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An examination of how the theory-practice relationship of pedagogy courses is conceived and perceived by the participants, and how management of education systems and faculties can enhance the quality of teacher education in Turkey

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Abstract

An examination of how the theory-practice relationship of pedagogy courses is conceived and perceived by the participants, and how management of education systems and faculties can enhance the quality of teacher education in Turkey

By

Ozcan Arslanoglu

Education shapes the present and the future. Teachers are one of the crucial elements of this future making. Primary school teachers may be accepted as the basement constructors of the education building. Pedagogy courses, which are studied as Generic Education Courses in this thesis, may be described as the cement of this building.

An academic article published in the Turkish Social Research Journal (TSA, August, 2008) by Aydın et al. has triggered the author of this thesis to do a research study of this topic. The article was questioning the quality of this constructive relationship in primary school teacher training.

As pedagogy courses are important and there are debates about the quality of primary school teacher education, this research examines how the theory-practice relationship of pedagogy courses is understood, and how the management of education systems and faculties can enhance the quality of teacher education in Turkey. Although the main focus was on teacher education in Turkey, data were also collected in England. The intention was not to conduct a detailed comparative study but rather to use the information from the English context to further understanding of the relevant teacher education issues in Turkey.

Using a mixed method approach to data collection, information was gathered in both Turkey and England from teachers, teacher educators

and student teachers. The main findings in this research can be listed as: Theory is conceived to have a relationship with practice. They cannot be separated completely. Each group of respondents see the strength/weakness of the relationship at different levels. While the Turkish context has challenging issues of management structures and systems and personnel quality (e.g. work ethic) that need to be addressed, the English context deals with details for the wellbeing of teacher education. Finally, the two contexts are recognized to be significantly different in terms of teacher education.

Furthermore, the Turkish teacher education system may need to be rehabilitated or redesigned regarding its hierarchical connection with upper bodies, reconsidering the quality of partnership with schools, and inner strategical changes at education faculties.

AN EXAMINATION OF HOW THE THEORY-PRACTICE RELATIONSHIP OF PEDAGOGY COURSES IS CONCEIVED AND PERCEIVED BY THE PARTICIPANTS, AND HOW MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS AND FACULTIES CAN ENHANCE THE QUALITY OF TEACHER EDUCATION IN TURKEY

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Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirement for the award of

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Abbreviations

GEC- Generic Education Courses

ITE- Initial Teacher Education

ITT- Initial Teacher Training

MONE- Ministry of National Education

HEC- Higher Education Council

TTA- Teacher Training Agency

TA- Training Agency

HC- House of Commons

ETE- English Teacher Educator

TTE- Turkish Teacher Educator

TWT- Turkish Working Teacher

EWT- English Working Teacher

GST- General Systems Theory

QTS- Qualified Teacher Status

OFSTED- Office for Standards in Education

CATE- Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education

PGCE- Post Graduate Certificate of Education

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Introduction

For almost one hundred and fifty years in Turkey, education has become more structured and organized at national level, since governments have undertaken the responsibility of the education of all people (Yüksel, 2008). Once it is held, controlled, and inspected by one authority which is, in most cases, the government of a country, it becomes more structured, systematic and organized; in other words they have had to have a more understandable schema and management style. Making the procedures more systematic and more structured is considered to help achieve the desired results more easily, more quickly and to a better quality. These are some of the reasons why there is and should be an organized education system for the benefit of countries and for people.

In this thesis, when the education system is considered, I am focusing on the governmental bodies responsible for education, in the schooling system and on teacher training structures. Knowing how they are constructed in terms of architecture of education, may lead us to a better comprehension of the context of a country. In this study, the country which is being taken into account is Turkey with reference to what can be learned from other countries, particularly England.

Why do we need to know the educational contexts of Turkey and countries like England? What are the benefits of that knowledge? This study focuses on an exploration of working teachers' and teacher educators' conceptions and student teachers' perceptions of the relationship between theory-practice in education. The research can be best understood when the conditions and circumstances are clearly recognized. By describing the education systems of particular countries, it is hoped to draw a general

picture of the regulations or context in which this research takes place. It may also be beneficial when the data, which were collected during this research, are being analysed in the coming chapters. Although the focus is Turkey's educational system it is hoped that research and information from other countries, such as England, can inform thinking.

Chapter 1 is an introduction, mainly focusing on describing the Turkish context with some relevant   examples from the English context.

The second chapter reviews the literature about theory, practice, and their relationship in terms of Generic Education Courses, particularly for primary school teaching.

Chapter three studies the literature about management issues in regard to education systems and education faculties.

The next chapter exposes the methodology used for this research.

And the last chapter analyses the data collected both qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative analysis was done by phenomenographic methods while statistical analysis was done by SPSS. The thesis will be completed by a discussion and conclusion chapter.

CHAPTER 1: EDUCATION SYSTEMS

This chapter provides details about:

- Part A explores Turkish Education System with its elements of historical overview, administration, schooling, teacher education and education faculties, relationship between education and politics, and teacher training trends.

- Part B explores Education in England with elements of schooling, teacher education.

Different perspectives and approaches of governments directly affect the structure of education systems as well as teacher education (Erixon-Arreman, 2005). For example Finland, Sweden, and Portugal prefer research-based teacher education. On the other hand, according to Erixon-Arreman (2005) England prefers government-led teacher education to enhance the professionalism of teachers. That point of view is important while trying to understand an education system and within it teacher education. In the UK, the fact that the government prefers to use the term 'trainees' instead of 'students' and 'ITT' instead of 'ITE' (Hallet, 2010) provides some indication of how they view the initial preparation of teachers. King (2004) states that using ITE refers to critical pondering, research based melioration of practice, and a passion to unite theory and practice.

In England and Wales, all initial teacher education (ITE) is underpinned by the official teaching standards for the recommendation for qualified teacher status (QTS), most recently revised and implemented in 2012.

Some perceive that the affect of these standards is to make the English education system less based on the reflective practice of teachers (Stevens, 2010). Beck (2009, p.3) sheds light on the root of the current English education system: 'post-fordist management theory and a loose form of behaviourist psychology'. Hargreaves (1997, 1999) and Elliott (2001) expressed that teacher practice in England should become evidence-informed practice. Hall (2009) calls it research-informed, and criticizes that approach as it downgrades teachers to beholders of inquiries and consumers of research outcomes.

A - Turkish Education System Context

Motivation and/or desire for education is very important in order to be able to progress. It can be asserted that for many years there were three main motivators and triggers in education. If education history is considered, it can be seen that at the very beginning, education started as a desire for knowledge, then it evolved to a desire for intellectual lifestyle and finally, after the invention of certificates, education has become more about collecting the necessary accreditation for specific jobs. Since those phases have passed, it is important to add that the first two stages have not been/will not be completely left behind. For instance, there are still many people who undertake education to fulfil their desire for knowledge and also for an intellectual life style.

Turkish education history is no different. When different countries are studied, it can be seen that although the dates may differ, the result is very similar, especially in this age of rapid globalization. When it comes to education in Turkey (formerly known as the Ottoman State), the aim for education was similar. People during Ottoman times, were asking for

education to learn more about their religion and God. Science was studied as a part of religious studies. This formed the first phase.

It is interesting that the starting date of the second phase is disputed as it may be considered as very close to the third phase and for many years people maintained their initial motivation. Then the days came when Ottoman people could not use their desire for knowledge to motivate themselves. The second and third phases were experienced consecutively and briefly. By the third phase, mass education became a necessity because the new situation, which can be described as 'being a graduate', resulted in a qualification as a provision for a job and in time for a more respected and higher paid job. This was the time when organized education had started in the Ottoman State and continued and became established in Turkey.

'The Turkish education system aims to make every single Turkish pupil have basic knowledge, skills, good behaviour and habits, national moral values. In addition to those, it is planned to improve the abilities of Turkish children depending on their interests and skills' (Law 23 in, Okçabol, 2005, p.128).

When it comes to resources used in education, 'the Ministry of National Education decides which books will be followed in a year' (Law 55, in Okçabol, 2005, p.136). Pupils are given books which are used during their education until their graduation from high school. An educational history of the Turkish context may help us to see the picture clearer.

A.1 - Historical Overview

Since education is a part of our lives naturally, simultaneously and in an organized way, it has had an important place in Ottoman society and now in Turkish society as well. During Ottoman times, education was held at schools called Medrese (a kind of education institution). The Medrese was an institution beginning from childhood and including higher education, maybe until the end of a person's life. At first there was no age limit to start those schools and no obligation. Anyone could leave the Medrese whenever he wanted. Girls tended to be home educated by their mothers or by female neighbours. Sciences were studied at Medreses from the perspective of religious understanding.

In the 19th century, modernization regulations for education began. Sultan Mahmut 2nd made primary school compulsory for boys in Istanbul, in 1824. Two years later, primary school became compulsory for all boys around the country (Okçabol, 2005). Sultan Mahmut 2nd is known as the first sultan/king/president/prime minister to make education compulsory (Türk, 2002, p.169). It was not much later that a decree was announced concerning the levels of the education system. In 1846 the education system was divided into three stages: primary education, secondary education and higher education. In addition to this a new western style university opened. Just a year later, the length of compulsory primary education was declared as four years (Okçabol, 2005). After these regulations, a nursery school, an all-girls high school, an all-girls art school, a dentist school, a finance school, a council school, a land survey school and charity schools were established and a contemporary law of primary education was prepared (Okçabol, 2005). 'In the Ottoman education system, graduates of lower level medreses became primary school teachers and graduates of higher level medreses became medrese teachers/lecturers' (Okçabol, 2005, p.28).

The first teacher training school was established in 1848, to train teachers just for primary schools. This was followed by schools to prepare secondary school teachers (Türk, 2002, p.31). In 1870 a number of social and political reforms led to the introduction of some important educational regulations. Those regulations included opening a new type of school to train teachers for high schools and higher education institutions. They were called Teacher Education Institutes. These schools were four years after secondary school (Türk, 2002, p.31).

After World War I, in 1920, it was the right time for educational reform. With this reform, Education Institutions were introduced. These later became Higher Teacher Institutions of four years in 1978. After five years they were transformed to Education Faculties in universities (Türk, 2002, p.33-34). After the young Turkish Republic was announced, new, westernized educational solutions were implemented. The 3rd March 1924 is an important date in the history of Turkish education. During the reform movement, the Turkish educational system was centralized by enactment of the 'Law of Unification of Instruction' in 1924 (Akyüz, 2004; Webster, 1939). Two elements of the law affected the education system greatly. Türk informs us that the first element is that the ministries governing and inspecting private charities and their schools together were closed by one of the new laws. The second legislated that because the charity schools were left without the support of the private charities, they were all undertaken by the state. That was the end of schools managed by private charities. The era of charity-supported school models came to an end. Private education and the local governors' authority and responsibility were taken from their hands and the schools all became state schools (2002, p.172).

To lessen the teacher shortage, teacher education was made to start just after primary school and the length of that training was three years. These teacher education schools practised as boarding schools (Türk, 2002, p.33). Having taken some precautions, those were not enough to bring the number of teachers to an adequate level. So, Türk reminds us, in 1937, those who completed their military service successfully were given an additional training course of 6-8 months and after that attained teacher status for village schools (2002, p.34). Another school type which was established to train teachers was Village Institutions. They began to educate teacher candidates after primary school for at first five years then six, then seven years. They were another source of teachers for primary education. They became the basis for Higher Education Institutions in 1976 (Türk, 2002, p.34-35). This information shows us that to close the gap between shortage and necessity for teachers, many kinds of schools and solutions were produced. To keep teachers who were graduates of those teacher training secondary schools up to date and to protect and improve their quality, some actions became necessary. Türk points to this action as the announcement of National Main Law of Education, in 1973. According to that law, current teachers at that time were obliged to finish at least two years of training in higher education. Because of that obligation, to be able to allow graduates of teacher preparation schools to be accepted to universities -according to the Turkish Education System, only graduates of high schools could apply to universities-, those teacher preparation schools were converted to Teacher High Schools, which still exist (2002, p.33). This law is also important as it described teacher education as a professional occupation (Bulut, 2009).

In 1981-82 a very comprehensive change was made as a result of making of a new legal constitution. All teacher training responsibilities were given to education faculties in universities from the Ministry of National Education (Türk, 2002, p.35). That was a milestone in terms of teacher supply and management of education. It constituted a different type of

relationship between the ministry and universities in terms of teacher education.

By 1994, HEC and the World Bank started a project in Turkey to enhance the quality of teacher education, which was called the 'Enhancement of National Education Project'. Turkish and foreign academics studied the Turkish education system and discovered that Turkish trainee teachers lacked quality in terms of theory, teaching practice and teaching skills (Harmandar et al., 2000). Teacher education in Turkey was faced with a lack of opportunities as well as insufficient number of schools for practice. Thus, HEC combined School Experience 1 and School Experience 2 courses under one title as School Experience as a single course (HEC, 2007).

Dursunoglu (2003) evaluates and concludes that, in Turkish teacher education history; quantity (shortage of teachers) was the priority but now quality is the primary concern without giving up the quantity concern. Quality and quantity are governed by the central state in Turkey, so we will now look at the administration side of Turkish education system.

A.2 - Administration:

The General Education Council became the Ministry of Education. Two important decisions that the council made was first, to take corporal punishment out of schools and second, to cease graduation exams for primary school students. The students who passed those exams had previously been allowed to start secondary schools (Türk, 2002, p.54). The Turkish Education system is now governed by the Ministry of National Education (MONE). The first ministry for education was formed in 1857

(Türk, 2002, p.55). Başaran explains how the current ministry manages the system:

1-Management of education programmes

2-Management of services for children

3-Management of education workers services

4-Management of general services

5-Management of educational budget (1982, p.82)

Türk agrees with Başaran but adds that there are four things missing in his list: 'Research, Planning, Inspection, and Evaluation' (2002, p.17).

It is important to remember here that National Education Council is the highest advisory council in Turkey for MONE (Türk, 2002, p.154). The Turkish education system takes into consideration five advisory elements. Türk lists them as:

1- Constitution of Turkish Republic

2- Laws about Education.

3- Programme of Governing Party

4- Development Plans

5- National Education Council (2002, p.18).

The National Education Council - although they should gather periodically - organizes meetings whenever needed. Four of those meetings are related to the theme of this research. They are:

4th Meeting: Revision of Primary and Secondary Education (23-31 August 1949)

5th Meeting: Re-organization of Primary and Nursery Education (4-14 February 1953)

10th Meeting: Turkish National Education System and Teacher Training (23-26 June 1981)

11th Meeting: Training of Teachers and Teacher Trainers (8-11 June 1982) (Türk, 2002, p.154).

There have been some planning difficulties since the responsible authority changed for teacher education. In particular, the teacher supply and demand ratio cannot be balanced due to the lack of harmony between MONE and the education faculties (Türk, 2002, p.29). Before that all planning was made by MONE alone (Türk, 2002, p.35).

In the Turkish education system there is a hierarchy literature for orders. They are listed below according to their strength; from the most to the least powerful: Constitution, Law, Rules (Regulations), Code, Decree, Instruction, and Circular.

A.3 - Schooling

Distribution of education levels are categorized as three: Primary Education, Secondary Education and Higher Education. Until 1997, Primary Education consisted of just primary schools, but today primary education has two stages. Secondary education is composed of High Schools and finally, higher education refers to universities.

Primary Schools in Turkey accept pupils from the age of six and aim for them to graduate at the age of 14. This stage of the education system is free and compulsory (law 22 in, Okçabol, 2005). It is important to note here that while this thesis is being prepared an educational law was passed

(http://www.meb.gov.tr/haberler/2012/12YillikZorunluEgitimeYonelikGenel ge.pdf) to regulate the education as 4+4+4 which means primary school will start by the age of 5 and it will take four years. The second phase, secondary school will take four years and the third phase, high school, will take four years. Those 12 years are compulsory education but the three compulsory phases are independent from each other. That means a student may leave gap years between primary school and secondary and/or between secondary and high school. However, ultimately students must finish those 12 years (no emphasis on age).

There are vocational schools called Anadolu (Anatolian) Teacher High Schools. These schools provide basic generic education courses, in addition to the ordinary high school courses. They have advantages if they choose teaching as a profession. Next we will look at how teacher education is shaped in the Turkish context.

A.4 - Teacher education and Education Faculties

'The first chair of education was established at Halle University, Germany in 1779, later at St Andrews and Edinburgh Universities, UK in 1876 and at the University of Michigan, US in 1879' (Yang, 1998, in Yüksel, 2008, p.368). Yüksel favours this development in social sciences because it was the confirmation of education as a science.

This was the first step toward establishing education faculties and, it can also be said, the beginning of formal teacher training at higher level. It was a long time before there were separate institutions as schools of education. However, the history of teacher training schools started slightly earlier than those institutions. In the Ottoman State,

The first teacher training school was established in 1848 and all teacher education institutions, whose curriculum was based on the professional approach, were governed by MONE... Foundation courses, methodology courses, and school practice were stressed in educational courses. The most comprehensive reform in teacher education institutions in respect to their structure was undertaken in 1982. Teacher education institutions, which were governed by MONE, were connected to universities with this reform. Due to this reform, it was the first time that an attempt had been made to transform teacher education from a professional approach to an academic approach (Yüksel, 2008, p.367-368).

Yüksel reveals that since this reform there have been important changes in the profile of teaching staff at education faculties. A lot of staff with much research and less teaching experience came to educational faculties from liberal art faculties to teach. The subject matter knowledge became a replacement for the professional approach. Higher Education Council (HEC:YÖK), which is responsible for universities, wanted to reverse the shift to some extent and so a new regulation was introduced. Guven (2008) provides some details on teacher education during the 1980s, stating that Turkish Initial Teacher education was largely composed of educational philosophy, psychology and sociology. He goes on to say that at that time these courses were perceived as what made a teaching job professional. The World Bank helped the change financially. By the Restructuring Educational Faculties Reform, the number of theoretical educational courses was decreased (Yuksel, 2008). General Culture Courses were added to the system by HEC (YÖK, 2006). Guven (2008, p.11) claims that the reforms were not good enough: 'However despite the changes in teacher education curricula, student teachers still came back from teaching practice with problems they could not solve'. In the same reform HEC ordered some principles for education faculties. They are:

a) The principle of using the same curricula in the education faculties is expended, faculties have been given power to determine the courses by themselves up to 30%, and they have been given an opportunity to open selective courses. b) Accepting the deficiencies in terms of the general culture aspect

of the programmes, a new aim is that student teachers should have intellectual knowledge. General culture courses, a history of science, an introduction to philosophy etc., and foundational courses have been added to the programme (Yüksel, 2008, p.374).

The teaching profession is described in law as a special occupation with the responsibility for education, teaching, and managerial abilities. Teachers are expected to achieve the targets and aims of the Turkish National Education System. Teacher preparation is carried out through general courses, subject training and development of pedagogical knowledge (Law 43, in Okçabol, 2005, p.135). Teachers also take in-service training (Law 48, in Okçabol, 2005, p.136). Teachers, according to the law, must be graduates of a university. Since 1982 it is the responsibility of education faculties to educate teachers (Okçabol, 2005, p.144)

Education Faculties in Turkey have Generic Education Courses such as:

Introduction of Teaching profession, Development and Learning, Planning and Evaluation of Education, Special Teaching Methods 1, School Experience 1, Information Technologies and Teaching Material Development, Classroom Management, Special Teaching Methods 2, School Experience 2, Teaching Practice, Teaching Practice Seminar, Counselling (Okçabol, 2005, p.199-200).

Ratios and percentages of GEC, after the 2006-2007 academic year are reported by Kılınç and Altuk (2010). Branch Education courses formed 25% while GEC made up 20% (Kilinc and Altuk, 2010). This update in the number of hours of GEC and other courses is composed of 50-60% for subject courses, 25-30% for GEC and 15-20% for general culture courses (HEC [YOK], 2007). The flexibility of 25-30 percent is left to schools of education. The School Experience course was put in the second term of

third year (note that education faculties cover four years in Turkey and there are two terms in each year). Teaching Experience 1 and 2 is in the first and second terms of the fourth year respectively. The difference between the School Experience course and the Teaching Experience course is that the School Experience course focuses on observation of teaching and learning how schools work whilst the Teaching Experience course puts teaching practice at their very centre beside continuing observation (Kılınç and Altuk, 2010). Evaluation of those three courses also includes evaluations of mentors (HEC, 1998).

Teaching Practice 1 is taken by teacher trainees in the 7th term (4th year) with two hours theory and six hours practice every week. Teaching Practice 2 takes place in the 8th term (4th year) with the same number of hours (Saracaloglu et al., 2011).

The Advisory Council discussed the characteristics of a teacher in 2000 and decided that a teacher can explain a fact using an interdisciplinary approach, making logical connections between different disciplines, making students ready for lessons, motivating, giving examples during the lessons about subjects, expressing similarities and differences, making analysis and synthesis using knowledge of other disciplines as well, making students admire an improved social life (p.18). The same council established 14 procedures for teaching competence: Knowing students personally, planning the teaching process, developing teaching tools, teaching itself, managing teaching process, measuring and evaluation of academic level of students, counselling, improving basic skills of pupils, serving children with special needs, educating the adults, out of school hours activities, self development, and improving the school and stakeholders relations (in Okçabol, 2005, p.202).

Generic Education courses were reformed with an aim to improve the quality as well as to increase the number of education faculties; however the improvement of quality has not been as positive as the increase in the number of faculties. The quality issue is still there, concludes Guven (2008).

A.4.1 - The Ways to be a Teacher:

As mentioned previously, if a person wants to be a teacher in Turkey, he/she needs to be a graduate of a high school. At the end of the final term of high school, students take a nationwide exam. The content of that exam depends on which subjects the student wants to sit and that content affects what type of undergraduate degree the students obtains. So, if a person sits an exam to be a teacher, he/she needs to take the exams that are relevant to that teaching department in education faculties.

A Health Status Confirmation Report is necessary from hospital to be able to start an undergraduate degree in an education faculty. Education faculties, like most others, offer degrees over four years. Once graduated, teacher candidates take one more nationwide exam to fill vacancies in the state sector. The exam consists of Turkish Language, History, Maths and Generic Education Courses. Teachers are employed in the schools centrally except for the private sector. Those students with the highest scores have more chance of securing a job in the state sector where they want. If a candidate secures a place, the probation year starts. At the end of the probation year, the candidate is tested by local education representatives. Their teaching career depends on whether or not he/she is successful in that test.

There is an alternative way to become a teacher, which is a PGCE. If someone who graduates from a different faculty wants to be a teacher (such as the Literal Arts Faculty), he/she needs to take a Generic Education Course from an education faculty. This takes a year and a half to become a teacher candidate. This period is perceived as a Master's degree without thesis. The final part is similar, taking the same exam. It is important to note that students coming from Anadolu Teacher High Schools have an advantage of bonus marks, because they are coming from a background of teacher training. When distance education students are considered, the procedures are the same as students coming from other faculties. These are all decided by come and go politicians, so it may be useful to learn more about the relationship between education and politics according to the Turkish context.

A.5 - Relationship between Education and Politics

Politics may be accepted as the way to be a candidate for governing the state, a candidate for governing or actually governing a country, it is about management of the country. Having reflected upon the description given in the previous sentences, politics is mainly about governing a country. It can be concluded that since it is about governing a country, it is also about governing every single element in it without doubt including education. When this contemporary world is considered, because of systematized mass education, education has extremely strong ties with government. Certainly, these ideas are more valid if the education system of a country we are talking about is a centralized one. The Turkish education system proves that point. Duman gives a good example from the Turkish context of taking teacher education away from MONE and giving it to education faculties controlled by HEC: 'Teacher education has been liberated from political influence and a free and academic structure has been established with this reform' (1998, in Yüksel, 2008, p.371). Even teacher education at

universities is affected by politics because people in HEC and lecturers in universities have political views and this affects their points of view.

If any further studies are to be done in the future, the researcher asserts that Turkish politics and politicians have been interested not in education itself but in its content. It is clear that the researcher is putting aside some exceptions and some crucial milestones. When it comes to the Turkish context, it can easily be seen that while politicians are interested in content, actually they are interested in subject curriculum itself. Until the beginning of the 21st century, the curriculum was designed according to the understanding of the leading party. If the ruling party was leftist, the curriculum content was affected in that way; if it was right wing, it leant toward their way. The Turkish example is another strong one proving that education and politics are strongly linked even though education may not want it to be so.

A.6 - Recent analysis, attempts and Future Prospects in Teacher Training

Sadly, because education policies in Turkey depend on daily politics, it is difficult to learn the future plans of the parties (Celikten et al., 2005). It is the same for the current governing party. However, it can be generalized that education has tried to be kept modern and up to date. For instance, a plan made in 2000 foresaw reducing class numbers to 30 at all levels of education (Türk, 2002, p.99). That is still a target.

Turkish education needs systematic, organized and stable future planning. Targets set by the Higher Education Council in 1998 may only give some clues about the intentions and planning: Teacher training in Turkey had

been made to focus on subject knowledge. Teaching methodologies and pedagogy had been predetermined. This resulted is a decline in the number of lecturers specializing in those areas. Pedagogy became an area of neglect in terms of research. This should have been foreseen by HEC rather than declaring the result after. Another point made in 1998 by HEC was that time spent in school practice was less than it should be. Even during school practice, the amount of involvement of trainee teachers in practice has been minimal.

Having recognized the situation, HEC decided to set some goals: It was decided that national standards should be applied to education faculties and that accreditation of those faculties should lie with the inspection factor. This accreditation is active now. Grossman et al. (2008, p.72) reports some other goals as:

> Emphasis on teaching methodologies and professional studies: The purpose of teacher training was to prepare effective teachers. Faculties of education would focus on methodology and student–teacher school experience and practice. The concentration on subject area specialism in faculties of education was ended. In addition, academic research had to be related to education. Improved relationships between faculties and schools: Faculty–school partnerships were set up to allow coordination, communication and exchange between faculties of education and their partner schools, with emphasis on longer and more relevant student–teacher work in schools. Improved coordination between HEC, faculties and the Ministry of National Education: There would be better co-ordination between those who produced teachers and those who employed them.

