peer teaching was more challenging and stressful than field teaching since “they were afraid of making errors in front of the peer group and of being judged harshly by their classmates” (p. 372).

In a mixed-method study, Smith, Corkery, Buckley, and Calvert (2013) explored the effect of student teachers’ practicum experiences on the changes of their concerns as well as the relationship between their concerns and self-efficacy beliefs. The study was carried out by employing 85 student teachers enrolled in a secondary school teaching training programme in New Zealand over a year. Data were collected both qualitatively and quantitatively through a demographic questionnaire, a self-efficacy scale, a concerns about teaching scale, and focus group interviews including semi-structured items. The participants filled in the scales three times throughout the year and then participated in a focus-group interview session after each administration of the scales, three sets of interviews in total. The quantitative findings indicated that student teachers’ concerns about teaching decreased significantly towards the middle of the data collection process, and they developed a more realistic perspective into teaching. Additionally, there was a significant relationship between student teachers’ concerns and self-efficacy beliefs, yet this relationship was low. Nevertheless, it was a significant finding that teaching experience

contributed to both fostering their confidence and self-efficacy and diminishing their concerns over time. Besides, the findings from the focus-group interviews sessions pointed to seven areas of concerns (p. 68-69): i) underestimating the role of the teacher, ii) teaching to all levels/abilities, iii) classroom management, iv) being a professional v) acceptance as a teacher/building rapport with student, vi) work/life balance and time management, and vii) assessment (due to lack of training). More specifically, “creating and delivering engaging lessons” (p. 69) was more challenging for student teachers than they anticipated. They were concerned about designing lessons based on their students’ needs, individual differences, and levels. They were further concerned about classroom management throughout the data collection process. Moreover, they developed concerns about “professionalism” over time; as such, they became cognizant of the fact that they needed to experience a shift from student role to the teacher role.

Yalcin Arslan and Ilin (2018) searched the role of teaching practicum in the development of student teachers’ concerns. Data were collected using a scale designed to explore the student-teachers’ concerns about teaching (scale of language teachers’ concerns), teaching practice concerns sheets, and narrative reflections throughout ten weeks. The quantitative data came from 124 fourth-year student teachers majoring in a second language teacher education programme in Turkey. Besides, five student teachers provided qualitative data through narrative reflections. The scale for language teachers’ concerns was applied after the student teachers completed their methodology courses offered in the programme as well as at the beginning and at the end of their teaching practice whereas teaching practice concerns sheets were applied before and after each teaching practice session. The findings indicated that there was a significant difference between the student teachers’ concerns before and after their teaching practicum. They were concerned about students’ learning and maintaining classroom discipline. Besides, they held concerns with regard to time management and putting theory into practice in the beginning, yet they gained more confidence at the end of teaching practice.

In an online teaching context, Farmer and West (2019) revealed K-12 teachers’ concerns about their online teaching experiences in an interpretative phenomenological analysis study. Data were collected employing seven teachers working in an online K-12 institution located in the United States. They were purposefully selected among novice and experienced teachers to examine the role of teaching experience in the development of

their concerns. Data came from two interviews sessions and five or seven journal entries completed bi-monthly. As for the findings of the study, first of all, teachers had such “personal concerns” (p. 105) as uncertainty about the future of their jobs and a lack of time for the required tasks. Secondly, they had concerns about “responsibility” (p. 107) in terms of the lack of control over the content of the courses and having no time boundaries in grading assignments. Thirdly, they had instructional concerns with regard to the technological problems in the learning management system and the lack of quality of the course content. Fourth, as to “experience” (p. 109), they were concerned about students’ late enrollment in the class, students’ slow progress or poor attendance, and students’ stated difficulties in understanding the course content. Fifth, they were concerned about student mentors and students’ own concerns including learning disabilities and socio-economic issues. Finally, they had concerns such as limited communication with students, physical distance, and having no face-to-face interaction with parents or students. Additionally, experienced teachers held a high level of self-concerns and instructional concerns, and both novice and experienced teachers developed a significant number of impact concerns. Based on the findings, the researcher marked that the development of the teachers’ concerns showed no “regular and predictable sequence” (p. 114).

Recently, Aarts, Kools, and Schildwacht (2020) studied thirty-five beginning secondary school teachers’ concerns about the induction programmes in schools, which guide and assist beginning teachers, in the Netherlands. More specifically, they aimed to examine the effectiveness of these programmes drawing upon teachers’ concerns and experiences. To this end, 35 in-service teachers participated in the study. Nineteen of them were in the first year of their teaching profession whereas the other sixteen teachers were in the second year. Data were collected through an online questionnaire including both open-ended and close-ended items about their concerns, the induction activities, and their learning experiences. Data were analyzed qualitatively, and a coding scheme was developed for the study. The findings of the study indicated that first-year teachers held more concerns about teaching the curriculum (task concerns) than second-year teachers. Specifically speaking, first-year teachers were more concerned about classroom management and adapting their lessons to the students’ needs whereas second-year teachers were more concerned about their relationships with the students and school organization in terms of coping with the overload of the non-teaching tasks. Besides, both groups held self-concerns; to wit, they

were concerned about their role as a teacher. However, neither first-year teachers nor second-year teachers were concerned about the “relationships with colleagues and school leaders” or “dealing with the community and parents” (p. 286). Based on these findings, the researchers argued that there was a “bidirectional development process” (p. 290) among the types of concerns. As such, there was a movement from task-concern to the school organization as an outward movement and then to the self-concern as an inward movement.

Aktan, Toraman, and Orakçı (2020) examined the relationships among teachers’ professional values, attitudes, and concerns about the teaching profession by using a relational screening model. The participants were 712 in-service teachers working at different schools in Düzce, Turkey. The data came from three questionnaires: the professional values scale for teaching profession, anxiety scale for teaching profession, and attitude scale for teaching profession. Based on the findings, there was a significant and negative relationship between teachers’ concerns and values. Likewise, teachers’ concerns and attitudes were significantly and negatively related. Accordingly, teachers having higher professional values and attitudes held less professional concerns. Consequently, teachers’ concerns exert a strong negative impact on teachers’ values and attitudes towards the teaching profession, which might in turn lead to “professional failures” (p. 405).

More recently, in a structural equation modelling study, Boz and Cetin-Dindar (2021) investigated the relationships among student teachers’ teacher concerns, self-efficacy beliefs, and constructivist learning environment (a preference for classroom learning environment). The study was carried out employing 623 student teachers majoring in science education from 67 different public universities in Turkey. Data were collected through three questionnaires: teacher concerns checklist (TCC), which was developed by Borich (1992) and adapted into Turkish by Boz (2008), constructivist learning environment survey (CLES), and teachers’ sense of efficacy scale (TSES). The findings of the study indicated that all three constructs were related to each other. In other words, there was a significant and negative relationship between teaching concerns and self-efficacy beliefs, and they both were effective in creating a constructivist learning environment. Moreover, student teachers with higher task and impact concerns were more inclined to create a constructivist classroom environment in the future. Based on this finding, the researchers

posited that student teachers who held higher task concerns and higher self-efficacy beliefs cared about “students’ meaningful and effective learning” (p. 14).

Kaygısız and Balçıkanlı (2021) unveiled student teachers’ concerns about teaching English in an educational remote teaching platform. Data were gathered from sixty-eight student teachers, who were second-graders enrolled in a second language teacher education programme, through written reflective journals. The participants were asked to watch English language courses designed for this platform and reflect on their opinions and feelings about teaching English. Data were content analyzed, and the findings showed that student teachers were mostly concerned about task-related factors such as “having limited social interaction, checking students’ understanding, drawing students’ attention, monitoring active participation, providing immediate feedback, developing speaking skills” (p. 494). Besides, they were concerned about students’ emotions although they had little or no teaching experience. The overall findings indicated that student teachers could develop different types of concerns simultaneously.

In another study, Regier (2021) examined the role of experiences and contextual factors on student teachers’ concerns and self-efficacy. Data were collected from four student teachers, who were enrolled in a music teacher education programme in the United States, qualitatively in a case study design. Data collection tools included an open-ended self-efficacy questionnaire, interviews, online journal entries, and the researcher journal. Student teachers wrote ten weekly online journals (five of them were written before the teaching practice and the other five were written during the teaching practice) in total, and interview sessions were held with each participant at the end of the teaching practice. Three main themes emerged from the data: a) contextual familiarity impacted self-efficacy and concerns, b) changing and clustered concerns, and c) value of professional teaching experiences prior to student teaching. The first theme highlighted the role of “the age group, ability level, pedagogical setting of the students, and the contextual familiarity” (p. 6) in student teachers’ concerns. The second theme underscored mostly task-related concerns rather than self-concerns such as “classroom management, rehearsing, adapting” (p. 7) as well as concerns related to student learning, namely impact concerns. Finally, the third theme meant student teachers’ perceived affordances of the “pedagogical experiences” (p. 8) prior to student teaching such as teaching private lessons or in a community. The findings further indicated that student teachers developed more self-

concerns from pre-student teaching to student teaching whereas their impact concerns diminished from pre-student teaching to student teaching.

In a very recent study, Mateos-Moreno (2022) explored the sources of teacher concern by employing student teachers majoring in music education programme in a Swedish university. Data were collected on a cross-sectional basis employing 98 student teachers from all five years of the programme through a short anonymous survey. The survey included a key open-ended item: “What looks concerning about your future career in the profession of music teacher?” (p. 4). The findings from the content analysis showed that student teachers were concerned about extrinsic factors such as employment conditions including workload, working hours, and salary as well as school funding in terms of lack of school resources and physical working conditions. They were further concerned about intrinsic factors such as appraisals about the profession, work duties, social environment, and teacher training. More specifically, the first category included educational system values, their own motivation towards the profession, and social appraisals about the profession, among many others. The second category, work duties, referred to working with large groups of students, bureaucratic tasks, grading students, and working in a low musical level. Besides, the third category, social environment, encompassed relationships with the parents and students’ respect. Finally, the fourth category included pre-service teacher education and competence for music teaching as a profession. Based on these findings, the researcher argued that the sources of student teachers’ concern -such as grading and teaching students- clarified “mainly inherent and intrinsic aspects of the profession, which is problematic given the role of intrinsic motivation in teacher attrition” (p. 10).

2.2. Teaching Practice in SLTE

English is “the global language” (Crystal, 2003, p. 1), and its “dominant status” highlights the necessity of training “knowledgeable, skillful, and effective teachers of English” (Richards, 2017, p. 7). Second language teacher education programmes are therefore expected to contribute to student teachers’ competencies including “content or subject matter knowledge, teaching skills, and the ability to teach in English – a skill that is usually viewed as influenced by the teacher’s language proficiency” (Richards, 2017, p. 9).

Furthermore, these programmes should accentuate five core areas: i) content (what is taught), ii) teaching force (who is teaching it), iii) learners (who are learning it and why), iv) pedagogy (how it is being taught), and v) teacher education (how teachers are being prepared and supported in teaching) in order to galvanize language teacher education by addressing “what needs to be done to effectively enfranchise the teaching force around the world and to meet the changing needs of students in the diverse classroom contexts” (Freeman, 2020, p. 11). Within this framework, there is a myriad of factors shaping language teacher education programmes. As echoed by Wright (2010), second language teacher education pedagogy is unequivocally directed “by local contextual factors – social, political, economic, institutional, and cultural” (p. 260).

With regard to the local contextual factors, in Turkey, English language student teachers are required to complete the courses ‘School Experience’ and ‘Teaching Practice’ offered by the CoHE (1998, 2018) in addition to the pedagogical courses offered in the programme in order to obtain a teaching certificate before embarking upon the profession. Thanks to these practicum experiences, student teachers might “continue to grow, adapt, and explore teaching as a career-long process” (Gebhard, 2009, p. 251). In a general sense, practicum could be defined as “all varieties of observational and teaching experiences in a preservice teacher education program, field experiences that precede professional education course work, early field experiences which are tied to particular courses, and student teaching and internship experiences” (Zeichner, 1996, p. 123). Moreover, “teacher learning is the core activity of teacher education” (Freeman, 2002, p. 1), and teaching practicum is construed as “a core course” (Crookes, 2003, p. xi) in language teacher education programmes. Teaching practicum, or teaching practice, is core since it expedites student teachers’ “transition to the other side of the desk under the guidance of mentors” (Randi & Corno, 2011, p. 92) through firsthand experience. In this regard, the cooperating teachers’ support and guidance is of particular value for second language student teachers during their teacher education programme (Farrell, 2008).

The guidance of an experienced mentor is essential to carve out a teaching career partially drawing upon the craft model of teacher education, also known as the “apprenticeship model” (Crandall, 2000, p. 37). Accordingly, a seasoned practitioner, such as mentor teachers or teacher trainers, is considered ‘a craft’ who tells a trainee what to do and shows how to do it. Then, the trainee learns his/her techniques through observation, imitation, and

practice. This model aims to explain how “expertise in the craft is passed on from generation to generation” (Wallace, 1991, p. 6) as shown in Figure 2.2.1.

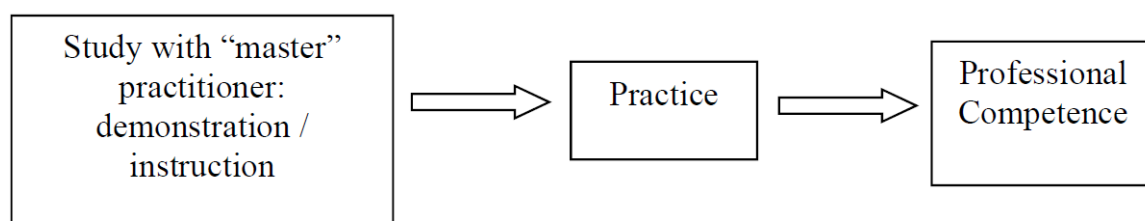


Figure 1. The craft model of professional education.

Nevertheless, Wallace (1991) criticized this model by arguing that it did not suffice to respond to the dynamic nature of the society. Later, the applied science model became more prominent in language teacher education. It was a “theory-to-practice model by which knowledge is learned from experts and then applied in real-world contexts” (Crandall, 2000, p. 37). The underpinnings behind the applied science model were the findings of the empirical research. Accordingly, teaching-related problems could be resolved based on scientific knowledge, whereby the desired outcomes and predetermined objectives could be attained. Although this model is still perennial in language teacher education programmes as well as other fields such as medicine and architecture, the fact that there is one-way interaction from the expert to the trainee in terms of conveying the scientific knowledge limits the practicality of the model by assigning a more dominant role for the teacher educator rather than the practitioner.

The reflective model of teacher education, on the other hand, ascribes equal importance to both received knowledge and experiential knowledge as depicted in Figure 2.2.2. In the reflective model, “by which teachers reflect upon, evaluate, and adapt their own practice” (Crandall, 2000, p. 37), the trainee is construed as the reflective practitioner of his/her own professional development. As succinctly stated by Wallace (1991), reflective practice is conducive to learning and professional development by attempting to promote “intellectual autonomy, independent inquiry, analysis and self-evaluation for professional development” (Wallace, 1991, p. 116).

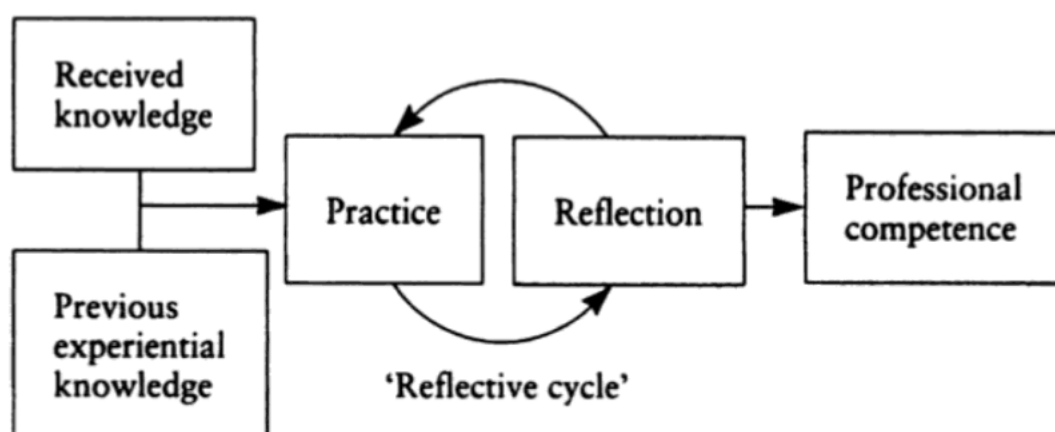


Figure 2. The reflective model of professional education.

According to the model, received knowledge refers to theoretical knowledge whereas experiential knowledge means practical knowledge derived from personal experiences or observation of practice. In this sense, the model spurs student teachers on making critical judgements about their teaching practices by reflecting on classroom experiences as well as observing others' practices. In the craft model, observation is interpreted as "imitative in nature" (Wallace, 1991, p. 15). In the reflective model, however, observation is construed as a tool for reflection instead of imitation. Reflection should therefore "be carefully structured" (Wallace, 1991, p. 15) in order to enrich the observation process. Moreover, to best benefit from the affordances of these three models, both teachers and student teachers should "reflect upon their beliefs and practices and to construct and reconstruct their personal theories of language teaching and learning" (Crandall, 2000, p. 37). In so doing, student teachers must be provided with opportunities to reflect upon their practices.

Closely related to this is the preparation of more qualified English language teachers both professionally and personally. Therefore, it is essential to mull over "teachers' mental lives [that] represent the 'hidden side' of teaching" (Freeman, 2002, p. 1). Moreover, even very inexperienced teachers are more than "blank slates" (Bailey, 2006, p. 63) since they bring prior experiences into their learning to teach process (Lortie, 1975; Korthagen, 2011), and these experiences might cause them to succumb to "a remarkable resistance to change" (Crandall, 2000, p. 35) during their teacher education programme. In parallel with this aim, as for the role of teaching practicum experiences, a significant body of research examined the relationship between teacher cognition, i.e. "what language teachers think, know, and

believe” (Borg, 2015, p. 1), and teaching practice (Çapan, 2014; Debreli, 2016; Yuan & Lee, 2015), thereby leaving a dearth of studies dealing with the development of teacher concern during the teaching practicum, especially in the field of language teacher education. The next section provides a concise summary of the relevant studies on teaching practicum by focusing specifically on the SLTE programmes within the Turkish EFL context.

2.2.1. Studies on Teaching Practice

Previous studies attempted to explore the role of teaching practice in the development of English language student teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs (e.g., Atay, 2007; Dalioglu & Adiguzel, 2016), teacher beliefs (e.g., Çapan, 2014; Debreli, 2016), stress (e.g., Coşkun, 2013), and student teachers’ professional development (e.g., Serdar Tülüce & Çeçen, 2016). Coşkun (2013) stated that maintaining classroom discipline, paper work such as preparing observation reports, being observed by the peers, the mentor, and the university supervisor, lack of both psychological and financial support, lack of technological affordances, and lack of familiarity with students’ proficiency level caused stress among the majority of student teachers. Serdar Tülüce and Çeçen (2016) pointed to “the transformational role of practicum” (p. 149) in student teachers’ professional development by indicating a transition “from a self-oriented perspective to a more learner-oriented perspective” (p. 148), which sounds similar to the Fuller’s developmental model of teacher concern that posited a shift from self-concern to impact concerns.

In addition, several studies revealed the challenges encountered by English language student teachers in Turkey during their teaching practice (e.g., Başaran Uysal & Savaş, 2021; Başyurt Tüzel & Akcan, 2009; Rakicioglu-Soylemez & Eroz-Tuga, 2014; Sarıçoban, 2010; Yalcin Arslan & İlin, 2018). For instance, Sarıçoban (2010) attempted to explore student teachers’ problems related to the course books, the pupils, the curriculum, and the classroom environment during their teaching practicum by adopting a questionnaire. The findings demonstrated that student teachers faced problems such as lack of audio-visual aids and supplementary materials, the pupils’ lack of interest as well as their poor English language proficiency, paucity of activities about developing speaking skills and pronunciation in the curriculum, and crowded classrooms. In another study, Rakicioglu-Soylemez and Eroz-Tuga (2014) studied student teachers’ and mentors’ perceptions of the

mentoring practices and their professional roles in teaching practicum. Accordingly, student teachers expressed three challenges: a) the necessity of evaluation of the cooperating schools, administration and the mentors, b) the lack of a systematic post-feedback session by using a checklist, c) the need for “an effective socio-professional network” (p. 146) in which mentors allocated more time for the trainees to share their plans to be followed throughout the semester.

In a different study, specifically examining student teachers’ problems related to the use of target language in their practicum schools, Başyurt Tüzel and Akcan (2009) argued that student teachers had difficulty using certain grammatical patterns, explaining unfamiliar words to students, adjusting the target language to students’ English proficiency levels, and finally adopting an appropriate level of classroom language while explaining the classroom routines and instructions. The student teachers felt themselves inadequate and concerned about using the target language in the practicum schools. Thus, a language awareness training session was held by the university supervisor. The training session exerted positive impacts on student teachers’ target language use and boosted their confidence, whereby stressing the importance of “the need for learning institutions and their teaching staff to become more sensitive to pre-service teachers’ English language use in the classroom” (p. 272), which is one of the endeavors of the present study. More recently, Başaran Uysal and Savaş (2021) carried out a meta-synthesis study on the challenges in teaching practice by focusing on English language teacher education programmes in Turkey. The overall findings showed that student teachers articulated several challenges such as receiving feedback from mentors and supervisors, the mentors’ attitudes towards them as well as their qualifications, lack of support from mentors, and collaboration with the mentors. Additionally, crowded classrooms, maintaining classroom discipline, planning interesting lessons, preparing appropriate lesson plans, time management, and being observed by others were challenging for them. Besides, the duration of the teaching practice was limited, and student teachers’ language proficiency was also problematic as previously mentioned.

Although these studies above portrayed the challenges encountered by the English language student teachers during their practicum, there is still a need to explore the interplay between their concerns and classroom practices since none of these studies focused specifically on the development of teacher concern throughout the practicum in-

depth by drawing upon the qualitative paradigm. Nor did they explore the interplay between student teachers' concerns and their classroom practices from a concerns-based perspective. Yalcin Arslan and İlin (2018) carried out a mixed-method study on the role of teaching practicum in the development of student teachers' concerns (please see section 2.1.2., for more details). The quantitative data were gathered through a scale and teaching practice concerns sheets developed by the researchers, and the qualitative data were collected via narrative reflections. They found that student teachers were concerned about classroom management, time management, and putting theory into practice at the beginning of the practicum, but these concerns diminished over time. Nevertheless, student teachers' classroom practices were not examined. Moreover, given the studies carried out in other contexts were closely examined -within the existing literature on teacher concern-, only Miksza and Berg (2013) explored student teachers' classroom practices through classroom observation in music teacher education programme. However, there is no study probing language teachers' concerns about teaching English during their real classroom experiences through observation. Given that a teaching context influences teachers' actions in many ways, and English language teachers "are different from mainstream subject teachers in the way that they are not only defined by the professional contexts but also by the nature of the subject [refers to the foreign language itself, here] in the contexts" (Li, 2017, p. 8), the study reported in this dissertation attempts to address this lacuna by drawing upon student teachers' classroom practices and their concerns about teaching English quintessentially as well as teaching language skills and components.

2.3. Research on Teaching Language Skills

English language teachers' language development is an essential asset of second or foreign language teaching. As also articulated by Li (2017),

"Foreign language teaching is the only subject where effective instruction requires the teacher to use a medium the students do not yet fully understand. This brings a language issue for the language teachers, as they have to spend more time preparing lessons because they have to think carefully about how to explain things in a foreign language" (p. 8).

Equally important to language teachers' language development, or using the target language effectively, is their mastery of teaching language skills effectively. Since language skills teaching lies at the heart of English language teaching, a significant body of research has studied the issue so far. This section will review the research which relates to

teaching English language skills by specifically focusing on teachers' stated perceptions, beliefs, and practices within the scope of this dissertation study.

2.3.1. Teaching Reading

Reading refers to “a process of constructing text meanings by linking graphically encoded linguistic information with real-life knowledge of the reader” (Koda, 2020, p. 37). Reading in a second language, without a doubt, is predicated on linguistic knowledge in the L2 and world knowledge and conceptual resources in the first language (Koda, 2007; Koda, 2020), which makes reading in L2 “a challenging undertaking” (Jiang, Grabe, & Carrell, 2020, p. 259) for learners. More importantly, reading is “a way of developing language proficiency” (Nation, 2008, p. 6), and the development of academic reading skills necessitates both comprehension abilities and grammar and vocabulary knowledge (Grabe & Stoller, 2014). Specifically speaking, Jiang, Grabe, and Carrell (2020) enumerate ten implications for reading instruction in second language classrooms as follows (p. 277):

- i. The need to develop reading fluency and word-recognition automaticity.
- ii. The need to develop a large recognition vocabulary (as many words learned as possible, and learned as thoroughly as possible).
- iii. The importance of discourse structure and the instructional benefits of using graphic representations of discourse structure.
- iv. The need for language awareness and attention to language (structure) and genre form (meta-linguistic knowledge).
- v. The importance of meta-cognitive awareness and the need for students to become strategic readers.
- vi. The importance of specific reading strategies to support word learning and reading to learn goals.
- vii. The importance of motivation.
- viii. The benefits of integrated skills instruction and content-based instruction.
- ix. The need for a supportive (classroom and institutional) environment for reading.

- x. The need to read as much as possible and as often as possible.

Considering that the standardized national exams are mostly reading skills-oriented in Turkey, reading instruction plays an important role in English language curricula. Thus, it is inevitable for language teachers to orchestrate their efforts to implement the implications suggested above in order to improve the level of their students' reading proficiency. On the other hand, surprisingly, no study focused on examining student teachers' or in-service teachers' concerns, beliefs, or practices about teaching reading (hopefully, this study will spark off further interest in the issue) in Turkish EFL contexts.

In a study, Bamanger and Gashan (2014) examined the relationship between Saudi EFL teachers' beliefs about the significance of teaching English reading strategies and their use of these strategies. Data were collected by employing twenty-seven teachers through an online questionnaire. The study found a consistent relationship between the teachers' beliefs about the importance of reading strategies and their stated classroom practices. In another study, in the Israeli EFL context, Fuchs, Katzir, and Kahn-Horwitz (2021) studied the relationship between teachers' research-based theoretical knowledge and reported practices with regard to teachers' self-efficacy beliefs about teaching reading and writing skills, their years of teaching experience, and their native language. Data came from 167 one hundred English language teachers through online questionnaires. A significant finding of the study was that both experienced and novice teachers lacked the theoretical knowledge pertaining to literacy teaching and learning; to wit, they were partially aware of research-driven literacy instruction. However, to the researcher's knowledge, this line of research has not drawn attention in the Turkish EFL context.