Having observed the context of Turkey, the following chapter two will look at the literature on the relationship between theory and practice regarding Generic Education Courses. This chapter however will continue with a brief consideration of aspects of the English system that are relevant to this study of the Turkish approach to teacher preparation.

B - Education in England

In England, following the 1992 and 1993 Education Circulars, the legal relationship between schools and Schools of Education in the universities changed with more focus on partnership in teacher training more related to teacher practice thereby influencing in some ways the theory-practice relationship in England. Some decisions that need to be implemented nationwide may need central authority, and administration of education is the source to apply them efficiently. To this end, 'The Secretary of State for Education and Employment is appointed by the Prime Minister of the day and is accountable to Parliament for controlling and giving direction to the public education system' (Holt, 1997, p. 1-7).

Some of the responsibility for decision making is devolved to local authorities, churches and some other voluntary organizations and to teachers themselves, while others are held by the government. The English education system is in some ways, compared to other countries, a decentralized system. The central government maintains the right of decision making for the general provision of the education service such as; preparing national policies, a centrally controlled school curriculum and steering the whole education system to where it is planned it should go (Holt, 1997). Education in schools is also inspected by the government's Office for standards in Education (OFSTED) as in Teacher Training.

Holt (1997, p. 1-8, 1-9) describes the goals of the Department for Education (or its current equivalent) as:

- To enhance the level of achievement in education and advance the application of national targets for education and training

- To equip people to recognize their capacities and support them to reach their limits matching a qualification

- To prepare children and youth for their older ages

- To relate the skills of individuals to occupations so that the competitiveness of the country remains high.

B.1 - Schooling

Primary schools have been the first part of the compulsory education in England for many years, although currently, discussions are being held as to whether or not nursery schools should be included in compulsory education, in many countries as well as in England. Key Stage 1, which forms the first period of the primary schools, is for pupils 5 to 7. This stage is preparation for Key Stage 2 (pupils 7 to 11) (Holt et al., 1997). Primary Schools are governed by multi cooperative bodies, such as local authority administrations, the Secretary of Education (or governmental organizations working under the Secretary of Education), parents, sometimes with financial support of stakeholders from the private sector, private sector companies, sometimes with charities, and religious groups.

B.2 - Teacher Education

Teacher training, in England, was held in Higher Education Institutions (HEI) mostly until the reforms in the early 1990s. University graduates could become teachers after taking a one year course from universities, colleges of education, and polytechnics. School leavers were given the opportunity to be teachers by taking a four year degree courses of teacher education in HEI. This was one of the main sources for teacher supply especially for primary school teaching (Childs, 2013).

Teacher educators, at that time, were chosen amongst disciplinary-based academics (such as sociologists, psychologists, philosophers, etc.), subject experts, and academics on curriculum methods (Furlong, 2000). Having had observed that teacher education had diversity of teacher education vision more than it should, the Conservative government decided to unify it and bring some standards so that teacher education quality could be checked and enhanced at nationwide. Another step taken by New Right ideology was describing teaching as a practical job rather than theoretical based profession (Childs, 2013).

Nowadays, teacher training is carried out in a variety of contexts: schools can train or work with universities in cooperation with schools. These are described as teacher training providers. To be a teacher in England universities, a person may prefer to take a bachelor degree (undergraduate degree) at a school of education (equivalent of education faculties) or after finishing any degree at a university, a person can get PGCE qualification (Post Graduate Certificate of Education) from a school of education. This is a period in which teacher candidates study theoretical knowledge of pedagogy and they also practise in schools as education faculty students do. Keeping their Bachelor subject in mind, a graduate of a university can apply for any PGCE course. Primary school teachers and nursery teachers can be trained according to their specialism from the very beginning of their Bachelor degree. A Bachelor degree in England, including teacher training, usually takes three years. During their training they are always under supervision and scrutiny to determine whether they are capable of joining the teaching profession or not. Once graduated, teacher candidates personally apply to schools for jobs. More recently, a new route, School Direct, was introduced by the government of England (it will be explained later in this chapter).

Providers in England require proof of fitness to teach, including medical suitability for application and admission. Training involves extended practice in schools as well as lengthy courses at university. For example in Durham University, in the first year of BA Primary Education,

> In addition, in order to meet government criteria for the award of Qualified Teacher Status, students must study and be assessed in the following:
>
> -Core Issues and Skills and Curriculum Studies
>
> -School-based Time: Home Area School Experience and Serial and Block Practice

(Faculty Handbook Degree Framework L602, www.durham.ac.uk/faculty.handbook/, 2010-11, p.1-2).

When it comes to the second year,

> In addition, in order to meet government criteria for the award of Qualified Teacher Status, students must study and be assessed in the following:
>
> -Core Issues and Skills and Curriculum Studies
>
> -School-based Time: Serial and Block Practice

(Faculty Handbook Degree Framework L602, www.durham.ac.uk/faculty.handbook/, 2010-11, p.1-2).

The extra part for the 3rd year is no different from the second year. Third year students also take Core Issues and Skills and Curriculum Studies, and School-based Time: Serial and Block Practice (Faculty Handbook Degree Framework L602, www.durham.ac.uk/faculty.handbook/, 2010-11, p.1-2). It is worth bearing in mind that although the government's National Change for Teaching and Leadership (NCTL) guides the universities, generally, they do not control teacher training. English universities have the flexibility to control the other modules, which is different from the very centralized Turkish university system. So the module hours or their contents may vary depending on the university in England.

B.2.1 - Teachers' Qualifications and their Admission:

While teachers do not have to be trained to work in private schools, free schools or academies in England, however 'Teachers employed in maintained schools must have Qualified Teacher Status (QTS) or be otherwise licensed or authorized to teach by the Secretary of State for Education and Employment' (Holt, 1997, p.9-1). Teacher supply is controlled tightly by the government so that it becomes far easier to foresee the surpluses and shortages. The agency dealing with teacher training and development of schools is the NCTL, which replaced the Training Agency in Spring 2013. The rules for entry remain unchanged.

> Access to all initial teacher training courses is restricted and subject to a preliminary selection process, including an interview, to determine the applicants' suitability for teaching as a career. Admission is also subject to medical fitness to teach. Since 1989, it has been a requirement that experienced practising teachers be involved in the selection process. All courses for intending primary teachers must include training in the teaching of all National Curriculum subjects… to the teaching of each of the core objects, that is, English language, Mathematics and Science (Holt, 1997, p.9-4, 9-5).

All graduates of a university degree can apply for an additional training for a year to be teachers. That training is composed of 38 weeks in cooperation with a university. At the end successful candidates are rewarded a Postgraduate Certificate of Education, known as PGCE in short. This program takes National curriculum (or specialized subjects), Generic Education Courses (pedagogical courses, practical teaching skills), and application of degree subjects (Holt, 1997).

In addition to standard teacher training universities, there are other ways to become a teacher in England. Such as SCITTS (School Centred Initial Teacher Training), and School Direct.

In 1993, a new scheme of School-Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) was introduced for those who hold a recognized university degree or equivalent. Section 12 of the Education Act 1994 empowers groups of schools which have been accredited by the Teacher Training Agency to provide courses of initial teacher training, alone or in partnership with other institutions (Holt, 1997, p.9-7).

Beside the undergrauate degrees for primary school teaching, Teaching Schools are introduced within the School Direct programme (HC, 2012). The School Direct program aims to train teacher candidates, who are graduates (but not graduates of BA Education) mainly at school (HC, 2012). Taking into account that England needs 36,000 new teachers per year, in medium range, it is thought that a smaller proportion of universities will participate in teacher training and those will be ones mainly judged 'Outstanding' (by OFSTED); rewarded teacher education providers will dominate the market (Furlong, 2013). Furlong (2013) reasons these changes in England come about as a result of the global dominancy of capitalism.

Gilbert (2013) criticises this development (School Direct) as separating teaching from professionalism. Teaching is reduced to a level where any person without any specialism and academic background of Generic Education courses could be teachers. Teaching is conceived by the English government as a job equal to physical skills based jobs (Gilbert, 2013). On the one hand, the English government supports teachers by funding research applications of working teachers to improve their academic skills (HC, 2012), on the other hand, by weakening the role of schools of education, academic abilities of prospective teachers are bruised. While dominantly 'on the job' learning may develop teaching skills fast for short term, on the long run it may affect the teaching quality negatively. Childs (2013) argues that the role of schools of education within universities may be downgraded to accreditation of teacher training

at schools. Therefore teacher educators may be new accreditators. Childs (2013) articulates that while English government is on the one hand trying to increase the attractiveness and status of teachers, the government actually diminishes it from being a profession to a craftman's job.

When it comes to the relationship between education and politics in England, politics, inevitably political parties affect the education within the country. For example, if we compare the styles of Labour Governments and Conservative Governments, it can be observed that Labour policies tend to be more interested in the structures of the education system (like setting standards and inspection) and Conservative policies are more interested in the development of the children, themselves (Chitty, 2004).As the politics are contemporary, so are their policies. After winning the 2009 election some conservative politicians are now arguing whether or not to change the structure of education system radically. The previous Labour government placed a strong emphasis on 'standards' in literacy and numeracy, Chitty (2004, p.67) discusses what he understands from Labour's use of the words standards and structure. He questions whether they are related to the education system or schools and mentions especially 'structure'. What the researcher of this thesis understands from what Labour had planned to do is that they were more interested in the question 'what' than 'how' in terms of curriculum. So it can be said that it is not the education system itself and it is not the school structure that Labour dealt with but the implementation of the curriculum. This can be seen in the fact that Labour commissioned a major renew of the primary curriculum (the Rose Review, 2009). Bearing the given examples in mind, it can be seen that education is directly affected by political parties by means of both the structure and the content. Another issue is the opening of academies as a new kind of school (or conversion). However, these are still contentious issues between the coalition parties, the Conservatives and the Liberal Democrats. At the time of writing this part of the thesis,

they have not yet agreed on that issue and that puts forward another example of the relationship between education and politics.

> Simon (1981) believed that pedagogy –the act and discourse of teaching- was in England neither coherent nor systematic, and that English educators had developed nothing comparable to the continental European 'science of teaching'. Consequently, teachers here tended to conceptualise, plan and justify their teaching by combining pragmatism with ideology but not much else (in Alexander, 2004, p.8).

Alexander (2004) describes the roles of ideology and politics as taking place at opposite ends without overlapping. Barber (2001, p.13-14) clarifies how politics affect education, in particular teacher training and particularly pedagogy: the first Blair government (1997-2001) received from the Thatcher government a structure of 'uninformed prescription and replaced it with one of informed prescription… The White paper signals the next shift; from informed prescription to informed professional judgement'. In fact this next period might be called an enhanced reflective practitioner approach. Alexander states that there is not enough flexibility to achieve professional self evaluation in the English context whereas Allison (2010) asks for more power and more autonomy though they already have some. In contrast the Turkish system is more rigid,

Plans for the future of teacher training can be found in the government White Paper (2010), from the House of Commons Children, Schools and Families Committee report (Fourth report of Session 2009-10, published on 9 February 2010). This report gives strong clues about plans for future attempts about teacher education. In order to avoid repetition, the researcher will refrain from using the long version of the source every time, instead referring to it as HC (House of Commons).

Firstly at the very beginning of the suggestions, HC discusses about government's skills test and it argues that the test should be made more difficult and undertaken not after graduation but before. This is new in place. The committee thinks that increasing the entry levels for schools of education could increase the quality of teachers, because taking students who achieve higher A-Level results in literacy and numeracy or a 2:1 degree would mean more quality students. This has been put in place. HC asks for the amount of School centred and Employment based initial teacher training to be increased, 'taking into account the issue of capacity within the school system to offer high quality training'. The new School Direct route increases the school-centred training. At the same time, HC recommends not neglecting the fact that employment based trainees need theoretical knowledge (HC, 2010, paragraph 50, 53).

The report goes on to say that teaching should be a profession of continuous learning. Teachers should reflect on what they are doing during teaching. It is better for teachers to be co-workers when it comes to helping each other. 'In particular, good quality mentoring for trainee teachers, and newly qualified teachers, should be of the highest priority' (HC, 2010, paragraph 74). Its recommendation to the Department is to fund additional doctoral places for education to enhance teacher training.

The committee is also concerned about newly qualified teachers in their first years of teaching and recommends

> The Training and Development Agency's efforts to improve the transition of trainees from their initial training to their induction year do not in themselves address the 'front-loaded' nature of teacher training. We would like to see changes that embed a perception of newly qualified teachers as 'novice' teachers with much learning still to complete, and who require close supervision by teaching colleagues who are experienced mentors (HC, 2010, paragraph 95).

New teachers should be treated as novice teachers as a three to five years process while they are still in the induction period.

An interesting suggestion comes from HC (This is not unlike Dreyfus' (1986) ideas about new teachers progress from novice to expert): They assert that having a licence for teaching should be a requirement and a test should be required periodically to renew it. If someone fails to renew the licence, he/she should not be allowed to teach.

> There is not a strong enough culture of professional development among teachers, and this must change radically if educational standards in schools are to improve. Part of the problem is the poor access that teachers have to professional development opportunities. Funding for professional development should be ring-fenced within school budgets (HC, 2010, in summary).

It should be kept in mind that these are the suggestions of a committee in England. It is up to the current government whether to apply them or not. These are some of the expectations regarding teacher training and the teaching profession which may affect their progress in the near future.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter I will review the literature on the relationship between theory and practice in the area of teacher education. This review will be presented as:

- a general introduction;
- 2.1 an exploration of the relationship between theory and practice, including some relevant definitions and problems to do with such definitions;
- a consideration of some issues relating to the relationship between Theory & Practice, particularly for beginning teachers and their motivations;
- 2.2 the notion of teaching competences, competencies and standards will be introduced, along with a consideration of the socialization of teachers;
- 2.3 practice-based approaches will be defined and discussed, with some examples of different types from other countries, along with the idea of progression into the first teaching post and the role of mentors;
- 2.4 theory-based approaches are considered, including definitions and perceptions of value, and the problems associated with knowledge transfer;
- 2.5 an integrated approach to theory and practice is discussed along with the concept of realistic teacher education and the reflective practitioner;
- 2.6 a role model approach is introduced and the problems of such an apprenticeship model considered;
- 2.7 Finally, empirical studies are considered, specifically from Turkey but, where these are lacking those from other countries such as England are drawn upon.

The chapter concludes with a summary to draw out the key messages of relevance to the thesis.

It is generally accepted that Generic Education Courses which provide educational theory have a relationship with practice. Another aspect of these courses is that theory complements the practice. The important question is, do the two contribute equally to the meaning of those courses or, if not, to what extent do they each contribute? In this current study the researcher attempts to establish the nature of the relationship between theory and practice from the perspectives of teachers, trainee teachers and their educators in schools of education with the following questions:

- How is it seen by them - how is this relationship structured in their minds and what kind of problems do they observe (if any)?
- How can the situation be improved?
- What is the role of the management of education faculties in terms of the current situation and future improvement?

The content of such courses may vary depending on the age group that the teachers are teaching or training to teach, whilst the psychological needs and/or behavioural differences of pupils require different kinds of content for pedagogical courses. To focus this research study, the researcher chose to study the conceptions of primary school teachers, primary school trainee teachers and their trainers (teacher educators at universities and tutors in schools). Primary school teaching has been chosen because there are fewer studies focusing on the theory-practice relationship for Generic Education Courses as a whole in the Turkish context. In addition, this research will attempt to relate the findings to the situation in other countries and particularly England, it is a unique research at the time it is being prepared and will provide ideas that will be of use to educators at all levels in Turkey.

The study is not planned as a systematic comparison. The main aim is to explore the Turkish context and relate this to other contexts so as to understand the relationship. The goal is to obtain positive insights from the contexts. For this reason, the literature review for this thesis does not include a systematic literature comparison between the two countries. Considering that the philosophical debates, articles, and research are far fewer in the Turkish context than in other countries, the shortage of academic studies in Turkey makes it almost impossible to make a proper comparison with such countries in terms of a literature review. However, this makes the empirical dimension of this study more important as it is one more attempt to fill the gaps that exists in the Turkish context, while drawing upon wider literature from other countries.

Theory-practice relationship discussions within education often take place around the methodology of subject teaching as well as Generic Education Courses. The interest in Generic Education Courses can also be separated into two as follows: how to teach trainee teachers' ways of behaving in the wider education environment, not only in the classroom (official teaching) but also in school corridors and any places where students can observe their teacher (as a role model); and secondly, how teachers themselves behave in the education environment. To clarify, it could be said then, that Generic Education Courses must be presented to trainee teachers by teacher educators and must also be applied to children (students) by teachers and by trainee teachers while they are practising. They are such closely interrelated issues that it is very difficult to separate the education of teachers from their practices at schools, although we must bear in mind that there are some important differences between them as one concerns adult education and the other concerns the education of children.

This chapter reviews some of the key literature in an attempt to understand how the relationship of theory and practice is debated, and it also seeks to establish how it is discussed in the educational literature.

The first part of the chapter, following on from this introduction, focuses on the general relationship. In the second part competence is the focus point, in order to understand what, specifically, is expected from teachers. There is then a sub-section on the Socialization of Teachers as a reminder of the different interactions and professional conduct in teaching. The third part is about the Practice-Based Approach, and considers the English context, from which it can be understood that political choices may affect the theory-practice relationship. Seeing practice as the only source of wisdom for teacher-training has a lot of pitfalls and may produce negative outcomes. A sub-section of the Practice-Based Approach is related to mentors in schools and school-based teacher training. There then follows a Theory-Based Approach section in which the importance of theory will again be emphasized with an emphasis on philosophical explanation. A sub-section of this part will look at the transfer problem which may have a very central place regarding theory and practice. An integrated Approach will be explained and its sub-sections are very important as they are concerned with Realistic Teacher Education and the Reflective Practitioner. The latter, in particular, has influenced the education world greatly. The Role Model Approach is such a huge topic that there may be future studies on it, but related to theory-practice relationship. Then, empirical studies (especially in the Turkish context) about the theory-practice relationship will be considered, followed by a conclusion of the literature review chapter.

It is worth noting here it is difficult to write the sections and subsections as separate units because they are so interrelated in that an idea, a comment or a reflection put under one title could just as easily have been placed under another.

2.1 - The Relationship between Theory and Practice

It would not be an exaggeration to say that the relationship between theory and practice began when education itself began. The level of awareness

of people regarding this relationship might have differed at times but the relationship always existed, irrespective of the level of consciousness.

This section is devoted to the general relationship between theory and practice. It looks at the relationship as a whole rather than focusing separately on 'theory' then 'practice'. A general overview is provided of the relationship, taking a wider picture so that the reader is prepared for the analysis in the coming sections. The debates, which move from one side to another like a pendulum, will be explored.

2.1.1 - Definitions

First, in this part the dictionary meanings of the two main terms will be provided as a focus for the discussion which follows. Meanings have been chosen by the researcher with consideration to their relevance to the educational context:

Theory: 'A theory is a formal idea or set of ideas that is intended to explain something (1st meaning). The theory of a practical subject or skill is the set of rules and principles that form the basis of it (3rd meaning)' (Collins Cobuild Dictionary, 2006).

Practice: 'If you put a belief or method into practice, you behave or act in accordance with it (9th meaning)' (Collins Cobuild Dictionary, 2006)

It is interesting to see from the definitions that one way of looking at theory is to see it as the written descriptions of what is done or what should be done. And practice is a type of activated information or knowledge. So, on this basis, they seem very similar. Theory (and its related perspectives) sheds light on practice to be able to make it visible and understandable (Smith, 1992). As Eraut mentions (1985), theory can therefore be used as an interpreter of practice. Practice is the day-to-day encoded and tacit knowledge in education in the empirical area and theory converts this into a form, into some kind of language that educators can understand and standardize. Taşdelen (2003) believes that practice without theory becomes unconscious practice, while theory without practice is unrealistic.

He adds that education may find its true definition through the cooperation of theory and practice. According to Aristotle (in McKeon, 1941) while theory pursues the truth, practice is chasing after the good. It can be understood here that practice is about pragmatism and theory is about genuine knowledge. Aristotle's definition is indeed very vague. It brings to the surface an important philosophical question, how can we know which practice is chasing after the good? Ellis (2010) reveals the philosophical roots of theory and practice:

> Ontology is concerned with reality, existence, lived experience and the nature of being. Philosophically, ontology is the study of how certain categories of reality and existence are apprehended and defined. Epistemology is concerned with the study of knowledge and the ways through which we can subject experience and belief to reason and to arrive at a state of knowing where propositional statements are evaluated as justified and true (Ellis, 2010, p.112).

It can be deduced from Ellis' description that while practice-valuing teacher training mainly depends on ontology, theory-valuing teacher education is mainly dependent on epistemology.

Research and comments about the relationship made in several different contexts are studied; the first comments are coming from the Turkish context:

> For many years, there has been a consensus among teacher trainers that teacher training should include the development of both a knowledge base and skills in the instruction. The knowledge base includes emphasis on such areas as teaching theory, pedagogical methodology, child development, educational research, and subject content. The skill development part of the curriculum consists in practice, including early field experience and student teaching experiences where students must put into practice the knowledge they have gained through their course work (Guven, 2008, p.12).

HEC Research (2006) in Turkey reveals that more than half of the academics in the study believe that teacher education programmes are appropriate for the target in terms of content, teaching/learning processes,

evaluation, duration, and extent. On the other hand, most Turkish academics believe that teacher education in Turkey does not produce qualified teachers as expected.

Kilic and Acat's (2007) research reveals the practicability of Generic Education Courses from the point of view of Turkish primary school teacher trainees. They conceive GEC as necessary and applicable. An interesting result of their study is that courses perceived as necessary are accepted as practicable which means those mainly theoretically-shaped courses can be practised by the trainees during their internship. However, courses like Introduction to Teaching, and Teaching Materials and Development are perceived slightly less related to the practice compared with the other GECs such as Psychological Guidance, Development and Learning, Classroom Management and Planning and Evaluation in Teaching.

Shantz's (1995) research in Canada shows that 52.2% of 500 teacher trainees definitely disagree or disagree with the harmony that exists between theory and practice. Moreover, 60.4% of them definitely agree or agree with the idea of differences between theory and practice. From their qualitative comments, one trainee chosen from her study got confused and expressed the view that s/he wants a knowledge that s/he can apply in schools. Another trainee questioned how a teacher educator/supervisor can evaluate a teacher trainee's practice in a school while that trainee is practising what s/he was told at that school by the mentor? This trainee would be right as long as the things that are being taught at universities are different from at schools. Similar anxieties were expressed in the mid-90s by Whitehead *et al* (1996) who said that student teachers might have been more influenced by the school practice than expected. One student in Shantz's study asks mentors whether they can apply modern approaches whilst another wonders whether the modern and newer methodologies can be applied alongside what is observed and leaned in schools.

Hobson *et al*'s (2008) extensive research in England with 2982 student teachers reveals that student teachers conceive the balance between theory and practice in terms of amount as follows: 25% say that theory dominates content, 66% say it is as it should be, and 10% say practice dominates content. This important research goes on to show that when those trainee teachers were asked how they conceive the link between theory and practice 18% conceive the link to be always clear, 67% say it's usually clear, 14% say it's often not clear and 1% say it's never clear.

In view of these results it appears that in England the courses achieved stronger ties between theory and practice. Hobson *et al* (2008) are still not satisfied with the results and they conclude from them that student teachers value practice and school-based teacher education more than theory and theory-dominated courses. Research by Taylor (1969), Lomax (1973), Blake *et al* (1995), Asher and Malet (1999), Foster (1999), Hobson (2003), and Younger *et al* (2004) disclose the same result, and despite the data acquired from student teachers in Hobson *et al*'s study displaying a similar result, the researcher asks why, when there is a stronger comment, we choose the weaker one. Findings of one research study may be contradictory to others undertaken previously because content and organization of Initial Teacher Programs do change as Hobson *et al* themselves accept. Hobson *et al*'s (2008) research can be interpreted to show that student teachers conceive that the link between theory and practice is clear, which means they comprehend how to put theory into practice. It can then be concluded that, at least with regards the views of English student teachers, the theory-practice relationship is well designed. Though the researcher criticizes Hobson *et al* regarding the results, the researcher understands and respects their search for stronger ties and a better relationship. The criticism is because it seems that the English context is in a far better situation in terms of linking theory to practice than in Turkey. A clear link could also be understood to mean that student teachers understood the descriptions of how to relate theory to practice;

however, understanding the descriptions still may not mean that the theory relates strongly to the practice. The outcome of the research may be interpreted to mean that description of theory is designed to foresee the upcoming teaching practice. Student teachers comprehend how they will apply theory, although this does not mean that the theory taught has strong links with real life. For example, a student teacher who has understood how to apply the theory may apply it well, but the outcome may not be as expected. Whichever interpretation of Hobson *et al*'s research is chosen, it can be put forward that England is on the right path for a better quality theory-practice relationship in teacher education. One response from the Turkish context suggests that PGCE students perceive that the congruence of theory and practice happens at middle level (Can, 2001).

Hobson *et al* (2008), and Atkinson and Claxton (2000) rightly argue that the reason why student teachers value theory less is that they do not recognize the relevance of theory or observe its outcomes. Student teachers might have been confused about what was being asked or they might have confused curriculum with pedagogical content. So what they think to be irrelevant theory might not even have a place in theoretical discourse. Not only student teachers but also teachers might not be aware that they are already using theory effectively. Darling-Hammond (2000) suggests encouraging an inquiry-based approach (reflective thinking), related reading, and self made generalizations about practice. Some educationists warn against an internal resistance of each teacher trainee because of their pre-knowledge of the teacher educators' encouragement (Kagan, 1992; Desforges, 1995; Fosnot, 1996).

A research study that has some similarities with Hobson *et al*'s (2008) research was undertaken in Turkey by Taskin and Haciomeroglu (2010), who sought to determine how respondents understand and conceive the relationship rather than perceive it. Disappointingly the research questions the conceptions, but it only offers a few sentences of analysis. This

Turkish research covered 72 final-year primary school teacher undergraduates and nursery teaching undergraduates. Its findings show that 38 primary school teaching undergraduates and 20 from the other group perceive that GEC affected their attitudes to teaching positively. However, some of the respondents criticised GEC as being insufficient for teaching. Taskin and Haciomeroglu (2010) conclude that activities undertaken in GEC should be increased to make the link between theory and practice clear. In other words the respondents said the methods of implications of theory should be made clear and it is believed this would increase the strength of the link between the theory and practice. These studies show that due to different conditions, cultures, and systems of education, the theory-practice relationship is perceived very differently. Hobson *et al*'s (2008) research reveals that English teacher education has established better links between theory and practice than its Turkish equivalent. English participants are happy with the balance between theory and practice. In addition to this, they are satisfied with the clear links in this relationship.

As indicated above, Taşdelen (2003) believes that practice is pure action, but that theory includes conscious practice. He goes on to say that theory brings quality and choice to practice. As it has a very interrelated structure, the theory-practice relationship cannot avoid facing some problems as follows:

2.1.2 - A Problematic Relationship

In education, most researchers recognise the importance of theory and practice (e.g. Müller-Fohrbrodt *et al*, 1978; Veenman, 1984; Goodlad, 1990; Drever and Cope, 1999; Guile and Young, 2003; Eraut, 2004a; Smeby, 2007). However, theory and practice are both complex concepts and the relationship between them is perceived differently by different people (e.g. Schön, 1983; Lawlor, 1990; Smith, 1992, Carr, 1995; Walshe, 1998; San, 1999; Hanley, 2007). Some value theory more than practice,

some *vice versa* and some value an integrated approach. For example Taşdelen (2003) puts forward the view that theory without practice is useless and practice without theory is aimless. It is this relationship that will be focused upon in this study. This raises the first question: 'How is the relationship perceived?'

Wideen *et al* (1998, p. 167) outline the traditional view of the theory-practice relationship as in teacher training as follows:

> The implicit theory underlying traditional teacher education was based on a training model in which the university provides the theory, methods and skills; the schools provide the setting in which that knowledge is practiced; and the beginning teacher provides the individual effort to apply such knowledge. In this model propositional knowledge has formed the basis of university input (in Korthagen, 2001, p.2).

There are, however, some problems with this kind of relationship as will be seen below.

Interestingly, comparatively recent research into teacher education from the Japanese context has postulated that: 'university-based teacher education is very theory-oriented, and some researchers have pointed out that there is a big gap between theory and practice' (Izuno, 1986; Jinnouchi, 1987; in San, M.M, 1999)*.* Korthagen and Kessels (1999, p.7) agree, expressing the view that 'there is a gap to be bridged'. Partington (1999, p.152) explains the reason for that gap, stating that 'teachers lack the knowledge to make appropriate connections'.

Eighty years ago, Waller (1932) gave this gap the name the 'great hiatus'. He took the view that practice has got some kind of conservatism that theory sometimes cannot diffuse into and claimed the problem takes place because theoretical reflection is dependent upon practice. It can be asserted that practice improves reflection on theory because unity of the practitioner and the theorizer may bridge the gap between theory and practice. While the person (here, it is a teacher, a teacher trainer or even

a trainee teacher) practises, and just before and/or just after the practice, reflecting upon the content of Generic Education Courses, may result in the positive outcome of bridging the theory-to-practice. Furthermore, being in the empirical area may keep the knowledge of practice fresh so that the theory also remains fresh. In addition, opposition to too much focus on theory unrelated to practice comes from the James Report, published in 1972. This report criticises too much theory claiming that it prevents practical preparation and adds another dimension that having too much theory may have a negative effect on the practicability of the theory. Carr (1981, p.53) depicts the relationship between theory and practice in such a way that he emphasizes awareness of what is being practised and stresses the importance of efficient use of mental abilities.

> (1) The logic of knowing how differs from that of physical ability with respect to simple tasks or actions. Although we may say that a man is able (has the physical power) to perform any simple or basic action that he performs, it is odd to describe many basic actions as exercises of knowing how. We do not, for example, describe a man as knowing how to raise his arm or open his mouth, for actions as basic as these are not such as to involve the sort of distinctive techniques and procedures commonly associated with the expression 'knowing how.' 'He knows how to raise his arm,' then, transgresses good sense (except in exceptional circumstances largely irrelevant to present concerns) in a way that 'he is able to raise his arm' does not. (2) The logic of knowing how differs from that of physical ability with respect to complex or non-basic actions (Carr: 1981, p.53).

Aware of constant debates around whether teacher training should be biased towards practice or theory, Taşdelen (2003) declares that educational theory plays some kind of mediator role between philosophy of education and educational practice. Theory brings knowledge from philosophy of education to a practicable area and transfers experience from practice to philosophy of education. Theory may be accepted as a transporter between an idealistic and a realistic approach.

There is evidence that there is a gap between theory and practice and it is important to explore this gap in research (e.g. Veenman, 1984; Cole and

Knowles, 1993; Korthagen *et al*, 2001). This raises the second question 'What is the nature of any perceived gap?'

In order to comprehend this, here a different method will be used. The concept of gap will be useful and its meaning needs to be explored. 'Gap' is described in Collins Cobuild (2006) dictionary as follows, 'If there is something missing from a situation that prevents it being complete or satisfactory, you can say that there is a gap (3rd meaning)'. If a gap exists, as we understand the meaning of it, we can easily recognize it. The situation of something being missing between theory and practice, and/or preventing their unity can be called 'the gap' in the educational context; they are not two separate things, they form a unity. As Huang and Ariogul (2006, p.226) describe metaphors as 'bridges that allow us to understand and experience one kind of thing in terms of another', it may be useful to use metaphors. So here, to use technical terms from chemistry, it could be said that the relationship of theory and practice is not chemical but physical. Imagine a sugar-water mixture; they can be separated into sugar and water, however when combined the two parts are not exactly the same thing as they were individually.

To make a further analogy, theory and practice may be seen as the soul and the body of a person. If the soul is omitted from the person, he will be motionless and without consciousness, or if the body is taken away from him the crucial sign of life, observable action, will be missing. It can be asserted that as the soul and the body constitutes person and make him a complete human, in the same way the theory and practice make education work properly.

2.1.3 - What happens in countries other than Turkey?

In order to understand the debate better it may be useful to consider the situation in countries like England, in which the removal of theoretical teacher education at universities is actually under discussion. Generic

Education courses were once dependant on a more authoritarian style of communication, with teachers interacting with students in a hierarchical way. Waller (1932) described schools as 'unstable despotisms'. Lacey (1977) explained this despotism as having roots in the traditional learning and organization of the classroom. He defends the view that this kind of teaching style, the theory, is more effective than persuading and appreciation.

According to Partington (1999), during the 1960s many university Schools of Education in England preferred courses that were designed in an intellectual way. Those courses were dependent on academic knowledge and theory, so much so that Initial Teacher Training (ITT) was criticised as being unrealistic in relation to the classroom context and practice. Teachers and trainee teachers claimed that the theory taught in universities had nothing to do with the practical world. Despite the fact that even the teachers and trainee teachers were not happy with the situation at that time, other departments in the universities were still not satisfied with the level of theory taught at undergraduate level, claiming that the amount of theory was not enough. Contradictorily, the teachers accused teacher trainers at schools of education as having escaped from the difficulties of the job, forgetting that at that time teacher trainers were comparatively experienced teachers (Partington, 1999).

Cronbach, (1975) commenting on the Western situation, informs us that teacher training was not effective during the early 1970s due to there being so many components to cover related to teacher training practice and also to each other. Additionally, the traditions of, and conditions in, a society alter in a way that new situations make it difficult for the teaching role to meet modern requirements. He also asserts that teacher training lacked quality because of the attempts of research studies, to find knowledge that could be applied in most circumstances. It is worth noting here that this researcher believes that the generalization of educational theories does not seem to harm teacher training quality if not applied too

extremely. The famous phrase 'thinking globally, acting locally' applies here. In other words when seeking to generalize educational theories, it is important to remember that educational theories must be applied flexibly to different situations. Lacey (1977, p.76) took a slightly different view, 'Student teachers are moving towards a profession which is itself still striving towards common understandings in vital areas of its professional practice'. Cronbach on the other hand looked for common understandings at least for practice. 'Common understandings' here can be interpreted as theory itself.

In England, a government study in Teaching Quality, published in 1983, claimed similar results (1983). Partington (1999 p. 73) refers to this report

> Teacher education was often inefficient and responsible for mismatches between what teachers had been prepared to do and what they were actually required to do in schools. It argued that 'Initial teacher training courses are not always sufficiently closely geared to the needs of our schools.'

Smith (1992) adds that observations of teacher trainers meet the ideas declared here as the students are having difficulty in matching the relevant theory to the practice. Here, it is interesting that, in the English context, there appears to have been tension between universities and schools from the very beginning in the theory-practice relationship debates.

In more recent years, there have been more positive observations about ITT reported by Partington (1999), as for example from John Furlong while he was in Bristol University, who talks about the decline of negative comments regarding the relevance of theory-to-practice and about students being more satisfied in terms of efficiency compared to previous years. Information from three English universities (University of Sunderland, Plymouth University, and Manchester Metropolitan University) support the idea of improvement in the theory-practice relationship. Partington continues to report from his interviews that Jerry Norton of the School of Education at Sunderland University mentions better quality in

teacher preparation. Some lecturers from Plymouth University pointed at an increased interest in the job after graduation and that beginning teachers have deeper thinking skills. They know what the job of teaching requires from teachers, they are more enthusiastic and their dedication to the teaching profession is higher compared to ten years ago. Some staff members of Manchester Metropolitan University think the new generation of graduates are more skilled at putting theory into practice (Reported by Partington, 1999). The following section will focus on some issues that can affect the relationship.

2.1.4 - Some Issues that Affect the Theory-Practice Relationship

If the theory taught in education faculties, is accepted as 'enough for the teaching standards', it can be foreseen there may be problems between theory and practice because of some important points. In order to explore this view, some discussion is needed of the perceived value of the theory aspects of education courses. Cetin (2009) states that Generic Education courses increase the awareness of prospective teachers in terms of why, how, when-what, where, and who educational issues may take place.

1-The 'Why' Issue: It is important in every learning situation to make the learner aware of why he/she is learning. It is also important for the learner needs to know the reason and the benefit of the theory in order to be motivated. To be able to perform better practice based on theory, the teacher candidates may need to focus more on why they learn the theory.

2-The 'How' Issue: While the why issue is more interested in theory, the how problem is more concerned with practice. The how element is crucial because it involves teacher candidates being taught the approaches, styles, and methods that help put the theory into practice. When they are observing and practising during initial teacher training, they learn how to be teachers from real teachers, tutors or educators; they experience the live version of the theories and they try to make connections between

theory and practice. The student teachers have the chance to comprehend how theory relates and to what extent it relates to practice.

3-The 'When-What' Issue: The importance of timing cannot be ignored. When it comes to education, timing relates to mind ability. A graduate from an education faculty may have a good understanding of theory: practice knowledge, field knowledge and a lot of information, but during teaching practice there will be times when he/she has to pick out from a large amount of information and knowledge, the right thing at the right time.

4-The 'Where' Issue: The physical environment and the psychological (social) environment may affect the theory-practice relationship. Whenever the physical environment is mentioned, it is actually also related to psychology and socialization. Some people may not feel comfortable in some places. Psychological environment is the social environment composed of humans within the school or outside the school. So the environment may change teachers' psychology and their motivation for education. This may produce problems between theory and practice.

5-The 'Who' Issue: The social sciences cannot be considered without people. For a teacher, the people with whom he deals are mainly students. Depending on the students' general behaviours, the teacher's perception may vary as to how he conceives the relationship between theory and practice. If teachers face students with problematic behaviours, this situation may affect their confidence and self-esteem; *vice versa* the teacher may question the necessity of some of the theories. He may choose to defend his teaching ability and blame the theory and may accuse it of not being strong enough to help in everyday life. Thus blame can take two directions, as discussed in the next paragraph. Or the teacher could be in a situation in which he does everything possible but the theory is not enough for that situation and for those students. So the teacher himself and the students fill in the meaning of the 'who issue'.

Having mentioned some issues that affect the theory-practice relationship, Lacey (1977) made a connection between social change and the practice of teaching. He described the nature of social change as beyond predictions and as happening in an unexpected way. However, while those changes are taking place, it is the practice in schools that tends to proceed unchanged unless forced by legislation to do so. Thus there are two directions to attributing blame which the trainee teachers favour rather than themselves (matching in a sense the ideas in the sub-section called Realistic Teacher Education). Those directions of blame (the source of the problems) refer to the teacher training itself with the trainers and maybe the managers (upwards) and the students in the classroom (downwards). Teacher trainers may also blame the trainee teachers as another downward blaming direction. One needs to point out that that there should be one more 'blaming' point or perhaps more accurately 'self-questioning' (for everybody). This could be described as self blaming in order to establish a better theory-practice relationship.

In the modern climate, teachers working in their individual classrooms, can be very isolated and this kind of isolation may increase the problems between theory and practice. Teachers need to interact with each other and maybe, most importantly, teachers need to interact with the academic environment at universities for an enhanced theory-practice relationship. Difficulties during the beginning years will be our next point.

2.1.5 - Novice Teachers

Dreyfus (1986) describes novice and expert teachers' responses to situation as: The critical point where theory is tested through practice more seriously is in the early years of teaching with novice teachers. This period is usually called probation.

Korthagen *et al* describe the early years of teaching as follows:

> Student teachers are confronted with a reality, responsibilities, and complexities in the classroom that they have not been aware of until then. This is often a period of severe stress and difficult problems (Veenman, 1984), described as a reality shock (Muller-Fohrbrodt et al., 1978) or transition shock (Corcoran, 1981). (in Korthagen and Wubbels , 2001, p.32)

Teacher motivation may enhance the quality of relating theory to practice and efficiency. The following subsection of this chapter will look at motivation to teach.

2.1.6 - Motivation to Teach

While reflecting upon the relationship between theory and practice, it may be useful to look at what motivates teachers, teacher trainers, and trainee teachers to take up the occupation. Motivation is one of the things that triggers people in education to be more enthusiastic about their job, ready to face and solve problems and to remain dedicated to improvement. In the context of education, that kind of motivation may reduce the human effect on the lack of harmony between theory and practice, or at least may open doors for further improvement. Usually, the job of teaching is chosen by someone who really wants to do it. Such people see teaching itself as a target; others see it as a tool to reach their ideals and targets. Although teaching as a tool is a different kind of motivation, it still is a source of motivation.

Cetin's (2009) work in Turkey reveals that primary school teaching undergraduates in Turkey have very little motivation to teach. Positive attitudes towards teaching are rich sources of motivation for this job. Tavsancil (2002) highlights attitudes towards teaching: cognitive, emotional and behavioural. Cetinkaya (2009) strengthens this idea pointing out that theory coming from a cognitive background is not the only source of motivation but also emotional and behavioural attitudes form a combination with cognitive ones. It is worth noting here that a very

comprehensive research made in Turkey about the attitudes of trainee teachers by Semerci and Semerci (2004) concluded that there is no identified meaningful difference amongst Turkish universities regarding attitudes towards the teaching profession.

Kılınç and Altuk's (2010) study illustrates that primary school trainee teachers have a positive attitude towards School Experience courses. These kinds of results provide information on how motivated teacher trainees are for their courses at education faculties.

Hargreaves (1998b, p.835) explains how positive emotional attitudes increase motivation and so improve teaching:

> Good teaching is charged with positive emotion. It is not just a matter of knowing one's subject, being efficient, having the correct competences, or learning all the right techniques. Good teachers are not just well-oiled machines. They are emotional, passionate beings who connect with their students and fill their work and their classes with pleasure, creativity, challenge and joy.

Thus, theory and practice have a problematic relationship in their very nature. Their relationship is perceived differently by different people under different conditions, regulations and specific needs (when, what, where, why, and how issues). To understand better what is going on in their relationship, the following part will focus on competence in teaching, especially, for Generic Education Courses.

2.2 - About Competences and Standards

Competence is a concept that directly relates to practice and concerns people's actual skills and abilities to teach rather than what they know, while standards are more about broader expectations. Hargreaves (1993; p.88) informs us that teacher education has to do with training the students to adopt values appropriate for the day's requirements, 'the knowledge, skill and understanding [competence] for successful classroom practice'.

That is why this research acknowledges that competence is an important factor which has an impact on the theory-practice relationship. The next subsection looks at what competences and standards offer within this context.

2.2.1 - General Information about Competences and Standards

The first focus of this section will be on the definitions of competence and standards, together with the debate surrounding them. Mainly competence is taken to mean 'enhanced standards', which means standards including the psychology and sociology of humans such as teachers, teacher trainers, etc. 'Teaching is a profession in which feelings and emotions play an essential role' (in Korthagen *et al*, 2001; p.7, Hargreaves, 1998a; Nias, 1996). Furthermore, Hargreaves (1998a, 1998b) talks about competency as a composition of cognitive process and feelings where Korthagen *et al* (2001) add personal needs to this composition.

The words 'competence' and 'standards' will be used here interchangeably unless their differences are important. Although the standards-competence debate is not the main point, it may be useful to show some of the ideas before entering the world of competency. For example, David Lumpert (reported by Partington, 1999) prefers standards to competence but he reminds us that such a change should not be superficial. Additionally, deciding standards may clarify the targets and that helps novice teachers as well as mentors and school coordinators. Clarified targets facilitate analysis (in Partington, 1999). Roger Trend reveals the positive points of designing standards:

> -It permits focused and structured (i.e., deliberate) attention on a wide range of issues.
> -It reduces the risk of important but less visible items slipping through the training curriculum net.
> -It allows national standards to be established and monitored by external agencies.

-It provides a framework for reporting progress and attainment of QTS to the profession.
-It goes some way to ensuring consistency and reliability of assessment whatever the route to QTS (1997, p.10).

Whilst Collins Cobuild Dictionary defines competence as: 'the ability to do something well or effectively', Albanese *et al* give a description of competence in the educational context as: 'knowledge, skills, and personal qualities' (2008, in Fleming, 2009, p.6). Lacey (1977) emphasizes that each situation needs its own person and this is a part of adult socialization. So a teacher should prepare herself for as many types of situation as she can. This can be accepted as a step forward to complete her competence and, therefore, as another dimension of competency. Carr (1993) describes teachers with competence as being 'competent' and deepens the meaning by adding the ability of evaluation of practice by using decided standards that automatically bring efficiency. Carr (1993) advises teachers to establish their *knowledge-driven* capacities. Lacey (1977) talked about common areas of everyday life and biography of a teacher to competency requirements. In a sense this point of view is understandable as every teacher should comprehend the things in everyday life and should know himself very well. To do this he must explore and discover himself. Beck (2009, p.8) points out to educators what competence means to him:

> Trainees are required to develop not only relevant knowledge but also the capacity to make informed judgements about selecting more (and less) appropriate strategies, as well acquiring the practical skills to deal effectively with a variety of 'real-life' situations.

There have been many theories on the competency of teachers, one of which is Transcendental Education. Partington describes how this theory considers competency to be related to 'What is thought to be of greatest value to be God's purposes' (1999, p.17). However, Partington (1999) reminds us that it may be necessary at times to choose one of the values that overlap in certain circumstances. He names these times as 'moments of truth'. This makes us understand that values are a part of competence

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but sometimes we may need to prioritize some values more, especially when they overlap. While values are at the heart of pedagogy, Alexander (2004) warns that values need instructions in order to be carried out. Here we should, 'note a useful distinction in the American literature between the term 'competence', which is given a generic or holistic meaning and refers to a person's overall capacity, and the term 'competency', which refers to specific abilities' (Eraut, 1994, p.179). Fleming (2009) looks at the outcomes, performance and purpose of the teaching process:

> The word 'performance' signals the key intention in the use of the word 'competence', away from a primary focus on inputs and course content towards the concrete outputs of the training or education process in terms of what people could do. It was thus in part a reforming, progressive movement which was thought to have brought a number of advantages. By focusing on outputs, it directed attention to the purpose of particular courses and qualifications, instead of simply attending to content. (Fleming, 2009, p.3)

Elliott (1993) explains the basis of outcome-centred competence as the 'Social Market' theory that enforces education systems to focus on their own products. He continues that behavioural outcomes are noticed and the main goal of this approach is competence for market requirements that are explained in great detail. Taking teacher training and teaching practice into account, there is no problem with paying attention to outcomes, performance and purposeful teaching. Moreover, neglecting the input content of Generic Education Courses or putting the input content aside may result in less sophisticated teacher training, which, in turn, may reduce the teacher quality and the teacher himself to a check list marker. This may be caused by placing too much focus on output. Although output is important in teaching, without proper content in Generic Education Courses –specifically the comprehensive skills of teaching– the job might be undermined and empty.

Put simply, focusing on just the products (outputs) may look easier, faster and more efficient, because if someone meets the requirements in a check list – whether he has the ability to reflect upon the topic related to his job

or not – he is accepted as successful. Greater abilities for the requirements of the job should be perceived as competence rather than accepting check list results as competence (Fleming, 2009).

Competences and standards have an important place in Generic Education Courses which target teaching the methods with which to put theory into practice and organization of the medium of education (HEC [YOK], 2007).

Competence then is understood in a more complex way by some educationists and more narrowly by others. Some researchers indicate that insight, an aspect of teaching abilities, is one side of competency; however, the insight of a teacher cannot be activated or increased by external sources. They also count the things that affect teaching knowledge as: 'emotions, images, needs, values, volitions, personal hang-ups, temper, character traits, and the like' (2001, p.27). Those researchers suggest practical wisdom as a parallel concept for competency (Kessels and Korthagen, 2001). Wiseman and Start increase the complexity by stating that integration of consequent levels is not sufficient in teacher education (1965). They argue for a holistic design of teacher education. So, why not extend this holistic view to the whole education system? In order to look at the wider perspective of competence in relation to the education system, it may be useful to turn now to some debates and problems regarding competence.

2.2.2 - Debates and Problems about Competence

It can be asserted that there is a complexity problem with the teacher training curriculum. So much has to be covered that many aspects of teacher training are taught nowadays at the same time. This complex situation of theory can confuse teaching candidates (Barker *et al*, 1997).

The teachers do not know which approach they will apply. If faculties insist on using different approaches, then they have to allow their students to gain better decision making abilities. When candidate teachers start their job and face the real world they should know what to do and which approach to use. They need the skills to differentiate the better solution as the right choice. Barker *et al* (1997, p.5) suggest a solution from Australia for this problem: 'The temptation to drop complex models of teaching from a beginning instructional program is great when the experienced colleagues of new teachers advise them to 'stick with the basics' '.

Barker *et al* (1997) advise that one important change would be to lessen the number of teaching models; it is not enough to reduce the variety of teaching models. Barker *et al* suggest increasing the amount of practice so that teacher candidates can have the chance to put into practice what they have learnt. Ormancıoğlu (2005) suggests that:

> Teacher and trainer education should be seen in a lifelong learning perspective in order to improve skills for present jobs and to acquire further competences. Teachers should recognise the importance of acquiring new knowledge, and have the ability to evolve and adapt throughout their whole career; Mobility should be seen as an integral part of professional development. Teachers should, therefore, be encouraged to undertake mobility in other European countries for professional development purposes; the process of professional development should be the responsibility of both individuals and institutions in a context of partnership between teachers, their constituent organizations and education authorities (Ormancıoğlu, 2005, p.51).

Another important point to be made is that: 'Carefully supervised student teaching appears to be one of the best contexts for acquiring beginning teacher competencies' (Koetsier *et al*, 1992).

One of the hot debates surrounding competence is whether standards and/or competence requirements convert teaching into a type of technicism. Technicism is a kind of approach to an activity whereby it is done automatically, like making hand crafts. Once someone becomes

proficient in an activity and she can carry it out without thinking deeply about it. Or if someone just follows some rules for that activity without any creativity, reflection and/or innovation, it is known as technicism. Turner-Bisset (1999, p.40) reports that:

> The notion of competency-based teacher education can be traced to its origins in American research into education rooted in behavioural psychology. In this approach, at its most extreme, 'teachers are viewed as technicians who will simply apply what educational research has discovered' (Fish, 1989).

Guven (2008) notes, regarding the Turkish context, that in 1998 the Higher Education Council (HEC) accepted technicism as a competence scale for the teaching profession. This brought a reduction in the hours of Generic Education Courses. Later, the HEC gave up this approach 'to some extent' by increasing the hours of Generic Education Courses (GEC) and implementing a content change for GEC in 2007. Edwards and Protheroe (2004) are concerned with the English context. They say that teaching practice takes place where every single detail is strictly instructed. In agreement with them, Edwards *et al* (2001) and Day (2004) suggest teaching should be outlined by standards which could be applied nationwide and should be applied metaphorically. Carr (2003) says about technicism, that it may be argued that

> ... professional competence models of teacher education and training appear to involve reduction of pedagogical expertise to mastery of information (empirical theories and official guidelines) and skills (of communication, organisation and management) of a kind that falls short of authentic intellectual and/or critical engagement with the complex principles of professional practice. Carr (2003, p53)

Ball (1995) concludes that removal of theory may leave teachers and academics in a web of untested and unquestioned prejudices and knowledge lacking philosophical background. He goes on to say that 'too often in educational studies theory becomes no more than a mantric reaffirmation of belief rather than a tool for exploration and for thinking

otherwise' (p.268) and this causes 'transition from intellectual intelligence to technical rationalism' (Ball, 1995, p.267).