2.3.2. Teaching Writing

Writing in a second language is delineated as "a complex skill that requires knowledge of many components of language related to contextual factors such as genre, topic, audience, and purpose" (Polio & Kessler, 2020, p. 76). It is a complex phenomenon since the writers need to re-construct the reality in the text in a new way so that the readers are enmeshed into interpreting the text appropriately by drawing upon a wide range of strategies (Matsuda & Silva, 2020) as well as their linguistic ability, composing ability, reading skills, and grammatical knowledge (Weigle, 2014). Since there is a wide range of sub-

skills of writing, it is of pivotal importance to implement a well-structured pedagogy in second language classrooms especially given that “writing, unlike speech, is not learned naturally by everyone but through explicit instruction” (Matsuda & Silva, 2020, p. 284). Nevertheless, due to its complexity, writing might be “the most challenging and time-consuming skill to teach” (Weigle, 2014, p. 235). To mitigate the challenging aspects of the teaching of the writing process, therefore, it is necessary to delve into second language teachers’ thinking.

In line with this purpose, previous literature centered on exploring teachers’ beliefs about corrective feedback (Şakrak-Ekin & Balçıkanlı, 2019; Van Ha & Murray, 2021; Van Ha & Nguyen, 2021), developing an instrument to examine second language teachers’ beliefs about teaching writing (Karaca & Uysal, 2021), the relationship between teacher beliefs and assessment of writing (Wang, Lee, and Park, 2020), the interplay between beliefs and writing practices (Yang & Gao, 2013), and the role of teachers’ learning-to-write experiences in their beliefs about second language writing (Yigitoglu & Belcher, 2014), and the instructors’ beliefs about teaching writing skills (Sarı & Han, 2022). For instance, Yang and Gao (2013) analyzed four experienced teachers’ beliefs and practices in teaching second language writing at a university in China. Data came from classroom observations, interviews, and course materials. One of the four teachers showed inconsistency between beliefs and practices, and the researchers attributed the reasons behind this discrepancy to individuals’ prior experiences as English language learners and teachers, their perceptions of students’ capabilities, and collegial influences. In another study, Yigitoglu and Belcher (2014) examined two second language writing teachers’ learning-to-write experiences in order to explore the role of these experiences in their beliefs about second language writing as well as in their second language writing pedagogy. Based on the findings from classroom observations, stimulated-recall interviews, and classroom documents, the researchers posited that the teachers’ previous learning experiences exerted a significant impact on their second language instructional decision-making process.

In the Turkish EFL context, Sarı and Han (2022) explored English language university teachers’ beliefs about second language writing as well as teaching and assessing second language writing through an inventory, Teachers’ English Writing Beliefs Inventory (TEWBI) developed by Karaca and Uysal (2021), and interview sessions. The study was carried out employing one hundred and six teachers teaching at public universities in

Turkey. The findings indicated that the teachers were not cognizant of how to assess writing and the digital tools that could be availed in teaching writing. Additionally, they mostly favored teacher feedback in their classrooms rather than self-assessment or peer feedback. Moreover, they were not unaware of process-oriented or genre-oriented approaches to writing since they were trained through product-oriented approach during their undergraduate programme, which represents a gap between theoretical-based knowledge and classroom practices as also portrayed in Fuch and his colleagues' (2021) study about literacy instruction. With all these issues in mind and considering that teaching writing is an "an individual and highly personal undertaking" (Yang & Gao, 2013, p. 143), examining student teachers' or in-service teachers' concerns about teaching writing skills is an area that warrants further investigation.

2.3.3. Teaching Listening

Although listening is an essential skill which paves the way for receiving and interacting with language input, whereby enabling the development of other language skills (Goh & Vandergrift, 2022), it has been construed as the "Cinderella" of the four main language skills (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005, p. xi). As such, its pivotal role has been ignored in language classrooms (Goh & Vandergrift, 2022; Nation & Newton, 2009; Oxford, 2020). Likewise, given that only a limited number of studies, to the researcher's knowledge, has probed language teachers' beliefs about teaching listening skills (e.g., Graham, Santos, & Francis-Brophy, 2014; Santos & Graham, 2018) or their perceptions of listening skills (Solak & Altay, 2014; Ulum, 2015), listening has received little attention in SLTE, as well.

In the Turkish EFL context, Solak and Altay (2014) examined 124 student teacher English teachers' perceptions of the problems germane to English language listening comprehension through a questionnaire. The findings demonstrated that student teachers experienced challenges in understanding the words due to the lack of clarity of pronunciation, use of different accents, the high number of unfamiliar words. Within the same context, Ulum (2015) similarly explored first-year students', who were enrolled in an ELT programme in Turkey, problems about listening comprehension and found that they encountered problems in understanding the words that were not clearly pronounced. Besides, the use of different accents and remembering the words immediately caused

problems among the participants. These findings supported the findings of the previous study mentioned above.

With regard to language teachers' beliefs about teaching listening skills, in England, Graham, Santos, and Francis-Brophy (2014) unveiled 115 foreign language teachers' beliefs and practices about teaching listening skills via a questionnaire in order to see the congruence or incongruence between them. The findings revealed incongruence between teachers' beliefs in the importance of teaching listening effectively and their practices of teaching listening effectively. Moreover, this incongruence remained stable across the teachers with different years of teaching experience. Additionally, both beginning and experienced teachers had no "research or theory-based rationales for their practices" (p. 53), and they were incognizant of alternative teaching pedagogies towards teaching of the listening skills. Accordingly, the researchers claimed that these findings might lessen the importance of their pre-service training since beginning teachers would be expected to be more informed about recent practices.

Extending the findings of this study, Santos and Graham (2018) further examined teachers' beliefs and practices with regard to teaching listening skills by comparing the findings from two different contexts: 115 foreign language teachers living in England and 40 Brazilian EFL teachers. A striking finding of the study was that the teachers' conceptualizations of teaching listening effectively differed depending on the context. Accordingly, the researchers acknowledged that the differences in teachers' beliefs about teaching listening might partially stem from the "local demands" (p. 31) of the educational policies of the countries, thereby emphasizing "the role of contextual factors" (p. 34) in teachers' beliefs and practices about listening. They further added that "assessment and students' needs, inter alia, are likely to have an impact on how listening is taught" (p. 32).

Goh and Vandergrift (2022) argued that even though language learners "are exposed to more listening activities in classrooms today, many learners are still left to develop their listening abilities on their own with little direct support from the teacher. A possible reason for this is that many teachers are themselves unsure of how to teach listening in a principled manner." (p. 4). Renandya and Hu (2018) further claimed that the reasons why teachers might encounter problems in teaching listening might be attributed to three corollaries:

- i. Teachers may not have access to the professional literature and consequently may be unaware of recent developments in L2 listening.
- ii. Even those who keep up with the literature may find conflicting views about the main factors that affect the processing of spoken text and about how best to teach L2 listening.
- iii. Contextual factors such as paucity of suitable listening materials and lack of access to online resources may constrain teachers from trying out new ways of teaching listening. (p. 38)

Taken together, it merits further attention to sift through language teachers' perceptions, concerns, and practices about teaching listening skills since listening teachers are expected "to bring learners to the point where they can understand, interpret and respond to L2 listening input in the way that the original speaker intended." (Lynch & Mendelsohn, 2020, p. 235).

2.3.4. Teaching Speaking

Speaking, in both first and second language, requires "developing subtle and detailed knowledge about why, how and when to communicate, and complex skills for producing and managing interaction, such as asking a question or obtaining a turn" (Burns, & Seidlhofer, 2020, p. 240). Additionally, speaking in a second language consists of "various types of knowledge, including knowledge of lexical items and phrases, morphology, syntax, semantics, phonology, discourse, pragmatics and sociocultural rules, and communication strategies" as well as interactive competence (Kahng, 2020, p. 68). To effectively communicate in a second language involves not only developing all these aspects but also processing and recalling the necessary knowledge under time pressure. On the other hand, in English as a foreign language context, developing speaking skills in L2 might be a challenging phenomenon due to limited exposure to English. Besides, teachers are mostly non-native speakers of English in these contexts, and hence they may not feel "fully competent or confident in speaking and teaching English" (Lazaraton, 2014, p. 116). Moreover, at the core of this lack of confidence might lie the challenges about pronunciation (Nation & Newton, 2009). In addition, in second language classrooms,

several factors might impede students to develop their speaking skills as juxtaposed below (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 3):

- a. a paucity of explicit teaching and planning specific activities to foster speaking skills,
- b. lack of training related to appropriate skills or strategies,
- c. lack of oral feedback provided by the teacher,
- d. large classroom size,
- e. students' taking on a passive role,
- f. no opportunity for learners to develop self-regulated learning strategies by which they plan, monitor, and evaluate their own performances,
- g. students' limited knowledge regarding the demands of various speaking tasks.

As seen, there are a plethora of factors to take into consideration while teaching speaking skills along with the complexity of the speaking skills on the part of language teachers and teacher educators. From the other side of the same coin, teachers' cognition, beliefs, or previous learning experiences are as essential in teaching speaking skills as the factors listed above. In a study, Baleghizadeh and Nasrollahi Shahri (2014) explored three EFL teachers' conceptions in relation to learning and teaching English speaking skills. One of them was a novice teacher whereas the remaining two were experienced by holding at least seven years of teaching experience. One of the key findings underlined that the teachers' previous learning experiences germane to practicing speaking English were effective in the formation of their conceptualizations of speaking and their selection of speaking activities availed in the classrooms. Besides, their teaching context played a role in their conceptualizations of how to teach speaking. Last but certainly not least, Nima, an experienced teacher, developed impact concerns and expressed the importance of different learning needs and teaching students how to learn English themselves rather than solely teaching them English, whereby indicating "close attention to the learners beyond the conventional bounds of teaching" (p. 750).

From a different perspective, Tante (2018) examined two course books used to develop English speaking skills and observed teachers' classroom practices. The study was carried out in Cameron. The findings from the course book evaluation indicated that use of

traditional activities such as drilled repetition and a focus on accuracy based on audio-lingual approaches outweighed the use of communicative activities. On the other hand, teachers used modelling activities, using realia, or storytelling, thereby attempting to bring innovation into classroom by going beyond the limitations of the course books. In another study, Webster (2019) unveiled the conditions promoting teacher growth in teaching English speaking skills by employing four early career teachers over an academic year. He pointed to a remarkable lack of practical knowledge development and stressed “the need for educational institutions to ensure mechanisms are in place which facilitate active and ongoing teacher engagement” (p. 154).

More recently, in a dissertation study, Phisutthangkoon (2021) explored the relationship between six university teachers' beliefs and practices about teaching speaking skills in the Thai EFL context and found that the participants mostly focused on accuracy rather than fluency and explained grammatical structures explicitly. Besides, they mostly used translation while providing the meaning of the vocabulary, and they mostly used their L1 for instruction. Moreover, although they believed the important role of communicative language teaching and task-based learning in developing speaking skills, they rarely implemented speaking activities based on these trends “due to their lack of knowledge and some student-related factors” (p. 260). Based on the findings, the researcher argued that teachers' experiences as learners exerted a great impact on the formation of their beliefs about teaching speaking skills more than their teacher education programme.

Taken together, careful planning might hone language teachers' practices in relation to teaching speaking skills by taking into account recent paradigms in language teaching pedagogy. Clarifying what specifically concerns student teachers while teaching speaking skills might therefore constitute an important step toward the amelioration of teacher education programmes. The next section presents a review of relevant research on teaching language components, namely grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary respectively.

2.4. Research on Teaching Language Components

2.4.1. Teaching Grammar

Grammar teaching consists of “any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it

metalinguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it.” (Ellis, 2006, p. 84). Among all the language skills and components, grammar might be construed “the most vexing” for language learners due to four main reasons as summarized below (Larsen-Freeman, 2020, p. 97):

- i. The term “grammar” is polysemous; to wit, there is little shared understanding of grammar.
- ii. There is a plethora of theories about how grammar is learned; however, the question of how to teach grammar remains unsettled.
- iii. The teaching of grammar yields ‘the inert knowledge problem’. As such, students who know about grammar barely take the advantage of this knowledge for communicative purposes.
- iv. Moreover, learners often interpret the way that it is taught as exhausting, which is not paving the way for learning.

Added to the challenges encapsulated above is the fact that there is an array of pedagogical interventions to teach grammar as well as the relative affordances offered by each of them (Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2002). Larsen-Freeman (2020) therefore argues that it is teachers’ responsibility to discover “what works for the particular group of students” (p. 121). Moreover, language teachers are expected “to anticipate the learning challenge for a given grammar point because their doing so has implications for how they allocate time and what activities they use” (p. Larsen-Freeman, 2014, p. 269) especially given that teaching grammar plays a key role in “situations where fluency and accuracy in writing and public speaking are highly desirable” (Celce-Murcia, 2015, p. 14). In this regard, teachers’ thinking with regard to the teaching of grammar has preoccupied scholars over the last decades. As such, unlike other language skills and components, the interplay between teacher cognition and grammar teaching has been relatively well explored (e.g., Borg & Burns, 2008; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Serdar Tülüce, 2019). Besides, some of these studies highlighted congruence between teachers’ beliefs about the teaching of grammar and their practices whereas the others (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Ng & Farrell, 2003) indicated limited congruence due to the contextual factors, situational constraints, or years of teaching experiences (Basturkmen, 2012).

In a case study, Farrell and Lim (2005) examined the beliefs and classroom practices of two experienced teachers of English language working in a primary school in Singapore. Data came from three sets of interviews and two classroom observations. Based on the findings, they argued that teachers had complicated belief systems which might not be reflected directly in their classroom practices partially owing to the teaching context. Borg and Burns (2008) similarly investigated the English language teachers' stated beliefs and reported classroom practices concerning the integration of grammar into their teaching by employing 176 teachers from eighteen different countries through a questionnaire. The participants were teaching adult EFL learners, and the findings stressed that they were "favorably disposed to some element of explicit grammar work" (p. 477), yet they mostly adopted discovery learning. Besides, they held positive beliefs about the importance of grammar integration into language skills. Another notable finding was that there was a correspondence between their beliefs and practices.

In a similar vein, in the Turkish EFL context, Phipps and Borg (2009) examined EFL teachers' beliefs and practices related to grammar teaching. The study was carried out with three experienced teachers, who were working at a private university in Turkey. Data were gathered from interviews and observations for a period of eighteen months. The findings indicated that there were tensions between their practices and beliefs even though there was a general alignment between them. These tensions derived from presenting grammar, controlled grammar practice, and group-work for grammar practice. For instance, whilst a teacher believed in the importance of teaching grammar in a contextualized way, he taught grammar in isolation considering that the students would not appreciate the contextualized way of grammar teaching. Besides, although a teacher did not believe in the effectiveness of controlled grammar practice activities, he kept using them as a classroom management tool, namely to calm students down. Drawing upon the tensions between beliefs and practices, the researchers claimed that "the teachers justified their instructional choices with reference to deeper, more core, beliefs about learning generally" (p. 387), and their beliefs were "firmly grounded in experience" (p. 388).

Within the same context, in another university in Turkey, Serdar Tülüce (2019) explored the congruence between an experienced EFL teacher's beliefs and grammar teaching through classroom observations, interviews, and reflective notes. The findings pointed to a correspondence between the teacher's beliefs and classroom practices to a large extent in

addition to a limited incongruence. Nevertheless, several contextual factors such as learners' expectations and needs as well as exams and time constraints exerted an influence on the relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practices. As such, the teacher refrained from contextualized grammar teaching although she believed in the value of contextualized teaching due to time constraints. Besides, the teacher expressed that her students felt more comfortable with explicit grammar teaching. She further acknowledged that explicit grammar teaching was also more applicable to an exam-oriented instruction.

With these issues in mind, "grammar means different things to different people" (Larsen-Freeman & DeCarrico, 2020, p. 19). More specifically, the student teachers who participated in the present study learned L2 grammar mostly through an explicit and decontextualized way of grammar teaching by following a traditional approach to grammar teaching, which is premised on the idea that grammar consists of "a set of rules governing the structures in a language" (Larsen-Freeman, 2020, p. 98), and the traditional approach is still prevalently used by the Turkish teachers of English language. However, student teachers become cognizant of more recent paradigm shifts or trends in the teaching of grammar during their teacher education programmes such as communicative language teaching, functional grammar, focus-on-form, integrated grammar teaching, and task-based language teaching in the Turkish EFL context. Although they appreciate the value of contextualized grammar teaching, communicative activities, or meaningful activities, they might find it challenging to implement these activities in their classrooms due to contextual factors. In this respect, experienced teachers might much more easily overcome "a belief in contextual obstacles" than novice teachers (Sato & Oyanedel, 2019, p. 119). In addition, they might have a tendency to "turn to more traditional and familiar approaches, perhaps those that come from their own experience of language learning" (Debreli, 2016, p. 43) while teaching grammar in their practicum schools. Therefore, the student teachers' concerns about the teaching of grammar deserve further elaboration.

2.4.2. Teaching Pronunciation

Pronunciation encompasses "all aspects of how we employ speech sounds for communicating" (Burns, & Seidlhofer, 2020, p. 247). Whereas attaining native-like proficiency was the ultimate goal in the teaching of pronunciation in L2 during the 1960s, there has been a shift from phonological accuracy to attaining intelligibility recently, thereby highlighting the pivotal role of learner characteristics as well as other language

skills. (Mahalingappa & Polat, 2020). However, there are a myriad of factors that might cause a lack of intelligibility (Goodwin, 2014, p. 144):

1. misplaced or missing prominence,
2. incorrect word stress,
3. insufficient differentiation in syllable duration between stressed and unstressed syllables, thereby creating an unnatural speech rhythm,
4. lack of clearly articulated consonants, both in final position and in stressed syllables,
5. speaking too slowly and/or too fast,
6. too many pauses and/or pauses that are too long,
7. too little variation in pitch.

Intelligibility might be construed as “how much of the input is understandable” (Mahalingappa & Polat, 2020, p. 161) or “the ability to identify the words that a speaker utters in sequence” (Pennington, 2021, p. 14). Intelligibility could be achieved “by meaning-focused input and meaning-focused output during communication activities where learners with different first languages are trying to get their meaning across” as well as “a deliberate focus on individual sounds, consonant clusters, and supra-segmentals” (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 90). Nevertheless, given a wide range of issues related to the intelligibility as outlined above, teaching pronunciation in second language classrooms might yield a plethora of challenges or a lack of knowledge or confidence on the part on language teachers as also documented in the literature (e.g., Burri, Baker, and Chen, 2017; Couper, 2017) As articulated by Nation and Newton, “when some teachers and learners complain about difficulties in speaking, they are often talking about pronunciation” (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 75). In this sense, an array of studies has reported teachers’ knowledge and challenges germane to second language pronunciation pedagogy.

In a study, Baker (2014) studied the relationship between teacher cognition and classroom practices related to the teaching of pronunciation. The study was carried out with five English language teachers working in the same North American intensive English program. The data came from semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews conducted with the teachers. Besides, their students completed

questionnaires. The findings of the study indicated that the teachers mainly availed controlled techniques, albeit limited, whereas they barely implemented guided or free techniques. Accordingly, the researcher put forward that the teachers' knowledge related to the implementation of guided techniques into the oral communication curricula might be quite limited. Additionally, three notable findings could be enumerated as follows (p. 136):

1. listening perception is essential for producing comprehensible speech,
2. kinesthetic/tactile practice is integral to phonological improvement,
3. pronunciation instruction can be boring.

Based on these findings, the researcher suggested that more focus on pronunciation pedagogy is necessary in teacher education programmes. Related to this certain issue, Burri (2015) examined fifteen student teachers' cognition development over a postgraduate course about teaching pronunciation at an Australian institution and marked that a specific focus on the pronunciation pedagogy exerted a strong impact on the development of both native and non-native student teachers' cognition. As such, they experienced a transition from teaching individual sounds to applying a more balanced approach towards teaching pronunciation.

In a similar vein, Burri, Chen, and Baker (2017) studied the development of identity and teacher cognition of fifteen student teachers in a postgraduate course about pronunciation teaching as well as the relationship between them. To this end, data came from focus group interviews, observations, semi-structured interviews, and questionnaires. Findings revealed that student teachers' identity development had a severe impact on their cognition development, and these two constructs had a reciprocal relationship, thereby mediating each other. This relationship was further conducive to nudging student teachers towards learning to teach pronunciation. Drawing on the findings, the researchers alleged that second language teacher education is a "highly multifaceted individualistic and social process" (p. 143). Likewise, Burri, Baker, and Chen (2017) analyzed the development of teacher cognition regarding the teaching of pronunciation. The study was carried out with ten student teachers and five in-service teachers developed during a postgraduate course about teaching pronunciation. The findings from focus group meetings, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, a questionnaire, and an assessment task showed that student teachers' cognition developed only to a limited extent. Besides, they mostly used

controlled activities, which remained unchanged throughout the course. More critically, they contemplated teaching pronunciation “as an add-on to existing lessons, something that can be covered in a few minutes at the beginning or end of a lesson” (p. 120). Finally, integration of pronunciation into the lessons were challenging for both student teachers and in-service teachers notwithstanding their different pronunciation teaching background.

In a different study, Couper (2017) attempted to explore teachers’ knowledge and perceptions regarding the teaching of pronunciation and reported teachers’ concerns, in parallel with one of the aims of the present study. Data were gathered through semi-structured interviews employing 19 English language teachers in New Zealand. The findings indicated that a lack of initial training and knowledge of phonology caused perplexity among the teachers about what to teach and how to teach. Besides, most of the participants expressed that they learned how to teach pronunciation “on the job or by attending professional development sessions” (p. 830), thereby yielding a lack of confidence. They were further inclined to neglect stress and intonation since they were not knowledgeable enough about these aspects and they did not know how to teach them. Additionally, teachers were concerned about how to teach pronunciation in mixed-first language classrooms. Based on the findings of the study, the researcher posited that how to teach pronunciation was mostly ignored in preservice training, and thus more “more research-based guidance” (p. 835) was needed.

In the Turkish EFL context, Yagiz (2018) investigated the relationship between English language teachers’ cognition regarding the teaching of pronunciation and their classroom practices by employing 164 English teachers in a mixed method study. The quantitative data came from a pronunciation cognition questionnaire whereas the qualitative data came from semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. The participants expressed that they did not allocate much time to teaching pronunciation. Besides, intonation and stress were ignored in their classrooms. On the other hand, although teachers were self-confident enough in terms of their knowledge regarding pronunciation teaching and marked that they did not need any special training related to pronunciation teaching, they were confused about how to integrate pronunciation into their teaching. Based on these findings, the researcher suggested that theoretical and practical in-service training sessions might be offered to mitigate teachers’ misconceptions and lack of knowledge regarding second language pronunciation. From the other side of the same coin, Zárte (2020) have

further stressed the necessity of pronunciation instruction in language classrooms by acknowledging that “instruction leads to greater gains in pronunciation when compared to mere exposure to the language” (p. 81) but claimed that language teachers “feel unprepared to implement it” (p. 85). In this regard, students’ concerns regarding the teaching of pronunciation merit further scrutiny to reveal whether they are prepared to develop their students’ pronunciation skills or not before embarking upon the teaching profession.

2.4.3. Teaching Vocabulary

At the core of meaningful communication lies vocabulary knowledge (Goh & Burns, 2012), and it is a prerequisite for oral communication and reading comprehension (Ardasheva, Hao, & Zhang, 2020). Vocabulary knowledge is further *sine qua non* for language skills development. The multifaceted nature of vocabulary encompasses “that meaning does not always map onto form in a one-to-one manner, that much vocabulary consists of formulaic sequences, that content and function words behave very differently, and that words have semantic, syntagmatic, grammatical, and morphological relationships.” (Schmitt & Schmitt, 2020, p. 14). This complex nature of vocabulary has caused the emergence of a wide range of theories of vocabulary teaching, which makes it “essential for teachers to know not only what words to teach, but also what it means to know a word and how to teach vocabulary most effectively and efficiently” (Ardasheva, Hao, & Zhang, 2020, p. 126) especially given that it is a well-established fact in the literature that direct vocabulary learning is more effective than incidental vocabulary learning (Nation & Meara, 2020). Nevertheless, only a limited number of studies has examined teachers’ knowledge, beliefs, or practices related to vocabulary teaching to date (Chung, 2018).

In a study, Gao and Ma (2011) examined student teachers’ and teachers’ beliefs related to vocabulary teaching/learning. The study was carried out with 250 participants in Hong Kong and on the Chinese mainland. Data came from a questionnaire, open-ended questions, and in-depth interviews. The findings showed that participants’ beliefs varied in two different contexts. As such, the teachers from Hong Kong expressed the importance of memorization in vocabulary learning whereas the others from the Chinese mainland marked the pivotal role of using vocabulary. Additionally, student teachers from Hong

Kong were less cognizant of vocabulary learning strategies whilst their counterparts from the mainland Chinese were more open to strategy development. These findings highlighted “the contextual nature of the participants’ beliefs” (p. 339).

Likewise, in another study conducted in Hong Kong, Chung (2018) studied four in-service English language teachers’ beliefs about vocabulary development through in-depth semi-structured interviews as well as the major factors affecting their beliefs. The analysis of the data indicated that teachers made use of vocabulary teaching strategies to a small extent whereas they stressed the pivotal importance of vocabulary teaching. Besides, their previous language learning experiences, contextual factors (such as school policies, course books, the English language curriculum, social expectations, student factors, and public examinations), and the reading of research-based papers influenced teachers’ beliefs. It was a significant finding that teachers reported that they had “limited opportunities and time to explore vocabulary teaching through teacher education, formal training, or professional exchanges with colleagues” (p. 506).

In another study, Mardali and Siyyari (2019) examined novice and experienced English language teachers’ beliefs and practices related to vocabulary teaching. Data were collected from a total of 100 teachers in Tehran through a novice and experienced teacher questionnaire and a questionnaire of teachers’ beliefs about second language vocabulary learning and teaching. Afterwards, twenty teachers’ classroom practices were observed using an observation checklist. The researchers reported that there were differences among teachers’ observed practice, perceived practices, and stated beliefs. Moreover, there were differences between novice and experienced teachers’ beliefs and practices. More specifically, experienced teachers implemented more vocabulary teaching strategies whereas novice teachers used fewer ones. Additionally, students’ success was the ultimate goal for the experienced teachers while drawing students’ attention was more important for novice teachers. Taken together, only recently have studies focused on examining the interplay between teachers’ thinking and their vocabulary teaching practices.