Bearing in mind that the 'Social Market' approach raises the idea of behaviourism, Elliott (1993) asserts that theories of pedagogical content knowledge are only technical tools. There should be careful classification when it comes to teaching. The Times Education Supplement (2008) puts teaching on a level that is more than a job; therefore it is strange to see attempts to classify this job at a technician level. Fleming (2009, p.3) explains that, 'After all, it mattered less whether a plumber, teacher, or doctor had taken a particular course but rather more whether they could, as a result, do the job effectively'. At first glance it may be unclear what the problem with technicism is. When it is looked at more closely it might be seen that those people who do their job efficiently and 'effectively' could make mistakes more easily because they may lack flexibility in thinking in their occupation when the need arises.

According to Turner-Bisset (1999), people who attempt to reduce teaching to the level of a technical craft, do so by drawing borders and by forcing strictly inspection standards on the teaching occupation. What is more, she criticizes those standards as being too generalized. Teaching – even though it has natural standards that may change at times depending on conditions – is a profession, not only because it has standards but also because it has a requirement to reflect. It is a profession because it is open to innovation and improvement. It is a profession because it is an art of dealing with different characters, with different situations and, most demandingly, with different behaviours having variations of unaccountability. It is a profession because it requires knowledge of sociology, psychology, classroom management, subject knowledge and so on. As long as teachers reflect upon their job and education, are open to change and seek innovation for their teaching styles, this so-called 'job' is a 'professional' profession. Some educationists agree on the professionalism of teaching:

> Liberal educators and radical re-constructionists dislike for what is often termed 'technicism', the reduction of educational understanding to the sorts of competencies considered above, a process which, they allege, reduces teachers from professionals to technicians (Partington, 1999, p.112).

Actually, one of the elements separating a teacher from an education technician may be that they are a role model, in particular a role model for moral values. This feature will be studied later on. Turning to the definition of 'profession', Abbott (1988) arguably prioritises having skills, and a knowledge at an abstract level which can be applied to specific situations. Knowledge at an abstract level, however, may cause a decline in the quality of reflection. Hoyle's (1995) point of view is preferable; since he mentions a high degree of knowledge and skills and an ability to use them as tools for a healthier society.

Another element of competency is that it can be argued that attitudes towards change may be accepted as a part of competence. If a teacher has positive perceptions about change, then they may be praised as having an important aspect of competence for teaching. A similar thing can be put forward for openness to innovation as it has points in common with change. Trend (1997) warns about a danger against change which he calls 'plateauing'. Once the pitfalls of change are recognized, the path of change might be steered easily. The psychological roots of resistance are explained by Fullan (1991a) and Maslow (1968) 'Learning or professional development can be seen as a process of both personal and professional growth and it is well-known that people resist growth if the need for safety is not fulfilled' (in Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001, p.46).

When novice teachers begin their profession, their competency is more closely examined through real education systems, once sometimes called 'being at the chalkface'. Without doubt they have experienced this before, while they were practising during their university years. However, the degree of responsibility was not the same and they were not always under

the pressure of more challenging conditions, such as inspections. Considering the university and school cooperation and their pressure on the trainee teachers, the point of view does not change. Being a real teacher differs from being a trainee. The first years of teaching are often considered the 'honeymoon period' when it is easier to single out the good points and the missing ones both in teaching in schools and in the education system as a whole, but afterwards, getting used to everything and taking it for granted brings about a kind of blindness (Lacey, 1977). That is because you are already an element of the education system (1977). Healing and reassurance of competence may be achieved through communication between teachers and this may help to remove the feeling of self-blaming. It can be suggested that not only peer teachers but also teacher trainers at universities may help; bearing in mind that schools need to maintain contact with a university for professional support.

There have been further attempts via empirical studies and comments to understand the expectations from teachers; this is very important and sets the core of theory-practice relationship.

In agreement with the three steps of understanding (Nursi, 1930), Maynard and Furlong (1993) talk about three stages of teacher training: The apprenticeship model, which represents learning through observation; the competency model, which represents organized practising; and finally the reflective model, which represents learning from personal teaching practice. Keeping those stages in mind; the Turkish context has got a worrying situation. The Fundamental (apprenticeship) model of teacher education had not been changed, for example, from competence to reflective-based models (Ekiz, 2006).

Ari and Saban (2000) divide group competence of teaching into two: skills of teaching methods and classroom management abilities. It is worth noting here that some educationists accept classroom management as equivalent to quality of education (Harris, 1991; Demirel, 2005; Senturk

and Oral, 2008). MONE (2002) describes competence from a different perspective: ability to undertake a task or a job. According to Kahyaoglu and Yangin's (2007) study, primary school teachers in Turkey perceive their self-efficacy as complete.

Palic and Keles' (2011) study reveals that teachers need certain personal qualities to complete their competence besides what they learn in schools of education and in schools. These qualities are patience, empathy, passion for teaching, tolerance, being consistent, being energetic, of strong character, good personal development, self-discipline, and having good time management. Sendan and Roberts explain how personal experience shapes professional career whereas, intentionally or unintentionally, they draw a picture of realistic teacher education approach as:

> Developing awareness of and making explicit personal theories via student teachers' own past and present experiences, rather than a reliance on abstract propositional knowledge which may not be readily meaningful to individual student teachers (Sendan and Roberts, 1998, p.241).

Ugurlu and Polat (2011) add education and training of teachers, and working as standardized parts of professional competence.

It is interesting to hear a very similar problem in a very different context. Millett (1999) reveals that teachers prefer to talk about learning instead of teaching itself. According to Millett (1999) in the past Turkish teachers mostly wanted to talk about curriculum and school organization rather than teaching. These kinds of response find their place not only in teachers' answers but also in definitions of governing bodies in the English context such as CATE. According to this institution, there are subjects and subject applications (DES, 1989), whereas Shulman (1987) sees content and pedagogical content instead. Beck (2008) is concerned that pedagogy is still not accepted as an academic specialism by universities in England which worsens the approach to pedagogy and education. Allison (2010)

explains that this is because England has a culture of performativity from the earliest age, with targets, production of evidence, ranking and tick boxes for its learners, teachers and schools. Such a mindset creates a 'deficit' approach.

It may be useful to define pedagogy here. Alexander (2004) perceives pedagogy as an act of teaching hand in hand with incidental course content. Here Alexander prefers the phrase of 'pedagogical content knowledge (PCK)' to 'pedagogical content'. It is clear that pedagogy cannot be separated completely from subject knowledge; however, pedagogical content can be picked out as much as possible so that we can solely focus on the pedagogical issues in education putting aside the subject. Thus, the researcher, to be able to reflect upon it easily, favours 'pedagogical content' to PCK though he concedes Alexander's point that pedagogy and subject go together.

Speaking from the Australian context, Smith *et al* (2003) want teacher education graduates to be already ready as competent teachers and wish teacher educators to be foreseeing (future oriented) academics. Central Queensland University decided to open teaching schools using the model of teaching hospitals to make their students fully ready for teaching life (2000). There was interesting research in Australia in which practising teachers were recruited as lecturers for a short time (Allen *et al*, 2010). During this secondment period, new lecturers explored and displayed how teacher training should be. According to Allen *et al*, teachers need to develop their academic skills and reflect on their practice. This is because they started improving in those areas as soon as their secondment started. That research can be called research of recognizing. For instance, those secondment lecturers found that 'teachers and academics live in different worlds' (Allen *et al*, 2010, p.622). One accepts the value of the partnership however s/he adds that precedence differs in schools. Another secondment lecturer asks why working teachers do not come to faculties of education to share their experiences. This is already being done in

some universities, for example, University of Durham's School of Education appears to be a forerunner in this kind of issues where its primary partnership clustering model involves practicing teachers in a significant way (see OFSTED reports, 2011; 2013). In the same study (Allen *et al*, 2010), highlight the benefits to academics as interaction occurs with secondments and state that it may be beneficial to make academics work in schools for short blocks of time. Allen *et al* (2010) suggest that the value of partnership should be understood by teacher educators and teachers and its meaning should be explained to them.

Research in Scotland (Grieve, 2010) illustrates that teachers perceive excellence (a kind of perfectionist competence) as having two aspects: 'personal qualities and interpersonal skills' (Grieve, 2010, p.265). These two are composed of 44 characteristics. The Scottish researcher declares the reason which triggered her research as:

> A holistic philosophy of education, such as that made explicit in Scotland through a Curriculum for Excellence, may mean that teaching and formal education recognise learning for life in general as much as examination results (Grieve, 2010, p.267).

It can be understood that Turkish teacher education has two main problems in terms of competence: qualified GEC lecturers with continuity of supervisor teacher educators, and motivation of teachers.

In this section competence is taken as a form of enhanced standards, adding sociological and psychological values and having regard to motivational elements. Change and innovation have a place in this kind of understanding. We have seen that reflection is a crucial element separating teaching as a profession from technicism. By making a combination of these features, it is not necessary to accept the very technical meanings of competence (competency) and standards. By reviewing the ideas and some debates around competence and standards, it can now be understood what teachers are generally expected to have for their job.

2.2.3 - Expectations from Teachers

So, what are those abilities or what kind of competence is needed? Drever and Cope (1999, p.103) express the new role of the teacher within classroom conditions as involving, 'communication, methodology, class management, and assessment'. Some elements that affect a teacher's competence are explained by Hargreaves (1993, p.89) as: managing the classroom, which includes 'the teacher's authority, and ability to control and organize the classroom'. He continues that pedagogy, which he describes as 'the content and methods of a lesson, involving selection, presentation, sequence and pace', is one element. And thirdly, 'the school in the context of the education system: the different types of school and their relationship and relations with other aspects of the education system as a whole'. Tickle (1993, p.119) expects 'self-esteem, willingness to take responsibility, initiative-taking, open-mindedness and willingness to learn… [and] other major focus of attention in the teachers' experiences and deliberations - the emotions and related aspects in the adjustment of self knowledge in becoming a teacher' from teachers'. The work of Saban (2003, p.845) from the Turkish context indicates what qualities teachers should have:

> Prospective classroom teachers in this study strongly agreed with the three teaching roles (the knowledge expert, the didactical expert, and the pedagogical expert), suggesting a combined professional identity related to elementary teaching. This tendency is in line with Beijaard et al.'s (2000) conclusion based on an investigation of 80 experienced secondary school teachers, that a teacher's emphasis on knowledge transmission or learning facilitation and his or her focus on instilling social and moral values in children are not valued as the opposite of one another. The same also holds true for the orientations towards instruction.

The research of Saban (2003, p.842) in Turkey reveals that education faculty students believe 'teachers are made, not born'. This may be the case; however some qualities may be found in some teacher candidates as part of their character, but teaching abilities may be improved upon in

teacher training under the control of education faculties. Elliott *et al* (2011, p.99) report some of the pedagogical skills that every teacher should have:

> Skills such as 'withitness' (the ability to demonstrate awareness of events taking place in the immediate environment), overlapping (the capacity to manage multiple events concurrently), the skilful use and regulation of voice, the subtle deployment of non-verbal behaviour, sensitivity in the control of spoken communication patterns, are just some of the skills that teachers use to demonstrate expertise and authority in their dealings with students and with other adults (Elliott, 2009; Elliott and Stemler, 2008)

Tickle (1993) expresses how she perceives the competence of teachers via several questions, including 'How much time was available to listen to children's explanations of social behaviour? How much time could be given to explaining concepts to particular children?' She continues that approximate decisions for time management, on-the-spot reactions to children's behaviours (judging the situation correctly) and the effective use of resources are necessary skills. Reflection is a good way to deal with the problems, she suggests. Another research made in England investigates what head teachers and student teachers expect from teachers. According to Newton and Newton (2001) student teachers and head teachers value, in order: enthusiasm, interpersonal communication, oral communication skills, listening skills, writing skills, and competence in NC specialism more than any other skills. Apart from writing skills, the rest are all parts of GEC.

Whatever the quality level of education a trainee teacher gets, it is up to each individual to succeed at a higher level. The following sub-section looks at the socialization of teachers.

2.2.4 - Socialization of Teachers

As with all humans, teachers are naturally social creatures. It is clear that every person is affected by his/her personal life even though sometimes he wants to prevent the effects. Teaching practice is also inseparable from the social structure of a teacher's life which can be broadly analysed in two

parts: Socialization within the teaching environment and socialization within private life. These parts are very much interrelated. Socialization in private life might affect teachers emotionally in their classroom performance either positively nor negatively.

Havighurst and Neugarten (1967) divide socialization of teachers into two, related to the place of action: in school and in the outside world; socialization in the teaching environment can be studied in three parts referring to the people with whom teachers are interacting. They are: socialization with families, socialization with educators, and finally, socialization with students. In order to complete these types of socialization, teachers need a number of competences. For instance: To interact with families, a teacher needs to know parenthood responsibilities and necessities, skills of communication with parents, responsibilities and duties of the teacher regarding the law and some adult psychology and have a desire to follow the development of students in terms of goals of Generic Education Courses.

Reciprocation amongst educators is an important part of socialization, too. Teachers' development is directly impacted by the learning of colleagues. Elliott (1993) suggests that teachers may learn from each other not only from their classroom management experiences but also from their colleagues' characters. He continues that it is reflection by teachers that will support this. Enhancement of practice regarding Generic Education Courses (theory) may be accelerated if teachers share their experiences cooperatively. Pedagogical content knowledge, which will be discussed below, and its successful practice may increase practical and easy solutions which may affect the implication of Generic Education Courses positively. Not only interaction with teachers but also interaction with head teachers and managers (principals, administrators) may also increase the quality of teaching. Having experienced and/or observed so many examples, managers and head teachers may lead teachers to establish better teaching.

The final kind of socialization is that with students. School corridors and classrooms are busy places of social interaction for teachers. Generic Education Courses include the school environment as a whole but should the school gate be the border of teachers' socialization? The researcher suggests that theory (Generic Education Courses) continues to relate to practice wherever the teacher is. Kiziltepe (2008) concurs with this idea from a different perspective that perceiving teaching as only a source of income could prevent teachers from building stronger communications with students and that could mean extending less care to them. It could be added that the role of a teacher in this sense cannot be restricted to within the school boundaries but to wherever the teacher is in the view of the student. There is a good reason why a teacher should always be prepared, as a role model, to face a student, even when a student knocks on the teacher's door and that is that at all times during the teacher's working hours the quality of education can be enhanced. This perception of teaching may answer the question as to whether teaching is a profession or a kind of technicism and take teaching to a higher level which we could call '*teaching as a life style*'. To achieve socialization with students, a teacher needs a good knowledge of all Generic Education Courses (Psychology, Classroom Management, etc.). It is helpful to have a reflective approach to both theory (Generic Education Courses) and its practice. This level really makes teaching 'more than a job' (Times Education Supplement, 2008).

As can be seen from the explanations given about the types of socialization of teachers, every profession has its specific conditions and working environment in addition to the descriptions, skills, values and standards. Stakeholders, politicians, friends, families and even colleagues in the same work environment affect the social structure of a job. When it comes to the teaching profession, the things that affect other jobs should also be taken into account. Teachers have a role in the society in which they are living, in addition to their teaching responsibilities in classrooms

and at schools. This establishes a broader social structure for teachers, which aims to reach every member of the society in some way. So, communication of teachers with each other, educationists, stakeholders, families, and ordinary people is a necessity. Anthony O'Hear says of teachers, regarding criticism, "Those involved in teacher education bitterly resent any criticism of their practices from those they perceive to be outsiders, whether they are elected governments, academics from disciplines other than education, employers, parents or just concerned members of the public" (in Partington, 1999, p.5). In the 1930s there were disagreements about the extent and application of the socialization of teachers. Some were concerned that schools lacked the abilities to spread their academic culture and social abilities to society, while some, including sociologist, Willand Waller, criticise schools as 'museum[s] of virtue'. That is to say, the school culture is far from the social culture and realities. Actually, in a sense and unintentionally, this indirectly supports the socialization of teachers. If teachers break their ties with the society, they may lose touch.

If education is restricted to taking place only within the walls of schools this could bring about a deficiency. Formal education in schools takes place alongside the informal education provided by families and communities. Therefore it could be argued that the social structure of society and the family structure should be a part of teacher training. Also, improving family quality can help society and specifically the education of that society. Thus, training mothers and fathers could enhance their conceptions about the education of children. Surprisingly, some parents do consider improving themselves despite most of them having left education many years previously; in a sense this is a part of continuous education or lifelong education and 'Teachers are seen as social missionaries to the masses' (Partington, 1999, p.10). Regarding this thesis it can be said that primary school teachers in particular fulfil this role. Teachers' socialization is needed so much that Partington (1999) insists that they should reach the whole society not just a particular part of it; the masses are waiting for

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them. The reason for this emphasis may be that in England church based and traditional schools such as Eton and Westminster schools have maintained (nearly) the same format throughout their history. Spread of quality teaching may be a concern for English context as they can be examples for other schools. Such schools do not have an equivalent in Turkey. However, the Turkish Higher Education Council (2007) decided that student teachers were obliged to attend courses in serving the society to understand what is going on in society and they must also participate in society service projects (HEC [YOK], 2006).

This suggests that, within society, the teaching role needs socialization a kind of inculcation into the professional teaching. Robert Merton (1957) had defined socialization as being '… the process by which [people, here teachers] selectively acquire the values and attitudes, the interests, skills and knowledge - in short the culture - current in groups to which they are, or seek to become, a member' (in Lacey, 1977, p.13). Korthagen *et al.* (2001) argue that there are some differences between socialization of teachers and professionalism. Professionalism and socialization are so interwoven in teaching that it is impossible to separate them. This is because the social dimension of teachers plays a crucial role in teaching itself and for society. Hargreaves (1993, p.90) suggests a new approach to understanding 'professionalism and socialization of teachers' as what he calls Professional Common-Sense Knowledge. According to him, this approach involves, in the educational context, the ability 'to typify ends, means, situations, people and motives and to construct solutions to problems'. So, what is learning to teach?

Having deeper, quality thinking skills to aid problem solving in educational contexts is also a part of good teaching. The interpretation of observed things and learnt knowledge shapes the fundamentals of socialization (Lacey, 1977) also forms the centre of reflective practising, so if a teacher focuses on himself and makes a self-observation, that becomes the first step of realistic teacher education. Socialization of teachers is at the heart

of modern approaches to teaching practices and so for Generic Education Courses. A socialized teacher becomes a creative force for society, she pushes it to better life standards, helping to resolve conflict within the society, acting as a problem solver for the society. A teacher may not be a complete teacher at the beginning in terms of socialization. In time, by experiencing various different situations they learn to improve their skills or competences like behaviour management However, Korthagen *et al* present us with a possibly negative side effect: 'Teaching experience can be a socializing factor rather than an opportunity for professional development (cf. Wideen, Mayer-Smith, and Moon, 1993). 'Often the process of socialization into the school context creates a dislike for reflection and theoretical deepening' (Cole, 1997, in Korthagen, 2001, p.11).

According to Buyukkaragoz and Civi (1999) good interaction between students, teachers, goals, subjects, methods and other educational items shape a good education. Unintentionally they have given another description of socialization of teachers.

Palic and Keles (2011) are concerned with putting less stress on partnerships between schools, students and parents as a part of the socialization of teachers. A lack of congruence may have a negative effect on the quality of education as a great deal of learning takes place outside the classroom according to some research (Balci, 1988b; McKeachie and Svinicki, 2006; Saka, 2009). Varis (1998) agrees that the interaction that occurs outside the classroom enhances learning.

The Turkish case is an intriguing example of teacher education. Sahin (2010) complains that though there is a law (Law No. 1739) naming teacher occupation as a profession; MONE appears to suggest otherwise. The reason for Sahin's criticism may be explained as the Turkish education system does not give teachers as much flexibility in their classroom practice and this may cause lack of reflection or poor reflection.

Saracaloglu *et al.*'s (2011) enquiry reveals that trainee teachers are aware of the professional requirements of teaching and that they value being open to innovations and contemporary approaches. The same study suggests that education faculty students' ratings of their satisfaction of the primary schools in which they have practised is undecided.

Speaking from the English perspective, Alexander (2004) states that because of pedagogy, teaching is affected, and because of teaching, socialization of teachers is affected by culture, self (teacher her/himself), and the history of education in a country. She goes on to say that those three parts (culture, self, history) represent a conversion to education from teaching.

Swann *et al*'s study conducted in England (2010) discloses that teachers do not have an integrated concept of professionalism.

As a final word, socialization might be accepted as the essence of preparation for teaching. Not only does it connect the teaching profession to society where education takes place but it also helps the job of teaching to be a proper profession while at the same time encouraging teachers to reflect upon their teaching and observe the society for its own sake. A properly-socialized teacher may be the glue for a society and its members, bringing them together and solving their problems and she may lead the society to a better future.

2.3 - Practice-Based Approaches

This section focuses on the views which value practice more than theory. The theory-practice relationship will be evaluated from the practice-based teacher training point of view. The aim is to help the reader to see the picture from the practice perspective, raising questions where necessary. The sub-sections here will help to explain the practice-based approach

from different angles and providing a definition first will help the reader to comprehend the ideas which will follow.

2.3.1 - Definitions and Practice Valuing Perceptions

Practice is explained as putting a belief or a method into action (Collins Cobuild Dictionary, 2006). It can be expanded to mean the implementation of knowledge whether methodologically or not. However, for technical meanings, having a methodology may be a prerequisite. In terms of implementation, organized knowledge is required for teaching which is called a theory.

Elliott (1993) argues that rather than purely theory-based education, professional development takes place because of training needs of teachers. The discussion as to whether, at the very beginning, practice forms the first pieces of theory or *vice versa* is an old one. Elliott addresses the point from the practice perspective:

> Rather than becoming dissociated from practice in the process of knowledge production, which then later has to be connected up through a separate process of application, the specialized forms of inquiry would take the questions they addressed from the problems and issues experienced by practitioners (Elliott, 1993, p.84).

Whatever the answer is, in the history of teacher training there have been times when practice and theory have been placed at opposite ends of the spectrum. Seeing practice as superior to theory has been one of the options and in the second half of the 20th century many preferred this. For instance, although Korthagen *et al* (2001) valued both theory and practice, they are more practice biased. Another example comes from the English context, where 'The Hillgate Group (New Right) rejected the relevance of educational theory to ITT' (Partington, 1999, p.80).

Schon (1983) puts the emphasis on practice, stressing that learning how to be a teacher can only take place during practice. Agreeing with Schon

(1983), some social scientists say, 'The intention is that they learn to teach while actually teaching' (Edwards and Protheroe, 2003, p.228). Walshe (1998) concurs with them and adds that teachers are not trained to have enough capability to do their job even when it comes to practice. He suggests trainee teachers should qualify through in-service training. The research of Drever and Cope (1999) reveals that while trainee teachers criticise the learning period describing 'that you have to do X', not 'how to do X' (p.106), they avoid using theory to criticise practice; 'They have a very positive view of practice' (p.105). Carr (1993) thinks that competence (regarding either capacity or dispositional) is related to practice more than theory.

Most university teacher education programmes emphasize the expectation of a strong relationship between practical experience in school and the theory in education faculty handbooks (See for example, University of Durham, 2012/13). They are like two surfaces with the same goal (in Lawlor, 1990, p.19) or like two faces of a coin with both faces making up the education period. That is why you cannot enter the education field without that coin. Though there are modern ideas such as that of the University of Durham which support both in a sensible measure, it would seem that psychology, sociology, history and philosophy of education courses that are mostly related to theory are losing their importance, while teaching methods, pedagogical knowledge of schools are on the rise in terms of importance. The empirical element of this study includes the perceptions of trainee teachers as well as the ideas of working teachers and teacher trainers. So this thesis tries to accumulate a three dimensional perspective. Taking a broader perspective may help us to look at the bigger picture better and if this can be done, more dimensions may mean more details which will give a more comprehensive understanding.

There are arguments, then, about whether theory or practice should be dominant. It can be asserted that more practice may result in better theory, keeping firmly in mind that this is possible only with reflection upon

practice while engaging in practice. Nonetheless nothing can be put into action without knowledge, yet some have missed the value of this kind of balance. Lawlor, for example, states that

> [There] lies confusion between what can best be learnt by academic study, and what can be learnt only through practice. Whereas the individual subjects of which teachers will require academic study, the skills of teaching are essentially practical ones. They can be acquired only through experience, trial and error and careful, individual supervision. Who would imagine that a man could learn to act, or play the piano or swim, or drive a motor-car by studying manuals of acting, piano-playing, swimming or driving theory? It is no less foolish to suppose that the study of educational theory will make him able to teach. By contrast, the academic study of his chosen subject is a prerequisite for the good teacher; for how can he teach what he does not himself know? (Lawlor, 1990, p.3)

She argues that the practice period is crucial and should be dominant. In addition she suggests that you cannot teach without knowing what to teach. It is clear that pre-practice knowledge accelerates learning and so it is for teacher training.

Guile and Young, and Eraut (2003; 2004b) assert that most of the knowledge is learned during the professional practice years. Similarly ITT has an important role as preparation for professional work (Smeby, 2007). In agreement with Guile and Young, and Eraut, some researchers (in Korthagen *et al*, 2001, p.3) emphasize the distances between what has been learnt and its practice: 'Many researchers showed that the traditional technical-rationality paradigm does not function well. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981), for example, showed that many notions and educational conceptions which developed during pre-service teacher education were 'washed out' during field experiences'. Actually Korthagen *et al* explain the reason from a different perspective related to whether trainee teachers could establish proper gestalts or not. According to them it is not a problem of transferring what is written in academic books to practice (Korthagen *et al*, 2001). Smith adds that:

Teachers, it might be said, should test their beliefs against available facts, especially the evidence of their own classrooms and the way children actually learn in them. From this the appropriate body of principles or generalizations, constantly open to revision and modification, can be derived and passed on to newcomers to the profession without the need for the seminars, tutorials and lectures and the extensive reading of books that 'theory' would usually be taken to imply. Thus when Kenneth Clarke (1991) asks teachers to 'put aside theories of how best they should do their job' he adds that this should be in favour of 'practice which reflects the evidence of how best to develop children's full potential (Smith, 1992, p.390).

The remainder of this section is devoted to research and comments, the results of which value practice, made in several different countries.

Eighty-five percent of Turkish primary school teacher trainees perceived a School Experience course as necessary (Kılınç and Altuk, 2010). This coincides with the findings of Hergüner *et al* (2002). Their study gauged that a School Experience course increased their interest in teaching because they believe this course to be necessary. However, in the same year, Yoldaş *et al* found that teacher trainees do not have a clear idea about the necessity of that course (2002). Yıldız's study (2002) revealed attitudes that teacher trainees accept a School Experience course as unnecessary. Kılınç and Altuk claim that this disagreement shows that there are some problems with the design of the School Experience course (2010).

The study made by Saracaloglu *et al* (2011) carried out in Turkey, shows that primary school teacher trainees think that they do not have adequate theoretical knowledge for their School Experience course in two hours of theory. Their research demonstrates that teacher trainees have got positive views about lecturers of School Experience courses at faculties, considering them to be competent; contradictorily they say that they cannot deliver adequate knowledge for their school experience.

Yapici and Yapici (2004) report mentors' opinions about School Experience courses who say that too little time is spent on teaching practice, schools in rural areas should be included as partner schools, and finally more supervisor teacher educators should be recruited for more frequent teacher trainee observation, support, and evaluation. Their study demonstrates that teacher trainees observe that their numbers per mentor and supervisor is too high in Turkey and this worries teacher trainees. Another concern is monitored by Yapici and Yapici (2004) who reveal that trainee teachers wonder which identity they represent when they are in school. Should they be perceived as teachers or teacher candidates (students)? The answer comes from the English context: 'The analysis indicates that students were presenting themselves less as learners in their mentors' classrooms and more as fellow teachers who were positioned as polite guests in the classrooms of their mentor hosts' (Edwards, 1997, p.27). Her findings have a bearing on the perceptions of trainee teachers 'as actors, as operators and not learners' (Edwards, 1997, p.34).

The negative findings of Yapici and Yapici's results go further to say that trainee teachers are angry about the work ethic of mentors in Turkey as they do not help, but leave the classroom completely in their hands. Finally, the mentors they received preferred not to discuss any topic that might be helpful in enabling trainees to improve themselves.

Practice-oriented Turkish studies reveal that there are problems with mentor quality, lack of clear instructions for teacher trainees' practice in schools, lack of interest by supervisor teacher educators, lack of evaluation for their practice, and lack of work ethic and care of mentors. These are very important issues that could prevent a healthier theory-practice relationship. They could also prevent researchers from seeing a clearer picture of the situation.

Having seen how a practice-based approach to teacher training is perceived, it may be useful to point out an experience of it. School Centred Initial Teacher Training (SCITT) models are defended through the ideas coming from supporters of practice-based teacher training.

2.3.2 - School Based Initial Teacher Training (SCITTs)

School-based teacher training is an approach to teacher training which aims to train teachers in the real environment of schools. Learning from experience has an important place in this kind of training. Elliott (1993) adds that while current teacher training style puts comprehension of theory to the fore, school-centred teacher training is more about giving teachers the chance to perform; to implement their knowledge of teaching. It is practice-centred and designed around rationalist ideas.

In 1992, England took an official step towards putting practice before theory. A circular was published partly to switch teacher training to take place more in schools rather than in teacher-training institutions. It offered cooperation but gave schools more power, more decision-making abilities and naturally more responsibility (Partington, 1999). In time students were expected to have more practice time in schools than before. In a way, that was to help students – trainee teachers – get used to the school atmosphere (Partington, 1999). 'Pre-service teacher education in England has been essentially school-based since 1992' (Ellis, 2010, p.105). Patten (1992) defended this move as it would create the opportunity for trainee teachers to gain more experience, to relate their knowledge and to face real teaching practice before they started doing it officially (in Smith, 1992). Starting with that regulation in 1992, working teachers began to have a greater effect on teacher training and this situation brought more pressure, responsibility and tasks for teachers mentoring in schools (Partington, 1999). Lawlor tacitly criticizes the university point of view:

> School practice... is seen by the education departments as an opportunity to put theory into practice... [students] are expected

to bring to the classroom, and to apply to their teaching, the generalized educational theories which they have been taught (Lawlor, 1990, p.21).

Improving experience in the field, indeed, may help towards better practice and even towards better theory. The more trainee teachers confront teaching environment issues, the more they can relate what they have learnt during their undergraduate degree. Jamieson calls learning from practice during ITT 'experiential learning' (in Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001, p.43). The following Scottish example is in line with SCITT:

> The Scottish Office Education Department (SOED) also proposed that teaching skills in the areas of 'class management and curriculum' are best developed in the schools, not in tertiary institutions. However, the Scottish statement offered a broader definition of 'professional competences' than any provided by the Department of Education for England and Wales (Partington, 1999, p.77-78).

The report of Drever and Cope (1999) declares that students in education faculties perceive the teachers from whom they receive their induction as experts. Realising the benefits of teaching practice during a bachelor degree is also important. When students are aware of the benefits of the practice, they can be more motivated. This kind of motivation may help them to learn better. Drever and Cope (1999) stress that school practice may be helpful in order to be able to react to different classroom situations.

Agreeing with Creton *et al.* (1989), Koetsier and Wubbels (1995) describe this situation as a 'reality shock' which especially takes place in their first professional teaching year. Facing the demands of practice in schools, the differences between theory and practice arise. Education faculties are accused of being below an adequate level of adapting theory to practice (Müller-Fohrbrodt *et al*, 1978; Veenman, 1984). For reasons related to the initial shock, the first years of teaching, which are also known as the induction year(s), are seen as difficult years. Vonk (1993) defines this induction period as passing into real teaching and modulation years. He defines two parts of the induction years. The first part (1-3 years), is

'career entry', and includes 'survival and discovery', the second part (lasting until 6/7 years) includes the steps towards mature teaching years. According to Koetsier and Wubbels' (1995) research, some respondents surprisingly emphasised that the reality shock may be felt even during a Bachelor degree whilst practising as student teachers.

Bullough and Kauchak (1997) indicate that both schools and university schools of education are busy institutions and teacher training in schools make schools busier than ever. Some countries, such as England, offer different types of teacher training. Although it makes schools busier, School Centred Teacher Training (SCITT) is one of them. Regarding the philosophy behind this style of teacher training, because it favours practice and may neglect theory, it can be said that SCITT has damaged the theory-practice relationship. Partington (1999, p.117) criticizes this kind of teacher training saying: 'The proof of the pudding must be in the eating'. Partington (1999) doubts that it will last if SCITT system insists on not correcting their failures, but, he adds it is good to be able to choose a teacher training style from amongst many and this also enhances the options of employers. Ellis views more school-based training more positively:

> However, from a policymaker's perspective, the reforms were successful: they appeared to improve the competence of beginning teachers (the evidence from the inspection regime was good); they made teacher educators and the universities more accountable (competitively, to policymakers); they developed the career structure for classroom teachers (using elements of performance-related pay); and recruitment to the profession improved (nationally, there is currently no overall shortage of teachers, except in secondary mathematics and science) (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2005) Ellis (2010, p.105).

From an academic perspective, there is no problem with examining different styles of teaching. It may make the education system rich with different options. However, styles such as school-based teacher training, which are criticized, need to be examined on a small scale before being

applied nationwide. The researcher wonders why Turkey does not test different styles of teaching; at first there needs to be flexibility in terms of legislation and laws for this to happen.

2.3.3 - Beginning Teachers, Later on and Practice

It is always difficult for a person to work in the first days of a new job. In the early years the theory is intensely examined through daily practices. Some efforts have been made to encourage better performance in the early years of teaching. Barker *et al* suggest putting new graduates in 'rural, sparsely-settled communities' (Barker *et al* 1997, p.2). It is a reality that, to some extent, when conditions get tougher the amount of learning through practice will increase. Smeby (2007) agrees with this idea and extends it further, suggesting that 'knowledge learned in higher education will, however, always be insufficient because of the specialisation and complexity of work tasks'. The advice for decreasing the number of differences and the insufficiency are to be concentrated in four areas: 'Teaching Quality; subject studies; teaching methods; practical experience' (Lawlor, 1990, p.8). In addition to that Partington (1999) questions the quality of mentors in schools, stating that it cannot be an excuse for us that the structure of teacher training was changed. The teacher trainers at universities as members of schools of education, teachers who help trainees as mentors and the education quality given at those faculties may still be and should be questioned. Partington (1999, p.89) regarding the school based approach adds that '…student teachers do not 'own' a classroom as do regular teachers, but appropriate techniques can be applied informally as the basis for part of their assessment of the evaluation of their practical teaching'.

Novice teachers become experienced after some years of practising. The time it takes may vary depending on each individual. For instance, while one teacher might become an expert teacher in three years, another can only become one in ten years. There are many criteria for Generic

Education Courses which make for a teacher expert such as managing the behaviour of students, understanding the psychology of children, etc. Hargreaves states that:

> For most teachers, however, professional development is a much more complicated trajectory of aspiration and achievement. Undoubtedly one useful way of describing this trajectory is as a movement from novice to expert. This process of teacher education and informal professional socialization (in both training institutions and schools) describable as a mixture of concerns with competence, defined as the knowledge, skills and understanding to manage classrooms and promote student learning successfully, combined with values which shape the assumptions and principles that influence how knowledge and skill are transformed into wise and intellectual action. (Hargreaves, 1993, p.88)

According to Tickle (1993), some teachers prefer a risky experimental style while they are putting their pedagogical content knowledge into practice to reach a better teaching performance while others prefer to seek a point where they can feel themselves to be experts and therefore secure. She defends this view on the grounds that it is supported by evidence from academic studies. After reaching such a state, they stick with their stable expertise level. The researcher agrees and believes there should be a stress and/or also a balance in teaching between automatically-driven practice and innovation.

It will be useful to see what the studies say about the transition of teachers from novice to expert. Yalcinkaya (2002) expresses concerns about the Turkish context because MONE assigns mentors where possible which means that many first-year teachers start working in rural places and in most cases they do not have the chance to be observed and evaluated. It might be put forward that this slows down novice teachers becoming experts in teaching. However, some educationists rightly argue that becoming an expert teacher is not always a time issue. Time devoted to teaching practice is not directly proportional with expertise in teaching (Axelson, 1999; Sweietzer and King, 2004).

In the UK, Hagger and McIntyre express how the experienced teacher's knowledge, understanding and practice should be shaped:

> … the gradual development of their individual schemata and scripts, on gradually learning how to select and to prioritise, and on first learning effective and conscious decision-making and then gradually replacing it with more intuitive decision-making (Hagger and McIntyre, 2000, p.487).

Though theory might be thought to affect teaching quality positively, it is not the case for expertise in teaching. More expertise can be achieved through more practice (Freedman *et al.*, 2008). On the one hand an idealised theory universe can aid to develop practice while practice is being carried out; on the other hand it cannot merely bring expertise to teachers.

Research undertaken in England shows that beginning teachers have only a few knowledge bases or a small knowledge base. Pondering upon one's own practice and thinking deeply can only be detected amongst expert teachers (Turner-Bisset, 1999).

Elliott *et al.*'s (2011) research in England covers 501 probation year teachers and 163 experienced teachers. It shows the differences and similarities between novice and expert teachers:

> Perhaps most surprising is the finding that experienced teachers and novices do not differ significantly in terms of the capacity to identify good solutions to situational problems, but rather, they differ significantly in their skills at identifying poor solutions to these same problems. ... In addition, the data suggest that even one year of teacher training reduces many of the differences between the experts and the novices, at least with regard to identifying poor solutions. Overall, the pattern of results shows that the mean scores of novices become more like those of the experienced teachers in terms of their capacity to identify bad solutions over a one-year training period, but they did not show much change in their capacity to identify good solutions (Elliott et al, 2011, p.98).

They go on to inform us that poor solutions offered by novice teachers are later recognized by the teacher in line with the improvement in tacit knowledge.

While the English context discusses technical details of how to become expert teachers, the Turkish context deals with the lack of opportunities and aid for their teaching. This is the exact summary of the situation.

Lacey's research, in 1970, involved first year teacher trainees, and showed that those students put psychology, sociology, self-knowledge, the most up to date methodologies for teaching and knowledge of how schools work ahead of the education theories, philosophical theories and knowing the characteristics of each child. They asked for more help in the areas they favoured. Having information of managing teaching environments and more subject knowledge in their career portfolio was rated very low. Would such views be expressed today? Do teachers in their beginning years and/or novice teachers still need more assistance in addition to their internship practices and the theory they have learnt in education faculties? Mentors may be the right people to help.

2.3.4 - About the Mentor

Nowadays, in most countries, Initial Teacher Training is composed of two parts: the first part consists of practice-dependant theory courses at universities and the second part consists of theory-dependant practice training in schools. It should be noted that Turkey has some deeper problems regarding the university-school partnership. Some universities apply the rules, regulations, and procedures carefully, while others just apply them superficially and accept them on paper.

Mentorship has a place or is put in place where theory-dependant practice (this expression refers to the ideal relationship) exists; i.e. in schools. Mentors are the people employed to assist the ITT of undergraduates or

PGCE students. They are chosen from amongst the teachers working at a school where trainees will be sent. In some schools in Turkey, because the population of the teaching team is low, all teachers might be assigned to be mentors. Koetsier and Wubbels' suggest that 'the issue of mentoring novice teachers in schools needs urgent attention in view of the trend in several European countries to replace initial teacher education by training on the job' (1995, p.334).

The significance of assigning a teacher as a mentor is likely to increase the socialization of not only the trainee teacher but also the mentor teacher. In addition, during the induction period for trainee teachers, when they start teaching, or even when it is just a practice task in schools as part of their university training, they are confronted with difficult children as well as pupils with lots of different characters. This is when the theory is put into action as classroom practice. These trainees try to implement what they have learnt during their Generic Education Courses in varying classroom situations and they may, at times, have to apply theories that oppose their ideal teaching models. Role models in schools as mentors have an important responsibility at this point, because those trainee teachers may try to imitate what they are observing in the school environment in their colleagues' and mentors' teaching practices.

Edgar and Warren (1969), American social scientists, emphasize the evaluation role of mentors and give the details of this role in six points according to their study:
1- Evaluation in schools by mentors is important as new teachers [and trainee teachers] are improving according to the advice of those mentors
2- If a trainee (or a new teacher) establishes a positive relationship with her mentor, it may improve their socialization and their teaching quality
3- Care needs to be taken regarding clashes between the desire for personal autonomy and the advisory role of the mentor

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4- The balance between personal autonomy and mentorship is very dependent on the quality of ITT and bibliography of a trainee or a teacher (and, in the researcher's opinion, that of the mentor herself)

5- The happiness of a trainee (or a teacher) is directly proportional to the methodology of evaluation according to which their job or practice is examined

6- Trainees and new teachers are asking for help, especially in establishing classroom discipline and their clerical responsibilities while at the same time seeking freedom and flexibility in teaching methods and [application of] the curriculum.

In mentioning possible clashes between mentors and trainees, problems may occur. One of them is the collectivization of a problem while another is privatization of a problem (Lacey, 1977). These two problems can start from the initial contact between two individuals. Collectivization of a problem (such as personal problems between two people), like an illness can do, emphasizes the potential to spread to other trainees or teachers. Privatization of a problem, like a secret (but a negative one that exhausts the person herself), results in not sharing a problem that might have started with other people. Former, the problem should be solved as soon as possible before getting disseminated and latter, the person who privatizes negative feelings and ideas should be helped to reveal them to someone whom s/he trusts and who is able to solve his/her issues.

In Atkinson's research (2004, p.90), one student teacher complains that although she knows what to do from information given during initial teacher training (ITT), it is completely different when it comes to putting the knowledge into practice. She adds that there is a need for demonstration by an expert or by an experienced teacher and also states that each topic should be taught individually. Of course, it is difficult to agree with her final opinion; tutoring for every detail of the teaching process cannot be carried out, however, to some extent she is right that more improved tutoring

could help novices to get used to the education system and enable them to find solutions for the situations they may face.

A research carried out in England (Collison and Edwards, 1994; Edwards and Collison, 1995a) demonstrates that English mentors 'are giving generously of their time to students and offering them safe places for trial and error learning, while simultaneously trying to limit the opportunities for error'. On the other hand, Ekiz's (2006) study implies that the Turkish mentoring system has difficulties in terms of time management. Social scientists designed mentoring models to bring efficiency to the job and to improve the quality of teaching. The apprenticeship model and the competence-based model are two of them. The first recruits mentors as skilled craftsperson and the second perceives mentors as trainers and people who reflect upon teaching and guide trainees regarding that reflection (Brooks and Sikes, 1997). The work by Ekiz (2003) in the Turkish context indicates that:

> On models in teacher education by the participants of 60 student teachers, demonstrated that the nature of initial teacher education was heavily based on the competence-based model, and thus the student teachers complained about the inadequacy of the model, providing theoretical and practical justifications. It might be well assumed that mentoring also relied upon the competence-based model and the mentors might be seen as trainers (Ekiz 2003, p.926).

Ekiz (2006) continues that written answers given by trainee teachers demonstrate that mentors are reluctant to deliver feedback either verbally or in a written form. His study concludes that there is an enormous lack of interaction between mentors and trainee teachers in Turkey. Ekiz (2006), Dursun and Kuzu (2008), and Sag (2008) report that primary school mentors do not know how to supervise trainee teachers at an adequate level where students imitate the practice of their mentors more than others (Can, 2001). Ekiz suggests that mentors should have double sided evaluation abilities: the ability to evaluate themselves and the ability to evaluate trainee teachers. He states that knowing the self could be the first

step to helping others. This coincides with the finding of Turner-Bisset (1997) that at higher levels of reflection of a teacher, knowing the self is an important tool with which to go further (Nias, 1989, McIntyre, 1992). Edwards and Collison (1995a) report a similar concern as Ekiz but from the English context, that mentors evaluate the teacher trainees' practice rarely within their communication. Evaluation in terms of examination is even worse.

Ekiz's study in Turkey is strengthened by Haciomeroglu and Sahin's research (2011) about quality of mentors. Mentees were in the final year (4th year in Turkey) of a primary school teaching undergraduate programme at Canakkale University. Teacher trainees responded that they were completely satisfied with their mentors at Canakkale and the surrounding provinces.

However, Hudson *et al.*'s (2010) research reveals that only 55% of mentees of primary science teaching were satisfied with their mentors in classroom management issues. This is a worrying outcome as observation is an important stage of learning to teach (Carlson and Gooden, 1999).

A surprising finding is reported by Kılınç and Altuk (2010). Coinciding with Applegate and Lasley's study (1982) in the American context, they put forward that 48% of Turkish mentors declared that they do not know the content of the School Experience course which mentees take in their schools. The American research was more comprehensive in terms of topic. It revealed that mentors do not know objectives set by the schools of education for teacher trainees. Returning to mentors' unawareness about content of School Experience course in 2010, it points out lack of proper cooperation between faculties and schools. Saratlı (2007) blames lack of communication between mentors and teacher educators. Gödek (2006) highlights the importance of mentors in schools and in supervising teacher educators as they are primary sources for the development of pedagogical content knowledge. Taltivie *et al.* (2000) stress that mentors are crucial for

the professional development of trainee teachers; they go on to say that the extent of dialogue between teacher educators in faculties and mentors in schools is a deciding factor in the quality of teacher education. Agreeing with Azar's (2003) study Kılınç and Altuk's research (2010) reveals that there are some serious problems related to means of coordination between mentors and teacher educators in Turkey. Kılınç and Altuk suggest the preparation of booklets to guide both teacher educators and mentors (2010).

Kiraz and Yildirim (2007) found that amongst 690 trainee teachers, mentors' competence level was rated as poor or to some extent satisfactory. From the Turkish context, Kiraz and Yildirim (2007) detail mentorship information as mentors are only selected within the schools that accept partnership although it should be dependent upon expertise. They base this on huge numbers of trainee teachers. There are so many candidates that any teacher is accepted as a mentor other than those in their probation year. Many educationists tend to choose mentors from amongst long-term working teachers as they have dealt with lots of situations and are therefore better able to help the mentees (Baird, 2002; Hershey *et al*, 2001; King and Peterson, 1997; Lemlech, 1995). However, Kiraz and Yildirim's research indicates that even mentors perceived as inexperienced can be good at mentorship. They reveal that 'less experienced supervising teachers demonstrated a higher competency in supervision compared to their more experienced colleagues' (Kiraz and Yildirim, 2007, p. 254). They go on to claim that there is an indirect link between competence of mentors and the length of time they have spent in teaching. They explain this problematic situation as being because the younger a mentor is, the better interaction and communication with teacher trainees they have. It is a matter of generation as the probability of having a similar theoretical background makes it easier for them to understand each other. Similar personal circumstances may make them to talk to each other more frequently than to others. Familiarity with the ongoing system and the current content of teacher education, changes in

teacher education quality, being energetic because of their youth might be other reasons. Kiraz and Yildirim (2007) remind us that they are not rejecting the suitability of more experienced teachers as mentors and they insist it should not be the most critical point when deciding on mentors.

Disappointingly, there is a shortage of quality mentors to deliver useful and necessary feedback to teacher trainees (Browne, 1992). Kiraz and Yildirim state that mentors should have enthusiasm in order to provide support for mentees (2007). Saracaloglu *et al* (2011) investigated whether mentors' contribution to the evaluation of teacher trainees' school and teaching experiences varied. The percentages of answers undecided, satisfied and unsatisfied were equal. This study might be interpreted as primary school teacher candidates being faced with a variety of different degrees in terms of quality of mentorship tallying with Ozmen's research (2008) while Demircan's (2007) study disclosed a 'negative' view about the mentors.

Saracaloglu *et al* (2011) draw attention to the mentors' responsibility to many teacher trainees; however the research outcome shows that primary school teacher candidates are not concerned with this. They think it does not affect whether mentors care for their teaching practice.

Shantz's (1995) study monitors a respect problem within the partnership of schools and education faculties. Trainee teachers report that mentors have an attitude of downgrading the quality in schools of education because they think it is too theoretical. Mentors do not take education at those faculties seriously. They claim that trainee teachers are living in a dream world. Trainee teachers report that according to mentors, they should confront the realities of teaching life and after that be re-programmed to be competent enough. Trainee teachers agree that mentors should be given clear instructions, tasks, and responsibilities (Shantz, 1995).

Mentorship speeds up the process and makes learning to teach easier. Lower quality or lack of mentorship brings problems that cause trainee teachers not to be able to practise what they have learnt in GEC. By lack of mentorship, the researcher does not mean that there are no mentors. There are, but they do not do what they have to do properly and, sadly, in Turkey there are no measures to put pressure on them to help teacher trainees. English mentors seem to be more disciplined and volunteer to be mentors.

Thus, mentorship in schools, with the cooperation of universities, is very helpful in fulfilling the capacity of trainee teachers as well as new teachers. The only major issue within this context is organization and the quality of the cooperation between universities and schools. If the roles of mentors are clearly defined and ways in which the university will support their work is designed properly, the theory-practice relationship can be developed in a positive way. For example, an ideal structure of cooperation would be one in which students are well educated in schools of education regarding theory that has got strong ties with practice; then when they go into schools for practice they will have the chance to be assisted and guided by mentors who are aware of modern theories and also apply the existing ones. Mentors should not only be a guide to trainees for better teaching practice but also a better role model in terms of character.

2.3.5 - Some Problems of the Practice-Based Approach

A practice-based approach has some implementation difficulties as well as the advantages of the enhancement of teacher trainees. For instance; Dawe Heywood, (in Partington, 1999) informs us about the lack of legal obligation for schools to offer themselves to universities for trainee teachers to practice. Universities are under pressure to find schools as practising environments. He mentions OFSTED inspections as an additional load on universities (both emotionally and financially) and he is also concerned about the amount paid to schools per trainee teacher,

believing the total amount paid to be high (Partington, 1999, pp.107-108). Heywood could be criticized here for only looking at the situation from one side. If schools are offering their facilities, and most importantly teachers at those schools are offering their time, which causes them to have to concentrate on one more thing, this may result, for example, in a decline in the quality of students' education.

Finally, a crucial point is that if a student (or teacher) finds a solution for a situation with which she is faced, there is the danger of other students or teachers replicating the solution in every similar case they face. At first glance this does not appear to be a problem but when the replication of that method increases in numbers that may prevent new solutions being sought and/or barriers being placed in front of flexibility and innovation.

In this section, the meaning of 'practice' has been addressed, how the theory/practice relationship takes place when looked at from the practice side and the ideas of people who value practice more than theory. Some pitfalls of supporting only practice have been shown. Some information on school-based teacher training in England has been given. It is important to understand the ideas that value practice more than theory in order to be able to understand how the theory-practice relationship is conceived and this section has attempted to view practice-based thoughts. We will now look at how theory-based teacher training has been studied in some of the academic writings.

2.4 - Theory-Based Approach

This section stresses deeper analysis of theory and the defence against its neglect. It includes a consideration of ideas that value theory more than practice. It looks at the relationship from a theory valuing perspective. It is important to understand this approach because it traditionally has strong ties with teacher development and the professionalism of teaching. Firstly,

definitions will be given and then an examination of a philosophical defence of theory will be undertaken.

2.4.1 - Definitions and a Philosophical Defence of Theory

'We had the experience, but missed the meaning' (T.S. Eliot, 'The Dry Salvages' 1963).