2.5. Conclusion

Considering that there is “increasing demand worldwide for competent English teachers and for more effective approaches to their preparation and professional development”

(Richards, 2008, p. 158), a conscious effort might be needed on the part of teacher educators to grapple with the changing needs of the society by untangling the dynamics of the student teachers' concerns. Only over the last two decades, however, have studies focusing on the development of teacher concern during the teaching practicum mushroomed in the literature. These studies were carried out in different teacher education programmes such as music teacher education (e.g., Coleman, 1999; Campbell & Thompson, 2007; Berg & Miksza, 2010; Miksza & Berg, 2013; Powell, 2016), science education (e.g., Boz, 2008; Boz & Boz, 2010; Boz & Cetin-Dindar, 2021), elementary education (e.g., Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Poulou, 2007), and secondary education (e.g., Aarts, et al., 2020; Smith, et al., 2013). However, the existing literature has rarely focused on English language student teachers' concerns (e.g., Kaygısız & Balçıkanlı, 2021; Yalcin Arslan & İlin, 2018).

As demonstrated from this review of literature, the studies on teacher concern mostly unveiled student teachers' stated concerns during their practicum experiences (e.g., Poulou, 2007; Regier, 2021; Swennen, Jörg, & Korthagen, 2004). Nevertheless, only has a limited number of studies utilized classroom observation and lesson plans as data collection tools (e.g., Berg & Miksza, 2010; Miksza & Berg, 2013). Thus, there is a scarcity of studies examining actual classroom teaching practices. Considering that the question of whether there is a match between teacher concerns and classroom teaching practices remains partially unanswered, the present study might therefore contribute to the literature by filling such a void.

Previous research predicated on Fuller's concerns-based model yielded mixed results with regard to the dominant role of each discrete stage of teacher concern. For instance, Swennen, Jörg, and Korthagen (2004) examined student teachers' concerns studying in a Dutch teacher education programme through nontraditional data collection tools such as drawing and a card-sorting instrument and found that student teachers had mostly impact concerns. In another study, Boz (2008) investigated student teachers' concerns by employing Turkish student teachers majoring in science education and argued that they had mostly task concerns. Likewise, Berg and Miksza (2010) and Miksza and Berg (2013) studied student teachers' concerns in a music education programme at an American university and reported that their task concerns were rated highest when compared to self- or impact concerns. Therefore, disclosing the various types of teacher concern of student

teachers from different contexts and programmes merits further investigation in order to mitigate them in the future. Additionally, what kind of their task-related concerns second language student teachers hold remains an issue unanswered so far.

Moreover, with regard to research on the teaching of language skills and components, the overall picture emerged showed that the existing literature mostly focused on the relationship between teacher belief, a sub-system of teacher cognition, and classroom practices. Second language teacher cognition might be defined as “an often tacit, personally-held practical system of mental constructs held by teachers and which are dynamic—i.e. defined and refined on the basis of educational and professional experiences throughout teachers’ lives” (Borg, 2006, p. 35). Integral to teacher cognition are teachers’ knowledge, attitude, perceptions, thoughts, opinions, and beliefs. Teacher belief deals with delving into teachers’ stances and understandings in relation to the teaching profession *per se* in order to make sense of their teaching pedagogies in general. Building on the previous literature, the present study aims to mirror what makes student teachers concerned while teaching language skills and components along with the sources of their concerns in particular rather than portraying their overall inner pedagogies. In so doing, exploring the sources of their concerns pertaining to teaching English language might provide a complementary framework given that teachers’ concerns quintessentially designate a part of teachers’ belief systems.

Additionally, in the Turkish context, Boz (2008), Boz and Çetin-Dindar (2021), and Yalcin Arslan and İlin (2018) casted light on student teachers’ concerns by adopting questionnaires. As stated by Borg and Burns (2008), the questionnaires “cannot measure action but only respondents’ reports of their actions” (p. 459). They further add that questionnaires might “generate superficial answers and do not allow in-depth exploration of particular issues” (p. 459). Thus, the studies examining the interplay between teachers’ beliefs and practices mostly followed a case study design (e.g., Farrell & Lim, 2005; Phipps & Borg, 2009; Serdar Tülüce, 2019). In a parallel philosophy, the present study adopts a case study design, and classroom observation might provide further data to act as a mirror that truly reflects student teachers’ concerns during their teaching practicum, whereby uncovering actual snippets from the classroom.

Taken together, this dissertation study attempts to provide fine-grained and up-close descriptions of English language student teachers’ concerns about teaching English during

their teaching practicum by adopting a multiple case study design. More specifically, this study aims to probe student teachers' self-, task, impact, and context-related concerns by availing qualitative data collection tools such as interviews, written and oral reflections, and classroom observation to generate new insights and open a revealing window on what makes second language student teachers concerned while making instructional decisions during their teaching practicum experiences, namely on the brink of their transition into the teaching profession. The next chapter presents the research design of the study along with the research questions and data collection tools.



CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.0. Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design of the present study and the procedures followed to collect and analyze the data in the following order: i) research design, ii) participants and setting, iii) the researcher, iv) data collection tools, v) data collection procedure, and vi) data analysis.

3.1. Research Design

This study attempts to unveil the dynamics of student teachers' concerns by examining their teaching experience in their natural settings. Thus, a pure qualitative research approach was adopted to understand "how social experience is created and given meaning." (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 8) by "attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003, p. 5). Qualitative research successfully lends itself to "new details or openings that may emerge during the process of investigation" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 37). Therefore, it might respond to the complex nature of student teachers' concerns by drawing upon a wide range of data collection tools such as interviews, reflective journals, open-ended questionnaires, and classroom observation. In qualitative research, "meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world" (Merriam, 2002, p. 3), and data are collected (Fred & Perry, 2011, p. 80):

- i. in natural settings,

- ii. through concentrated contact over time,
- iii. holistically - “systematic, encompassing, integrated”,
- iv. from deep inside the situation trying to hold preconceived notions in check,
- v. by the researcher who is the “main ‘measurement device,’”
- vi. to analyze for patterns, comparisons, and contrasts,
- vii. with interpretations constrained by theoretical interests and/or “internal consistency,” and,
- viii. consisting mainly of verbal data.

Qualitative data collection further requires “an extended firsthand engagement” (Hatch, 2002, p. 7) in the research settings and participants with “a completely open mind” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 37) on the part of the researcher. Since exploring the dynamics of English language students’ teaching concerns is a less charted territory, the exploratory nature of qualitative research might facilitate probing the complexity of multiple cases, namely seven student teachers as multiple cases, in a flexible and detailed way.

This qualitative study adopted a multiple case study design. Merriam (1998) delineated case study as an “intensive, holistic description and analysis of a bounded phenomenon” (p. xiii). To explain the dynamics of student teachers’ concerns and the congruence between student teachers’ concerns and teaching practices as a bounded phenomenon, seven participants, each of whom was construed as different cases, were closely and meticulously examined by the researcher. Case study design was used since it offers an opportunity to unearth “a contemporary phenomenon (the “case”) in depth and within its real-world context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident” (Yin, 2014, p. 16) and thus to depict the aforementioned “phenomenon in depth” (Merriam, 2002, p. 8). Additionally, triangulation was ensured through the combination of semi-structured interview sessions as well as both written and screencast-mediated oral reflective journals. In-depth interviews were conducted with the student teachers over three months, and multiple data collection sources were used such as classroom observation of the student teachers’ teaching practices (which were also video-recorded), reflective journal entries, and surveys including open-ended and close-ended items to provide a holistic description of the cases. These multifaceted data

collection sources also contributed to conjuring up a clear image of the multiple cases in readers' mind by providing rich documentation of the cases, thereby assuring "thick description" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 60) for the readers to identify themselves with the research study. Besides, 74 open-ended items were prepared by the researcher and used in three different in-depth interview sessions. The questions in the first interview set were asked to unearth the student teachers' previous language learning and teaching experiences, their perceptions of teaching and learning English, and their concerns about foreign language teaching and practicum experiences in general. The questions in the second interview set were prepared based on four categories of teacher concern discussed in the previous chapter, whereby aiming to reveal student teachers' self-concerns, task concerns, impact concerns, and their concerns about other contextual factors. Finally, the questions in the third set attempted to reveal their concerns about teaching English language skills and components in detail.

3.2. Participants and Setting

This study was carried out with seven fourth-year student teachers enrolled in a four-year Bachelor of Arts programme in English Language Teacher Education at Gazi University, Turkey. The English language teacher education programmes span four years, eight semesters in total, in the Turkish universities. In these programmes, student teachers receive courses with regard to practicum starting from the second semester of the third year by initially observing the real classrooms. In their fourth year, they commence their teaching practice and perform macro lessons during both the first and second semester of the academic year, in which they are required to perform six macro lessons over a period of twelve weeks. In four of these lessons, their performances are observed by their mentor and the university supervisor. A practicum cohort includes seven or eight student teachers assigned to a university supervisor and two mentors (a mentor works with maximum four student teachers). Besides, they complete their teaching practice in either a primary or secondary state school or a high school throughout the semester.

In this study, the participants were two females and five males, and their ages ranged from 22 and 25. They were all native speakers of the Turkish language, and their English proficiency levels were B2 or C1 based on the Common European Framework of

References. They had been learning English for at least twelve years at the time of data collection. A Practicum cohort including seven student teachers was purposefully selected among fifteen convenient Practicum cohorts since purposive sampling helped to gain an insight into “information-rich cases” (Patton, 2015, p. 401) by focusing on relatively small cases. More specifically, the participants were selected based on the following four criteria:

- a) they were representative of all of the fourth-graders at the university in terms of their academic success including high, medium, and bottom scores based on their Grade Point Average (GPA),
- b) the researcher was familiar with them either by supervising their course selection for four years or observing their methodological courses during the previous years,
- c) their university supervisor was willing to permit the researchers to integrate all the data collection tools into the course syllabus, and
- d) all of the participants agreed to provide both oral and written data whenever necessary.

Detailed information about the participants was provided in Table 2. Pseudonyms were used to ensure the closure of their identity.

Table 2

Information about the Participants

Participants	ST1	ST2	ST3	ST4	ST5	ST6	ST7
Name	Arda	Beren	Hazal	Kaan	Serdar	Uzay	Yekta
Gender	Male	Female	Female	Male	Male	Male	Male
Age	23	22	23	23	25	23	23
GPA	3.10 (Mediocre)	3.51 (High)	3.23 (Mediocre)	2.60 (Low)	3.34 (High)	3.25 (Mediocre)	2.64 (Low)
Preparatory program	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes
Teaching experience	None	None	None	None	Yes – 1.5 years	Yes – 1.5 years	Yes – 1 year
Staying abroad	No	Yes – Spain (3 months)	No	No	No	No	No
Professional Goal	Working as a teacher at a state school	Working as a teacher at a state school	Pursuing an academic career	Working as a translator	Working as a teacher and pursuing an academic career	Working as an instructor and pursuing an academic career	Working as a teacher at a state school and pursuing an academic career

Data were collected throughout the spring semester of the 2020-2021 academic year. At the time of data collection, the participants were taking a compulsory course in the program titled ‘Teaching Practice (Öğretmenlik Uygulaması)’, which offered student teachers an opportunity for pedagogical implementation of their theoretical knowledge pertaining to teaching a second/foreign language. Prior to Practicum, the teacher education program offered a series of compulsory methodological courses such as Teaching Reading and Writing Skills, Teaching Listening and Speaking Skills, and Teaching English to Young Learners, for all of which student teachers prepared and presented micro-lessons to their classmates.

Student teachers experienced teaching in a natural classroom setting for the first time at a state secondary school in Ankara, Turkey. Unfortunately, the Covid-19 pandemic led to a shift from face-to-face education to online education as a medium of instruction. Therefore, they delivered their presentations through an online teaching platform, Zoom, and they were teaching online for the first time. As a requirement of the ‘Teaching Practice’, they presented four macro lessons and prepared lesson plans for each of them. Their lessons were both videotaped and observed by their university supervisor, mentor, and the researcher. After presenting their lessons, the student teachers received oral feedback from their peers and the university supervisor in the online meetings held for two hours each week to follow student teachers’ progress and give feedback on their lesson plans and classroom presentations. Besides, the student teachers shared their feelings and opinions about their teaching experiences and the challenges they faced during these meetings.

The Practicum school was located in the city center, and the socioeconomic status of the school was neither high nor low. The classrooms consisted of almost twenty-eight students, but only half of them regularly followed the lessons. The lessons took thirty minutes, and the student teachers observed their mentor for four hours a week. Besides, they planned and presented their macro lessons within this time limit. They planned and delivered their macro lessons for fifth, sixth, or seventh graders across all four lessons. The student teachers were divided into two separate groups. In other words, both groups worked with one of the previously determined two mentors who had previously taught at elementary or secondary schools for more than ten years. All the student teachers expressed that their mentors provided the necessary guidance and support for them, and

they felt autonomous in their teaching context. They further stated that the mentors firmly followed the curriculum and course books determined by the Ministry of National Education. Additionally, the mentors mostly used their mother tongue to deliver the teaching content and classroom instructions. Finally, they mainly adopted traditional approaches to the teaching of grammar, in which the grammatical rules and structures were directly explained to the learners.

3.3. The Researcher

The researcher was a research assistant at the university where the data were collected. She was familiar with the context because she observed the methodology classes offered to the participants during the previous years. She was further familiar with the target population of the study since she had supervised their selection of the courses for four years, which could help establish trustworthiness through close contact and collaboration with them. Besides, she conducted and published two qualitative studies carried out with a similar group of student teachers before collecting data for her dissertation research. Thus, she was aware of the facilitating and challenging factors for student teachers stemming from both the teacher education programme and the practicum school contexts as well as the medium of instruction adopted at that time (i.e., online teaching or emergency remote teaching). As a researcher, she appreciated the flexible nature of the qualitative research paradigm and firmly believed that this paradigm could facilitate portraying the dynamic nature of the student teachers' concerns in multiple cases.

During the data collection process, she was assisting the 'Teaching Practice' course. The university supervisor provided all the guidance and support to help her collect data whenever it was necessary for the sake of triangulation and thick description. The researcher attended online meetings delivered in the mode of whole-group sessions and observed the student teachers' interactions with their supervisor and peers by taking down notes for her researcher journal.

3.4. Data Collection

This qualitative case study employed a wide range of data collection tools including two surveys including both open-ended and close-ended items, three sets of semi-structured individual interviews, written and oral reflective journals, classroom observation (and video-recorded nonparticipant detached observation) and classroom documents (lesson plans and classroom activities), and the researcher journal. Table 3 provides a summary of the research questions, and data collection tools employed to answer these questions as well as the specific aims of the study. Besides, the total amount of data collected utilizing these tools is presented in Table 4.



Table 3

Research Questions and Data Collection Tools

Research Question	Data Collection Tool	Data Analysis	Aim
1. What are the student teachers' concerns during their Teaching Practicum experiences?	In-depth interviews Written reflective journals Oral reflective journals A follow-up reflective journal	Content Analysis	To explore student teachers' concerns in general
2. What are the student teachers' concerns about teaching English language skills and components?	In-depth interviews Written reflective journals Oral reflective journals A follow-up reflective journal	Content Analysis	To explore student teachers' concerns about teaching English language skills and components in particular
2.a. What types of concerns do student teachers have with regard to teaching language skills?			
2.b. What types of concerns do student teachers have with regard to teaching language components?			
3. To what extent are student teachers' perceived concerns congruent with their observed classroom practices?	Classroom observation Classroom artefacts In-depth interviews Written reflective journals Oral reflective journals A follow-up reflective journal The researcher's log (Field notes taken down during the whole-group meetings)	Content Analysis	To examine student teachers' actual classroom practices

Table 4

The Total Amount of Data Collected

Data collection tools	The total amount of data collected
Interviews	942 minutes (15.7 hours)
Written reflective journals	9319 words
Oral reflective journals	217 minutes
Surveys	LLN: 3687 words; PBQ: 4138 words
Classroom observation (Video-recorded)	14 hours (28x30-min classroom hour)
Classroom artefacts (Lesson plans and activities)	28 lesson plans (324 pages in total)
Researcher journal	42 pages (hand-written)
Follow-up reflective journals	10.700 words

3.4.1. Surveys

Two different surveys were utilized for this study: i) language learning history (LLN, henceforth), ii) professional background questionnaire (PBQ, henceforth). The language learning history was prepared by the researcher (see Appendix A). Expert opinion was gathered for each item, and necessary revisions were made accordingly in terms of wording and adding a few items. It included 10 open-ended items to gather information about student teachers' demographic information and their language learning experiences. To determine their beliefs about learning English, they were further asked to provide concrete reasons and events which might determine why they liked or disliked English from primary school to university. It also included eight close-ended items to identify their self-assessment related to their own language skills and components proficiency. As such, they were asked to self-rate their English language proficiency from 1 to 7 (from 1 to 7; 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= fair, 4= functional, 5= good, 6= very good, 7= native like).

Likewise, the professional background questionnaire was prepared by the researcher (see Appendix B), and expert opinion was taken for each item. The expert holds PhD degree in the field and her major interests include second language teacher education. Based on her suggestions, necessary revisions were made and several items were added into the questionnaire. The questionnaire was used to gain insight into student teachers' language teaching experiences, if any, and their beliefs towards teaching English. It included thirteen open-ended items to determine their perceptions about their own language skills and component teaching competencies. It also included eleven close-ended items to identify their self-assessment with reference to their teaching competencies related to

language skills and components. They were asked to self-rate their English language teaching competencies from 1 to 7 (from 1 to 7; 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= fair, 4= functional, 5= good, 6= very good, 7= professional).

3.4.2. In-depth Interviews

To explore student teachers' perceived concerns and self-reported perceptions, interviews were used as a data collection tool for this study since they could help researchers "investigate phenomena that are not directly observable" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173). Given that one-shot interviews could barely provide full and detailed descriptions of the phenomena, multiple interview sessions were preferred by following "a sequence of three interviews" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 134). Accordingly, the first interview session was carried out to establish rapport between the researcher and the participants; the second session was conducted to delve more into student teachers' perceived self, task, impact, and overall concerns; and the third session aimed to clarify and detail the previous points expressed by the student teachers to arrive at rich descriptions of the multiple cases. A semi-structured format was adopted since it offers researchers enough "freedom to digress and probe for more information" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 173) as well as having a list of pre-prepared questions as a guide. It further helps to collect data "in an exploratory manner" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 136) by expanding the depth and breadth of the responses. Last but not least, it provides an opportunity "to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic" (Merriam, 2009, p. 90).

A total of 74 open-ended items used in the interview sessions were developed for the study by the researcher. The items on the first interview set (27 items, see Appendix C) were created to foster a rapport with the student teachers by building up a climate of trust and breaking the ice. These items further focused on student teachers' language learning and teaching experiences in order to explore their perceptions, beliefs, and opinions about teaching English language skills and components as well as their overall concerns with regard to the practicum. The items were prepared after reviewing the relevant literature attentively. To elaborate on the dimensions of the teacher concern, the items in the second interview set (22 items, see Appendix D) were prepared based on the factors

addressed in Borich's (1992) Teacher Concerns Checklist and in Swennen and her colleagues (2004). Borich's (1992) questionnaire included forty-five close-ended items based on self, task and impact concerns, each of them including fifteen items. Swennen and her colleagues (2004) designed a card sorting instrument based on this questionnaire, and they included overall educational concerns as an additional factor to these three factors mentioned above. The factors and relevant items in these instruments were taken into account to develop interview questions for this study since they were comprehensive enough and they provided a holistic perspective into the area of teacher concern. These factors and sample interview questions were provided in Table 5 below. Finally, the items on the third interview set (25 items, see Appendix E) were created to clarify student teachers' previous comments and reveal their concerns about language skills and components teaching more specifically.

Table 5

Factors and Sample Interview Questions

Factors	Items*	Sample interview questions
Self-concerns	Whether the pupil like me or not Getting a favorable evaluation from my mentor Pupils who disrupt my class Becoming a good teacher	How much is it important for you that your students love you or not? Do you think their love affects your teaching performance? What kind of classroom management problems do you experience? Are you concerned about the students who disrupt your class?
Task concerns	Selecting and teaching content well The socio-pedagogical climate Too many pupils in one class Adequately presenting all of the required material	How do you select the teaching content? Do you believe that you are able to select the content appropriately? What are your concerns about selecting the content? What kind of challenges do you experience while presenting the content? Do you think that you teach the content well? If no, what prevents you from doing that?
Impact concerns	Diagnosing pupils with learning problems Being fair and impartial Adapting myself to the needs of different pupils Motivating pupils to learn	Do you have any students with learning problems? If yes, do you have any strategies to help them? What do you think about your students' needs? Do you think you are able to satisfy their needs? If yes/no, why?
Overall educational concerns (Context-related concerns in this study)	Lack of freedom to initiate innovative instruction Staff collaboration Too many non-instructional duties Inadequate teaching salaries	Do you implement novel teaching practices? Do you think that you are autonomous enough to implement novel teaching practices? What do you think about collaborating with your friends/colleagues?

Initially, a total of 76 open-ended interview items were developed by the researcher at the very beginning of the study. Then, expert opinions were gathered from a professor in the field of second language teacher education and a research assistant holding a doctoral degree in the same field. They were informed about Fuller's (1969) concerns-based model and main types of teacher concern suggested in the literature. They made some recommendations in terms of word choice for the items and suggested adding a few more items for the overall educational concerns. Four additional items were later presented to their opinions and they approved of using these items. Besides, interview questions were piloted by employing a similar group of student teachers and some repetitive items were

omitted from the item pool (six items). Moreover, minor changes were made to improve the intelligibility of the wording of the items. Consequently, the final pool included 74 items.

Interview sessions were conducted in the participants' mother tongue to help them better explain their opinions and concerns. All the interview sessions were audio recorded, transcribed verbatim, and translated into English whenever necessary by the researcher. The total duration of the interview durations is provided in Table 6.

Table 6

Total Duration of the Interview Sessions

	Session I	Session II	Session III
Arda	33'	35'	41'
Beren	93'	56'	73'
Hazal	37'	27'	47'
Kaan	42'	25'	40'
Serdar	46'	39'	46'
Uzay	32'	30'	42'
Yekta	45'	51'	62'

3.4.3. Written Reflective Journals

Reflection could be delineated as “the process of making sense of one's experiences by deliberately and actively examining one's thoughts and actions to arrive at new ways of understanding oneself as a teacher” (Freese, 1999, p. 898). In this regard, written reflective journal entries were used to encourage student teachers to express their most salient concerns about their classroom experiences clearly in their own words as well as their internal thoughts that “may be inaccessible from the researcher's perspective alone” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 178). More specifically, student teachers were asked to reflect on their concerns and thoughts by drawing upon their classroom experiences considering that journals are “useful sources of information about student teacher thinking and concerns” (Guillaume & Rudney, 1993, p. 68). In so doing, written reflective journals were availed to explore their concerns and thoughts before teaching experiences whereas oral reflective journals were utilized to reveal their concerns and thoughts after their teaching experiences given the affordances of reflective journal writing juxtaposed below (Spalding & Wilson, 2002, p. 95):

- i. journals serve as a permanent record of thoughts and experiences,
- ii. journals provide a means of establishing and maintaining relationship with instructors,
- iii. journals serve as a safe outlet for personal concerns and frustrations,
- iv. journals are an aid to internal dialogue,
- v. journals serve as windows into our students' thinking and learning,
- vi. journals provide a means of establishing and maintaining relationship with students,
- vii. journals serve as dialogical teaching tools.

As a requirement of the 'Teaching Practice' course, student teachers prepared and presented four macro lessons in which their teaching performance was observed and video-recorded. During the preparation stage, they were asked to write four written reflective journals in which they explained the reasons behind their selection of classroom activities and materials as well as the skills and components they planned to focus on in order to gain an insight into their justification for their classroom practices. They were specifically asked to write their journals based on five pre-determined yet not restrictive prompts (see Appendix F).

3.4.4. Screencast-mediated Oral Reflective Journals

As previously mentioned, the student teachers were asked to lead four different macro lessons. After their lessons, they were further asked to reflect on their feelings about their classroom practices orally in order to encourage student teachers' spontaneous and instant reflections. Oral reflective journals were availed to promote stimulated recall and video-assisted reflection in order to facilitate student teachers' retrospection of their teaching experiences given that video-assisted recall encourages "significantly greater experiential immersion and resulted in two to four times the amount of detail recalled by participants" (Powell, 2013, p. 366) than free recall.

The student teachers watched their video-recorded lessons and recorded their oral reflections by pausing their videos through a digital tool called 'Loom'. This tool enabled them to capture their screen activities and audio-record their comments at the same time. At the very beginning, the researcher demonstrated how to install and avail this tool on

the computer step by step and created a screencast video in which she recorded herself while using this tool.

The student teachers were specifically required to pause at any point and describe the point that they felt concerned and confident in detail within seventy-two hours after their classroom teaching experience. They were motivated to speak freely and share their feelings drawing upon their teaching experiences. That being said, they were expected to keep in mind the following questions to promote further reflection on their feelings in case they had nothing to share: i) When did you feel concerned?, ii) When did you feel confident?, iii) If you were doing the same lesson again, is there anything you would change? (see Appendix G) In so doing, focusing on both concern and confidence, instead of a concerns-only manner, might be conducive to conjuring up a more nuanced and balanced perspective of student teachers' concerns and confidence regarding their actual classroom practices. All the recordings of their oral reflections were transcribed verbatim and prepared for qualitative analysis.