Theory is described in *Collins Cobuild Dictionary* (2006) as knowledge which explains things, together with methods of carrying out tasks in a proper manner. As mentioned previously in the discussion about the practice-based approach, we do not know how the relationship between theory and practice started.

For example, did the practice of teaching originate without a theory, or was the theory developed as teaching was practised? When the first act of teaching took place, was there any plan or design in the mind of the teacher as to how that teaching would take shape? It is possible to take this question back to the very origins of mankind and question whether the first act of teaching was shaped consciously or unconsciously. In other words, was it a spontaneous occurrence or did it emerge from a pre-existing base of knowledge or thought?

Elliott (1993, p.18) asserts that 'one does not first understand and then act. Understanding is developed through actions in the situation, and those actions are themselves improved as understanding develops'. The point he misses according to some writers is that to understand something, prior knowledge and/or description is a prerequisite. It can be argued that knowledge existed prior to practice with a kind of ready-made mind-map, (Nursi, 1930; Pinker, 2002; McCarthy, 2008; Lagercrantz, 2009; Gopnik, 2009), which Nursi (1930) defines as an evaluation scale. There may be another analogy in a field that is filled with points that need to be connected.   These points represent knowledge or information. The

alternative would be to posit a mind that is totally empty and devoid of knowledge. This appears to be counter-intuitive, for a person with a totally blank slate (Locke, 1940) as a mind would not know how to make connections between the various bits of information gained from experiences: practices would, in that case, be unconscious, because the concept of consciousness cannot be applied to a totally empty mind.

However theory, which is more than just pure information, implies logically-organized information in the mind. An opposite view to this would be the example of a newborn baby, who navigates his way through his first days and months without any conscious practice. A baby who hits his head on a table is able to remember not to hit himself again, and this is possible only with the existence of some kind of mind-mapping mechanism which allows him to remember the connection between the table and being hurt. This mind-mapping ability can also be described as theorizing.

It is possible to liken the first human to a newborn baby, although we must bear in mind that they have differences as well as commonalities; the newborn baby analogy is only an analogy and is thus not perfect. In the case of the newborn baby, his theorizing structure is developed while in his mother's womb; it is an accepted scientific fact that babies are able to start learning even before birth (Dirix *et al*, 2009; James, 2010). Extrapolating from this, one may argue that the very first human mind must have had a theorizing structure, without which it would have been impossible for him or her to think. The example of the baby shows that the first human mind could not have been a *tabula rasa.*

However, the question remains as to how that very first human mind was actually mind-mapped. It could be argued that there had to be at least a small amount of knowledge and information (Innate Knowledge - some amount of knowledge but not a blank slate or not a whole knowledge of the universe waiting to be revealed in time, as Socrates claims) to facilitate mind-mapping, for without knowing how to make logical connections

between bits of information and practices, experiences cannot have logical consequences. It can also be argued that remembering can be the source of the logical connections of practice, but even remembering cannot take place for the baby without a theory or a mind map, since remembering is strictly interrelated with connections made in the mind, which implies theorising.

There are two possibilities. The first is that there was at least a little logically-connected knowledge and information which informed theorising before practice. The second is that there were small traces of mind mapping in existence and that the first practices converted those traces into reality.

These reflections are made in order to facilitate a better understanding of the relationship between theory and practice. If we take a narrower perspective and look at education in general, and then at education for Initial Teacher Education and in ITE for Generic Education Courses in particular, it may be concluded that whichever understanding is chosen from the above, practice needs theory in order to be more organized and to be more interconnected. Hence, every new practice needs a pre-theory whether that pre-theory explains the new practice or not. A theory that already exists may not explain the practice properly but it sets a basis from which to define and interpret it.

Keeping that philosophical defence in mind, Sartre explains that any theory depending on philosophy may be categorized as impracticable at first glance; however, even one which is seen at first to be impractical is in fact practicable (1972). Theory also helps practice to be established on more logical bases and on a designed pre-plan. Smith (1992, p.389) clarifies the position of theory and practice considering both: 'All practice is practice as seen in the light of a perspective or theory'. Partington (1999, p.133) extends the views of the researcher: 'There are good grounds for supposing that a wider knowledge of educational thought might more often

be more appropriate than immersion in narrowly focused empirical research' (Partington, 1999, p.133). Having discussed theory as a prerequisite of practice, we will now look at how people value theory more than practice.

2.4.2 - Theory-Valuing Perceptions

'Education has a history' (Smith, 1992, p.395). We have past experiences of education; education has not sprung up from nothing. However, looking at the conscious historical development of teacher education, bearing in mind the relationship between theory and practice, studies on education, as a separate part of social science, go back only as far as the 20th century. Before that teaching knowledge was assumed to be the accumulation of lived experiences.

The 20th century was the age when psychology and pedagogy were formulated and accepted as separate branches of knowledge. Education became a part of academic studies and academics wanted to share knowledge with working teachers to influence them and to give education a firm academic basis. This development can be said to have started the professionalization of teachers and to have been the first steps towards the modern day relationship between theory and practice (Korthagen *et al*, 2001). Having accepted teaching as a profession, Smith (1992) asks teacher training to embrace reflective reading and the close study of quality books, which he says will result in the development of the teaching profession focusing on as yet undiscovered knowledge. He criticises the check list approach to training and the teaching of memorized information. Studying quality books and having a reflective approach to both theory and practice may help to discover new theories and/or better ways to put theory into practice. When quality books on Generic Education Courses are studied, careful reading and a reflective approach may result in finding new things in between the lines, whether they are meant or not. Further to Smith's claims and advice, a criticism comes from the Netherlands that,

having designed different types of teacher training plans, England has caused trainee teachers to be educated in a way which leaves them theoretically weak. They accuse the English teacher education structure as just teaching the tricks of the trade which is a kind of channelizing of trainees with some kind of instructions about teaching (Korthagen *et al*, 2001).

Given the place of theory both in philosophy and in the world of education, Partington (1999) asks why Generic Education Courses are not backed. He adds that when universities continue to give lectures on Generic Education Courses, the knowledge coming from theories derived from philosophical and academic thinking can be protected, improved and transferred to future better courses, compared to an absolute (pure) School Centred-Teacher Training. Partington continues to worry that the fifteen years up to 1999 passed with an enormous decline of hours in terms of the amount of Generic Education Courses. He disagrees with David Raid who claims that theory should only be for the past and the current time not for future practice. Partington argues that:

> Reductions in time devoted to theory entail that many students now have a poor understanding of historical and sociological influences on schooling, and thus find it difficult to grasp the rationale of current policies. He believed that many school mentors would prefer beginning teachers to have a firmer grasp of educational theory (Partington, 1999, pp.110-111).

The type and amount of theory can be disputed keeping in mind all the features of education. Smith (1992) goes on to say that this should be an 'academic theory' depending on educational context. The methods for establishing an academic theory in the minds of trainee teachers are given as: 'analytical, even expert, treatment, structured discussion, the reading of books and the location of them within the literature, writing essays in order to clarify one's ideas, and so on' (Smith, 1992, p.394).

It can be understood that 'our perspectives or theories can be influenced by perspectives from elsewhere - from other people, from television, from

books. There is no natural cut-off point where having a healthy perspective turns into being overly influenced by avowedly theoretical literature, the effluvia of the professionals or what it has become fashionable to call the 'producer culture'' (Smith, 1992, p.390). Imparting theory to trainee teachers is seen to help us to relate to theory and to standardize the education system and its fruits. It helps students to see what kind of things theory includes. It is a starting point and (where necessary) a deeper introduction to practice.

Smith (1992) describes the relation of theory to practice and *vice versa* as that of 'blood relatives'. He suggests a self evaluation even while in the classroom and when the teacher or trainee goes home. This evaluation should aim to be objective and reflective. He calls this behaviour 'reflective theory'. After this period, if she opens her practice and ideas (theory) to other people and sources (such as books) to be pondered, the teacher may reach a valuable point where dealing with very core educational debates takes place. At this stage it is not important whether it is related to classroom practice as she reaches 'academic theory'. This level appears to be unimaginable; however it is the level where a person needs the guidance of a school of education at a university because they are already familiar with the level of knowledge at which she has arrived. Universities are the home of academic customs and methods which help people at that stage of thinking. This is the importance of relating teacher training to higher education institutions as it enhances learning at any level (1992).

Taşdelen (2003) joins the debate putting thinking between the theory and the practice. Theory is a source of general instructions and thinking is like sewing, stitching them together; and a carrier of ideas and experiences between them… He adds that thinking helps people to establish small examples of theory related to life. According to Tasdelen (2003), compared to theory, practice has got a faster life of development and application regarding its changes. It contains the right things that we have done as well as the wrong practices. Nevertheless an educationist or a

teacher needs to know what he is doing. That consciousness brings meaning to his practice. He adds that to protect education from becoming chaotic, practice needs theory. Taşdelen (2003) asks: Can a good theory be a bad practice or can a good practice be a bad theory? He answers that it is the people, not the practice, who cannot achieve a positive result. According to Ozmon and Craver (1986), educational theory helps to design new practices; they argue that practice also causes new theories to be produced. On the one hand Ozmon and Craver (1986) criticize the educationists who favour practice because it is easier than dealing with theory and, on the other hand, those who ignore practice and only focus on theory, which turns academics into theory-loaded voyagers in the world of philosophy. Can (1987) talks about the importance of Generic Education Courses, while Kucukahmet (2000) gives a ratio of at least 20 percent to the Generic Education Courses in Initial Teacher Education, without putting forward any evidence of data or logical or philosophical explanation. She goes on to suggest that a ratio of one fourth would be better. She neglects the fact that subject knowledge also has to be developed in primary teacher education. If one's share increases – within the fixed number of hours – the others' share automatically decreases.

We should add that a practice that is reflected upon may feed theory, and a theory that takes account of the classroom environment may feed practice; they enrich each other. Similar ideas were previously put forward by Lacey (1977) who stressed heartiness that theory and practice should be dynamic and should merge with each other. To make an analogy, like the unnecessary or outdated codes in the operating system of a computer, because technological improvement makes some codes inactive for the day or better versions of those codes are designed, in a sense it is the same for theory. With newer discoveries of new theories, some updates may replace the older ones. Smith warns teachers to be active thinkers and researchers. 'For it is where there is insufficient critical, analytical thinking that the dreary orthodoxies take root and the ghosts of dead theories roam unchecked' (Smith, 1992, p.391) While theory faces this

problem teachers are at risk of remaining insufficient in knowledge of idea of education and unskilled in reflection, with their resistance to change and innovation. Continuing in this way may leave teachers behind the times as 'second-class citizens in the world of ideas' (Smith, 1992, p.391). If his suggestion can be applied, this new understanding may make the quality of mentoring teachers only half that of teacher educators in universities. He also highlights some of the benefits of academic theory:

> Above all, what academic theory can do for student teachers is to excite them: to reveal, in Fay Weldon's terms, that the world of education is not a simple 'given' but one on which there is a rich and fascinating diversity of perspectives, and absorbing ways of understanding them and formulating a philosophy of one's own (Smith, 1992, p.396).

Smith (1992) points out that waiting for short-range benefits from the teaching of educational theory may sometimes mislead us. This does not mean that there will not be speedy outcomes; there may be. However he asks why education is not given the chances that other sciences are given, as scientific research operates for its own sake and he also asks why there is discrimination amongst the sciences in that when educationists study theory for its own sake they are criticized as being removed from real life and practice. Disputing the theories may bring to the surface unexpected results; therefore educationists should be encouraged to debate. Smith (1992) says pondering the meaning of education is a crucial key for the professionalization of teaching, deeper understanding and for new ideas and their practices. He continues that this kind of reflection may also result in the formulation of educational theories and their practices. Schon (1983) presented a theory-practice relationship model which has influenced teacher training structure for many years. He applied the Technical Rationality Model to his teacher training model which has three elements. Firstly, it needs to be accepted that theories are an aid for teachers to carry out their job at the expected level. Secondly, he sets the condition that theories should be prepared with regard to the data of a research. Finally, he states that the theories to be taught at universities should be carefully chosen from the range of different theories.

Considering that some of the political think-tank organizations, such as the Hillgate Group in England, are not satisfied with the professional quality of a high percentage of teachers shadowing teacher educators at schools of education, it seems strange that they think teachers any better will be at training and evaluating trainee teachers (Partington, 1999). Smith (1992) argues that in contrast to other governing bodies; he questioned the source of such ideas if it is not the empiricism to which policy makers prefer to refer. According to Smith, theory can be perceived as a necessity to be able to talk about practice. In other words, one way of looking at theory could be called 'the written practice'.

Former Conservative governments in England preferred largely to reduce the number of hours dedicated to the theoretical side of education by shifting the emphasis school-based work. But, by also emphasising research, interestingly, that made many teacher educators turn to theory (Partington, 1999) as the research probably made them more aware of the significance and benefits of teaching theories in higher education.

When good teachers are asked about their practice they cannot always explain exactly what they have done (Drever and Cope, 1999). The reason for this may be lack of good quality theory or maybe they discover how to be a good teacher during their practice, but surely this cannot take place without a good basis in theory. Another reason could be that teachers do not know how to connect the practical experience they have gained to the theory that they were taught, in their minds, which is why, when they are asked, those teachers have difficulty in explaining. Nor is it likely that an apprenticeship model will help develop such skills.

Kılınç and Altuk's (2010) study shows that Turkish primary school teacher trainees are satisfied with their ability to put theory into practice. The result of their research is completely the opposite of that of Boz and Boz (2006) who found that trainee teachers were unhappy about not being able to

practise their theoretical knowledge. They were worried that their lack of quality teaching practice might have affected their professional development. Boz and Boz (2006) explain this negative outcome as being due to mentors preferring traditional methods in terms of GEC while trainee teachers are taught modern approaches. So why are there differences in the Turkish context? Kılınç and Altuk (2010) defend their study saying that the teacher trainees who took part in their research probably had better mentors and examples and/or mentors and developed themselves regarding the contemporary approaches. Kiraz's previous research in 2003 agrees with Kilinc and Altuk (2010) that the teacher trainees are equipped with a satisfying level and quality of theory.

The notion of Pedagogical Content knowledge was advanced by Shulman (1986, 1987). He states that pedagogy and subject courses are so closely interwoven that they cannot be separated. So, PCK is a combination of pedagogic knowledge and subject knowledge. Whereas Silberstein and Tamir (1991) argue that there is one more item in the amalgam: content-specific pedagogical knowledge.

Gess-Newsome (1999) categorizes teacher knowledge into two. While the Integrative model defines teacher knowledge as an intersection area of pedagogical knowledge and subject knowledge, Transformative knowledge is described by Nilsson (2008) as a blend of pedagogical knowledge and subject knowledge. Nilsson adds that it does not matter even if they are developed separately; they are converted into a new structure of stronger ties.

Although Kilinc and Altuk's (2010) research monitors whether Turkish participants believe that they can put theory into practice successfully, their research does not question the relationship between theory and practice directly. That research tells us individual perceptions about their own, personal beliefs. It could be asserted that if many teachers and/or teacher trainees declare that they are good at putting theory into practice,

this might mean that the relationship is qualified. However, the result is not guaranteed. The question raises another one: what evaluation criteria were used to evaluate their success at the relationship? Though Boz and Boz's (2006) study found completely opposite results, Kilinc and Altuk's results are more reliable because their study was made after crucial changes in teacher education made in 2007. Those changes increased the number of hours given to theory a little and the choice of approach changed to constructivism.

The difference between the research carried out by Boz and Boz (2006) and Kilinc and Altuk (2010) and this research is that in the current research the participants were asked their views as if in a decision counsel. The author of this thesis collected the data in this manner; taking the views in order to make a decision.

This part has looked at theory and, in particular, educational theory which focuses on its relation to practice where necessary. It began with an attempt to establish a basis against the idea of neglecting the importance of theory or its value compared to practice. Some of the hot debates around theory were reviewed. Some pitfalls of theory were reflected upon and then some criticisms which came particularly from right side of politics in England were examined. Regarding the thoughts of Drever and Cope in the previous paragraph, the following sub-section will look at the transfer problem of theory to practice.

2.4.3 - The Problem of Transfer

The problematic nature of theory and practice has two sides: The first is a lack in the quality of transition of theory to practice; the other is the lack of good quality, applicable theory for practice.

Smith (1992) claims that it is not appropriate to use the phrase 'move from theory to practice' regarding the transition issue. Here the word 'transition'

is used only to describe the process, whereas the researcher of this study agrees with Smith that they are inseparable parts of education. There have always been some difficulties in putting theory into practice. According to Smith (1992), teacher educators observed that students in education faculties have problems with theoretical disciplines when it comes to their practice. On the one hand this demonstrates that students understood the theoretical concept of education because the teacher educators did not mention any problem in learning the theory; on the other hand their emphasis on the transition problem indicates that there may be a gap between the theory the and practice.

A transfer problem within the educational context can be defined as putting the knowledge into practice. It can be also called the bridge or the link between theory and practice. Carr (1993) draws our attention to the issue that, notwithstanding the fact that many people might have an area of specialism, they may not be as successful in the transfer of their knowledge or expertise in that subject or discipline.

Also, Baker *et al* state that there is a transfer problem in professional preparation programs. According to their research, transfer of theory to practice results in at most 40 percent transfer (1997, p.5). Korthagen and Kessels' research displays similar results. They explain that the transfer problem may occur because quick, satisfactory solutions are not found when they are needed (1999). Disagreeing with Smith; Carr, Baker *et al*, and Korthagen and Kessel, Ellis (2007) and Edwards (2009) assert that knowledge and learning cannot be transferred. It is surprising to hear this from these educationists, because teaching is already – to some extent – a transfer of what has been learnt. It is clear that the act of learning cannot be transferred but what is learnt can be. A criticism from another perspective comes from Corporaal who asserts that integration of various kinds of teaching models fail which is why the transfer of theory to practice does not satisfy us (Corporaal, 1988).

Another defender of the existence of the transfer problem is Skemp (1979) who connects the transfer problem to lack of motivation. He says that students in education faculties are not motivated at a high enough level. It should be noted here that learning occurs when the learner has a personal goal which he/she expects to reach at the end of his/her learning period (Skemp, 1979).

Aside from the complexity, one reason for the gap may be methodological mistakes in teacher training. Methods that are not realistic cause a poor efficiency rate of theory during application (Morrison and McIntyre, 1973, p.68). The use of the wrong methodology during initial teacher training may cause difficulties in linking the theory with practice; therefore the transfer problem may be triggered by the people who apply it rather than theory itself. This leads us to look at the idea of 'blaming the theory' more closely.

2.4.4 - Negativity towards the Theory

The reason why many people, especially teachers, have negative perceptions about the theory-practice relationship in teacher training is elucidated by Korthagen as follows:

> The only way out of the feeling of always falling short is to adapt to the common habit of teachers to consider teacher education too theoretical and useless. Then they can no longer be blamed for not functioning according to the theoretical insights; but teacher education can be blamed (Korthagen, 2001, p.5).

What can be the reason for such negative views of theory? Smith reminds us that 'students do not arrive for their courses innocent of theory. They already entertain implicit and sometimes explicit theories, of how children learn, of what the curriculum should contain, of what teacher-pupil relationships should be like' (1992, p.395). It could be that our past experiences, observations and perceptions might be triggered when faced with real school life, or it may be an easier option to blame something

other than oneself. Kessels and Korthagen (2001, p.23) point out the confusion of the educationists: 'The sources of the knowledge for educational theories are educational research outcomes and the comments, ideas and information coming from social sciences'. Korthagen *et al* ask according to what criteria knowledge and its relevancy will be assessed. They put this problem ahead of others regarding teacher educators. They go on to ask whether we should accept Wubbels and Levy's (1993) interpersonal behaviour model theory or the system theory of Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson (1967) or the motivation theory of Maslow (1968) derived from the social psychology context. Taking into account the impossibility of preparing teachers for every single condition and situation they may face during all their professional working years (Harrington, Quin-Leering, and Hodson, 1996), it could be said that Generic Education Courses do not deserve such enormous amount of criticism. Perhaps if trainee teachers were dealt with in a way that teachers are taught to deal with students (Putnam and Borko, 1997, p.1226), they might be able to internalize the theory better and put this internalized theory into practice. Regarding the relationship between theory and practice, maybe valuing both theory and practice together would solve the transition problems. We will go on to study this in the coming section.

2.5 - Integrated Approaches

It is not easy to understand why we have to choose one approach (usually practice rather than theory) and not both of them. Good teacher training could be described as matching the theory to the practice. When it comes to practice, it is hoped that the theory will be applicable and at the same time able to meet the expectations of the day. Elliott (1993) argues that a higher quality of practice can be reached from the application of theory with a higher awareness of what is being done. He informs us that this kind of understanding can be elicited from the Platonic or Rationalist point of view. Carr (1992) says he is against the idea of extreme homogenization of theory and practice. However, he also objects to those

who support integration and defends the value of theory by distinguishing between the 'education' of trainee teachers and the 'training' of those trainees:

> Attempts to integrate theory with practice or to dispense with it altogether in favour of practice both miss the point that the heart of so-called theoretical educational discourse is moral and evaluative in character and its proper concern is with the education rather than the practical training of teachers (Carr, 1992, p.241).

People like Kenneth Clarke, a past Minister of educatiın in the UK, (in Partington, 1999, p.103) and Dennis O'Keefe (1990, p.27) insist on ignoring the value of theory, both emphasizing that theory cannot be a replacement for practice, Clarke (1992) encouraged more practice. He suggested spending more time in schools and less time in teacher training institutions. Partington (1999) disagrees, saying that theory is not a replacement for practice and he criticizes their view that the opposite is also true; practice cannot replace a proper theory. It does not change for the professions that need one–to-one training. Education is one such area. Korthagen *et al* (2001) support Partington stressing that removing theory from teacher training is not a solution to the problems. Theory is not the only factor responsible for the problems in the quality of teacher education and attributing all the failure to one thing is a mistake. However, they remind us that acting consecutively which means setting up the theory as a first step and then attempting to link the gap between theory and practice is wrong too. Rather than producing a gap and then fixing it why not prevent such a gap in the first place? According to Elliott (1993) theory can be accepted as a utilitarian instrument of analysis. If theory takes a reductionist and simplifying approach against the complex problems of empirical areas and situations in the school environment, it may result in losing the solutions for those situations or the methodology to understand problems.

Schon (1983) shows us how to increase the harmony between theory and practice and the benefits of that increase in harmony:

> If a teacher said 'I can show you what I do, but I can't explain how I do it'. The match was not always perfect, but when it was made, students saw theory and practice as validating each other, and this reassured them that their experience was not uncommon (Schon, 1983, in Drever and Cope, 1999:105).

Support for this comes from the Dutch context for improving the quality of curriculum in education faculties. Brouwer (1989) emphasises that good integration of theory and practice within the curriculum of these faculties is crucial. It has to be asked whether it is possible to combine theory and practice ideally or perfectly. One proposes it is possible that 'the 'best' 'teachers came from Hollywood, referring, for example, to Michelle Pfeiffer (Dangerous Minds), Sidney Poitier (To Sir with Love, Blackboard Jungle) and Robin Williams (Dead Poets' Society)' (Hanley, 2007, p.261). It is clear that there cannot be a perfect form or a perfect world, however it is like limit in Maths; excellence can never be reached but in every step you get closer. These steps can only be taken with the guidance of knowledge (the theory) and with the movement of your muscles (the practice).

Considering practice separately and theory apart from practice, it can be comprehended that they are not complete while separate from each other. A comprehensive approach, holding both together, is the only way to deeply understand this (Korthagen *et al*, 2001). Skemps's (1979) model proposes an interrelated relationship between acting (practice) and learning (to an extent, this may be accepted as theory). While theory meliorates practice, practice spots mistakes in theory and shows the way for better learning. According to Skemp, the theory-practice relationship is like a double helix; the two come one after the other bending towards each other. Smith (1992, p.389) underpins the interrelatedness: 'To the question, traditionally put, of how you move from theory to practice, it enables us to answer that the question is ill-formed, because the two are inextricably bound up with each other'. He states that setting up a theory is the process of reflecting on practice. However, Smith differs from Korthagen *et al* in that he believes that sometimes theorizing is better to

be reflected upon separately. He clarifies that: 'The function of theory is precisely not, in ITT, to present student with bodies of knowledge and then require them to apply the knowledge in the classroom' (1992, p.389).

In order to achieve a combined approach or in other words a harmony of theory and practice, Korthagen proposes '… to take teachers seriously, work with them on the basis of their concerns, and even to train them in the use of certain skills, but only on the basis of their wish to develop these skills. This means neither to train them like seals nor leaving them alone' (2001, p.7). Blumer (1966) supports Korthagen *et al*'s idea from another aspect, stating that if a teacher becomes successful in establishing self communication, he can detect the details in life and education and he can behave in consideration of those details. To do this, he should be aware of what is inside and outside of him. His teaching may depend on that organized and interpreted lifestyle.

Another integrated approach derived from the transcendental point of view can be applied to learning and education. Broadly, learning, and particularly the relationship of theory and practice in teacher education, can be studied in three consecutive steps: *Ilmel Yakin* (Theoretical Understanding), *Aynel Yakin* (Observational Understanding) and *Hakkal Yakin* (Practice-Based Understanding) (Nursi's, 1930, explanations in brackets by the researcher). *Ilmel Yakin* refers to theoretical knowledge about GEC (Generic Education Courses) while *Aynel Yakin* refers to learning by seeing. For example, mentorship speeds up the process and makes learning to teach easier and taking teacher educators as role models can be given. *Hakkal Yakin* is more about completing the learning period by practising. For a complete learning of something, which here applies to GEC in teacher education, each step should be taken in order; taking the third step without taking the first two steps may still aid learning but that kind of learning might be built on a weak basis. If a parallel is made, it would be like starting to build an apartment from the third floor. In terms of the GEC and their implementations, a good theoretical basis,

whether it is directly related to practice or not, is required in order to achieve a better understanding. Secondly, observation of role models (teacher educators) in schools of education and mentors in schools takes place. Finally, building upon the theory and observation practice has a crucial place in teacher education.