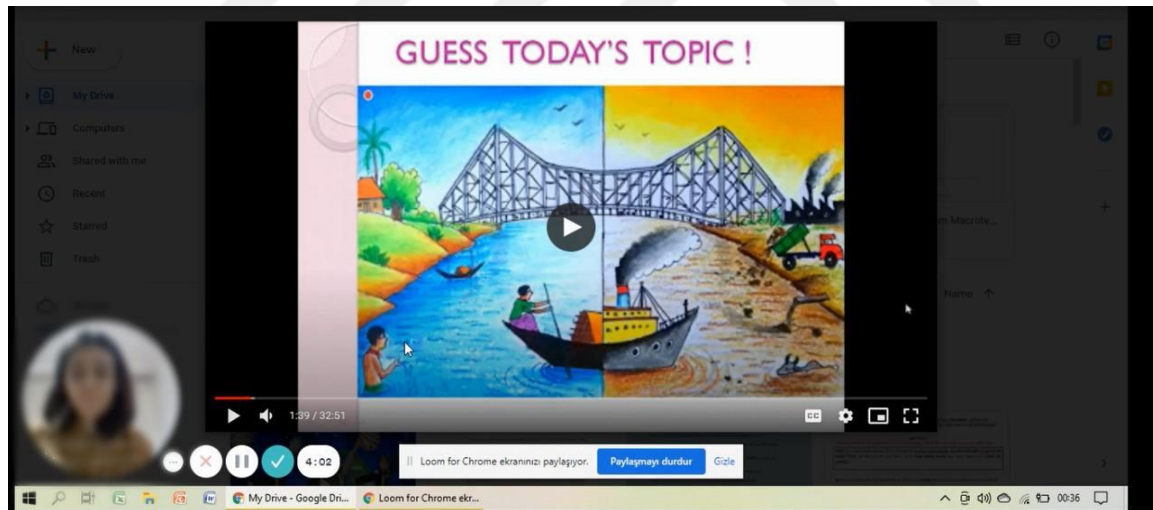


Figure 3. Screencast-mediated oral reflection.

3.4.5. Follow-up Written Reflective Journal

In order to clarify the points expressed both in written and oral reflective journals, student teachers were asked to write a follow-up written reflective journal at the end of the semester. The journal included 17 open-ended items (see Appendix H). The student

teachers expressed their concerns and experiences in a more detailed way. The journal thus contributed to saturation of the data obtained through written and oral reflective journals as well as in-depth interviews.

3.4.6. Classroom Observation

Four macro-lessons performed by student teachers were observed by the university supervisor, mentor teacher, and the researcher. These lessons were also video-recorded in order to enable oral reflections and to analyze classroom activities and materials previously selected and the language skills and components student teachers focused on. In doing so, the researcher aimed to unveil the (in)congruence between their concerns and classroom practices.

3.4.7. Classroom Artefacts (Lesson Plans and Activities)

Student teachers prepared four different lesson plans for each macro lesson they performed, and they added materials and activities to their plans. All these classroom documents were obtained for further analysis of their actual classroom practices (see Appendix I for a sample lesson plan).

3.4.8. The Researcher's Log

As the researcher of the present study, I participated in the meetings held weekly between the student teachers and the university supervisor and took down notes about their discussions. My journal included Whatsapp messages, conversations during the meetings and feedback sessions delivered by the university supervisor, and field notes from their teaching practices. A total of 14 entries (42 pages in total) were created during the whole semester. These notes helped to clarify, back up, or refine the stances the participants expressed in their written or oral journals or during the interviews (see Appendix J for a sample lesson plan).

3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Data were collected during the spring semester of the 2020-2021 academic year. The ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the university (see Appendix K). The process of data collection started at the beginning of the eighth semester of teacher education programme during which the student teachers were enrolled in the Teaching Practice course. The student teachers were informed about the required tasks, but the precise purpose of the study was not revealed to them until data collection was completed. The content of the 12-week practicum course was depicted in the Table 7.



Table 7

Data Collection Procedure

Week 1	Open-ended Questionnaire (Language Learning History)
Week 2	Open-ended Questionnaire (Professional Background/Teaching Experience)
Week 3	Lesson Preparation Written Reflective Journal I
Week 4	Macro-teaching I Screencast-mediated Oral Reflection I
Week 5	Interview I Lesson Preparation II Written Reflective Journal II
Week 6	Macro-teaching II Screencast-mediated Oral Reflection II
Week 7	Lesson Preparation III Written Reflective Journal III
Week 8	Macro-teaching III Screencast-mediated Oral Reflection III Interview II
Week 9	Lesson Preparation IV Written Reflective Journal IV
Week 10	Macro-teaching IV Screencast-mediated Oral Reflection IV
Week 11	Follow-up Reflective Journal
Week 12	Interview III

As indicated in Table 7, during the first week, student teachers were assigned to complete language learning history including items about demographic information. The following week, they completed the professional background questionnaire. Within the requirement of the teaching practice, they were expected to perform macro-lessons at the beginning and at the end of the semester in order to compare their performances as stated by the officials from the Ministry of National Education. Hence, the student teachers planned their lessons, prepared a lesson plan, wrote a reflective journal in which they clearly expressed the planning process, and performed their lessons during the third and fourth weeks. Following the first lesson, they attended the first interview session during the fifth

week after they familiarized themselves with the teaching context, pupils, and their mentors.

The interview session was carried out following a funnel model (Smith, 1995). As such, the session started with an open-ended format focusing on general issues about the practicum and the challenges the student teachers experienced and then switched to the predetermined questions in a semi-structured format. This model was followed in the other interview sessions, as well.

After the first interview sessions, they planned and performed two different macro lessons bi-weekly. The second interview session therefore were conducted during the eighth week. Afterwards, they planned and performed their fourth macro lessons. As they completed their oral reflections, they were asked to complete a follow-up written reflection to clarify and elaborate on the missing points expressed in both written and oral reflections. Furthermore, they participated in weekly meetings with the supervisor, and the researcher attended these meetings and took field notes to further consolidate the data. Finally, the third interview session was carried out at the end of the semester.

3.6. Data Analysis

All the data from the verbatim transcripts of the interview sessions and reflective journals were content analyzed (Krippendorff, 2004; 2018) by following these four steps: a) reading all the data repeatedly to gain a general understanding, b) identifying the initial codes, c) determining the recurring categories, and d) making links between them to identify the main themes. As such, no a priori framework was applied to the data. All the data were transferred into the MaxQDA Pro software (Version 20.1.0) which was used to aid the process of data analysis, analyze and store the data, aggregate the frequencies, and retrieve excerpts from the data based on the themes.

In order to strengthen the inter-coder reliability of the data analysis process, the researcher collaborated with another equal-status peer, a research assistant in the field, to code the data. We worked independently of each other on the thirty percent of all the data and then discussed the codes and discrepancies until we reached a full agreement. Additionally, the data were analyzed in two different rounds by the researcher to enhance diachronic reliability (Miles & Huberman, 1994). To assure the credibility of the analysis,

all the codes and categories were discussed and negotiated with another experienced researcher, a seasoned associate professor working in the field.

In order to ensure the validity of the study, namely “the appropriateness, correctness, meaningfulness and usefulness of the specific inferences researchers make based on the data they collect” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2012, p. 148), the data were triangulated through multiple data collection tools such as interviews, classroom observation, and reflective journals, and member-checking sessions were carried out with the participants to establish the internal validity. Using multiple data collection tools further helped to tease out information about each case in the study in rich detail, thereby contributing to thick description which “helps the reader to identify with the project and thus come on the board” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 60). Besides, three experienced researchers, who had no previous relationships with the participants, from the field of second language teacher education (one is a professor and the other two hold a doctoral degree) provided expert opinions on interview questions and the items in the reflective journals and questionnaires to assure the external validity.

Succinctly, the researcher adopted an open-mind approach towards the emergence of the codes instead of following a set of predetermined codes. Hence, the researcher first read all the data from interviews and reflective papers repeatedly and then started highlighting all the statements expressing concerns during the initial coding process. Later, the statements were read once again, but this time the statements were coded using different colors. All these processes might be succinctly juxtaposed in ten steps:

Step 1. Reading the data repeatedly

The researcher read all the data coming from interview sessions and oral reflective journals previously transcribed verbatim as well as written reflective journals repeatedly to have a close familiarity with each participant, their professional background, their beliefs towards teaching and learning English, and their concerns about teaching and practicum experiences.

Step 2. Deciding how to analyze the data

Given that qualitative analysis is a personalized process only directed by the researcher himself or herself, each researcher should lay out a pattern based on their research questions and the nature of the qualitative data. Data must be coded taking into account

each item, each research question, or each data collection tool. With this in mind, in this multiple case study, after reading all the data coming from interview sessions, oral reflective journals, and written reflective journals repeatedly, the researcher decided to code the data case by case.

Step 3. Initial coding

After deciding to analyze each case individually, the first case was analyzed by examining the areas that student teachers felt concerned about. In this stage, 197 statements were coded, and a total of 64 codes emerged from the data. 44 of them were related to student teachers' major concerns (teaching in general) whereas 20 of them were germane to concerns about teaching English language skills and components in particular. Initial codes were highlighted in blue.

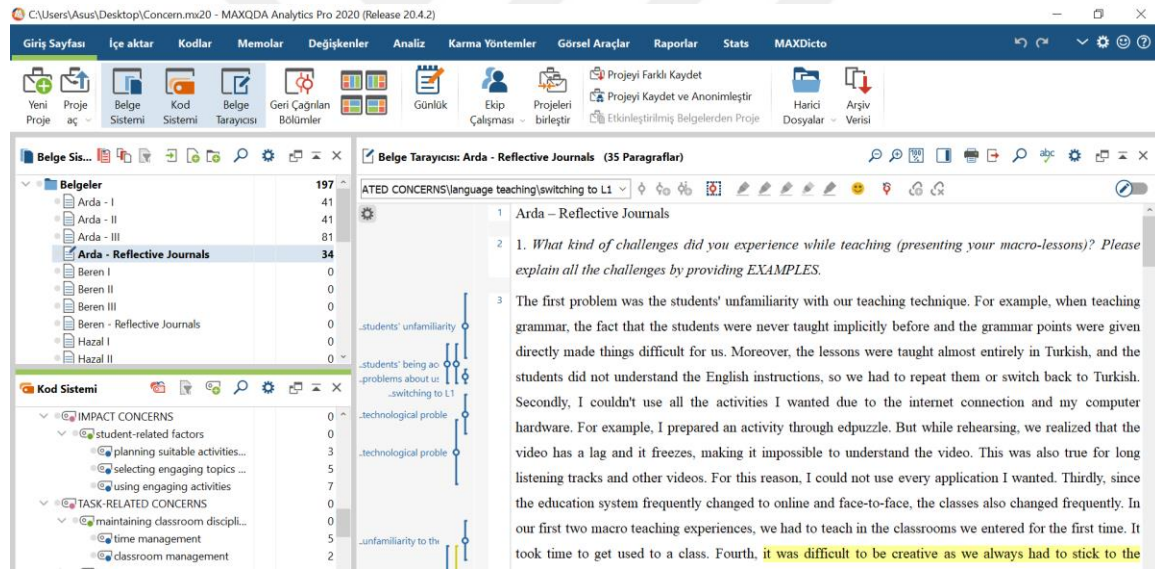


Figure 4. A Screenshot from MAXQDA.

Step 4. Categorizing the codes

The initial codes were further categorized based on their relationships to reach coherent answers to the research questions under investigation. 17 categories of student teachers' major concerns emerged from the data (student teachers' concerns about teaching language skills and components were not categorized but presented under relevant themes due to the facile nature of the emerging codes). The categories were displayed in green.

Step 5. Creating the themes

The themes were determined by clustering the recurring categories. Four themes were determined in parallel to the existing literature, and an additional theme emerged from the data.

Step 6. Establishing trustworthiness

All the data pertaining to the first case were also coded by another research assistant in the field. We compared and discussed our opinions until reaching a full agreement. We negotiated on a total of 43 codes and 16 categories with reference to the student teachers' major concerns.

Step 7. Creating a chart

A chart including codes and sample sentences was outlined to be applied for the remaining cases as well as staying flexible in case of the emergence of new codes. In so doing, the researcher aimed to reduce the data into manageable units in order to compare and contrast the categories of concerns among the cases.

Step 8. Cross-case comparison

The other cases were analyzed. Using the chart, different cases were compared in order to determine the similarities and differences among the cases. A total of 989 statements were coded. Besides, with regard to the student teachers' major concerns, there were 57 codes, 16 categories, and 5 themes. In other words, 13 new codes that emerged from the data were added to the pool including codes related to student teachers' major concerns.

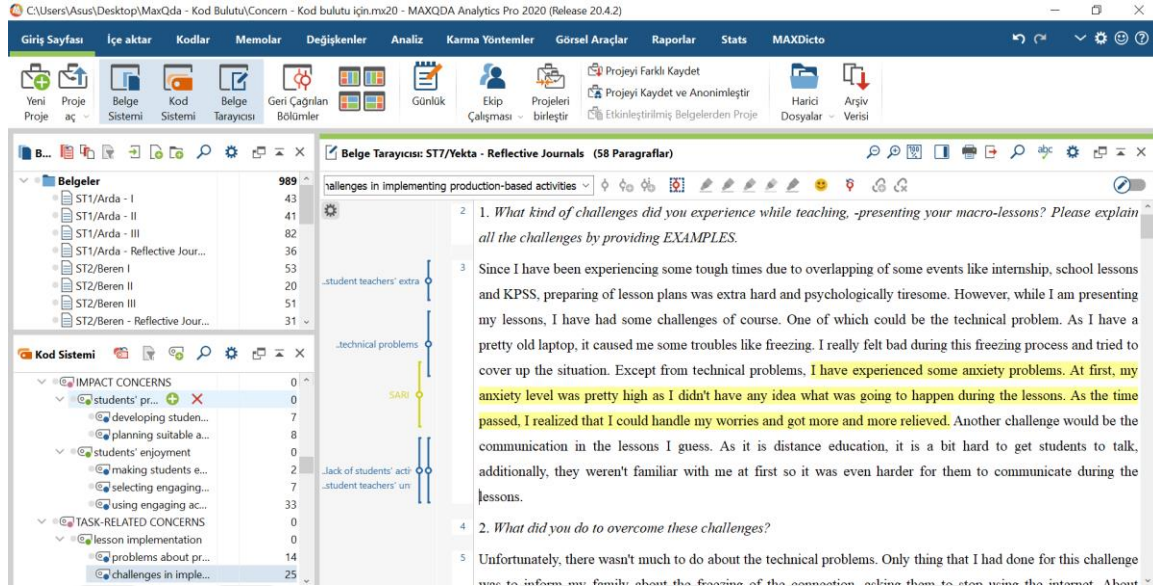


Figure 5. MAXQDA code system.

Step 9. Discussing the findings with an expert

All the codes, categories, and themes were discussed with an expert, an experienced associate professor in the field, to further clarify and elaborate on the findings. We discussed all the recurring codes and categories until there was a full agreement. She made recommendations about word choice of the codes, and five codes was omitted from the final pool considering that there was an overlap among the codes.

Step 10. Creating a model

Content analysis refers to a process of “coding, categorizing (creating meaningful categories into which the units of analysis – words, phrases, sentences etc. – can be placed), comparing (categories and making links between them), and concluding – drawing theoretical conclusions from the text” (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 476). With this idea in mind, some theoretical conclusions have been drawn from the data, and a concerns-based model of second language teacher education have been proposed based on the findings of the present study reported in this dissertation study. In order to ensure the credibility of the model, two experts holding a doctoral degree in the field of second language teacher education provided their opinions on the model, and necessary revisions were made in terms of wording of a few codes.

The next chapter presents the findings of the study reported in this dissertation along with the discussion of the findings by referring to the existing literature.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0. Introduction

The sections in this chapter present the findings of the study that emerged from the data as well as discussion of these findings. The chapter is divided into three sections: i) participants' profiles, ii) the major findings of the study (codes and categories based on the research questions), and iii) further discussion of the findings. A total of seven English language student teachers' concerns and experiences during their teaching practicum were examined in a multiple case study design. Their profiles are therefore clearly described below to gain an insight into their characteristics, experiences, opinions, and feelings. This chapter presents the findings from the surveys (language learning history [LLH] and professional background questionnaire [PBQ] in which student teachers rated their English language proficiency and language teaching competencies), oral and written reflective journals, semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and artefacts, a follow-up reflective journal, and the researcher's journal.

4.1. Participants' Profiles

The present study was designed as a multiple case study, in which data came from a wide range of qualitative data collection tools to examine the cases meticulously, thereby conjuring up a vivid image in the reader's mind with reference to their concerns and teaching practices. Each case is thus described in essential details below. While describing the cases, the following attributes of the participants were taken into consideration:

- gender
- age
- motivation for choosing ELT programme/becoming a teacher
- perceptions of learning and teaching
- their personality (weaknesses and strengths)
- professional goal (after graduation)
- self-rated English language proficiency
- self-rated language teaching competencies

Student Teacher #1: Arda

Arda was a male student teacher, and he was 23 years old. He was a mediocre student in terms of his academic success based on his grade point average (GPA= 3.10). He expressed that he learned English mostly by watching movies and playing video games during his high school years. He said that these tools motivated him to keep learning English. He further stated that he liked his English language teachers, which sparked off his interest in English, as well. It was significant to note that he did not study in the Foreign Language Department in high school, nor did he study in the preparatory programme of the university since he performed well in the in-house English proficiency test. Therefore, he verbalized that:

“I was less effective in writing and speaking than my receptive skills. I've tried to improve myself in these skills as much as possible over the time during my years at university.” (Arda, LLH)

Additionally, he loved most of his English language teachers and enjoyed learning English. He also helped his friends to make sense of the complicated points in the input provided in English, which motivated him further. Nevertheless, he articulated that he did not attempt to improve his English proficiency on a daily basis for the time being but followed news posted in English on social media. His self-rated language skills and components proficiency was displayed in Table 8 (from 1 to 7; 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= fair, 4= functional, 5= good, 6= very good, 7= native like).

He had no professional English language teaching experience except micro- and macro-lessons he performed during the undergraduate programme, yet he stated that he loved teaching English. He was happy that he decided to become a teacher, and his professional goal was to work as a teacher at a state school if he could obtain a right to work by succeeding in the national teacher selection exam. Nevertheless, he was concerned that he could allocate only a limited amount of time to studying for the exam due to the workload of the university-based courses and practicum experience at the same time. With regard to the context of the practicum school, he appreciated having established a good relationship with his mentor. As for his personality, concerning his strengths, he believed that he could develop positive relationships with the pupils and he could adapt his lessons based on his students' levels and interests. Additionally, he articulated his weakness by stating that he was not an energetic person and he did not feel energetic most of the time in his daily life, either.

He described language learning as a skill that everybody needed to develop and as an endless journey. He further added that it was difficult to teach English especially in Turkey owing to the limited classroom hours allocated for the English classes as well as the inner complexity of a second language. Besides, he delineated a good English language teacher as somebody who had a good rapport with the pupils and who could adapt his/her teaching skills and strategies to different student groups. Finally, his self-rated competencies related to teaching language skills and components were provided in Table 8 (from 1 to 7; 1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= fair, 4= functional, 5= good, 6= very good, 7= professional). From this point on, Arda will be addressed as ST1 while providing the findings of the study in the tables.

Table 8

Arda's Self-Rated Language Skills and Components Proficiencies and Teaching Competencies

	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Digital Literacy*	
Language proficiency	6	6	4	5	5	5	5	5	
	Teaching Reading	Teaching Listening	Teaching Writing	Teaching Speaking	Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary	Teaching Pronunciation	Digital Literacy **	Integrated Teaching
Teaching competency	6	6	5	5	6	6	5	6	6

*using digital technologies effectively in learning English

****teaching English by using digital technologies effectively**

Student Teacher #2: Beren

Beren was a female student teacher aged 22. She achieved the highest academic success (GPA= 3.51) among the participants of the present study. She learned English through stories and songs. She developed inner motivation to learn English. As such, she noted that:

“The more I integrate English in my life, the more I become fluent. Finally, I realised flinging myself into the English was actually discovering myself. For this reason, I set my aim and chose English teaching as a profession when I was at high school.” (Beren, LLH)

It was of value to state that she started learning English during her high school years as also noted by Arda. She expressed that her teachers exerted a significant impact on her desire for learning English. One year before the practicum experience, he had been in Spain for three months within the Erasmus internship program and taught English to young learners at a summer school. She explained that she felt satisfied with her English language proficiency but kept learning English by integrating it into her daily routines since she believed that language learning was a never-ending journey.

She did not take English classes in the Preparatory School at the university since she succeeded in the in-house English proficiency test. She was concerned about English grammar and admitted that she never found English grammar interesting or liked the course titled ‘Advanced Grammar’ offered in the first year of the teacher education programme. When asked to rate her English language proficiency on a scale from one to seven, she rated her English language proficiency as presented in Table 9.

Concerning the practicum school experience, she noted that the classrooms were crowded, and the time allocated for the lesson was quite limited (30 minutes in total). Her professional English language teaching experience was limited to teaching English to young learners as previously stated. She pointed out that she loved teaching English very much, but she seemed preoccupied with students’ low proficiency levels:

“I am really fond of teaching. I especially love teaching to young learners. But, I must admit that sometimes the low proficiency level of students makes me feel anxious. I carefully select easy words or structures. I want to convey the meaning without using Turkish. However, I feel more confident with my teaching to young learners of English. Because they do not feel afraid of making mistakes.” (Beren, PBQ)

She stated that she decided to become a teacher during her high school years by following her inner motivation since she wanted to have a special connection with the students:

“[...] I also feel like teaching to students is like capturing both their minds and their hearts. It is important to have the special connection between the students. Whatever the teaching methods or the used materials are, there is always a gap. This gap can be only filled if the students feel special. If the teacher provides this to [for] all of the students, then the teacher can be successful. For this reason, I chose to become a teacher.” (Beren, PBQ)

She defined learning as a never-ending journey and as an adventure to the mystery. Besides, she expressed that “the more someone feels relaxed, the more learning takes place”. She highlighted the pivotal role of students’ individual differences in the language teaching process. As for her strengths, she had confidence in her English language proficiency. However, she was concerned about her classroom management skills, which she interpreted as a weakness. She further articulated her concerns about crowded classrooms. Her professional goal was to work at a state school in Turkey after her graduation from the university. Her self-rated competencies with regard to teaching language skills and components were presented in Table 9. From this point on, Beren will be referred to as ST2.

Table 9

Beren’s Self-Rated Language Skills and Components Proficiencies and Teaching Competencies

	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	
Language proficiency	6	6	6	6	5	6	6	5	
	Teaching Reading	Teaching Listening	Teaching Writing	Teaching Speaking	Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary	Teaching Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	Integrated Teaching
Teaching competency	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6

Student Teacher #3: Hazal

Hazal was a female student teacher, and she was 23 years old. She was a mediocre student in terms of her academic success (GPA= 3.23). She started learning English through songs and by translating the English songs into Turkish when she was ten. She was passionate about learning, and her success inspired her to keep learning. Afterwards, when she was fourteen, she met an English language teacher who used songs and games in her classes, and she liked her a lot:

“In the fourth grade, I was utterly excited for the English lessons, but I was disappointed because our English teacher was nothing but a big joke. I felt like he did not know how to teach or empathize with young learners. Then, I met other teachers who were more willing to teach English. I was looking forward to attending Ayşegül teacher's class (my 8th grade teacher). She was using music and games in her lessons and I never had anything like that so far. That was when my interest in English at its peak. I chose English department in high school also.”
(Hazal, LLH)

Later, she learned English based on traditional grammar teaching methods during her high school years since the national English language teaching curriculum was predicated on this approach to a large extent. She attended the English Preparatory School prior to the teacher education programme, and she enunciated that preparatory classes contributed to her speaking skills a lot. She claimed that she had no opportunity to use English as much as she did in the preparatory programme. She never visited a foreign country before, and she complained that there was no one around to practice speaking English with. Nevertheless, she had confidence in her English language proficiency, and she expressed that she was good at speaking English. Besides, she expounded that she did nothing to improve her language proficiency on a daily basis. Information regarding her self-assessment of English language proficiency was presented in Table 10.

When she was asked to rate her love of teaching English on a scale from one to five (1=very little, 2= little, 3= neutral, 4= much, 5= very much), she surprisingly rated three although she remarked that she loved the language learning process very much. She was especially concerned about teaching English to young learners since she tried to teach English to them but felt anxious because they were not willing to participate in her lesson.

With regard to the practicum experience, she specified that she had a rapport with her mentor. She had no professional language teaching experience before.

She defined learning as a life-long experience, and she defined teaching as guidance. She stated that teaching English might be challenging when the teacher attempted to dovetail with only theory-based knowledge. As such, the dynamics of the classroom should be taken into consideration, and it should be kept in mind that language learning must follow a slow but steady process. As for her personality, she vocalized that she was patient and curious. As a weakness, she was not an energetic person or a cheerful teacher as also echoed by Arda. She therefore believed that it would be challenging for her to deal with young learners of English. Accordingly, as a professional goal, she aimed to pursue a Master's degree after graduation. She stated that her decision to become an English language teacher was affected by her family, her inner motivation, and a teacher who inspired her. Her self-rated competencies pertaining to teaching language skills and components were tabulated in Table 10. From this point on, Hazal will be addressed as ST3.

Table 10

Hazal's Self-Rated Language Skills and Components Proficiencies and Teaching Competencies

	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	
Language proficiency	6	6	6	6	7	7	6	5	
	Teaching Reading	Teaching Listening	Teaching Writing	Teaching Speaking	Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary	Teaching Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	Integrated Teaching
Teaching competency	5	5	5	5	6	6	6	6	5

Student Teacher #4: Kaan

Kaan was a male student teacher, and he was 23 years old. Among the participants of the present study, he had the lowest rate in terms of academic success (GPA= 2.60). He started learning English during his primary school years, and he voiced that he found himself trying to learn new words and phrases on his own. He learned English mostly through video games (chat rooms), movies, videos, and books. Regarding his English learning process, he verbalized that:

“In primary school, I thought I did not need to learn English because everything I knew had a Turkish translation and found English classes redundant and needless. It was when I figured out how learning English would open up the gates to seemingly endless media and entertainment that I decided to learn English. I think it is important for teachers and/or family to show that simply learning a single other language broadens up your world and opens the gates to previously unreachable places.” (Kaan, LLH)

He further stated that he mostly read online articles in English in his daily life. He further added that:

“It is very important for a learner to be interested in the language. I think the most important thing a teacher could do for their learners is to show them what they can do, read, watch, listen and play if they learn another language.” (Kaan, LLH)

Although his academic success was low, he performed well in the in-house English proficiency test administered at the beginning of the teacher education programme. Thus, he did not attend the preparatory programme. He believed that he was good at reading and writing. His self-rated English language proficiency was displayed in Table 11.

He had no professional teaching experience. With regard to the practicum experience, he was concerned about the distance and limited interaction with the students due to the transition to online education during the Covid-19 pandemic. When he was asked to rank his love of teaching English on a scale from one to five, he selected three like Hazal did. He stated that:

“I liked learning English and other languages, so I had no problems teaching simple subjects and topics to my friends. But when it comes to teaching fundamentals of the language I have a clear inefficiency.” (Kaan, PBQ)

Likewise, when he was asked to rank how happy he was with his decision to become a teacher on a scale from one to five (1=very little, 2= little, 3= neutral, 4= much, 5= very much), he rated two. He preferred to study in the ELT programme for two reasons. Firstly, he was willing to learn English and other foreign languages. Secondly, it was easier to find a job after graduation. Besides, both of his parents were teachers, which affected his decision:

“Initially I wanted to study psychology, but I failed to get into a university of my choice, and I did not want to prepare for the university exam for another year to most likely fail again. My family and friends convinced me it was a good idea to study ELT.” (Kaan, PBQ)

He defined learning as understanding the main mechanics of a subject, and he delineated teaching as both transferring knowledge and helping people learn how to learn. He believed that teaching English was not difficult as long as students had enough motivation and desire to learn. With reference to his strengths, he was confident about his speaking skills and pronunciation. As a weakness, he enunciated that he was not an energetic person like Arda and Hazal. Teaching profession was not his dream job, and he expressed that his professional goal was to become a translator after graduation. His self-rated competencies germane to teaching language skills and components were provided in Table 11. From this point on, Kaan will be referred to as ST4 while providing the findings of the study in the tables.

Table 11

Kaan's Self-Rated Language Skills and Components Proficiencies and Teaching Competencies

	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	
Language proficiency	7	5	4	5	4	7	6	7	
	Teaching Reading	Teaching Listening	Teaching Writing	Teaching Speaking	Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary	Teaching Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	Integrated Teaching
Teaching competency	4	3	3	6	4	6	5	6	4

Student Teacher #5: Serdar

Serdar was a male student teacher, and he was 25 years old. His academic success was high (GPA= 3.34). He decided to learn English considering that it was a necessity to know the language in daily life. His formal language education started when he was a fourth-grade student in primary school, but he voiced that he started learning English in high school. He attended preparatory class during the first year of his high school education, whereby he improved his English language proficiency. On the other hand, he performed

well in the in-house English proficiency test and did not study in the preparatory school of the teacher education programme.

He mostly learned English through readers and series. His willingness to communicate with people from all around the world spurred him to keep learning English. He expressed that the time that he allocated to study English on a daily basis decreased in time, but he kept watching movies and listening to podcasts in English. His self-rated English language proficiency was presented in Table 12.

As for the practicum experience, he stated that his mentor was a seasoned teacher and she mostly used L1 in the classroom. In this regard, he was concerned that when they gave instruction in L2, it could be challenging for students to make sense of the instruction. Serdar had professional teaching experience; to wit, he taught English in a formal context, a private language school, over one and half year. He therefore uttered that he felt confident while teaching English. When asked to rank his love of teaching English on a scale from one to five, he selected four and enunciated that he had fun while teaching English:

“Language is fun. It is not like any other subjects. So, I have fun while teaching.”
(Serdar, PBQ)

Additionally, when he was asked to rank how happy he was with his decision to become a teacher on a scale from one to five (1=very little, 2= little, 3= neutral, 4= much, 5= very much), he rated three. He explained the reason behind his choice as:

“I did not want to be a teacher actually. But the circumstances made me become one. I am not sad for this. I like my job, now. Hence, I cannot say I am happy, and also I am not sad for this decision.” (Serdar, PBQ)

He further explained that he liked learning languages, and he highlighted the important role of teacher in language learning process:

“I think teachers have the crucial part. Because if a student likes his/her teacher it is more likely for him/her to like the language itself.” (Serdar, LLH)

As a strength, he felt confident about teaching English. He desired to pursue an academic career after his graduation and work as a teacher at the same time. His self-rated competencies germane to teaching language skills and components were provided in Table

12. From this point on, Serdar will be addressed as ST5 while providing the findings of the study in the tables.

Table 12

Serdar's Self-Rated Language Skills and Components Proficiencies and Teaching Competencies

	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	
Language proficiency	6	6	5	4	7	4	5	6	
	Teaching Reading	Teaching Listening	Teaching Writing	Teaching Speaking	Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary	Teaching Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	Integrated Teaching
Teaching competency	6	6	4	5	6	7	5	6	5

Student Teacher #6: Uzay

Uzay was a male student teacher, and he was 23 years old. He was a mediocre student in terms of his academic success (GPA= 3.25). He stated that he started learning English when he was eight years old and he enjoyed learning. He explained the reasons behind his love for English as follows:

“There were no significant reason for me to dislike English; however, I can count some reasons for why I liked learning English. Firstly, my first English teacher was so interested in her job and she had brilliant relationships with students especially with the ones who are eager to learn English. Secondly, my high school English teacher helped me to overcome any obstacles in my life with the aspect of both academic and life.” (Uzay, LLH)

He learned English mostly through traditional grammar teaching methods during his high school years. In this regard, he verbalized that:

“During high school years learning English process was so vague to me; because of the fact that there was no reason to learn it. We just learned the rules as mathematical formulas and apply them in lots of mechanical activities. Therefore, I could not do anything in high school years. However, at university, I met so many native and native like people to develop my English skills.” (Uzay, LLH)

Later, he attended preparatory school at the beginning of the teacher education programme. He evinced that this experience helped him speak fluently, write academically, and develop listening skills. Concerning this experience, he pronounced that:

“The education that I took in preparatory classes was priceless for me to love this job and English itself.” (Uzay, LLH)

He stated that he did not allocate time to study English in his daily life but kept watching series for one hour a day. His self-rated English language proficiency was displayed in Table 13.

With regard to the practicum experience, he expressed that his mentor was an experienced teacher and she mostly used translation in her lessons. He found his mentor sincere and helpful. He professionally taught English in a private language school for one and a half years like Serdar did. He rated his love of teaching English as four out of five and explained that:

“My choice is up to some variables like students' age, the money you get at the end of the month. If my students are adults, I am so glad and happy to teach English and during teaching I have so much fun.” (Uzay, PBQ)

He was happy with his decision to become an English language teacher. He stated that he recognized that teaching was his calling when he performed his very first lesson although he was unsure about his decision three years ago. He further voiced that:

“Teaching and being a teacher is a life style. Once you have started this journey, you cannot leave it.” (Uzay, PBQ)

Concerning his weakness, he expressed that he oftentimes might not manage the sincerity level of his relationships with the students, which might cause classroom management problems. His professional goal was to work as an instructor at a university and pursue an academic career at the same time. His self-rated competencies about teaching language skills and components were tabulated in Table 13. From this point on, Uzay will be addressed as ST6 while providing the findings of the study in the tables.

Table 13

Uzay's Self-Rated Language Skills and Components Proficiencies and Teaching Competencies

	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	
Language proficiency	6	6	6	6	5	5	5	6	
	Teaching Reading	Teaching Listening	Teaching Writing	Teaching Speaking	Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary	Teaching Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	Integrated Teaching
Teaching competency	6	6	6	6	5	6	6	6	6

Student Teacher #7: Yekta

Yekta was a male student teacher, and he was 23 years old. His academic success was low (GPA= 2.64). He started learning English during his high school years. He found learning English fun and easy and decided to improve his English after realizing that he was good at English. He expressed that he formally started learning English when he was a fourth-grade student but he improved his English throughout the high school years as articulated by all the student teachers who participated in the present study:

“Back when I was 4th grade student, I started taking lessons in school. To be honest, I don't have any clear memory for those lessons so I can't say that I was learning it by making any effort, just the lessons that I attended.” (Yekta, LLH)

He uttered that he improved his English through movies and series. Nevertheless, he was concerned about his speaking skills:

“Because of the education I received, I wasn't able to focus on skills of the language, like most of my age mates. However, I was extra bad at expressing myself in speaking when I got to the university. Maybe that's because of the lack of practice or a psychological problem. Either way, that effected my entire school life and caused me to reconsider my proficiency for being a teacher. I tried, I am still trying to get over this barrier of mine and hope to be a better speaker of English.” (Yekta, LLH)

He expressed that one of his secondary school teachers ignited his love for English, and one of his high school teachers reignited his love when was a twelfth year student. He further stated that he allocated time and paid more effort than ever to improve his English

owing to his lack of language proficiency at the time of the data collection. His self-assessment related to English language skills and components was displayed in Table 14.

With regard to his practicum experience, he was happy to have established a rapport with his mentor. He professionally taught English in a private language school for over a year. When he was asked to rank his love of teaching English on a scale from one to five, he selected three like Hazal, Kaan, and Uzay. He further articulated that:

“The reason why I chose three for the love of teaching English is not because I don't love teaching. It's because I would like to be humble about it and consider myself at the beginning of a lifetime period. So I like to think that my current love of teaching will upgrade to the level four as I walk into my own class. I will be willing to teach my students English effectively and do my profession properly. After reaching rank four, I am sure that when I get paid for doing the thing that I love, I will be able to hit five.” (Yekta, PBQ)

He decided to become a teacher considering that it was the most plausible choice at the end of the high school education:

“To be honest, I wasn't aware of the choice that I made when I chose to be a teacher. I was good at English and saw no other option other than being a teacher. So it was like a necessity rather than a choice for me. I had never dreamed of being a teacher until I got to the university.” (Yekta, PBQ)

He stressed that learning English was different from learning math, science, or history. He added that learning a language might require much more time than expected. With regard to teaching, he put forward that:

“I would define [teaching] as the world's most underrated job because people can't see how hard it is to teach something to someone. It is usually believed that if you know something, then it must be easy for you to teach it. Of course there is no point of arguing with these kinds of people as they will never be able to understand. That's why I sometimes feel alone and sorry as this is the way what some people see.” (Yekta, PBQ)

As for his strengths, he marked that he was enthusiastic about teaching English, which he believed would help him overcome any obstacles throughout his teaching career. As a

weakness, he expressed that he was an overthinking person and he was afraid that this behavior would manifest itself in his teaching profession in the future. He professionally aimed to work as a teacher at a public school if he could succeed in the national teacher selection test. Besides, he was unsure about pursuing an academic degree. He finally evinced that he was reading personal blogs about teaching in a more effective way to develop his teaching competencies. His self-rated competencies about teaching language skills and components were displayed in Table 14. From this point on, Yekta will be addressed as ST7 while providing the findings of the study in the tables.

Table 14

Yekta's Self-Rated Language Skills and Components Proficiencies and Teaching Competencies

	Reading	Listening	Writing	Speaking	Grammar	Vocabulary	Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	
Language proficiency	6	5	6	4	5	5	5	5	
	Teaching Reading	Teaching Listening	Teaching Writing	Teaching Speaking	Teaching Grammar	Teaching Vocabulary	Teaching Pronunciation	Digital Literacy	Integrated Teaching
Teaching competency	6	6	6	5	6	6	5	5	6

Given this backdrop, the population of the present study serves as a representative group; to wit, the student teachers have different backgrounds. As such, they either enrolled in the preparatory school or succeeded in the in-house English proficiency test administered at the beginning of the teacher education programme. One of the student teachers has no professional goal concerning the teaching profession in the future. Some of them have professional teaching experiences. They have different professional goals such as working at a state school or a university, becoming a translator, and pursuing an academic degree. Some of them are confident about their English proficiency levels whereas some of them are not. The next section fleshes out major findings with reference to student teachers' concerns about teaching in general and teaching English language in particular.

4.2. Major Findings

This section provides the findings based on the research questions of the present study respectively along with the interpretation of the data.

4.2.1. Student Teachers' Concerns about Teaching

The findings provided in this section came from in-depth interview sessions carried out with seven student teachers across three different periods (942 minutes/15.7 hours in total), written reflective journals, screencast-mediated oral reflective journals, and a follow-up reflective journal. Codes emerged from the data naturally and without having a priori schemes in mind. They were either named by referring to the existing literature or from the scratch, when necessary. The categorization of the data was displayed in tables under four main themes respectively: i) self-concerns, ii) task-related concerns, iii) impact concerns, and iv) context-related concerns. The codes were presented based on the number of the participants instead of the frequency of their repetitive statements in order to clearly depict the categories of teacher concern that preoccupied the student teachers.

4.2.1.1. Student Teachers' Self-Concerns

Self-concern refers to teachers' concerns about their survival skills in the classroom as well as their teaching competencies and adequacies as a teacher. Succinctly, it might be delineated as "professional adequacy" (Watzke, 2007, p. 112). As seen in Table 15, four categories and sixteen codes emerged from the data.

Table 15

Student Teachers' Self-concerns

Categories	Codes
Teacher incompetencies	Classroom management (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Adapting instruction to learners' proficiency levels (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Lack of teaching experience (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Drawing learners' attention to the lesson (ST1, ST2, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Digital illiteracy (ST1, ST2, ST5, ST6, ST7)
Negative teacher emotions	Feeling incompetent as a teacher (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Low motivation for teaching (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Low self-efficacy in using digital tools (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST7) Feeling confused (ST1, ST2, ST5, ST6) Being observed by others (ST3, ST7)
Limited language proficiency	Limited command of L2 pronunciation (ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST7) Limited command of L2 grammar (ST2, ST4, ST6) Limited speaking proficiency (ST5, ST7) Limited writing proficiency (ST1, ST4)
Personality traits	Not being an energetic person (ST1, ST3, ST4) Being a sensitive person (ST3, ST4)

The findings demonstrated that, as a teacher incompetency, all the student teachers were preoccupied with classroom management problems:

“As for classroom management, for example, I lost the class somewhere in the lesson with fifth-grade students. They chatted among themselves, talked to themselves in the game. For example, I did not know what to do then. We continued the lesson.” (Serdar, Interview III)

“And there were moments in the classroom where I felt like I had lost control sometimes. At first, my voice sounded very shaky. It was obvious from my face that I was nervous. It would have been more effective if I hadn't shown my nervousness there.” (Hazal, Interview III)

This finding tallies with those found in several previous studies (e.g., Aarts, et al., 2020; Burn, etl. al, 2003; Çakmak, 2008; Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; Hagger & Malmberg, 2011; Poulou, 2007; Regier, 2021; Smith, et al., 2003; Watzke, 2007; Veenman, 1984) which reported that student teachers or beginning teachers had concerns about maintaining classroom discipline. For instance, Aarts, Kools, and Schildwacht (2020) indicated that

first-year teachers were mostly concerned about classroom management. Watzke (2007) similarly examined the development of beginning teachers' concerns on a longitudinal basis and found that classroom management was scored the highest at the beginning of the study but later decreased. Likewise, Poulou (2007) found that student teachers had concerns about classroom management especially during the first week of their teaching practicum but later diminished. However, in the present study, student teachers' concerns about classroom management remained stable from the first interview session to the third interview session.

Moreover, the findings of the present study further demonstrated that all the student teachers had difficulty adapting their instruction to the learners' proficiency levels by corroborating the findings of Çakmak (2008) and Başyurt Tüzel and Akcan (2009), which indicated that student teachers encountered similar challenges during their practicum experiences. Likewise, Swennen et al. (2004) pointed to student teachers' problems about adapting their lessons to the students' needs. Aarts et al. (2020) further stressed that first-year teachers were preoccupied with the same challenge. The student teachers verbalized such concerns as follows:

"I worked so much and didn't get used to their level in the beginning of my lessons." (Beren, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

"When the children's level was low, they were really hesitant. For example, in the first lesson I attended, probably because the production activity was demanding, they said "what are we doing right now, I don't understand how we are going to do it". I was constantly faced with these questions. Also, when they didn't understand, I was always trying to explain, this made me nervous." (Hazar, Interview III)

Nevertheless, their concerns about adaptation problems seemed to diminish in time. Besides, all the student teachers shared the same concern that their lack of teaching experience caused trepidation for them. For instance, Kaan stated that:

"During my first macro-lesson, I was anxious all the time because I did not teach an entire lesson by myself before and I was unfamiliar with the class." (Kaan, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Motivating learners was a big challenge for six student teachers, and they evinced that they were incognizant of any motivational strategies but only attempted to use engaging activities to make the students enjoy the lesson.

“I always wanted to make warm-up interesting. To make it enjoyable and interesting for students, I used TV series, movie characters, and maps. However, some of my attempts were quite successful, unfortunately, some of them couldn’t draw students’ attention to the lesson.” (Uzay, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

“The point that always bothers me is whether I can motivate students to attend the class. Because when you attend from the very beginning, the rest of the class continues well.” (Serdar, Oral Reflective Journal III)

Lastly, five out of seven student teachers were concerned about their limited digital literacy skills. They had problems in using online tools due to lack of knowledge or training in the teacher education programme.

“I really didn’t know how to use internet and how to teach online. So, I can say that I have come a long way and I managed to cope with my anxiety step by step.” (Beren, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

With regard to teacher emotion, student teachers held negative emotions mostly stemming from their perceived incompetencies as a teacher. Given that emotion is defined as “socially constructed, personally enacted ways of being that emerge from conscious and/or unconscious judgments regarding perceived successes at attaining goals or maintaining standards or beliefs during transactions as part of social-historical contexts” (Schutz, Hong, Cross, & Osbon, 2006, p. 344), student teachers’ negative emotions could be interpreted as their perceived lack of success in maintaining well-designed lessons and performing an engaging macro lessons in which most of the students actively participated. All the student teachers shared the same trepidation that they felt incompetent as a teacher. Besides, all of them articulated that they had low motivation for teaching during the classes mostly due to students’ low participation rates or their perceived failure in drawing students’ attention to the lesson. Arda and Kaan further stated that they had no motivation for teaching in general, not for the time being.

“I force myself to do this [to teach]. Although I have no interest in teaching, I always try to act as if I had.” (Arda, Interview I)

“I have no motivation to teach. I hope I will have in the future.” (Hamza, Interview I)

Additionally, four student teachers held low self-efficacy beliefs about implementing digital tools into their classrooms. They stated that they did not feel confident in trying to use online tools in their macro lessons. Four student teachers expressed that they felt confused and distracted from time to time during their classroom practices and they did not even realize their mistakes. Furthermore, two student teachers marked that they felt uncomfortable with being observed by their peers, mentors, and the university supervisor, which confirmed the finding that being observed caused concerns among student teachers or beginning teachers (e.g., Fuller, 1970; Fuller & Bown, 1975; Marso & Pigge, 1989; Veenman, 1984).

As for language proficiency, all the student teachers were concerned about their English language proficiency levels. As such, five student teachers articulated that they were afraid of making pronunciation mistakes whereas two of them, Beren and Hazal, were confident about their proficiency levels of speaking skills.

“I’m afraid of my fossilized mistakes, in case I teach them [in a] wrong [way].” (Beren, Interview I)

“I’m pretty concerned about speaking. Why? Because I have problems with the pronunciation of most of the words, my speech is slow, not fluent, I can make mistakes, I can’t use words correctly. That’s why I don’t feel confident because I’m not adequate.” (Serdar, Interview I)

“Pronunciation is a little bit more difficult. Because I don’t know the pronunciation of some words either. I’m a little more anxious about this.” (Hazal, Interview I)

Three student teachers, namely Beren, Kaan, and Uzay pointed out that they felt incompetent in teaching grammatical patterns. Beren and Kaan stated that they had challenges in understanding the grammar rules and structures while they were taking a course on contextual grammar during the first year of the teacher education programme, indicating that their previous learning experiences affected their current beliefs towards the teaching of grammar:

“There was a grammar course in the first year, and I had a lot of trouble there. I had a hard time there, so I'm afraid. I know students are afraid, too. That's why, it's hard to teach sometimes.” (Kaan, Interview I)

“I do not feel competent in grammar. It seems so difficult to me.” (Beren, Interview I)

Two student teachers, Serdar and Yekta, expressed that they were concerned about their speaking proficiency levels.

“... maybe it is my inability to speak. Frankly, I find myself inadequate in speaking. I was not good at speaking compared to my other friends neither during my university years nor on those days when I took classes. Maybe it has something to do with it. I have this trepidation.” (Yekta, Interview I)

“I can talk about speaking. We talked about this issue in our previous conversations. Since I do not feel fully competent in speaking, for example, some words do not spring to mind when talking to students, I have difficulty. The children may think that the teacher couldn't speak, as a result. Or I might mispronounce a word. I don't think the children will understand that I am pronouncing in a wrong way, due to their limited proficiency levels. But, I know this myself. That's why I don't think I can teach students adequately because I don't feel competent myself. I don't feel comfortable.” (Serdar, Interview III)

Two student teachers, Arda and Kaan, were concerned about their writing proficiency:

“I feel more anxious about teaching writing. It is a more challenging skill than the other skills. It is also difficult to teach. You can guide students to some extent. Among the most challenging skills is writing. My own writing skill is lower than the other skills. Of course, this might affect my anxiety. But of course, I think I can teach because students will be at a lower level than me.” (Arda, Interview I)

These findings are consonant with Başyurt Tüzel and Akcan's (2009) finding that the student teachers felt themselves inadequate in terms of their English proficiency levels in their practicum schools. In their study, they explored student teachers' problems about target language use in their practicum school and stressed a need for “language awareness training” (p. 283), especially for the development of student teachers' oral language skills.

With regard to the fourth category, personality traits, student teachers' perceived weaknesses concerned Arda and Kaan. As such, Arda voiced that:

“In real life because I am not very talkative and energetic person, I'm always pushing myself during the classes” (Arda, Interview I).

Kaan also expressed that “I look nervous on camera. I could be more energetic, I could smile.” (Kaan, Oral Reflective Journal, I)

Kaan previously marked that he was not an energetic person as a personality trait during the first interview session. Kaan and Hazal were concerned about their being a sensitive person and feeling easily demotivated and distracted during their lessons.

4.2.1.2. Student Teachers' Task-related Concerns

Task-related concern refers to teachers' concerns about the teaching task and teaching process. More specifically, it means adequacy of the instructional materials (Watzke, 2007) and classroom activities as well as selecting the content appropriately (Swennen, et al., 2004). As seen in Table 16, three categories and ten codes emerged from the data.

Table 16

Student Teachers' Task-related Concerns

Categories	Codes
Teaching performance	Time management (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Learners' low participation rates (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Doing production-based activities (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Giving clear instructions (ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Learners' negative attitudes towards the lesson (ST1, ST2, ST5, ST6)
Lesson preparation	Selecting suitable activities (ST1, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Finding suitable materials/activities (ST1, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Making smooth transition between the activities (ST2, ST3, ST4, ST7)
English as medium of instruction	Using L2 (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST5, ST7) Switching to L1 (ST1, ST4, ST5, ST7)

The category 'teaching performance' consists of concerns germane to student teachers' classroom practices. All the student teachers encountered challenges about time

management. Time management was expressed a total of fifty-two times during the interview sessions and in oral and written reflective journals.

“I was wondering if my time would suffice and if I would switch to the backup plan, but my time was barely sufficient. I realized that I couldn't manage the time.” (Hazal, Oral Reflective Journal II)

“What I had planned as six minutes turned out to be 10-11 minutes. It went beyond what I planned. Vocab activities took a long time. I didn't plan it that way. It took a long time than I planned. I had to finish the course after vocab teaching. There was one more activity after that. I can say that only half of my lesson is completed.” (Serdar, Oral Reflective Journal II)

“The thought that I would not have enough time during the lesson made me feel nervous. For example, in the 3rd week, the lesson was over before I could even start post-activity without even realizing it, and this made me feel very bad.” (Arda, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Additionally, a regular classroom hour lasted thirty minutes in online education, and technical problems caused student teachers to lose time. The findings further showed that all the student teachers shared the same concerns about learners' low participation rates and doing production-based activities. As for learners' low participation, Uzey, who expressed the least number of concerns, stated that:

“While preparing this activity [my planet card, see Figure 6], I thought that they would have fun. I received reaction from only one student. I did not feel very well during the lesson.” (Uzey, Oral Reflective Journal IV)

“The low level of active participation demoralizes me. For example, I also talked about this at the beginning of our conversation, the thing that made me the happiest, I don't know if you remember, there was one last question in my activity, they all wanted to answer it, they even clashed. I randomly picked one. The higher the participation, the happier I am.” (Arda, Interview II)

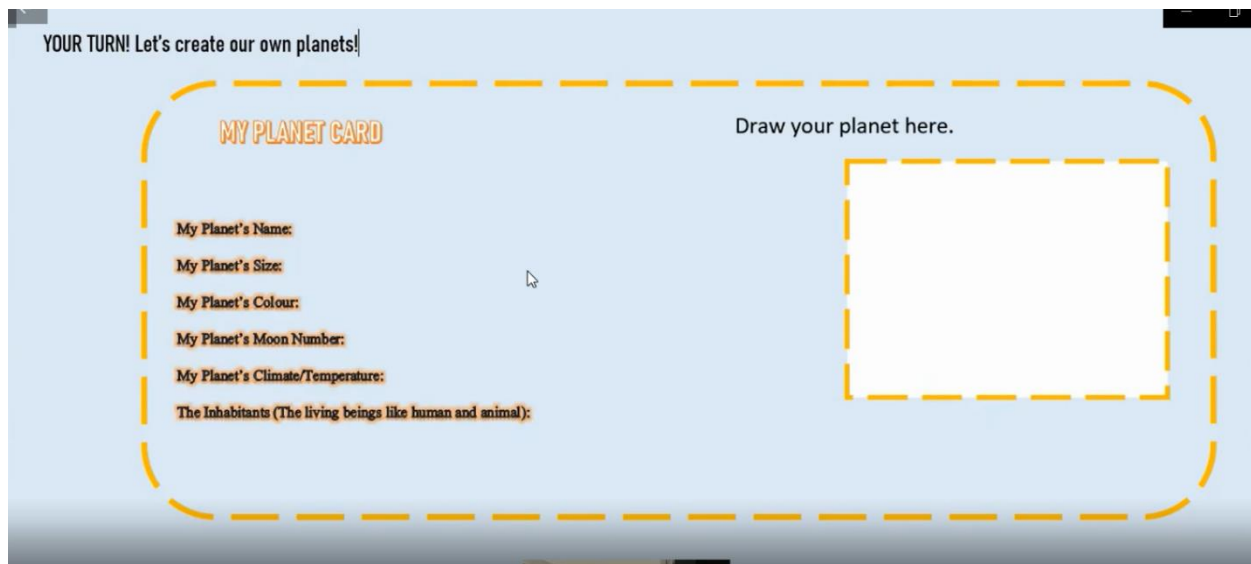


Figure 6. A sample activity used in Uzay's teaching.

Besides, challenges in providing instructions clearly troubled student teachers. Four student teachers pointed out that learners' negative attitudes towards the lesson such as their unwillingness to participate in the lesson, their indifference to the lesson, or their feeling shy and bored negatively affected their teaching performance.

Concerning lesson preparation, all the student teachers articulated that they experienced challenges in selecting suitable activities and finding suitable materials/activities according to their age and interest partially due to students' limited proficiency levels.