There are some styles of teacher training that undermine the integrated approaches; in this section, how to attain a successful harmony between theory and practice has been shown to some extent. The next two sub-sections could be seen as branches of the integrated approach and they strengthen this point of view.

2.5.1 - Realistic Teacher Education

In this part, the Realistic Teacher Education theory developed by Korthagen and his team is discussed. We look at what realistic means in terms of Realistic Teacher Education.

Realistic means matching everyday requirements and applicability. Korthagen *et al* (2001) criticize some part of the theory in Generic Education Courses as being too short, too academic and having little to say to the man on the street. 'Realistic teacher education starts from student teachers' experiences and their gestalts rather than from the objective theories on learning and teaching from the literature… This does not mean that theory does not play an important role in the realistic approach to teacher education' (Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001, p.45). Celikoz and Cetin (2004) add that, teacher candidates' past learning experiences set a basis for their personal teaching career approaches.

So, Korthagen says that perceptions of the theory-practice relationship may depend a great deal on the individual. Do we need to look for a personal solution approach? Or do we need to teach teachers how to look for themselves? Korthagen *et al* and some other social scientists say we

do as they have to develop an insight: They claim that educationists have the responsibility of making trainee teachers cognizant of different aspects of practice. Rather than showing students a handful of contextual theories or a set of instructions, educationists should awaken the students to their own perception and renew them. Another responsibility is to expose students' perceptions (Loska, 1995; Nelson, 1973; Polanyi, 1967, 1978; Schon, 1987). Theory is not itself the target; it is a tool for teacher education (Korthagen, 2001).

Korthagen *et al* state that the learning process should be under the control of trainee teachers themselves. They should be persuaded to join in with learning activities voluntarily. Giving them the responsibility and control may result in them feeling safe while their professional development takes place, even after graduation. 'This points toward another basic teacher education skill: the capacity for *scaffolding*. Scaffolding means offering just the degree of support and challenge to students that is necessary, while at the same time helping the student teachers to develop the skill to find the right balance between safety and challenge when choosing opportunities themselves' (Korthagen and Wubbels, 2001, p.46). Elliot's point of view about learning is similar to the Realistic Teacher Education of Korthagen *et al* as 'the active production rather than the passive reproduction of meaning' (Korthagen *et al,* 1991, p.10). The research undertaken in Holland at Utrecht University had strong features of action research (Korthagen *et al.*, 2001).

What is advised in this book (the Realistic Teacher Education) can mainly be explained as giving emphasis to the reflective trainee teachers producing new theories instead of only social scientists doing so. This is how the theory-practice relationship may be set up in a better way (2001). Korthagen and Wubbels make the following criticism 'The technical-rationality model (Schon, 1983) has serious weaknesses and creates a gap between theory and practice. An alternative approach to teacher education starts from practical experiences and student teachers'

perceptions of these experiences' (2001, p.32) and this is the point where realistic teacher education starts. Therefore, this approach focuses on personal practical experiences, instead of theory coming from outside and related to practice later in a different environment. Tickle (1993) proposes that every single teacher and/or trainee should reflect on her 'self'. Salmon (1988, p.22) takes the point further in that what he understands from 'education is the systematic interface between personal construct systems'. This is because he puts the personal construction of comprehending at the centre of teacher training (Salmon, 1988). Bearing in mind that realistic teacher education has its roots in action research, Elliott (1991b, p.122) claims it means 'changing the self rather than actions'. The researcher has concerns about this idea. Regarding the realistic teacher education approach, the theory-practice relationship can be improved whether only the action is changed or both the self and action are changed at the same time. The researcher believes that changing only the self without the action is extremely difficult. Considering education itself, actually the main target could be to change the actions of trainee teachers. It is important to remember that any change that takes place to the self may be very small and partial.

Hence, realistic teacher education is the process of exposing the tacit perceptions of trainee students. The next section will look at how another theory of education attempts to bridge the gap between theory and practice.

2.5.2 - The Reflective Practitioner

Around 1975, the professional field showed a shift toward a perception of teachers as 'reflective professionals who construct meaning' (Clark, 1986; Schon, 1983). This development was accompanied professionals who construct meaning' (Clark, 1986; Schon, 1983). This development was accompanied by a shift in research methods, leading to the conviction that teachers' mental structures play an important role in the

teacher's functioning (see, e.g. Shavelson, Webb and Burstein, 1986, p.79) (Korthagen, 2001, p.51).

In the 1980s reflection, and for teachers being reflective practitioners, came to the fore in the world of education. This situation came about because of the efforts to persuade the whole academic world that teaching is a profession and teachers are professionals (Korthagen *et al.*, 2001). One of the earliest of theoreticians defending a reflective approach was Schon who referred to two types of reflection: 'reflection in' meaning reflection synchronized with practice and 'reflection on' meaning reflection after the practice about the practice (1983).

It is first necessary to define the meaning of reflective practice. Reflective practice is the activity of pondering about what is being done or what was done before. The term is mostly used in the context of talking about a job. When it comes to teaching practice, reflective practice finds its definition in reflecting upon the classroom performance and situations faced during teaching. Reflection, in other words deeper thinking, may be about an educational theory or an event experienced in the classroom. A teacher directs her reflection to those things, and then she is called a reflective practitioner. Moreover, thinking over a person's own job and performance should be a natural process for a progressive approach. By a natural process I mean that a professional should require of him or herself from the very beginning that he or she has to improve practice. The second phase starts with the question 'how'. The answer is easy: being a reflective practitioner requires reflecting upon your job as a whole. Questioning may be philosophical, practical or theoretical. Teachers should not be robots. They should be active thinkers or reflection seekers of best practice and theory. While Korthagen declares that reflection should be *productivity biased thinking (*italics and phrases belong to the researcher*)* upon something, Smith (1992) defines the reflective practitioner more sophisticatedly:

> This model emphasizes that successful (or 'effective') teaching requires a sophisticated level of interpretation, analysis and

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explanation of practice rather than the application to practice of theory essentially developed elsewhere. Here the teacher, beginner or otherwise, is seen as one who theorizes, that is, actively and self-critically reflects, rather than one to whom theory, essentially generated elsewhere and by others, is offered (Smith, 1992, p.388).

Hargreaves (1994) expresses the concern that in the past, teachers at least in England, did not reflect upon their knowledge. They did not revise their classroom performances. He offers a new type of professionalism that includes professional pluming and self-assurance. Smith (1992) claims that the situation is not much different to the past; otherwise teachers would have developed enormously as they would be expected to put theory into practice far better. It can be put forward that although teachers have improved compared to the past, they have also lost their abilities to be reflective. A reflective practitioner teacher may not be so reflective and efficient as time goes by. There is a concern, both in the research and from teachers that being reflective practitioners affects their classroom performance negatively in the short term. Partington (1999) is worried about not teachers but teacher educators. Research of education should not leave distract teacher educators from their teaching duties, tasks and being role models. Korthagen *et al* (2001) reminds teacher educators of their responsibilities. They include probing trainee teachers' perceptions and renewing those perceptions, coordinating and properly designing chances so that trainee teachers may ponder upon their practices. These all should be guided by teacher educators through, one-to-one supervision and seminars.

Smith explains the importance of being reflective practitioners: 'Unless teachers are indeed 'highly educated people', who can make use of reflective and academic theory when it is appropriate, useful and stimulating to do so, the highest standards of schooling and education will lie half a world away' (Smith, 1992, p.397). Pollard (1996) exemplifies what kind of characteristics a reflective practitioner should have as: being skilled in qualified language use, have a general knowledge of the world,

analytical understanding and contextual knowledge, be aware of how to ask the right questions and know where to look for the right answers. These last two features are already parts of methodological thinking skills. Tickle reports from Schon to show the importance of experiences and reflection upon those experiences and evaluates that:

> Constant activity of appreciation, action, reappreciation, further action leads to the development of a repertoire of experiences of unique cases, which are then available to draw upon in unfamiliar situations. That repertoire, Schon claims, is in the recombination of elements of those other experiences rather than as 'recipe knowledge', so that each new situation is dealt with through reflection, further enriching the repertoire of practice and enabling the quality of judgements made in practical solutions to be improved (Tickle, 1993, p.111).

Tickle (1993) believes there is a paradox here: If the repertoire of a teacher is very rich; this situation may have the negative effect of causing them to refrain from reflection. The next step will be 'deproblematization of teaching' (p.117), which the researcher of this thesis calls 'detheorization of teaching'. So, even reflection on a point where a desirable result has already been gained should never stop. We are talking here about continuous, non-stop reflection. Furthermore, Elliott (1991a) reminds us that although teachers reflect on their teaching practices, this does not mean that this reflection counts as research because teachers are unlikely to consider the examples of empirical research while pondering on their practices. Tickle (1993) agrees and adds that the difficulty in applying the procedures of qualitative and/or quantitative research methods in the classroom is clear. Referring to Schon, Leat (1995) informs us that reflection is a process of analysing and synthesising of knowledge. Freire (2005, p.93) calls the process: 'invention and re-invention' of knowledge and practice.

Last but not least, some educationists draw attention to the intersecting area between realistic and reflective approaches. Both these approaches should trigger the teacher to ponder upon him/her self: his/her attitudes, prejudices, and ideologies (Zeichner, 1982; Fortuin, 1996).

The Reflective Practitioner approach can be accepted as a revolution in the world of education. It is not a concept familiar to teachers in Turkey. It makes professional teachers out of instruction-following teachers or at least it shows the way to be professionals. Not only does it enhance teacher practices but it also helps educational theories as well. It encourages teachers to reflect upon what they have been doing. Teachers break the chain of order by seeking to become better. This approach at least should be given a trial in Turkey; however, primary and secondary education, high school curriculums and theoretical approaches there and the academic structure of universities in Turkey should also be regenerated before this approach can be undertaken. The following section will look at role models in schools of education.

2.6 - The Role Model Approach

When we look at life and observe people, it can be seen that most people take others as role models. This can be a famous singer, sometimes a primary school teacher, sometimes parents or relatives. It can be said that, in fact, every single person has role models; sometimes they are tacitly perceived, sometimes people with role models are not aware that they have got one and sometimes the person himself accepts himself as a role model. These examples show that conceiving someone as a role model is a natural process. So what is the issue of the role model in schools of education or education faculties?

Some scientists perceptively describe teacher educators as role models in a teaching context (VELON, 1999; Korthagen, 2000), however it should be emphasised that they are role models not only for teaching concepts but also for character concepts. The same scientists put forward the view that teacher educators are expected to have the ability to explain their own ideas about pedagogy and didactic theories. Being open to criticism is also advised. Regarding the students' points of view, it can be observed that

student teachers frequently seek the teacher educators' help. Students may rely on the aid of teacher educators more than is expected (Lunenberg, 2002).

Considering the teacher educators' position, Lunenberg (2002) defines a crucial problem. He points out that teacher educators are interested in solving short term problems rather than long term problems in their teaching practices. This professional development aid only helps the students' specific practice problems. This kind of help cannot be underestimated; however it can prevent students from finding general solutions which they can apply practically.

Partington talks of trainee teachers having difficulty with the role model issue but he says that this is because of new teacher educators. He explains the pitfall of the role model approach in schools of education:

> With increasing choices of courses on offer, few of the new teacher educators were able to exert the same amount of personal influence over their students as had the old training college staff. This is no doubt had it advantages, especially as the students usually had the opportunity to experience a wider range of informed judgements on contestable educational questions, but it become more difficult for student-teachers to form a clear and coherent concept of the role of the teacher (Partington, 1999, p.28).

Valuing teaching skills more than educational theory is a new supported by Sexton (1987) who explains how to achieve this, as if their educators at universities come to schools and make teaching in real education environment with real pupils. Reflecting upon Sexton's idea, should educators not continue to teach at schools even when they are academics, so that trainee teachers may observe them, learn from them and can take them as role models? At least some hours of teaching per week in a school is suggested.

Bandura (1973) looks at the role model approach. He pays particular attention to observational learning within the role model approach.

According to some studies, teacher educators practise the training of teachers and mentor them in a positive manner. Their attitudes and beliefs about educating the teacher trainees are also positive (Cochran-Smith and Zeichner, 2006; Loughran, 2003; Samaras, 2002; Tickle, 2001). Some others point out the difficulties of teaching practice and their research outcomes are more negative (Grossman, 2005; Loughran and Russell, 2002; Jeffrey and Woods, 1998; Samaras, 2002). Having studied Turkey and the Netherlands, Cabaroglu and Tillema (2011) conclude that 'a picture emerges in which teacher educators are having difficulties in considering themselves as prime agents in bringing their students up to teaching' (Cabaroglu and Tillema, 2011, p.559). Some educationists from other contexts underline the problematic duality of teaching pedagogy to teacher trainees while trying to keep their pedagogy quality high regarding teacher trainees' needs (Butler, 2005; Lampert, 1997; Wang and Odell, 2002). Egan (1997) suggests there is another dilemma of tension between 'conception and experience' (Egan, 1997, p.560) regarding teaching practice.

How can a teacher educator provide a theory-practice harmony when he cannot do that during his/her lectures? Teacher educators' pedagogy should also be consistent (Gallagher and Bailey, 2000). If a teacher educator cannot apply the pedagogical knowledge he is teaching during his/her lectures it may contradict the idea that a teacher educator should be a role model in teaching (Cocharan-Smith and Zeichner, 2006; Tillema and Kremer-Hayon, 2002). It also reduces observational learning, which is, as mentioned in the defence of theory section before, a crucial step before practical learning.

Harrison and McKeon (2008) conclude regarding the situation of supervisor teacher educators in the English context taking the views of supervisor teacher educators that:

> We have identified early barriers which include: a paucity of role models or modelling of required practices; a reliance on trial and error learning; a lack of personal vision for how the role might be developed; low personal confidence or competence in key aspects of the work; inappropriate induction courses; poor mentoring and support structures (both formal and informal); few opportunities for collaborative planning, teaching, writing or other discussions (Harrison and McKeon, 2008, p.164).

In Cabaroglu and Tillema's (2011) research in Turkey and the Netherlands, a teacher educator complains about not knowing how to balance the time spent on the theory with that spent on the practice of the pedagogical content in his/her lectures. Therefore, how can a proper and appropriate balance be established if the teacher educators do not know how to do it? This brings us to the problem concerning the quality of teacher educators or at least the need for in-service training for teacher educators. The time constraint on the teacher educator coincides with the section devoted to some of the issues affecting the relationship between theory and practice. Returning to Cabaroglu and Tillema's (2011) study, congruence is declared to be an important problem between theory and practice which even teacher educators' experience. Where these issues originate from teacher educators there continues to be discord between university lessons and their practice in schools which cannot be ignored (Cabaroglu and Tillema, 2011). From the same research, there are also some good examples: one teacher educator gives assignments for individuals regarding their personal development. Another point made in this study is that peer learning amongst Turkish educators is favoured and sought. Turkish teacher educators are showing signs of willingness to devote more time to putting the theory into practice rather than solely giving theory or practice (Cabaroglu and Tillema, 2011).

Kiziltepe (2008), regarding the Turkish context asks how teacher educators can maintain their motivation to teach while the classroom population is so high in Turkish education faculties. She believes dealing with smaller numbers of trainee teachers may encourage teacher

educators towards better teaching. When Turkish primary school teacher candidates were asked about their opinions on the quality of the supervisory role of teacher educators, they declared 'undecided' as the dominant response.

Trainee teachers who responded in Shantz's (1995) research think that teacher educators should practise what they preach so that they can follow what is happening in the world of practice. They assert that theory does not have a strong relationship with practice in real school conditions.

Murray (2005) is unhappy regarding the English context that new academics are chosen with PhDs and expertise in their knowledge but without any teaching practice. Murray and Male state that the situation is completely different in teacher training; they are already experienced teachers before their academic career. Furthermore they are expected to be active researchers when they are academics (Murray and Male, 2005). In Turkey, Yapici and Yapici (2004) suggest recruiting teacher educators from teachers who have worked before and state that supervisors should be chosen from the teacher educators who already have work experience, and who volunteer. In England there have already been serious attempts over the last 20 years (2008) to recruit lecturers from teachers. Universities advertise to recruit working teachers rather than existing academics (Harrison and McKeon, 2008). In support of and in addition to this, data obtained from research of 75 primary school teacher trainees in Turkey, demonstrate that they do not believe that supervisors coming from the university do their supervising job properly (Yilmaz, 2011). Russel and Loughran (2007) suggest reminding teacher educators of the pedagogy of teacher trainees.

Watson (2000) sets knowing pedagogical knowledge as a prerequisite at adult level as necessary for teacher educators in Higher Education Institutions. To conclude, if teacher educators are not good enough role models, then how can student teachers learn?

Role models, arising from a variety of contexts, are part of our lives and it is not important whether we are aware of this or not. In schools of education, if trainee teachers were offered good role models in terms of knowledge of theory, moral values and teaching practice at education faculties, at least they would be guided properly by means of teaching. Assigning good role models and choosing good teacher educators is only one aspect of this issue.

2.7 - Empirical Studies and Further Comments

In this sub-section empirical studies which have been undertaken in relation to both the Turkish and the other contexts were reviewed. The main focus was on the Turkish context. Research from elsewhere will be provided in more of a supportive role. If no Turkish research has been made into a specific topic, English or other international ones will be reviewed.

As will be explained in the Methodology Chapter, this research is less interested in attitudes, beliefs, acceptations, perceptions, and self-efficacy, than in views, understandings, and conceptions. The first group is more concerned with emotions while the second one is more concerned with thinking and understanding.

The reason why the explanation is needed is that in the Turkish context empirical studies are mostly about the first group. There have been far fewer studies on the second group which this study targets. Within the existing research, most is about School Experience courses or Teaching Practice courses. Taskin and Haciomeroglu (2010) are concerned that Turkish academics are mainly focused on research about School Experience and Teaching Practice courses. Only a limited amount of research focuses on GEC as a whole. However, they go on to say that the contribution of GEC to the professional development of teachers can only

be comprehended if GEC are investigated all together in a research. There is an urgent need to do this regarding the Turkish context. This research hopes to respond to their call.

Since there is a shortage of studies in the area of this thesis, the researcher needs to use the empirical studies made on the first group to be able to speak about the Turkish context; however, although they are mainly about motivational aspects, they are still useful for this study.

Conclusion

In this chapter, the literature was reviewed to explore the relationship of theory and practice. The problematic nature of their relationship was addressed. Turner (1974) refers to Findlay who stated more than a hundred years ago (1903) that:

> The sharp separation between theory and practice in the examination papers merely emphasizes the wide gulf which has severed 'the theory' of the lecture room from 'the practice' of the daily toil in the classroom. . . This gulf [he continued] somehow must be bridged. So long as it exists it remains as a standing approach both to those who practice and to those who theorise (Turner 1974, p.71).

It can be understood from this that although it has been more than a century since this quote, the problematic nature of the relationship between theory and practice still exists. Although thinking on this issue has come a long way since then, the problems continue to exist. Perhaps this suggests that this matter cannot be solved, or perhaps it is a debate of a relationship with many more bridges to build in order to go forward. The quest for perfection will never end on any issue including this one.

The relationship between theory and practice is a very complex issue as there are many side effects that affect its quality. It can be inferred that neglecting the importance of theory does not add any value to teacher education; rather it takes much away from it. Teaching matures with

reflection which cannot exist without a good level of theory. This reflection helps teaching to be a profession and teachers to be professionals. If every single teacher becomes a reflective practitioner, it may result in local improvement in the relationship. It should be remembered that small pieces make up the whole. The value of practising what has been learnt is clear; thus an integrated approach is advised. Beginning teachers face difficulties while in their novice years as real school life is found to be different from what they have learnt. Seeking stronger links between theory and practice should continue and mentors have an important role to play in this. They should be open to changes in methods in order to link the theory and practice; otherwise novice teachers will simply mimic their mentors who practise according to their old ways of putting theory into practice. Making the description of how to link the theory and practice may ease the transfer of theory to practice. Furthermore, Realistic teacher education proposes that each teacher should look at himself/herself in terms of the theory-practice relationship instead of blaming the theory.

Competences and/or (enhanced) standards should be designed clearly but not in a way that reduces the flexibility and freedom of choice in teaching practices. Freedom and flexibility to apply different approaches should be guaranteed and competences and standards should not be check lists. Human values, emotions, and ethics should be taken into consideration because teaching is not a kind of technicism. Teachers should be pondering educationists while at the same time being loyal to the flexible designed standards. Socialization of teachers includes competences, in addition to which it has something to do with the teaching culture that is strictly connected to the traditions of a society. Interaction with students, teachers, and stakeholders is a part of the job.

Teacher educators in schools of education are role models for student teachers in a life in which everybody accepts someone as a role model either tacitly or explicitly and student teachers may start copying while they are in education faculties. The quality of supervising and more hours spent

with teacher educators as role models may increase the quality in theory-practice relationship. Student teachers may learn from teacher educators, as their role models, how to apply theory to practice.

Student teachers, teachers, mentors, and teacher educators are fostered by motivation and motivation is the energy that pushes people towards better results, and achievements. Motivating student teachers may enhance their love for teaching while it may refresh the attitudes of already working teachers. Recruiting student teachers at the beginning of their undergraduate degree in their desire for teaching should be seriously considered. Emotional readiness may produce additional positive results in linking theory and practice and so for teaching because motivation may trigger more reflection upon teaching by means of the relationship between the theory and practice.

Studies made in Turkey can be summarized as being more interested in perceptions, which are understood as emotional perspectives within this research. Research in the Turkish context has discovered that attitudes towards the relationship between theory and practice are mixed; perceptions differ from university to university and from area to area. The general picture is one of positive feelings with some motivation to theory and practice. The Turkish context values practice more than theory but it does not have a bias for an absence of the theory. In addition there have been few studies which have focused on conceptions, understanding, and views. Philosophical debates about the relationship between theory and practice are rare in the Turkish context.

It may be useful to finish this chapter with a simple explanation of the relationship between theory and practice: According to Drever and Cope (1999), the basic definition of the relationship between theory and practice is that the theory is acknowledged in education faculties and it is implemented in schools.

The next chapter will examine the role of management of university schools of education (education faculties) in improving the relationship between theory and practice.

CHAPTER 3: MANAGEMENT OF EDUCATION FACULTIES

In the previous chapter the academic literature relating to the relationship between theory and practice in education was reviewed. In this chapter, this is followed up by considering the management of faculties of education. Consideration of relevant literature is organised as follows:

- A general introduction to the chapter establishes the focus;
- 3.1 explores Educational leadership, management, and administration issues indicating the differences between them. Subsections under this title investigates the how schools of education and partners are positioned in regard with teacher education;
- 3.2 studies Turkish context while taking into account structural and procedural issues of education faculties;
- 3.3 looks at international samples of how schools of education are managed;
- 3.4 is about how academics in schools of education may affect teacher education;
- 3.5 provides an example of a futura trend in terms of management of universities;
- 3.6 takes a picture of teacher education in Turkey from a broader perspective
- 3.7 supports another angle for teacher education by giving an international example;
- 3.8 envisages centralization, decentralization, or Part- Cenralization;
- 3.9 investigates management theories. An emphasis is given to General System Theory and its application to schools of education is also taken into consideration;
- Conclusion sums up the chapter.

Introduction

Organizations are composed of systems to ensure cooperation. Roles are shared within organizations; however, there is always a need for a structure and/or a person to look from a wider perspective to ensure that things are done properly. This role is usually played by administration, management, and leadership through administrators, managers, and leaders.

Educational institutions are no different from other organizations in that they have an hierarchical structure. They need a body to govern the functional activities of education. This local government is broadly known as administration. Educational administration has become a part of educational studies. 'Educational administration has enjoyed a healthy period of intellectual ferment in its recent history as an academic field of study, from attempts in 1950s to develop a science of administration based on the precepts of logical empiricism' (Evers and Lakomski, 2001, p.499). However, few studies have concentrated on considering the management role of universities and their partnerships (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1993).

This part of the thesis studies the management of education faculties and takes a broader picture of management issues at first and then looks at the specific contexts, especially those which might affect the theory-practice relationship. Some analyses are made of the possible reasons for less quality and fewer solutions derived from General System Theory.

One aim of this research is to consider how the management of schools of education can support the development of a better relationship between theory and practice. In order to comprehend this it may be useful to understand the meanings of administrational terms, how education faculties are managed, and relevant theories about management. If these perspectives can be clarified then the role of management of education

faculties in teacher education regarding the theory-practice relationship within Generic Education Courses might be made clearer. As Turkish universities and education faculties are centralized in terms of decision-making abilities, one solution for a situation at one university would likely apply to all of them.

We will start by examining educational leadership, management, and administration and shed light on how management relates to education faculties. The partnership between responsible stakeholders in teacher education will be investigated. The roles of academics related to management issues and teacher education will be looked at. This will be followed by a look at trends in approaches in management of universities, including those in countries other than Turkey. We will follow this with an introduction to management theories and then go on to present General System Theory as an approach. Finally, an attempt will be made to apply this theory to education faculties.

3.1 - Educational Leadership, Management, and Administration

Many academic articles have reviewed the structural and definitional discourses on leadership, management, and administration. These debates also explore positions and roles of the people at the top of those models: named leaders, managers, and administrators. This section is not about those debates; here, a representation method will be applied. Definitions and essential features will be studied, without preferring one over another.