"It is not always possible to find relatable and useful video and listening text for our aims, but when I do, I usually use listening activities as they are both enjoyable and interesting for students." (Yekta, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

"Finding a proper content for the lesson is too hard. Creating new activities from the scratch needs a lot of effort." (Serdar, Written Reflective Journal IV)

Moreover, all of them were concerned about the low quality of their materials and activities as also argued by Parsons and Fuller (1974). Besides, four students had difficulty making smooth transitions between the activities while preparing their lesson plans although they planned numerous micro lessons in their methodology classes before. Poulou (2007) similarly found that student teachers were concerned about lesson preparation during the first weeks of their teaching practicum. However, their concerns decreased over

time whereas concerns about the preparation of the teaching content remained stable in the present study.

Lastly, student teachers were preoccupied with using English, especially while providing instructions and expressing a grammatical structure, and they felt concerned and incompetent when they had to switch to Turkish.

“... L1 use in the classroom. In the first lessons, students were confused when I only speak English in the class. Because they weren't accustomed to that. I was a big challenge for me.” (Serdar, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

“First, I felt very nervous when I thought students did not understand me or when active participation was very low. In these situations, I panicked and gave Turkish instructions several times in the first weeks.” (Arda, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

These findings lend support to the findings of Başıyurt Tüzel and Akcan's (2009) study which indicated that student teachers had problems about learners' English proficiency levels and using an appropriate level of classroom language in order to clarify the classroom routines and instructions in their practicum schools.

4.2.1.3. *Student Teachers' Impact Concerns*

Impact concern refers to teachers' concerns about their learners' needs and benefits (Fuller & Bown, 1975) as well as their motivation and individual differences. In the present study, new codes emerged with regard to second language teaching *per se* as displayed in Table 17.

Table 17

Student Teachers' Impact Concerns

Categories	Codes
Learners' enjoyment	Using engaging activities (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Selecting engaging topics (ST1, ST5, ST6) Making learners love learning English (ST1, ST2)
Learners' proficiency	Planning suitable activities according to proficiency levels (ST1, ST3, ST5, ST7) Developing learners' oral communication skills (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST6)

All the student teachers were interested in boosting learners' motivation and enjoyment by using engaging activities or selecting engaging topics.

“[I am selecting] the activities that students want to participate in. For example, if they gave me a very boring text, I wouldn't want to read it. It matters how interesting it is. It matters how much fun the activity will be. Instead of saying that I learned this [information] today, I expect the student to say that today the lesson was very good.” (Kaan, Interview I)

“I always wanted to make warm-up interesting. To make it enjoyable and interesting for students, I used TV series, movie characters, and maps. (Uzay, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

These findings are consonant with previous findings (Swennen et al., 2004; Watzke 2007; Veenman, 1984) pointing to the importance of learners' motivation to learn for student teachers or beginning teachers. Furthermore, Arda and Beren reported that it was important for them to make learners love English and enjoy the language learning process.

Last but not least, Arda, Hazal, Serdar, and Yekta paid attention to learners' proficiency levels while selecting their activities. In addition, Arda, Beren, Hazal, and Uzay reported that they cared about the development of learners' communicative competence:

“It seems like the more I teach children how to speak, the more motivated I feel. Teaching speaking makes me happy when I see them speak, see students put what they have learned into action.” (Arda, Interview I)

4.2.1.4. Student Teachers' Context-related Concerns

Context-related concern refers to student teachers' concerns caused by the teaching practicum school and their teacher education programme as well as macro-level factors as presented in Table 18. Three categories and fourteen codes emerged from the data.

Table 18

Student Teachers' Context-related Concerns

Categories	Codes
Practicum-related factors	Student teachers' unfamiliarity with the school context (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST7) Learners' unfamiliarity with different teaching practices (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST6, ST7) Learners' negative attitudes towards English (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5) Limited interaction with learners (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4) Learners' limited proficiency (ST2, ST3, ST5) Learners' being accustomed to L1 use in classroom (ST1, ST2)
Programme-related factors	The gap between theory and practice (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Insufficient preparation for teaching online (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Limited opportunities for developing digital literacy skills (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Extra responsibilities (ST1, ST3, ST7)
Medium of education (online teaching)	Monitoring learners (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Technical problems (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7) Limited interaction with learners (ST1, ST2, ST4)

Practicum-related issues troubled student teachers to a great extent. First of all, all the student teachers were preoccupied with their unfamiliarity with the school context.

“This was the first time that I was teaching this class. Hence, they didn't know me. I was concerned about if they would participate in the lesson and in my activities.” (Serdar, Written Reflective Journal II)

“The first time I presented my macro lesson, I was nervous during the whole lesson because of the participation and I barely knew the students.” (Hazar, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Five student teachers articulated that learners' unfamiliarity with different teaching practices yielded challenges for them.

“The first problem was the students' unfamiliarity with our teaching technique. For example, when teaching grammar, the fact that the students were never taught implicitly before and the grammar points were given directly made things difficult for us.” (Arda, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Five student teachers reported that learners' positive or negative attitudes towards English language exerted an impact on their teaching performances. Besides, four student teachers held concerns related to limited interaction with learners due to limited classroom hours allocated to the teaching practicum. Kaan sincerely verbalized that:

“The willingness of the students to participate in these lessons is what determines their success or failure. I failed to gather the attention and interest of the students because I did not have sufficient time to interact with them create a bond with them that would let them participate in the class more willingly.” (Kaan, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Parallel to this finding, Swennen, Jörg, and Korthagen (2004) posited that student teachers might “not have been fully engaged in classroom activities” (p. 280) due to short period of practicum experience. Moreover, social interaction is of pivotal importance for language development quintessentially (Vygotsky, 1962, 1978). For this reason, creating opportunities for student teachers to establish better relationships with the learners through interaction and communication might mitigate their concerns.

Additionally, owing to learners' limited proficiency levels of English, Beren, Hazal, and Serdar expressed that they could not implement production-based activities in their lessons.

“Though I prepared a lot of practice for the students, I was not still sure that they were qualified enough to produce something except certain students.” (Hazal, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Beren and Arda stated that learners' being accustomed to L1 use in the classroom was problematic for them.

“Mostly the use of Turkish in lessons makes me feel a little anxious. The fact that students want to switch to their mother tongue... How much you know English does not mean anything. Because students expect you to speak Turkish all the time, the trouble between L1 and L2 bothers me a lot. This is exactly the point I have the most difficulty.” (Beren, Interview I)

In regard to the teacher education programme, the gap between theory and practice remained a big challenge among all the student teachers as exemplified in the following excerpts.

“The thing that we have the most difficulty with and that bothers us the most is that our theoretical knowledge and the courses at the school do not match at all. We are having a hard time with this.” (Arda, Interview I)

“Sometimes I think it is difficult to apply theoretical knowledge to reality.” (Hazal, Interview III)

“Frankly, I'm just getting accustomed to teaching, how to provide instructions, how to adjust instruction to the levels. For example, I have never taught those with A1, I have never taught in my life. I gave lessons to A1 for the first time. You know, there was a huge gap, a gap. We performed micro lessons, we learned approaches and methods, I had a challenge in applying those methods.” (Beren, Interview I)

Furthermore, all the student teachers reported that they were not prepared for online teaching due to insufficient training. Additionally, they felt incompetent owing to the limited opportunities offered in the programme to develop their digital literacy skills.

“Technology is a strong tool, there are a lot of opportunities to present your macroteaching. I wish to be more competent about these tools. I wish there was an online language teaching course in our teacher education programme.” (Hazal, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

“There wasn't any "How to teach in online education?" lessons in our programmes. It can be included. Because we all can see that online education will be in our life more than ever. This is inevitable. Furthermore, there can be webinars about online education by experienced teachers. Thus, new teachers will be ready for online education.” (Serdar, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

“I feel like I tried my best but still I feel like I wasn't competent. The programme needs to be revised. I don't want the others experience the same difficulties with mine. It was as if swimming through the ocean without knowing how to swim. So, the teacher education programmes really need to be revised so that the others would not face any difficulties. They need to get web tool designing lessons for instance or they need to know about the English online applications and how to make use of them.” (Beren, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Moreover, Arda, Hazal, and Yekta complained about their extra responsibilities since they were taking the compulsory courses offered in the programme, they were attempting to fulfill the requirements of the teaching practice, and they had to prepare for the national teacher selection exam at the same time.

“Since I have been experiencing some tough times due to overlapping of some events like practicum, school lessons, and KPSS [national teacher selection exam], preparing of lesson plans was extra hard and psychologically tiresome.” (Yekta, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

With regard to the medium of education, namely online teaching, all the student teachers were concerned about monitoring students’ behaviors and technical problems such as slow or weak internet connection. Furthermore, limited interaction with the students also yielded concerns for three student teachers, namely Arda, Beren, and Kaan. These findings were consonant with Kaygısız and Balçıkanlı’s (2021) study, which was carried out in Turkish EFL context with second-grade student teachers majoring in ELT.

4.2.2. Student Teachers’ Concerns about Teaching Language Skills

The findings provided in this section came from in-depth interview sessions, written reflective journals, oral reflective journals, and a follow-up reflective journal. Codes emerged from the data naturally and without having a priori schemes in mind. The categorization of the data was provided in Table 19 below.

Table 19

Student Teachers' Concerns about Teaching Language Skills

Language Skills	Student-oriented concerns	Self-concerns	Task-related concerns	Context-related concerns
Reading			finding suitable texts (ST2, ST5)	learners' unfamiliarity with different reading activities (ST1, ST3, ST6, ST7)
Listening	learners' limited proficiency (ST2, ST3)	student teachers' limited listening practice (ST2, ST5)	challenges in finding suitable materials (ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST7) time constraints (ST1, ST2, ST4, ST5)	technical problems (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST7)
Writing	learners' low motivation to write (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST5) learners' lack of experience in writing (ST1, ST3, ST6)	limited knowledge about digital writing tools (ST1, ST5, ST6, ST7) beliefs towards teaching writing skills (ST1, ST3, ST6) student teachers' limited writing proficiency (ST1, ST4)	providing feedback (ST1, ST6) the clarity of instructions (ST1, ST3)	insufficient training in teaching writing skills (ST5, ST6)
Speaking	learners' low motivation in speaking (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST6, ST7) learners' limited proficiency (ST2, ST3)	limited knowledge about online tools (ST1, ST4, ST7) student teachers' limited speaking proficiency (ST5, ST7)		English as medium of instruction (ST1, ST2, ST4, ST7)

4.2.2.1. Teaching Reading Skills

Teaching second language reading skills yielded no tremendous problem among the student teachers. As such, only two codes emerged from the data. As a task-related concern, Beren and Serdar encountered challenges in finding suitable reading texts according to learners' proficiency levels and appropriate for the learning goals of the teaching unit covered then. Furthermore, Arda, Hazal, Uzay, and Yekta were concerned about learners' unfamiliarity with different reading activities such as scanning and skimming. The learners were accustomed to reading the text aloud and then translating the text into their mother tongue in the practicum school. Besides, they were not accustomed to silent reading though it was essential for comprehending the text. Student teachers

therefore claimed that although they provided instructions clearly, learners attempted to read the text aloud by ignoring their instructions, which was conducive to problems about classroom management.

“Students couldn't make sense of the instructions. For example, the student is accustomed to reading aloud. I guess, reading aloud was used a lot in the classrooms before. Even though I provided the students with instruction, they said, 'Sir, will I read it aloud now?'. This happened a lot, but in recent weeks it has decreased a lot.” (Arda, Interview III)

Seen in this light, the learners were accustomed to traditional methods used in teaching second language reading skills. From the other side of the same coin, the experienced teachers, in the practicum school, might not be aware of the importance of skimming, scanning, and silent reading for the development of learners' literacy skills. This finding might partially corroborate Fuchs, Katzir, and Kahn-Horwitz's (2021) finding that both novice and experienced English language teachers were barely cognizant of the theoretical knowledge pertaining to literacy teaching and learning.

4.2.2.2. Teaching Listening Skills

With regard to teaching listening skills, five different codes came to the fore. Beren and Hazal attributed their lack of success in maintaining high-quality listening activities to learners' limited proficiency. Beren further stated that she barely carried out listening practices in her daily life. Besides, similar to the task-related concern about teaching reading skills, five student teachers had difficulty finding suitable listening tracks and videos for their macro lessons. For instance, Yekta pointed out that:

“It is not always possible to find relatable and useful video and listening text for our aims, but when I do, I usually use listening activities as they are both enjoyable and interesting for students.” (Yekta, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

In addition, Arda, Beren, Hazal, and Serdar expressed that their concerns about time management as well as the limited duration of the classroom hours (thirty minutes) troubled them while they were carrying out listening activities:

“I can't put listening anywhere. So I have a problem, I either don't have time for the main listening that I planned, or I want to use it as a warm-up, but then I give the instruction poorly. Listening is the most challenging one for me... The reason why I can't do it is because I can't set the timing.” (Beren, Interview I)

“I had to make students listen to listening track one more time, but I didn't have time, so I did the activity myself. I resorted to such a way because I was worried that the time would not be sufficient.” (Serdar, Oral Reflective Journal IV)

Lastly, Arda, Beren, Hazal, and Yekta experienced challenges related to technical problems due to online teaching, and thus they were concerned about implementing listening activities in their lessons. Consequently, they either stayed away from integrating listening skills into their lessons or used only short and sentence-level listening tracks.

“I couldn't power up my computer or internet. But I prepared my lesson plans accordingly. I never used videos and instead of long listening tracks, I used short tracks that test words or sentences.” (Arda, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

In this regard, Renandya and Hu (2018) posited that teachers might experience challenges about teaching listening skills due to “contextual factors such as paucity of suitable listening materials and lack of access to online resources” (p. 38).

4.2.2.3. Teaching Writing Skills

Among four language skills, writing is the most challenging skill for student teachers. As for student-oriented concerns, Arda, Beren, Hazal, and Serdar voiced concern that learners had little or no motivation to write.

“I almost didn't do any writing activities. Doing writing in the post section was only possible through the chat box. In addition to the very low active participation of the students in the production part, it seemed very difficult to give feedback to the students using only chatbox in that time. When my other friends' attempts were unsuccessful, I also avoided doing writing activities in the post-parts.” (Arda, Written Reflective Journal)

Arda, Hazal, and Uzay further uttered that learners had no experience in writing in their English language classrooms.

“Since the students had not done such things before, we could not do speaking and writing activities. We didn't have too many [digital] tools to implement them. That's why, we focused much more on reading.” (Arda, Interview III)

This excerpt from Arda might also portray student teachers' concerns about lack knowledge about digital writing. Arda, Serdar, Uzay, and Yekta shared the same concern that it was not possible to implement writing activities into online teaching.

“Actually, I integrated writing just once in my teaching. It was the last lesson. I see writing as a homework activity most of the times. So this is why I don't prefer to use writing activities in my lessons. Actually, I can say that in online education it is very hard to establish an environment for writing. It is very hard to make them write in online education as far as I observed.” (Serdar, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

This finding indicated that student teachers were unaware of digital writing tools and multimodal writing tasks such as digital video production, posters, and digital comics used in language classrooms recently.

In addition, Arda, Hazal, and Uzay stressed their negative beliefs towards teaching writing skills by expressing that writing was a demanding skill to teach. Besides, Arda and Kaan were concerned about their limited writing proficiency.

“I feel more anxious about teaching writing. It is a more challenging skill than the other skills. It is also difficult to teach. You can guide students to some extent. Among the most challenging skills is writing. My own writing skill is lower than the other skills. Of course, this might affect my anxiety. But of course, I think I can teach because students will be at a lower level than me.” (Arda, Interview I)

Additionally, providing feedback further concerned Arda and Uzay.

“To be honest, I included a writing activity only in my last macro lesson. The reason why I didn't prepare a writing activity for each lesson is that I cannot check students' writings and give feedback to them.” (Uzay, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Arda and Hazal verbalized that they faced challenges while providing instruction related to the writing activity, which caused problems and hindered the implementation of the

activity. Finally, Serdar and Uzay stated that they received limited training in teaching writing skills in the teacher education programme.

“It seems to me as if we did not focus on writing so much during our university education. Maybe we saw this in class, but we carried out a vocabulary teaching demo, a grammar teaching demo, but I don't remember that we did anything about writing. I don't think it was taught well, frankly. I made such a choice [rating ‘four’ for teaching writing skills in the PBQ] because I did not think that I could teach well because I did not receive enough education.” (Serdar, Interview I)

4.2.2.4. Teaching Speaking Skills

Regarding student-oriented concerns, five student teachers had concerns related to learners’ low motivation to speak. Additionally, Beren and Hazal were worried about learners’ limited proficiency.

“I always tried hard to integrate speaking in every part of the lesson. But I mostly tried to give input because they were not ready to speak and I didn't want to push them to talk. Because I realized that they have an affective filter which hinders them to speak freely. They also didn't have enough level of English to progress without getting input or conversational abilities. Frankly speaking, they didn't even answer easiest Yes/No questions. Because they couldn't understand the simplest question forms. So, they have A1 level and they only memorize words and for this reason they can't communicate.” (Beren, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

With regard to self-concerns, Arda, Kaan, and Yekta articulated their concerns about their limited knowledge about online tools used to carry out speaking activities. Besides, Serdar and Yekta were quite preoccupied with their limited speaking proficiency.

“I can't say that I know the language well, because I can't speak very well. If I can't convey this to the others, then I'm not a good teacher. But I know this shortcoming. I can make up for this deficiency and be a good teacher.” (Serdar, Interview I)

“... maybe it is my inability to speak. Frankly, I find myself inadequate in speaking. I was not good at speaking compared to my other friends neither during

my university years nor on those days when I took classes. Maybe it has something to do with it. I have this trepidation.” (Yekta, Interview I)

Lastly, in the practicum school, the lessons were delivered by using the learners’ mother tongue. Therefore, learners were not accustomed to the teachers speaking in L2. Nor did they attempt to use L2 for communicative purposes. The use of the mother tongue as the medium of education troubled four student teachers, Arda, Beren, Kaan, and Yekta.

“Students have never done such things [communicative activities] in online education before. They did not speak or do anything. They did not speak English in class. For this reason, it always seemed strange to the students. They were introvert. They did not participate in such activities much. And we couldn't use proper [digital] tools for production activities. For these reasons, we had problems.” (Arda, Interview III)

4.2.3. Student Teachers’ Concerns about Teaching Language Components

The findings provided in this section came from in-depth interview sessions, written reflective journals, oral reflective journals, and a follow-up reflective journal. Codes emerged from the data naturally and without having a priori schemes in mind. The categorization of the data was provided in Table 20 below.

Table 20

Student Teachers' Concerns about Teaching Language Components

Language Components	Student-oriented concerns	Self-concerns	Task-related concerns	Context-related concerns
Grammar	learners' negative attitude (ST2, ST4, ST5) learners' unfamiliarity to implicit learning (ST1, ST2, ST3)	adapting grammar instruction to learners' proficiency levels (ST2, ST3, ST5, ST7) having a limited command of L2 grammar (ST2, ST4, ST6) the negative impact of previous language learning experience (ST2, ST4, ST6)		the gap between theory and practice (ST1, ST2, ST3)
Vocabulary (no concern)				
Pronunciation (no practice)		having a limited command of L2 pronunciation (ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST7)	time constraints (ST3, ST6, ST7)	lack of emphasis on teaching L2 pronunciation (ST1, ST3)

4.2.3.1. Teaching Grammar

The findings of the study demonstrated that the teaching of L2 grammar caused serious concerns among the student teachers. First of all, Beren, Kaan, and Serdar were preoccupied with the learners' negative attitudes towards; to wit, learners seemed bored and indifferent to the lesson, and they easily lost their motivation. Additionally, learners learned grammar through traditional methods and were not accustomed to implicit learning of the L2 grammar, which created serious challenges for Arda, Beren, and Hazal.

“The most difficult part for me during the practicum is the grammar teaching part. Because our elicitation technique has never been applied in the classrooms we observe. In other words, we have a lot of trouble asking questions and getting answers. The most difficult part is grammar teaching.” (Arda, Interview I)

Additionally, Beren, Hazal, Serdar, and Yekta expressed that they had difficulty adapting grammar instruction according to learners' proficiency levels. Although Serdar and Yekta

were confident about their grammar knowledge, they were concerned about adapting their instruction:

“When teaching grammar, it seems to me like it's not too hard to put the words in an order. But for example, it can be very difficult for these students, I can't think like them on some points. For example, I think that they can do this easily, students cannot be successful in most of the activities that I prepare. I guess it's due to inexperience. I cannot fully predict what the student knows or not, and they often have deficiencies in grammar.” (Yekta, Interview III)

“For example, I taught grammar in my first lesson. I taught the subject ‘infinitive for purpose’. It was my first lesson. The children weren't used to the English lessons; they weren't used to a lesson in which English is spoken. Again, I supported it as much as I could with visuals, but the children had a lot of difficulty in understanding. I say subject, I say object, of course they did not understand much. Or here I am breaking the sentence, the children did not fully understand what I was trying to do or did not fully understand my English. I can say that I had problems about communication.” (Serdar, Interview III)

Beren, Kaan, and Uzay expressed that they had a limited command of L2 grammar, and thus they did not feel competent while teaching grammar. Added to the fact that they felt incompetent, they held negative beliefs due to a course on contextual grammar offered in the first year of the teacher education programme:

“There was a grammar course in the first year, and I had a lot of trouble there. I had a hard time there, so I'm afraid. I know students are afraid, too. That's why, it's hard to teach sometimes.” (Kaan, Interview I)

“I do not feel competent in grammar. It seems so difficult to me.” (Beren, Interview I)

“We've talked about this before, I don't really like teaching grammar. I'm not competent, either. I'm not competent to teach grammar to the students with an advanced level, I can't teach grammar to those with C1, I know that. Because I don't know grammar thoroughly, I think and I don't like it. It seems very mechanical to me, I do not like teaching grammar because it is not based on communication. Ok, at a lower level, I can teach them.” (Uzay, Interview III)

Lastly, Arda, Beren, and Hazal expressed that there was a huge gap between their theoretical knowledge and practicum school-based realities. As previously explained, learners were accustomed to traditional grammar teaching methods, but the student teachers were expected to implement implicit and function-based practices, which yielded concerns for them.

4.2.3.2. Teaching Vocabulary

All the student teachers articulated that they had no concerns pertaining to teaching vocabulary. On the contrary, they enjoyed teaching L2 vocabulary and using various activities in the classrooms. It is noteworthy to add that they pronounced that they really liked the ‘Teaching Vocabulary’ course offered in the teacher education programme and performed microteaching in which all of them had fun. They further stated that, in the practicum school, the participation rates were higher. All the student teachers made use of vocabulary activities during their lessons. This might relate to the fact that they found vocabulary activities fun, practical, and easy to implement.

“All my macro lessons have at least one vocabulary activity as I think together with reading activities vocabulary activities are the ones most suitable for online education. Doing these activities takes reasonably less time than trying to use other more time-consuming activities such as writing.” (Kaan, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

4.2.3.3. Teaching Pronunciation

Beren, Hazal, Kaan, Serdar, and Yekta pointed out that they did not implement any activities to teach L2 pronunciation since they were afraid of making pronunciation mistakes due to their limited command of L2 pronunciation.

“Pronunciation is a little bit more difficult. Because I don't know the pronunciation of some words either. I'm a little more anxious about this.” (Hazal, Interview I)

Besides, Hazal, Uzeyir, and Yekta stated that there was no time to implement such kind of activities.

“Unfortunately, I never put a stress on pronunciation in my demos. The reason why I never focused on pronunciation is time. The lessons were 30 min and it was too short to combine all of the components and plus pronunciation.” (Uzay, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Furthermore, Arda and Hazal verbalized that there was no emphasis on teaching L2 pronunciation in the curriculum and course books:

“Since there are no pronunciation activities among the target achievements in the curriculum or among the activities in the MEB book, I didn’t prepare any pronunciation activity.” (Arda, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

The overall discussion of the findings above was presented at the end of this chapter. All the codes related to the student teachers’ concerns about teaching in general and concerns about teaching language skills and components were displayed in the code cloud created in MAXQDA in Figure 7 (a total of 79 codes). The bigger size of the codes represents the higher frequency of the codes.

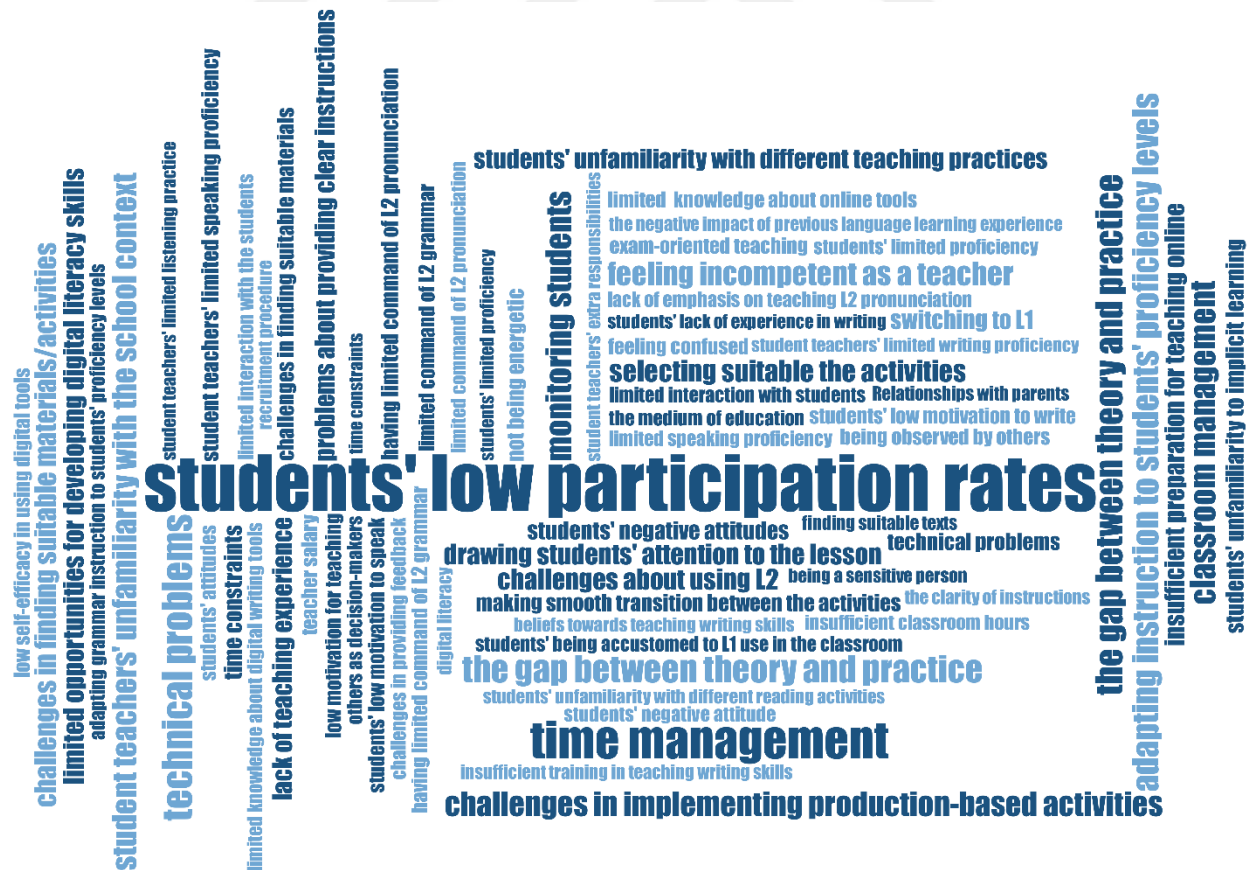


Figure 7. The code cloud created in MAXQDA.

4.2.4. Congruence between Concerns and Classroom Practices

The content analysis of the data collected through written and oral reflective journals, classroom observations and artefacts, interviews, and the researcher's log (field notes taken down during the whole-group meetings) demonstrated that there was an alignment between student teachers' stated concerns and their observed classroom practices to a large extent as displayed in Table 21. While tabulating the data, only observable and concrete codes were taken into consideration in order to provide a vivid picture of the data.

Table 21

Congruence and Incongruence between Student Teachers' Concerns and Practices

Themes	Concerns	Practices	Congruence
Self-concerns	Limited command of L2 pronunciation (ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST7)	No implementation of pronunciation activities	√
	Limited digital literacy (ST1, ST2, ST5, ST6, ST7)	Little or no implementation of production-based activities	√
	Adapting grammar instruction to learners' proficiency levels (ST2, ST3, ST5, ST7)	Partial implementation of grammar activities (ST3, ST7)	X
	Limited command of L2 grammar (ST2, ST4, ST6)	Partial implementation of grammar activities (ST4, ST6)	X
	Limited speaking proficiency (ST5, ST7)	Little or no implementation of speaking activities	√
	Limited writing proficiency (ST1, ST4)	Little or no implementation of writing activities	√
Task-related concerns	Learners' low participation rates (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7)	Little or no implementation of production-based activities	√
	Challenges in finding suitable listening materials (ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST7)	Partial implementation of listening activities (ST4, ST5)	X
	Technical problems related to listening (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST7)	Little or no implementation of listening activities	√
	Time constraints for listening (ST1, ST2, ST4, ST5)	Partial implementation of listening activities (ST4, ST5)	X
	Time constraints for pronunciation (ST3, ST6, ST7)	No implementation of pronunciation activities	√
	Challenges in finding suitable reading texts (ST2, ST5)	Little or no implementation of reading activities	√
	Providing written feedback (ST1, ST6)	No implementation of writing activities	√
Impact concerns	Making learners enjoy learning English (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7)	Using engaging activities	√
	Developing learners' oral communication skills (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST6)	Implementation of speaking activities	√
Context-related concerns	Insufficient preparation for teaching online (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5, ST6, ST7)	Little or no implementation of production-based activities	√
	Learners' unfamiliarity with different teaching practices (ST1, ST2, ST3, ST6, ST7)	Little or no implementation of novel practices	√
	The gap between theory and practice (ST1, ST2, ST3)	Partial implementation of grammar activities (ST1, ST2, ST3)	X
	Insufficient training in teaching writing skills (ST5, ST6)	Little or no implementation of writing activities	√
	Lack of emphasis on teaching L2 pronunciation (ST1, ST3)	No implementation of pronunciation activities	√

As seen in the table, the number of alignments ($n=15$) between student teachers' concerns and practices outweighed the number of discrepancies between them ($n=5$). All the themes

and codes related to student teachers' concerns were clearly explained with sample quotes from the student teachers in the previous sections. With regard to the discrepancies between concerns and practices, the arguments could be juxtaposed as follows:

i. Hazal and Yekta experienced challenges in adapting grammar instruction to students' proficiency levels. However, they kept using grammar activities in their lessons. Hazal held an exam-oriented concern and voiced that:

"I tried to be careful to include grammar in every lesson, because we needed them to raise their language awareness through grammar activities and It was also useful for their exams." (Hazal, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Yekta had an impact concern related to students' learning process and expressed that students needed more practice for the points previously covered in the class (students' learning needs, impact concern).

ii. Kaan and Uzey were concerned about their L2 grammar knowledge. Nevertheless, Kaan integrated grammar into his lessons because his mentor asked him to revise the grammatical structure covered in the previous lesson (mentor as a decision-maker). Uzey similarly aimed to revise the grammatical structure covered in the previous lesson to reinforce students' learning process and integrated grammar into his lessons of one's own free will (students' learning needs, impact concern).

iii. Although Kaan and Serdar marked that they were concerned about finding suitable listening tracks and videos and time constraints for using these materials, they partially implemented listening activities in their macro lessons to draw students' attention (students' motivation, impact concern).

iv. Arda, Beren, and Hazal were preoccupied with the gap between theory and practice. In other words, students were accustomed to traditional grammar teaching methods. Nevertheless, they integrated implicit learning into their macro lessons. Hazal had an exam-oriented concern as previously mentioned. Arda expressed that grammar was covered in the unit (curriculum constraints, contextual concern):

"I integrated grammar activities for almost every lesson. I used it frequently because the objectives of the unit were mostly related to grammar and vocabulary,

and the students' active participation was quite high in these activities.” (Arda, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

Beren partially integrated grammar into her lessons and explained rationale behind this limited practice as follows:

“I prefer using grammar activities to make sentences. I try to relate the grammar with the vocabulary and use context to make it more meaningful. So, I try to be clear. I use contextual clues such as showing them pictures. But, I mostly prefer not using grammar because they have low level and they are young learners. So, the grammar would not make too much sense to them. They have difficulty in understanding abstract concepts. Because they need explicit interpretation of everything they cannot always find it easy to intake the rules and turn these structures into output to make sentences. Because of these reasons I tried to focus on not too much grammar and rules but to focus on words that they can directly associate the concepts.” (Beren, Follow-up Reflective Journal)

4.3. Further Discussion of the Findings

The overall picture that conjured up from the data across seven cases demonstrated that student teachers held a greater number of self-concerns and task-related concerns than impact concerns. Those findings partially confirmed Fuller’s linear concerns-based model of teacher education and the idea that student teachers developed more self-concerns whereas veteran teachers developed more impact concerns. Nevertheless, the student teachers held a high number of self-concerns and task-related concerns simultaneously, which were consonant with the findings of several previous studies (e.g., Boz, 2008; Pigge and Marso, 1997; Reeves & Kazelski, 1985) alleging that student teachers held different types of concerns simultaneously instead of sequentially. With regard to the relationship between the concern categories, in the present study, there was a bidirectional relationship between self-concerns and task-related concerns; they affected each other. As such, task-related concerns such as, inter alia, time management or students’ low participation rates caused student teachers to feel incompetent as a teacher (teacher incompetencies, self-concern). From the other side of the same coin, student teachers’ self-concerns such as limited English language proficiency or adapting instruction to students’ proficiency levels

yielded task-related concerns in terms of lesson implementation and lesson preparation. Likewise, there was a bidirectional relationship between task-related concerns and impact-related concerns although the number of impact-related concerns was limited. In other words, student teachers' impact concerns affected their choices of language teaching materials and activities. Last but not least, context-related concerns mediated all these three categories of teacher concern. This relationship was shown in Figure 8, and a rudimentary model related to English language student teachers' concerns about teaching was proposed based on the findings of the present study.

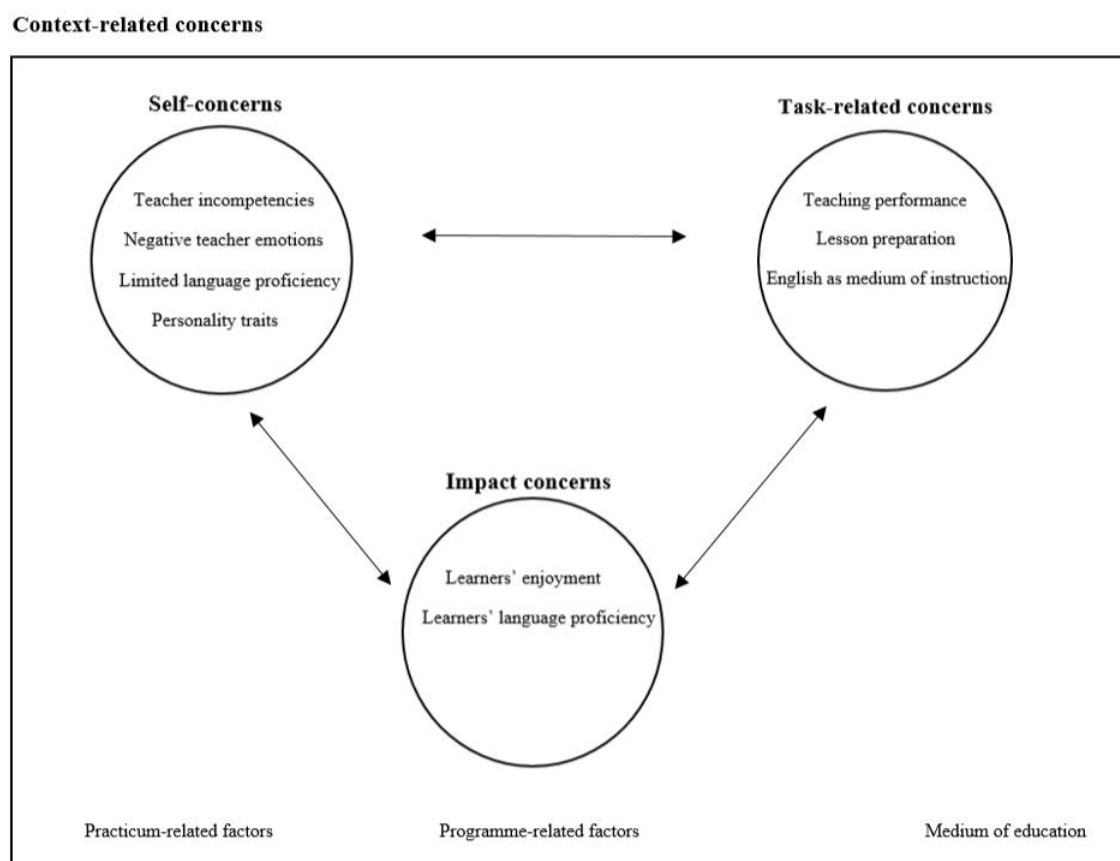


Figure 8. A concerns-based model for English language teacher preparation.

The findings of the present study indicated a total of seventy-nine codes related to student teachers' concerns about teaching in general as well as concerns about language teaching in particular. Even though there was a modest overlap between a few of them, various new codes emerged from the data related to language teaching and learning how to teach processes. The student teachers were preoccupied with their English language proficiency

levels especially in terms of their grammar knowledge, pronunciation knowledge, speaking skills, and writing skills. They held impact concerns such as using engaging activities and materials, which were not stressed in the literature before. With regard to teaching language skills and components, several conclusions could be drawn from the data:

i. Arda never attended any preparatory programme during his high school or university education. He was the most anxious person in terms of his writing skills and teaching writing competencies.

ii. Serdar and Yekta were taught English thoroughly based on a traditional grammar teaching method like their peers and the other student participants in the study. Nonetheless, the other student teachers somehow used songs, movies, and series to develop their speaking skills, but Serdar and Yekta oftentimes made use of these materials. Additionally, they barely devoted time to develop their language skills out-of-the school context. Consequently, they felt incompetent in both using the language communicatively and teaching speaking skills. Additionally, they were more inclined to teach English by adopting a traditional grammar teaching method.

All the student teachers were concerned about students' motivation, but they developed no motivational strategies to draw their attention to the lesson. Moreover, they shared the same concern that there was a glaring gap between university-based knowledge, school-based realities, and the requirements of the education system (exam-oriented teaching). Thus, they start the teaching profession without a clear and well-established ideology. They are unaware of which path to follow, which troubles them to a great extent. In this regard, it might be of pivotal importance to adopt more rigorously-designed programmes.

Last but certainly not least, most scholars have always emphasized the importance of ascertaining teacher concern in order to improve teacher education programmes, which evokes a negative nuance into teacher concern per se. From the other side of the same coin, it is noteworthy to take into consideration that “student teachers must have personal concerns about teaching” (Korthagen, 2011, p. 33) in order to learn anything during their teacher training process as well as understanding the affordances of any pedagogical interventions. Although the positive impacts of teacher concern remain under-researched so far, in their structural equation modelling study, Boz and Cetin-Dindar (2021) found that student teachers with higher task-related concerns were more preoccupied with

creating a constructivist learning environment. Thus, teacher concern must be dealt with meticulously in the relevant literature.

The next section provides a summary of the present study reported in this dissertation as well as suggestions related to the implications drawn from the data for second language teacher education programmes and recommendations for further research.



CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

5.0. Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of this dissertation research, the implications of the study, and suggestions for further research.

5.1. Summary of the Study

The aim of this multiple case study reported in this dissertation research was threefold: a) to examine student teachers' concerns about teaching throughout their teaching practicum, b) to probe their concerns about teaching English language skills (i.e., reading, writing, listening, and speaking) and components (i.e., grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary), and c) to delve into the (in)congruence between their teaching concerns and classroom practices. The participants were seven fourth-grade student teachers who were selected through a purposive sampling method based on their academic success. Data were collected qualitatively through multiple data collection tools including in-depth semi-structured interviews, written reflective journals, screencast-mediated oral reflective journals, a follow-up written reflective journal, a language learning history, professional background questionnaires, classroom observations (accompanied with the video-recordings of four macro-lessons), classroom artefacts, and the researcher's log.

Within the scope of the study, the student teachers designed four macro-lessons for secondary-level education. Prior to teaching, namely during the lesson preparation stage, student teachers were asked to write two-page reflective journals about their lesson

preparation processes and the rationale behind their selection of the activities and materials used in these lessons for each lesson to gain insight into their classroom practices. Additionally, each student teacher attended three different interview sessions carried out at the beginning, in the middle, and at the end of the semester. Afterwards, their macro lessons were both observed by the researcher and their university supervisor and video-recorded to enable the student teachers to reflect on their feelings and concerns. After teaching, they reflected on their teaching and recorded their comments, opinions, feelings, and concerns orally through a screen-casting tool while watching their video-recorded lessons simultaneously. Finally, they completed a follow-up written reflective journal at the end of the semester.

The data were content analysed, and the ensuing findings indicated that the student teachers held greater self-concerns and task-related than impact concerns. In addition, they held future-oriented concerns and context-related concerns. Besides, the findings demonstrated that student teachers' concerns such as students' low motivation for communication, their fear of making pronunciation mistakes, their limited writing proficiency, and their lack of training in using online tools affected their observed classroom practices to a large extent. Additionally, the number of congruence ($n= 15$) between student teachers' stated concerns and observed classroom practices outweighed the number of incongruences between them ($n= 5$). Based on the findings of the study, a concerns-based model of language teaching was proposed to shed light on language teachers' prominent concerns about teaching.

5.2. Implications of the Study

Given that the practicum school is a perfect simulacrum of the actual classrooms where student teachers will start teaching only three months later than the data collection process, the findings of the present study will hopefully inform the SLTE pedagogy in Turkey by conjuring up how student teachers are prepared to teach English when they graduate from teacher education programmes. Gazi University offers unique opportunities for English language student teachers especially in terms of methodological courses throughout the programme, thereby raising qualified language teachers for the future. Besides, the student teachers start their teacher education process with higher levels of English language

proficiency. The university therefore represents an appropriate destination to collect data, which will nurture the research-based knowledge related to the field of second language teacher education. Therefore, based on the findings of the present study, six important implications, *inter alia*, might be suggested.

First of all, findings demonstrated that all the student teachers were concerned about their English language proficiency levels particularly in terms of pronunciation, grammar, speaking, and writing. On the other hand, they expressed that they did not allocate much time to developing their English language proficiency in their daily lives. Some of them further stated that they were preoccupied with their courses offered in the programme, the requirements of the practicum, and preparation for the future career at the same time. Thus, additional English language enhancement programmes could be offered to the student teachers throughout their training process.

Secondly, a lingering code that arose out of the findings of the present study was the fact that there was a glaring gap between university-based knowledge and school-based realities, and student teachers had no preparation to deal with this gap or how to adjust their theoretical knowledge to the classroom. Additionally, they developed a few strategies limited to selecting engaging activities, materials, and topics. Therefore, in order to minimize this gap, student teachers might be provided with more opportunities for actual classroom practices by extending the periods of teaching practicum.

Thirdly, among four language skills, teaching writing skills is the most formidable one for student teachers. The student teachers were preoccupied with, *inter alia*, their limited writing proficiency, their limited knowledge about digital writing tools, providing feedback, and insufficient training in teaching writing skills. Consequently, student teachers avoided implementing writing activities in their macro lessons. Based on these findings, additional training sessions on not only developing literacy skills but also teaching writing skills could be offered to the student teachers.

Fourth, student teachers' unfamiliarity with the practicum school context yielded challenges due to their limited interaction with learners. Thus, long-term teaching practice might mitigate their concerns (Regier, 2021; Swennen, et al., 2004). Fifth, there was little or no implementation of production-based activities due to limited knowledge about digital

tools. Therefore, the student teachers should be trained in developing their digital literacy both inside and outside the school context.

Lastly, all the student teachers were preoccupied with adapting their instruction to the learners' proficiency levels. Besides, they expressed that they oftentimes planned their lessons based on low proficiency levels during their micro-teaching experiences and admitted that they felt incompetent in terms of adapting their lessons. Therefore, teacher education programmes should offer more opportunities to design lessons based on different proficiency levels. With these issues in mind, teacher educators and policy developers might capitalize on the findings of the study to ameliorate second language teacher education programmes in Turkey.

5.3. Recommendations for Further Research

The present study attempted to portray student teachers' concerns about their teaching practicum process and teaching English language skills and components by collecting qualitative data through multiple data collection tools. Additionally, a concerns-based model of English language teacher preparation was proposed based on the findings of the present study. Nevertheless, five avenues of research on teacher concern would appear to be needed considering the limitations of the present study.

First of all, the present study was carried out with seven student teachers as multiple cases during the period of Covid-19 pandemic. Similar case studies might be carried out in different contexts or cross-culturally to generalize the findings to a larger population. Secondly, the present study might be replicated by recruiting both novice and experienced in-service teachers working in various districts of Turkey. Thirdly, in the present study, data were collected over a three-month period of time. Future longer-term longitudinal studies are warranted to portray changes in student teachers' concerns over time.

Fourth, further investigation is needed for discerning how student teachers deal with their concerns in their practicum schools or what kind of support they expect from their university supervisors, mentors, peers, and teacher education programme itself. Last but certainly not least, student teachers' concerns about teaching a specific language skill or component could be examined in detail through a more careful analysis on a longitudinal basis.

Succinctly, in the present study, the number of the participants was limited to seven student teachers as multiple cases. However, substantial data were collected for each case, and this dissertation research constitutes a rigorously-conducted study focusing on English language student teachers' concerns during their teaching practicum experiences. Ascertaining student teachers' concerns might help to identify their developmental needs, thereby alleviating their self-concerns, task-related concerns, and context-related concerns and strengthen impact concerns for the future. Hopefully, this study could pave the way for further explorations into the dynamics of second language teacher education concerns to ameliorate second language teacher education programmes.



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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Language Learning History

Please write a journal about your language learning history. The questions below might help you. You can also provide further information if you wish.

1. How did you decide to learn English?
2. When did you start learning?
3. How have you learned English up to this point? (through classroom instruction, interacting with people, traveling, etc.)
4. Have you ever been abroad? If yes, why, where and how long?
5. Have you ever experienced a sense of achievement from learning English? If yes, please explain it. If no, why do you think so?
6. What kind of problems have you encountered while learning English? What have you done to deal with these problems?
7. Please rate your ability on the following skills and components in English. Please rate according to the following scale: (1=very poor, 2=poor, 3=fair, 4=functional, 5=good, 6=very good, 7=native like)

	1. very poor	2. poor	3. fair	4. functional	5. good	6. very good	7. native like
Reading							
Listening							
Writing							
Speaking							
Grammar							
Vocabulary							
Pronunciation							
Digital literacy (using digital technologies effectively in learning English)							

8. Please provide concrete reasons and events from primary school to university which may have determined why you liked or disliked learning English in a detailed way.
9. How many hours do you allocate to improve your English per day? What are the things you do to improve it?
10. Is there anything else that you think is interesting or important about your language learning process?



Appendix B. Professional Background

Please provide information about your professional background in a detailed way. The questions below might help you. You can also provide further information if you wish.

1. Please describe your Practicum school-context (socio-economics of the school, your observation/teaching hours, working conditions, the school leader's attitude, your mentor's attitude and practices).
2. Have you ever experienced teaching English? If yes, could you please explain your experience in a detailed way?
3. How would you rank your love of teaching English from 1 to 5? (1=very little, 2=little, 3=neutral, 4=much, 5=very much)
4. Please explain the reason(s) behind your choice above.,
5. How much are you satisfied/happy with your decision to become a teacher? (1=very little, 2=little, 3=neutral, 4=much, 5=very much)
6. Please explain the reason(s) behind your choice above.
7. How would you rank your capacity to cope with school-related problems? (1=very low, 2=low, 3=neutral, 4=high, 5=very high)
8. Please explain the reason(s) behind your choice above.
9. Why and how did you decide to study in the English Language Teaching program?
10. How do you define "learning English"?
11. How do you define "teaching English"?
12. Are you happy to become a part of the English Language Teaching program or not? Why?
13. What are your weaknesses and strengths as a (future) teacher?
14. What are your future plans for your professional life/career after graduation?
15. What are you doing to develop your teaching competencies?

16. Do you have any other future plans about your professional career? If yes, please share it.

17. Please rate your competencies in teaching the following skills and components in English. Please rate according to the following scale: (1=very poor, 2=poor, 3=fair, 4=functional, 5=good, 6=very good, 7=professional)

	1. very poor	2. poor	3. fair	4. functional	5. good	6. very good	7. professional
Teaching Reading							
Teaching Listening							
Teaching Writing							
Teaching Speaking							
Teaching Grammar							
Teaching Vocabulary							
Teaching Pronunciation							
Teaching English through making use of digital technologies effectively							
Teaching English in an integrated way							

Appendix C. Interview Questions for the First Interview Session

(Interview I. establishing rapport with the student teachers, gathering their language learning and teaching beliefs, and exploring overall concerns)

1. How can you describe 'knowing a foreign language'?
2. How can you describe 'a good English language teacher'?
3. Do you believe that you are a good teacher or you will be a good teacher?
4. Do you feel that it is difficult to teach English? Why?
5. What are your strengths and weaknesses as a (future) language teacher?
6. What kind of factors do you take into consideration while planning your lessons?

(Do you have any concerns about your competencies, students' feelings, proficiency and motivation, administration, curriculum, classroom management, mentor, supervisor, colleague, textbook, etc.?)
7. What kind of factors do you take into consideration about yourself while planning your lessons?

(Do you have any concerns about your competencies, language skills, motivation, etc.?)
8. What kind of factors do you take into consideration about your students while designing your lessons?

(Do you have any concerns about your students?)
9. What kind of factors do you take into consideration about the curriculum while designing your lessons?

(Do you have any concerns about the curriculum? Does the curriculum guide you or limit your freedom?)
10. What kind of factors do you take into consideration about the administration while designing your lessons?

(Do you have any concerns about the administration?)

11. What kind of factors do you take into consideration while selecting your materials?
Please explain it with an example.
12. What kind of factors do you take into consideration while selecting and planning your teaching activities? Please explain it with an example.
13. To what extent do you feel autonomous while planning your lesson?
14. To what extent do you feel autonomous while performing your lesson?
15. Are you a motivated teacher?
16. What kind of factors demotivate you while teaching?
17. Do you motivate yourself for teaching? If yes, how? If no, why?
18. What is your professional goal for teaching?
19. What is your ultimate goal for teaching?
20. Which aspects of teaching do you find challenging? Why?
21. What makes you feel confident while teaching?
22. What makes you feel anxious while teaching?
23. What kind of problems do you encounter while teaching? Do you overcome them?
If yes, how? If no, why?
24. Among four language skills, which one(s) of them makes you feel more confident and motivated while teaching? Why?
25. Among four language skills, which one(s) of them makes you feel more anxious while teaching? Why?
26. Among three language components, which one(s) of them makes you feel more confident and motivated while teaching? Why?
27. Among language components, which one(s) of them makes you feel more anxious while teaching? Why?

Appendix D. Interview Questions for the Second Interview Session

(Interview II. clarification of the previous responses, elaborating the dimensions of the teacher concern)

- *Self-concern – survival in the classroom*
- *Task concern – lesson planning and teaching process*
- *Impact concern – student learning, motivation, etc.*
- *Overall educational concerns – context-related factors*

Part I: Self-concern

1. How much is it important for you that your students love you or not?

(Do you think their love affects your teaching performance?)

2. How can you define ‘a good English language teacher’? To what extent do you think you are a good teacher? Why?

3. Do you experience any classroom management problems?

(Are you concerned about the students who disrupt your class? How do you feel when they do not participate in the class or answer your questions?)

4. Is it important for you to receive positive comments from your mentor/supervisor? Why?

Part II: Instructional concerns

5. How do you select the teaching content?

(Do you believe that you are able to select the content appropriately? What are your concerns about selecting the content?)

6. What kind of challenges do you experience while presenting the content?

(Do you think that you teach the content well? If no, what prevents you from doing that?)

7. Can you describe your teaching context?

(Do you have any concerns about the context? (location, colleagues, school principal, parents, student profile))

8. Are the classrooms crowded? If yes, how does this situation affect your teaching performance?
9. Do you think that you manage to present all the necessary materials and activities appropriately? If no, why? If yes, how?

Part III: Pupil/Impact Concern

10. Do you have any students with learning problems? If yes, do you have any strategies to help them?
11. Do you have any favorite students? If yes, what are their characteristics?
12. Do you think that you are a fair teacher? If yes/no, why?
13. What do you think about your students' needs? Do you think you are able to satisfy their needs? If yes/no, why?
14. When do you think your students lose their motivation?
15. Do you have any strategies to motivate your students? If yes, please explain by providing examples?

Part IV: Overall educational concerns/Contextual factors

16. Do you implement novel teaching practices?
17. Do you think that you are autonomous enough to implement novel teaching practices?
18. What do you think about collaborating with your friends/colleagues?

(When do you need their support? How do you support each other? Are you open to collaboration?)
19. When do you need your mentor's support?
20. When do you need your supervisor's support?

21. What kind of tasks do you carry out to improve your teaching competencies out-of-school? How do you think this affects your teaching performance?

22. What do you think about teacher salaries?



Appendix E. Interview Questions for the Third Interview Session

(Interview III. Clarifying the participants' previous comments and gaining a deeper insight into their beliefs, opinions and practices)

1. What kind of challenges did you experience while planning your lesson? How did you feel?
2. What kind of challenges did you experience while presenting your lesson? How did you feel?
3. What are the contributions of the practicum process to your teaching competencies? What did you learn from this process?
4. Considering your experiences during the Practicum, what would you do differently in your future classrooms?
5. Has there been a change in your lesson planning during all this process? What have you changed? Why?
6. How did you plan your lessons? What kind of criteria did you take into consideration?
7. What, do you believe, will shape your way of teaching when you become an in-service teacher?

(What do you believe about the roles of observation, teaching practice, methodology courses, your students, the context of your future school, other teachers, you as a teacher, parents, administration, etc.?)

8. Do you prefer planning your lessons individually or collaboratively? Why?
9. Are you open to collaboration with your friends while planning your lessons? When? Why?
10. Did you use any strategies to make students love you? If yes/no, why?
11. Did you use any strategies to motivate students? If yes/no, why?
12. Why did you prefer using mechanical activities more than production activities?

13. Among four language skills, which one(s) of them makes you feel more confident and motivated while teaching? Why?
14. Among four language skills, which one(s) of them makes you feel more anxious while teaching? Why?
15. Among three language components, which one(s) of them makes you feel more confident and motivated while teaching? Why?
16. Among language components, which one(s) of them makes you feel more anxious while teaching? Why?
17. What kind of activities did you carry out to teach reading skills? What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching reading skills? What went right? What went wrong?
18. What kind of activities did you carry out to teach listening skills? What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching listening skills? What went right? What went wrong?
19. What kind of activities did you carry out to teach speaking skills? What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching speaking skills? What went right? What went wrong?
20. What kind of activities did you carry out to teach writing skills? What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching writing skills? What went right? What went wrong?
21. What kind of activities did you carry out to teach grammar? What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching grammar? What went right? What went wrong?
22. Which method will you prefer to teach grammar in the future? Will you prefer GTM or function-based grammar teaching or something else? Why?
23. What kind of activities did you carry out to teach vocabulary? What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching vocabulary? What went right? What went wrong?

24. What kind of activities did you carry out to teach pronunciation? What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching pronunciation? What went right? What went wrong?
25. You have successfully completed your teacher education programme. Considering how you overcame the challenges you encountered, what advice would you give a candidate just beginning this program?
26. Is there anything else you want to add? Thank you.



Appendix F. Questions for the Written Reflective Journals

Please write your reflections about how you plan your macro-teaching session. The guiding questions below will help you. Please provide information in detail as much as possible.

1. Which language skills (i.e., reading, listening, speaking, and writing) are you focusing on for this macro-teaching? Why?
2. What kind of activities are you using to teach these skills? Please explain it by providing examples and write your justification for each activity in a detailed way.
3. Which language components (i.e., grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation) are you focusing on for this macro-teaching? Why?
4. What kind of activities are you using to teach these components? Please explain it by providing examples and write your justification for each activity in a detailed way.
5. What are your concerns about this macro-teaching?
6. Is there anything else you want to add about your macro-teaching preparation process?

Appendix G. Questions for the Screencast-mediated Reflective Journal

Please watch your lesson, pause whenever necessary and record a video by adding your oral comments using the tool 'Loom'. The questions below will help you.

Please mark this:

Prompt: Pause whenever you want and describe the points you felt concerned and confident in detail.

Specifically talk about:

1. When did you feel concerned? Why?
2. When did you feel confident? Why?
3. If you were doing the same lesson again, is there anything you would change? Why?

Appendix H. Questions for Follow-up Reflective Journal

Please write a reflective journal about your overall reflection on the macro lessons you performed so far. Please clearly express the challenges you experienced and your feelings in a detailed way. These questions will help you:

1. What kind of challenges did you experience while teaching, -presenting your macro lessons? Please explain all the challenges by providing EXAMPLES.
2. What did you do to overcome these challenges?
3. In what situations did you feel anxious while teaching? Why? Please explain your feelings by providing EXAMPLES.
4. In what situations did you feel motivated while teaching? Why? Please explain your feelings by providing EXAMPLES.
5. Why did you prefer using games in your macro lessons?
6. Why did you prefer using mechanical activities more than production activities?
7. How often did you integrate reading activities into your lessons? Why?
8. How often did you integrate listening activities into your lessons? Why?
9. How often did you integrate writing activities into your lessons? Why?
10. How often did you integrate speaking activities into your lessons? Why?
11. How often did you integrate grammar activities into your lessons? Why?
12. How often did you integrate vocabulary activities into your lessons? Why?
13. How often did you integrate pronunciation activities into your lessons? Why?
14. How often did you use L1 in your lessons? Why and when?
15. If you had a chance to perform these classes once again, what could you have done differently? Why?

16. What could be done to improve your online teaching competencies? What are your suggestions for teacher education programmes?

17. Is there anything else you want to add about the areas in which you felt concerned and motivated?



Appendix I. A Sample Lesson Plan

LESSON PLAN

Name/Surname: Uzay

Institution/ Context of language teaching: ... Secondary School, EFL

Material Used: PPT presentation, Quiziz, Padlet

Lesson Focus: Reading integrated with speaking

Lesson Topic: Environment- Unit 9

Learners' previous knowledge: Students have finished unit 9 in the book.

Learner profile (Age + Proficiency level/ Number of students): 13, A1, ?

Anticipated problems & Remedies during Teaching:

Problem: It is an online class, and the lesson will be at 08.30 in the morning; hence, students might not be willing to attend the lesson.

Remedy: Teacher will use colourful and enjoyable visuals and creative games for students to have fun and keep them motivated.

The goal of your lesson: This lesson aims to revise the unit 9 and the target vocabularies which are air-water pollution, prevent, nuclear waste, sound pollution, save, fossil/solar energy, global warming, cut/plant trees, public transportation and at the production part, making students practise the vocabularies that they learn in the lesson.

Objectives: By the end of the lesson, students will be able to

- Practicing the target vocabulary with the circle the appropriate one activity in while reading section with a meaningful context.
- Being able to talk about environment and the world.

Step	Time	Tasks (Teacher)	Interaction Pattern	Purpose
Lead-in	2 mins.	✳ T greets the students and asks them how they feel. Then, he expresses how he feels, as well. After that T says ‘Do you like watching movies of Marvel?. By showing the picture of the Marvel heroes) (<u>Appendix A</u>) Who is you favourite superhero? What about him? Do you know him? (By showing the picture of Captain America) . (<u>Appendix B</u>) ✳ Then T attracts students attention to the shield of Captain America by asking ‘What is this item’s name? What does Captain America use it for?’ ✳ <i>Then T opens the next slide and the answer appears. (<u>Appendix C</u>)</i> ✳ <i>Then T asks Does our world have a shield? (<u>Appendix D</u>)</i> ✳ <i>Sts answer the question easily by sayin ‘Yes, it has atmosphere.’</i> ✳ Teachere goes on by asking ‘Do you want to learn more about atmosphere?’ and plays a video. (<u>Appendix E</u>)	T-Ss	➤ To catch their attention to the topic ➤ To raise their awareness about the topic ➤ To establish the context ➤ To activate their schemata

First-Reading	6 mins	✱ When the video ends T asks students that ‘ <i>We have watched a video about atmosphere. Do you want to learn what we are doing to the atmosphere?</i>’ (Appendix F) When T gets the answer ‘Yes’ he goes on by opening the reading passage (Appendix G) and gives them one minute to have a quick look at it to decide what the text is mainly about. (Appendix H) ✱ When the time is up, T and students check the answer together.	T-Ss	➤ To establish the context ➤ To pre-teach the essential vocabulary for reading text within the context ➤ To direct their attention to the target vocabulary
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Second-Reading	10 mins	✴ After eliciting their answers, T says <i>'You are great, thank you. We talked about atmosphere. Now, let's read a text in detailed way and see these sentences true or not.'</i> ✴ After that T shows the next slide containing with the circle the appropriate one activity next to the reading the text and says <i>'Let's read the text and circle the correct ones, OK? Are you ready to read? After showing the sentences and explaining what they are going to do, T shows the text and sentences on the same page (Appendix I) and gives the instructions 'You have four minutes to read, let's read and decide the sentences true or false.'</i> ✴ When students finish the activity, T and students check the answers together.	T-Ss	➤ To make them repeat the target vocabulary as much as possible ➤ To make them practice the target vocabulary they have learnt within the context ➤ To let them identify the target vocabulary within the text ➤ To make them find the main idea and specific information within the text
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Have Fun part/ Quiziz 9th unit vocabulary revision	10 mins	✱ After the while part is over, T says ‘We talked about world’s shield, atmosphere. Now, its fun time’ Then, T opens the word quiziz web site. (Appendix J) Then, he explains what they are going to do by saying ‘You are going to go to the link. Check chat box and register to play the game’. ✱ Then, T registers to show how this process works.	Ss-Ss T-Ss	➤ To make them internalize the topic ➤ To let them use the target vocabulary that they knew through the Jam board ➤ To let them more interact with one another through the activity
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Wrap-up	2 m i n s	✳ After the post-part ends, T wraps the things up by saying ‘We talked about environment and can you help me categorize the things for saving the world and polluting the world?’ By showing the answers on the screen, T wants students to help him and ends the lesson with Padlet. <u>(Appendix K)</u>. ✳ After that, T thanks for their participation and ends the lesson.	T-Ss	➤ To summarize the lesson ➤ To assign their homework
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Contingency Plan (In case there is no time left): In that case, T might keep the post-activity shorter or T might assign their homework after the class via WhatsApp.

Contingency Plan (In case you finish early): In that case, T might ask them to join the online quiz on the web site quizziz and they may use their their time effciently.

Appendix A- PPT Marvel



Appendix B- PPT Captain America



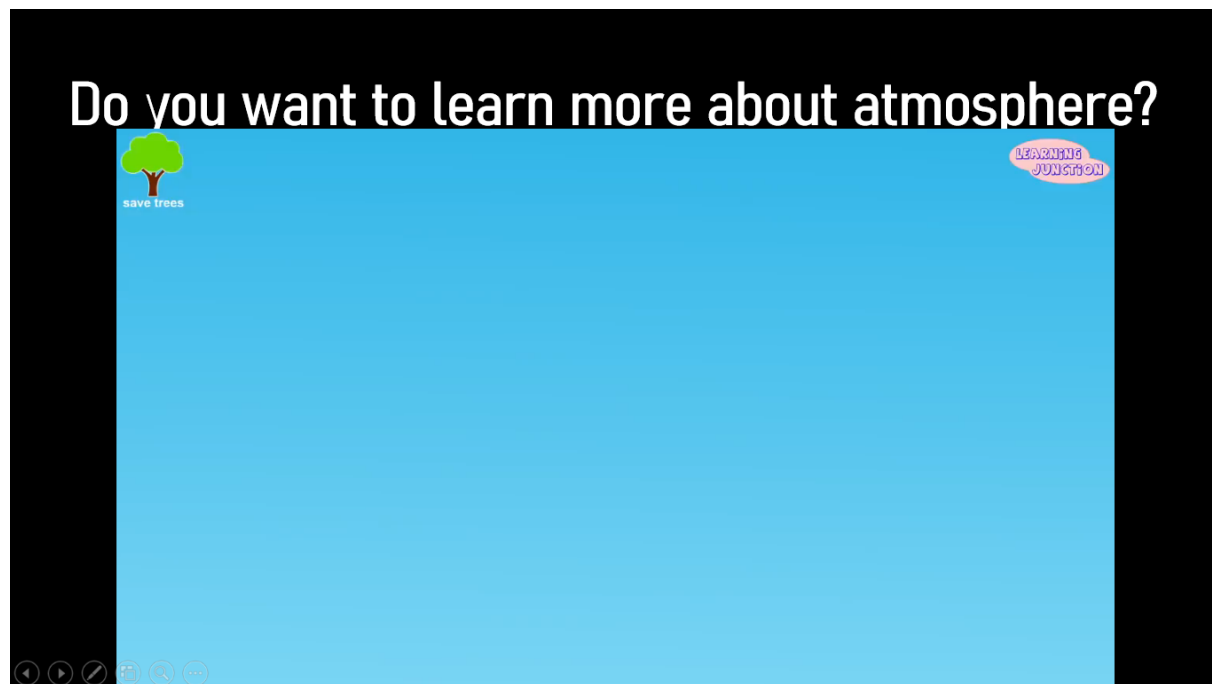
Appendix C- PPT Captain America



Appendix D- PPT World's shield



Appendix E- PPT Video



Appendix F- PPT Reading Passage

A REAL DANGER !

According to Tubitak, water, carbon dioxide, methane, and ozone are some of the greenhouse gases in the world's atmosphere. When the sunlight reaches Earth, these gases keep it in the atmosphere and cause an increase in the world's temperature. This is called as the greenhouse effect. People cause air and water pollutions everyday and cause an increase in these gases. People cause this increase because they don't plant trees, use recyclable products, wind energy, solar energy. This situation affects the balance of the world and causes global warming. Because of this disaster, animals all around the world lose their natural habitats and the glaciers melt. The average temperature of the Earth's atmosphere is 14 °C. When it rises, the situation can threaten all lives on Earth. So, we must be careful! Using energy-saving light bulbs, public transportation and not buying products | you can't recycle can save our lives.

Appendix G- PPT 1st Reading Activity

A REAL DANGER !

According to Tubitak, water, carbon dioxide, methane, and ozone are some of the greenhouse gases in the world's atmosphere. When the sunlight reaches Earth, these gases keep it in the atmosphere and cause an increase in the world's temperature. This is called as the greenhouse effect. People cause air and water pollutions everyday and cause an increase in these gases. People cause this increase because they don't plant trees, use recyclable products, wind energy, solar energy. This situation affects the balance of the world and causes global warming. Because of this disaster, animals all around the world lose their natural habitats and the glaciers melt. The average temperature of the Earth's atmosphere is 14 °C. When it rises, the situation can threaten all lives on Earth. So, we must be careful! Using energy-saving light bulbs, public transportation and not buying products | you can't recycle can save our lives.

What is the text is mainly about?

- a) Water pollution
- b) Solar energy usage
- c) Greenhouse gases

Appendix H- 1st Reading Activity with the answer

A REAL DANGER !

According to Tubitak, water, carbon dioxide, methane, and ozone are some of the greenhouse gases in the world's atmosphere. When the sunlight reaches Earth, these gases keep it in the atmosphere and cause an increase in the world's temperature. This is called as the greenhouse effect. People cause air and water pollutions everyday and cause an increase in these gases. People cause this increase because they don't plant trees, use recyclable products, wind energy, solar energy. This situation affects the balance of the world and causes global warming. Because of this disaster, animals all around the world lose their natural habitats and the glaciers melt. The average temperature of the Earth's atmosphere is 14 °C. When it rises, the situation can threaten all lives on Earth. So, we must be careful! Using energy-saving light bulbs, public transportation and not buying products you can't recycle can save our lives.

What is the text is mainly about?

- a) Water pollution
- b) Solar energy usage
- c) Greenhouse gases

Appendix I- 2nd Reading Activity

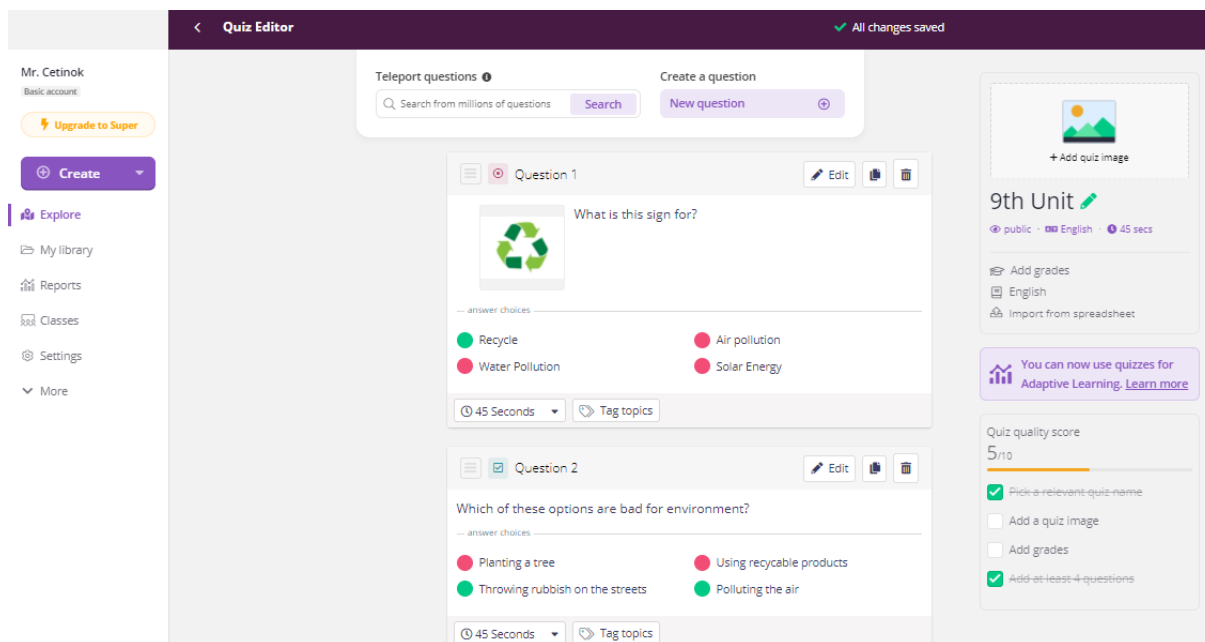
A REAL DANGER !

According to Tubitak, water, carbon dioxide, methane, and ozone are some of the greenhouse gases in the world's atmosphere. When the sunlight reaches Earth, these gases keep it in the atmosphere and cause an increase in the world's temperature. This is called as the greenhouse effect. People cause air and water pollutions everyday and cause an increase in these gases. People cause this increase because they don't plant trees, use recyclable products, wind energy, solar energy. This situation affects the balance of the world and causes global warming. Because of this disaster, animals all around the world lose their natural habitats and the glaciers melt. The average temperature of the Earth's atmosphere is 14 °C. When it rises, the situation can threaten all lives on Earth. So, we must be careful! Using energy-saving light bulbs, public transportation and not buying products you can't recycle can save our lives.

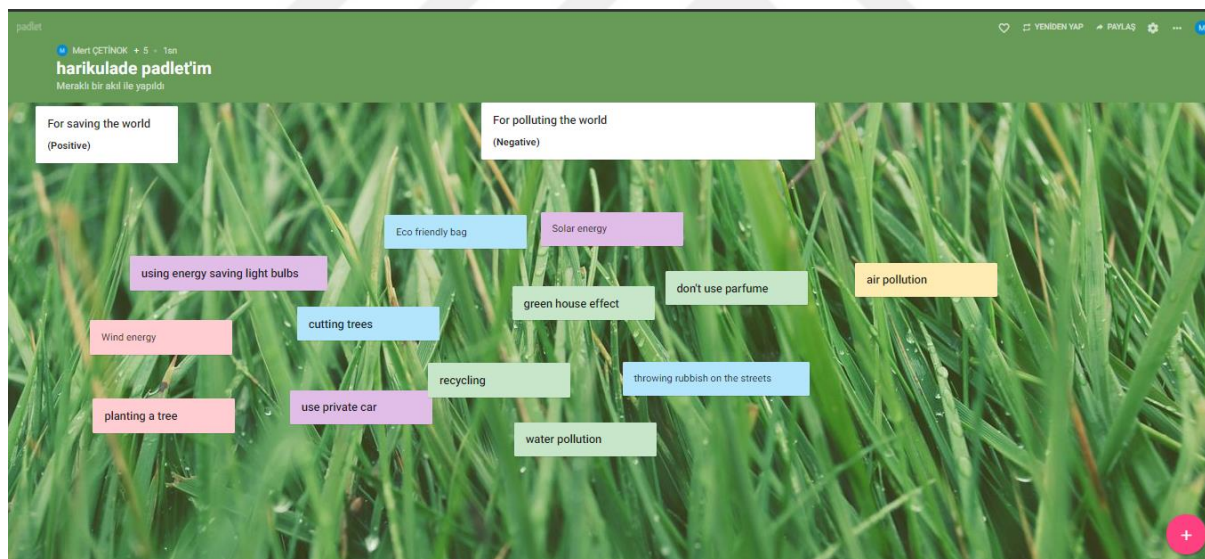
22

Read the text in detailed way and decide the sentences are true or false.	TRUE	FALSE
1. There is no water and ozone in the world's atmosphere.		X
2. We shouldn't use recyclable products to protect our nature.		
3. The greenhouse gases decrease the world's temperature and cause people to freeze		
4. Animals all around the world lose their habitats.		
5. The average temperature of the Earth's atmosphere is 18 °C.		
6. We should use energy-saving lightbulbs to protect the balance of nature.		
7. People should buy lots of products even if they don't use them.		

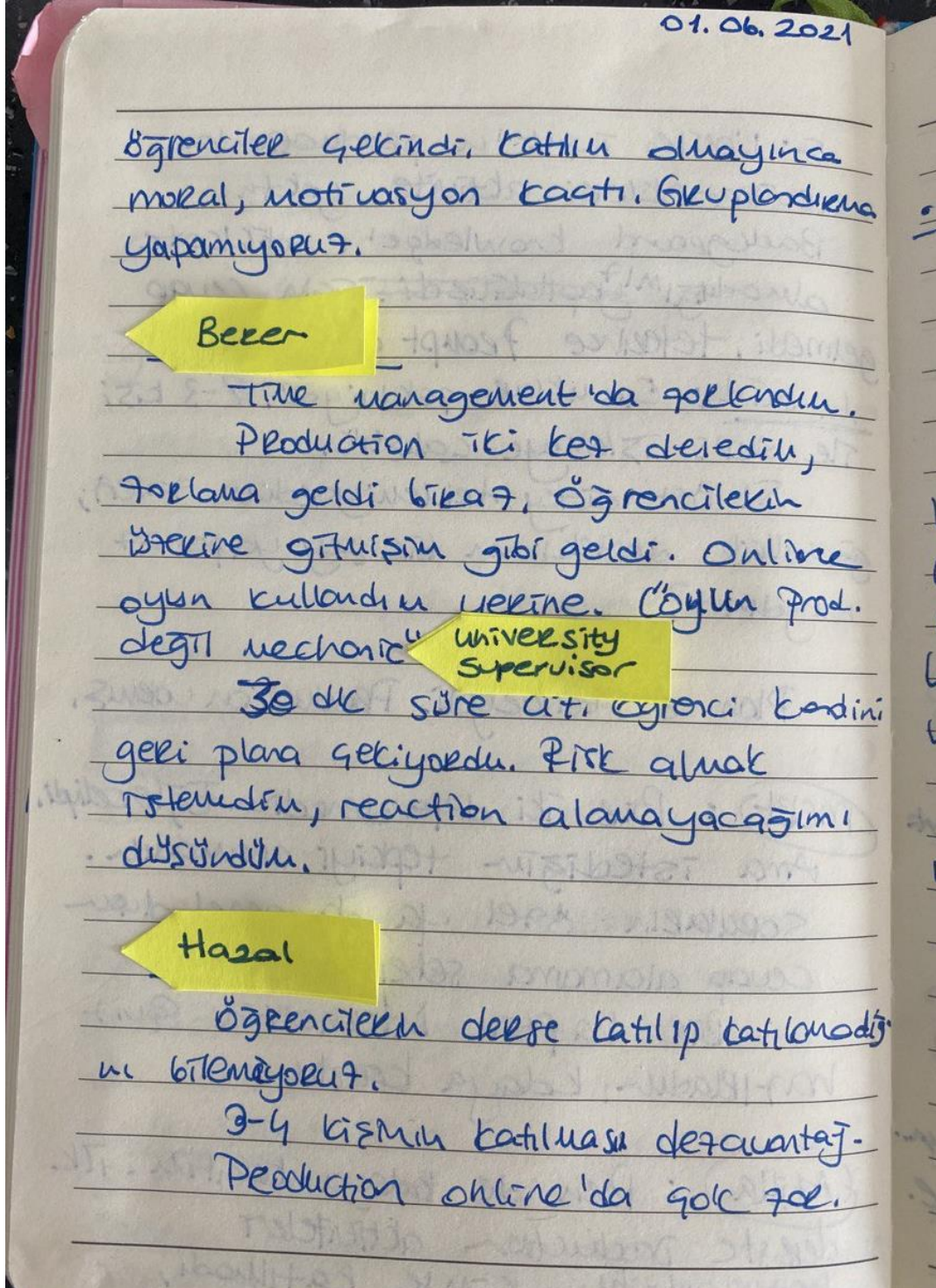
Appendix J- Have Fun Part/ Quiziz



Appendix K- Wrap up



Appendix J. A Sample Page from the Researcher Log



Appendix K. Ethical Approval of the Ethics Committee

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 29.06.2021-E.115697



T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Etik Komisyonu

Sayı : E-77082166-302.08.01-115697
Konu : Bilimsel ve Eğitim Amaçlı

29.06.2021

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 29.04.2021 tarihli ve 80287700-302.08.01- 83483 sayılı yazı.

İlgi yazınız ile göndermiş olduğunuz, Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı Doktora Öğrencisi Seval KAYGISIZ'ın, Prof.Dr.Kemal Sinan ÖZMEN'in danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "*Student teachers' concerns about English language teaching*" adlı tez çalışması ile ilgili konu Komisyonumuzun 18.05.2021 tarih ve 09 sayılı toplantısında görüşülmüş olup,

İlgilinin çalışmasının, yapılması planlanan yerlerden izin alınması koşuluyla yapılmasında etik açıdan bir sakınca bulunmadığına oybirliği ile karar verilmiş ve karara ilişkin imza listesi ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Araştırma Kod No: 2021 - 680

Prof. Dr. İsmail KARAKAYA
Komisyon Başkanı

Ek:1 Liste

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GAZİLİ OLMAK AYRICALIKTIR..