The top staff of organizations are there to lead and organize decision making, carry out crisis management and internal inspection of the organization, to energize or to motivate staff, and to provide internal and external congruence. McCaffery (2004) indicated that leadership takes place where there is a group of people or staff working towards the same goal. Therefore, leadership deals with group behaviour as well as that of individuals. The researcher believes that management is more about

organizational skills such as structural design. Gazali described management as a combination of related knowledge and action (Cubukcu, 1961). The Prague Declaration (1977) pointed out two important principles for educational management. While management of education faculties should target the higher purpose of education rather than financial benefits, the Declaration suggested educational leadership should envision, inspire, and serve people by distancing itself from dominancy. Kotter (1990), and Middlehurst and Elton (1992) connected management with complexity, and leadership with change. These connections, they stressed, need to be dealt with.

Hoy (1996) related administration to rationality and valuation. They involve both logic on the one hand and emotions and ethics on the other. He criticized attempts to separate mind from heart as, if this is done, it will bring about 'ritualism and mechanistic administration' (Hoy, 1996, p.376). The author of this thesis would add that while administration sounds like dealing with paper work, management brings organization and schemas into mind; it is a way of providing a healthier relationship amongst staff, and it represents intelligence, while leadership is more about emotions and particularly motivation. To be able to avoid such negative perceptions of administration, Hoy (1996) advised having reflective administration. It might be useful and helpful to keep in mind that leadership, management, and administration are not completely separate from each other; the borders are blurred.

In relation to the concept models for the top of organizations, this section will look at the people who are responsible for leadership, management, and administration. Leaders are the people who inspire and envision. Atari (2000, p.38) defined a leader as follows: 'A leader is not a person who can do the work better than the staff but who can get staff to do the work better than he or she can'. Manz and Sims (1991) described leaders as people who change others into self-leaders. Leaders lead people to a self-organized self-improvement. Self-esteem, knowledge-esteem, and

motivation-esteem (internally and/or readily-motivated leadership) in leaders are valued by the researcher. According to Koontz; 'explanations of leadership have been increasingly related to motivation' (Koontz, 1980, p.185). Interestingly, compared to administration and management, leadership seems very human. While we can talk about administration and/or management 'of' education faculties, we can talk about leadership 'in' education faculties. This also shows that leadership is more about humans and therefore their emotions and so relates to the motivation of people.

Corporaal (1988) asserted that integration of various kinds of teaching models fails which is why the transfer of theory to practice does not satisfy us (1988). Skemp (1979) correctly connected the transfer problem to lack of motivation. He says that students of education faculties are not motivated at a high enough level. Here, we are reminded of a principle that learning occurs when the learner has a personal goal which the learner expects to reach at the end of his/her learning period. This can be directly related to leadership features in education faculties.

Managers are supporters, providers, and organizers and the ability to balance a budget is another feature of managers. Research by Halpin (1966) revealed that managers are also perceived as role models by their staff. Middlehurst and Elton state that:

> 'in particular, [there are] clear distinctions between a manager-- who maintains systems, relies on controls, has a short range view, accepts the status quo--and a leader, who energises, motivates, has a long range and even visionary view, and challenges and changes the status quo. It is difficult to see how such different roles can be combined in the same person' (Middlehurst and Elton 1992, p.255 reporting from Bennis, 1989).

Good administrators are described as people who continue learning while they are working, whose experiences enrich their administrational skills with a necessary amount of academic knowledge supporting their pondering (Evers and Lakomski, 2001). According to Hoy (1996):

Theorists preface their propositions with the phrase 'other things being equal', and researchers attempt to control all other variables except those under study. In contrast, practitioners function in a world where other things are not equal and all variables are not controllable… For example, educational administrators are less concerned than theorists or researchers with generalizability; that is they want to solve their specific problems and are less concerned that their solutions work for other administrators in other districts. Nonetheless, the approach is basically the same; it is a systematic and reflective one (Hoy, 1996, p.373).

So, educational administrators are practitioners rather than theorists or researchers (Hoy, 1996). However, McCaffery (2004) values the word 'manager' more than 'administrator'. McCaffery (2004) reported that roles of academic and administrators differ and that:

This distinction was manifested clearly in the traditionally separate roles of academics (whose domain included academic leadership and policy formation) and administrators (whose domain included advice on policy and the responsibility for policy execution) (McCaffery, 2004, p.59).

It is for some reasons very difficult for academics to be administrators. Having coped with research and teaching, academic managers or administrators often find it difficult to deal with budgets, organization, paperwork, and psychological staff issues. Deem and Brehony (2005) looked at the concerns of academic-based administrators. One head of department said:

very often when I go to work I have to pinch myself and say, 'Look I'm sure I originally was an academic, but gosh I now feel like an accountant, I spend all my time it seems to me talking about issues about money' … I think that that change towards internal markets, devolved budgets has actually made an enormous difference to the culture of universities (HoD social sciences pre-1992) (McCaffery 2004, p.229).

Administration vocabulary has got more references relating to the upper bodies. For a school of education this may mean the act of coordination with the university and higher educational authorities while for universities it may mean the act of coordination with ministries of education. Management is more about organizing the internal activities for education

faculties. Since leadership is more about humans and their relationship with both their colleagues and with the organization itself, the term leadership represents a more social meaning rather than organizational procedures. Knowledge and expertise in administration brings about effective organizational relationships with higher and equal institutions. Better leadership produces motivated, inspired, and a more goal-oriented staff. To the researcher, management stands between administration and leadership, not completely apart from them but an intersecting area certainly within the context of this research. Management takes and prioritizes organizational skills and structural design at its heart. However, this does not mean that a managing body has nothing to do with administration and leadership features. Within education faculties, a manager should inspire and motivate staff while coordinating with higher and equal bodies successfully, effectively, and efficiently. A better administration can bring a healthier relationship with the system, whilst a better leadership can result in a healthier social atmosphere within schools of education. For schools of education, the term management is the meeting point of all those features. This is why the researcher prefers the term management rather than administration and leadership within the context of improving the links between the theory and practice of GEC. A comprehensive approach may reduce the negative side effects much more. The quality of education faculties may improve the quality and the strength of the relationship between theory and practice of GEC, as a comprehensive approach as a declared version of management may also produce a better partnership between universities and schools. Therefore, it may be thought-provoking to look at the role of management in schools of education by means of teacher education.

3.1.1 - Managing Schools of Education

Education faculties or schools of education (these terms will be used interchangeably unless context specification is required) are vital institutions for education systems. They are vital because they prepare

teachers for their work in schools. Therefore, it can be seen that the quality of teacher education is vital as graduates will go on to teach future productive generations.

Management is one of the main factors affecting teacher education. Although it might not be observed clearly by student teachers, management quality and the efficiency of schools of education are tacitly or explicitly related to teachers' quality and so to the quality of education. So, the changing role of management as concerns about teacher education arise should be clarified.

Methods of teacher education and management styles are important and there has been a change in perceptions of how teachers should be prepared. The old form of perceiving student teachers as inactive learners and non-reflective students has progressed to the perception of student teachers as contemplating knowledge and being active learners (Mizikaci, 2006). This new kind of understanding about learning has pushed education faculties to have clearer roles. The traditional roles of modern universities have been seen as firstly, the latest period of education that may enable a professional career, secondly, a source of scientific knowledge and finally, a place where cultural issues are supported (McCaffery, 2004).

If we narrow our perspective to schools of education level from the university level, it can be seen that they have more defined roles. The first is to teach student teachers how to enquire into the role of a teacher and to encourage them to do so. This role includes reflection upon teaching practice in schools during and after that practice. Another role of education faculties is to undertake research on education, teaching, and learning. While carrying out research about teaching, cooperation with teachers about their experiences is one aspect of schools of education. Thus, different kinds of experience could relate to theoretical frameworks (Elliott, 1993). Mizikaci (2006, p.40) included in frameworks these experiences:

'learning-centred education, leadership, continuous improvement, faculty and staff participation, partnership development, design quality and development, management by research data'.

Haberman (1991) suggested five principless to make education faculties places of excellence. At the outset, he favours choosing academic staff for education faculties from amongst experienced and effective teachers. He urges such establishments to make them continue their practices while they are academicians. Secondly, education faculties should have strong links with schools and so with teaching practice so that practical knowledge can be shaped as this helps to tie theory with practice better. Thirdly, teacher educators should have the ability to act according to the needs of their societies. Fourthly, teacher educators should share their pedagogical knowledge at a high level and encourage student teachers to apply this knowledge successfully. Last but not the least, education faculty academicians should prepare student teachers for the society in terms of responsibilities apart from teaching.

Joyce and Showers (1995) gave the example, which can be imagined as a table with five legs, to improve the quality of schools of education: well-taught theory, academicians as role models, a well-structured practice, evaluation of feedback, and mentoring individuals. Elliott (1993) included enquiry in a reflective manner. He stressed that knowledge produced in schools of education is at a higher level than the practice in schools. This knowledge is greater than the practical knowledge in terms of amount. The wider circle should decide what should be practised, interacting with inner circles like school practice.

To summarize, Baumfield and Butterworth (2007, p.412) grouped the jobs of education faculties into three units: 'initial teacher education (ITE) and continuing professional development (CPD), consultancy and research'. They warn that neglecting partnership and cooperation with business,

industry, the private sector, and broadly speaking other systems might result in negative results in a competitive context.

Effective management needs all of the above-mentioned elements and then the question should be asked as to what form the evaluation of schools of education should take. Worthen and Sanders (1973) reported in Stufflebeam that evaluation can be undertaken through a review of a faculty's curriculum; thus unsupplied needs may be seen and the necessary changes can be made regarding the educational targets. Reviewing the resources of the faculty may help to produce a clearer plan and potential pitfalls during the teacher education process can be identified and discussed with a view to overcoming them. Lastly, the quality of the graduates might be questioned and improvements might be undertaken within teacher education design. Though physical and financial resources are underlined by Worthen and Sanders (1973), it can be concluded that Kivisto (2005) underestimates the importance of those resources in teacher education. Kivisto (2005, p.9) stressed that to be able to evaluate education faculties 'number of study credits accumulated, number of degrees, or the number of research publications' should be taken into consideration. However, it is still the students' performance, both individually and collectively, that affects the quality of education faculties' output (Kivisto, 2005). One possibility would be a test that measures the pedagogical knowledge at the entry to the education faculty and is then applied to the same students at the end of their studies. However, it should be kept in mind that this would only measure pedagogical knowledge not teaching as a whole. An evaluation model like in the English education system that measures added values comparing the input and output could be applied.

In order to do all these things effectively, efficient and sufficient quality of administration is needed. Deem and Brehony (2005, p.224) defined efficiency as 'doing more with less'. Bearing in mind all the tasks for the good management of an education faculty, Willower drew attention to the

fact that 'educational administration is an applied field of study' (Willower, 1997, p.437). Bursalioglu (1971) reminded us that social systems or organizations like education faculties should put humans and their values at the centre. The author of this thesis wants to find a way of doing this. While managing an organization, loyalty to the decision-making structure, such as a counsel, is an important issue. Even if the decisions made in a counsel or a meeting contradict a manager's or a leader's idea, that idea should be considered for implementation.

Lewis and Smith (1994) indicated that the management of education faculties is composed of activities regarding the structure of the faculty, which are schema of design, educational policies, distributed duties, clearly-defined limits for power and authority, goals, targets and vision-oriented approach, and activities related to administration such as: devising, organizing, steering, coordinating, and being in control of the faculty. It is clear that qualified management matters.

3.1.2 - Quality of Education Faculties

Organizations and systems are evaluated with consideration of their skills for adding value to their input in one sense. The results obtained by education faculties should show an improvement compared to students' levels at entry. They should also be evaluated in relation to graduates' expectations which some people call standards. Sisman and Turan (2001) declared that if student teachers are educated with reference to teaching standards and the educational needs of student teachers then graduate quality might be high.

Every school of education should have quality enhancement pre-session policies. Future oriented design may ease the way forward for education faculties (Sisman and Turan, 2001). This plan could be management quality, teaching quality, and research quality oriented (Johnson and Golomskilis, 1999). The plan should first be announced to the public and

then implemented which would lead to automatic external quality control (Dogan *et al*, 2006).

The goal for quality is to give responsibility for learning and reflecting to student teachers (Dogan *et al*, 2006). Evers and Lakomski (2001) favoured comprehensiveness, productiveness, and learnability to improve the quality of education faculties. These three factors are crucial for schools of education with learnability being explained as openness to innovation and new knowledge. English universities are good examples of deep, independent, individual, and reflective learning strategies (SPU, 1997). This kind of model needs strategic planning for education faculties. Whilst undertaking strategic planning the following four questions should be answered:

- What point are we at? (Analysis of the present)

- Where are we trying to reach? (Goals)

- How can we get there? (Methods)

- How can we control the quality and evaluate the process? (DPT, 2003)

However, when attempts are made to achieve higher quality, there may be anomalies. Simsek and Aytemiz (1998, p.174) described an anomaly as: 'a problem that threatens the core functions of an organization which inevitably leads to poor performance'. One of the main signs of an anomaly is that vision shared in an organization by staff does not produce any efficient strategies (Hedberg, 1981). This means that change is essential, for vision, goals or even the structure of the organization.

3.1.3 - The Partnership of Responsible Stakeholders

When it comes to teacher preparation, cooperation between universities and schools is expected (Mills, 1996). Whether universities are aware of the problems faced during practice in schools, bridging the gap between the theory and practice will make it easier.

Partnership between universities and schools through teacher education benefits all sides. Academics in schools of education are able to understand the experiences of practising teachers and therefore can alter teacher training positively (Rudduck, 1988). Mentors in schools become aware of modern approaches and innovations in education by interacting with teacher trainees. Finally, teacher trainees have the chance to practice what they have learnt; moreover looking at their practices they can go back and search for related theories so that they add new ones to their knowledge.

'The partnership demands a high level of flexibility and this requires a commitment to spending time on fostering and sustaining the personal relationships that enable the partnership to prosper' (Baumfield and Butterworth, 2007, 414). Goodlad (1991) defined the partnership which occurs between schools of education as a contrived official relationship which benefits both sides. In spite of qualified design and plans for partnership, some universities and schools provide weak support for this partnership. At times their support has been not at all effective (Watkins, 1990; Bullough and Kauchak, 1997; Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1998; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Imig and Imig, 2006; Zeichner, 2006).

Some might say that linking theory and practice of Generic Education Courses has little to do with management and more to do with individual academics; however, it can be understood from the research made that it is the weakness of management or weakness in managing the partnership that causes problems in many cases, because management of schools of education is directly related to managing the partnership between universities and schools. Remembering that education faculties are often accepted as the home of theories while schools are accepted as the home of practice, managing the partnership can be seen as managing the relationship to some extent. Furthermore, the management of education faculties might well affect the internal quality of teaching and so teacher education. Bearing in mind that – contrary to the previous idea in which the

homes are distinctly separate rather than being blurred – the theory-practice relationship starts in schools of education, it should be recognized that education faculties and their management structure play an important role in establishing better links between theory and practice. A well-structured management may motivate, inspire, and put pressure on staff to do their duties and tasks better. Management organizes the structure and events which involves human management. In this context humans are teacher educators. Beside the organizational effects, management has a staff-based effect upon teacher education. So administration, management, and leadership within/of education faculties matter and good management can establish better links between the theory and practice of GEC.

3.2 - The Turkish Context

Turkish teacher education is deeply standardized by the Higher Education Counsel. So the design of every education faculty is very similar as the structure is prepared centrally.

Research by Grossman et al. (2008) in Turkey revealed the perception of teacher educators about partnerships between schools of education and schools. Thirty percent of them do not believe that there were strong ties between the two; 19.4% were undecided and 50.6% perceive that there were strong enough ties. Grossman et al. (2008) added that his study shows the improvement within the Turkish context.

However, Grossman (2008) demonstrated that those teacher educators are not happy with the level of interaction with Ministry Of National Education (MONE). He reminds us that teacher education in Turkey is not the responsibility of MONE. Vorkink (2006) was of a similar opinion and adds that MONE does not have any official relationship with human resources, which has a crucial effect on the education field. Guven (2008) explained that:

> Specifically, MONE does not control the selection of individuals into teacher education programs at the university (the OSYM does), their academic preparation (YOK/HEC and the university does), or their entrance into the profession (the Civil Service examination does) (Guven, 2008, p.15).

Grossman et al.'s research in Turkey disclosed that 62% (with 14.5% undecided) would be happier to have better communication, support and interaction with MONE. While one outcome of his research is that 94% conceive that the 'show must go on' in terms of change while 31.2% of the entire sample conceives that teacher education should be changed completely and re-designed from scratch. A final point derived from the same study is that 59.5% thinks that MONE is not the right establishment to govern teacher education in the future. It might be understood from this that teacher education should remain as a university degree. The 18th Educational Council takes the point further by suggesting specialized universities for teacher education (2012, 4th opinion, http://ttkb.meb.gov.tr/dosyalar/suralar/18_sura.pdf).

Kiraz's (2002) study in the Turkish context showed that the more contact mentors have with schools of education, the better they can supervise teacher trainees in schools when they apply the theory they have learnt at university to practice in schools.

Can's (2001) study in one education faculty in Turkey showed that 53.7% of PGCE students do not agree that stakeholders of teacher education work together at a sufficient level. He continued that 71.6% of them perceive that what they learn from academics does not match the things mentors tell them adequately. Furthermore, 52.1% were not happy with the amount of collaboration between their supervisors and mentors about preparation for and evaluation of their practices, 31.6% said there was none. Academics are harshly criticized by the student teachers with 68.9% reporting that their supervisors never meet with the student teachers while 13.7% say they seldom meet. Can (2001) defended this saying that the

high number of lecturing hours is the main reason for this, although the researcher disagrees to some extent.

Yapici and Yapici (2004) stated that one of the best things HEC has done in Turkey is the Enhancement of National Education Project; particularly the faculty-school partnership that project offered. Yildirim (1998) explained the necessity for such a regulation as there is no common official partnership programme, and insufficiency of legal regulations [before 2007]. These kinds of agency forced HEC to establish a proper partnership programme. Guncer (1997) said HEC should target [now already targeted] a well organized and dynamic structure of partnership in order to enhance the well-being of teacher training.

3.3 - International Examples of teacher education policies and practices

Having monitored empirical studies made in the Turkish context, there are also some concerns from other contexts. Much of this is drawn from International, and in particular, English contexts.

The attributions in education theoretical textbooks must not be different from the real world. A significant number of students are concerned that the real conditions in schools are very different from the theory they face during their bachelor degrees or training. One student states, 'I don't think any school I have been into matches what the college says... ' (McNamara et al., 2002, p.873). Another seriously but politely criticised the situation of Initial Teacher Training (ITT):

> You've got the practitioners who are doing the job and you've got the university, the theorists, who are sitting there with all the books and the literature...then in practice there are other teachers who are working more practically with it, trying to implement on a practical level rather than a theory level (McNamara et al., 2002, p.873).

In the north-east of England, one establishment, the North East School Based Research Consortium (NESBRC), was set up to put academics together in schools of education with working teachers. It was expected to make (help) them learn from each other and also to motivate teachers to do research, to increase teacher oriented research about classroom practice and to increase the amount of data about teaching (Cordingley and Bell, 2002).

The results were satisfying in that the transfer of knowledge between academics and teachers brought about new academic publications some of which were prepared by both academics and teachers, and some by only teachers (Butterworth and O'Connor, 2005). It was reported that: 'Not only do participants comment on their increased self-confidence but they also refer to their enthusiasm for and enjoyment of teaching and learning' (Baumfield and Butterworth, 2007, p.417).

The partnership between schools of education and schools is perceived as a complex and official relationship which maintains the status quo; furthermore it does not involve a strong interaction and cooperation rather it is formed on the basis of task and responsibility (Guyton and McIntyre, 1990). Surprisingly, English teacher trainees and mentors were perceived as *desert-islands* in schools (Edwards, 1995). According to Bereiter's research (1995), mentors were reluctant to associate internalized knowledge to that which is not yet non-internalized. Edwards and Collison (1995b) elaborated that knowledge which is not yet non-internalized can be comprehended as precious theory of which the task of teaching is seen as the responsibility of education faculties.

Barone *et al.* complained from a different context about the inadequate amount of time spent on visiting student teachers while they are practising (a few times, sometimes only once) and accept this as an inhibiting factor (1996).

Speakers from other contexts show us the contradiction between Turkey and the Netherlands. Limiting the number of attendances allowed to some extent would be helpful for the Netherlands as it is reported that too much observation may be stressful for the teacher candidates (Koetsier and Wubbels, 1995). Some respondents in their study suggested that instead of actual attendances, technical aids would be more helpful. These technical aids could be 'cassette recorders, videos, or a simple version of the one-way screen' (1995, 341). Observing other education faculty students during their practice is useful, too as it helps the teacher candidate to see both positive points and negative points (Baker *et al*, 1997).

Some social scientists insisted that the problem is lack of communication (Sikula, 1990; Meade, 1991; Thiessen and Kilcher, 1993; Knowles and Presswood, 1994; Işıkoğlu *et al*, 2007; Alaz and Birinci, 2009). Regarding Shantz's (1995) investigation, trainee teachers advised teacher educators and mentors to have regular meetings with each other in order that synchronization and consistency can be established. They reported that during that year in Canada mentors were not using most of the contemporary approaches. An Australian study blamed not only mentors but also teacher educators (Allen *et al*, 2010). They blamed both groups for being incognizant about their own duties.

The problem is that governments are more interested in the outcomes whereas universities focus on the knowledge. Knowledge producers will be our next topic.

3.4 - About the Academics in Schools of Education

Education systems, universities, and faculties are just buildings without humans, but a university campus without students, staff, and academics, would not mean anything. Man-made organizations are valuable only because of their people as they include emotions and social interaction.

In education faculties, academics can be seen as the heart of teacher education. Their research, academic writings, and teaching practice vitalize the university system. If academics do not work properly, the energy that fills university campuses decreases. Haberman's (1991) study discovered that only 1% of theses prepared in education faculties are about educational practices for real life. Elliott (1993, p.84) explained that in successful education faculties: 'the academic staff would teach through their research and research through teaching'. Hoy (1996) placed researchers between theory and practice, saying they should weave between both. Hargreaves (1993, p.90) warned academics of a dangerous pitfall in teacher education:

> The trainee teacher is trying to acquire PCSK to become, and be accepted as, a competent member of the teacher social group, whilst the teacher trainer is worried that the trainee will pick up an undesirable PCSK and will then indeed treat it as unquestioned and unquestionable… ITT has a tension at its heart: it has to help the trainee to acquire PCSK but a particular kind of approved PCSK and one that is potentially open to questioning and revision.

Nartgun's research (2006) in Turkey revealed that although the vision of education faculties is shared by academics, they think that education faculties do not act upon their vision. Then it is the researcher's right to pose the question with regard to Nartgun's work whether that vision is 'really shared' and conceived by academics in education faculties or whether it remains only at the level of surface agreement. Moreover, Tsai and Beverton (2007) suggested that academics should gather and shape teaching groups. This could help them to share their knowledge and experiences with each other. Counsel-like meetings amongst the academic staff might be useful for reaching new ideas.

Bearing in mind the external pressure, education faculties should manage the tension between the real purposes of education and the market. It could be useful to separate lecturers from the academics so that lecturers spend their time mostly teaching with few academic studies, and

academics concentrate on their academic studies with less teaching. In this way lecturers would prioritize the market while academics would prioritize the main purposes of education.

3.5 - A Future Trend in Terms of Management of Universities

It is difficult to forecast how universities, faculties, and particularly schools of education will be shaped in future due to the many factors involved. However, we can observe trends, realize needs, and analyse scientific clues in an attempt to foresee what lies ahead.

McCaffery (2004) predicted that faculties will be accepted as contract-based processing organizations. He suggested education faculties should work like NHS (National Health Service) Trusts do in England, whereby doctors are given contracts individually or as a group. In the same way, academicians could work with degree-granting bodies that certify their competence. Academicians, like doctors in an NHS Trust, could be allowed to work in several different universities. He mentioned the example of Adam Smith in the 18th century, who took the fees directly from his students so he was paid depending on the numbers of students he had. McCaffery (2004) called this the Distributed University System. This model has been chosen as an example of a possible future structure for schools of education by the researcher. Whatever structure of management universities and education faculties adopt in the coming decades may need the mobilized flexibility and freedom of academicians as in Adam Smith example.

3.6 - Management of Turkish Teacher Education

There are many difficulties in introducing the heavily-centralized Turkish context to someone coming from a widely decentralized context. In EU countries most of the authority at central level has been delegated to local administrations. On the other hand, a more centralist structure is said to be

dominant in Turkey (Yildirim, 2010). 'Turkey, which was influenced by the higher education reforms in England, restructured its teacher education models and began to apply this model from the 1998–1999 academic years' (Yuksel and Adiguzel, 2011, p.47). However, its application was limited. For instance; there are 35 students per teacher in Turkish education faculties (Kiziltepe, 2008), more than twice that of students per teacher in faculties in England which is 14 (Durman, 2005). According to HEC's (2006) research, more than 61% of academics attend lectures at least 21 hours a week. This is also confirmed by research by Ankara University Educational Sciences Department (2005).

In Turkey the head of a university is a rector, elected by the President of Turkey from amongst three top voted candidates who are nominated by academics. Rectors are assigned for 4 years and associate rectors are assigned by the rector for 5 years. The university senate includes the rector, associate rectors, deans, and faculty representatives selected from amongst its academics. Deans are the heads of faculties in the Turkish context (Resmi Gazete, 1981; Korkut, 2002).

There have been significant endeavours to improve teacher education such as accreditation and internal quality checks amongst the education faculties. Yuksel and Adiguzel (2011) explained us how these things happen via a committee:

> In order to increase the standards of teacher training, to make the faculties accredited depending on the standards, to increase the quality of teacher training, National Teacher Education Committee [NTEC] was established (p.42)… Turkish Teacher Education Accreditation System consists of seven fundamental standard domains as teaching, personnel, students, faculty-implementing school cooperation, physical substructure, management and quality assurance (p.44)… In Turkish Teacher Education Accreditation System, the numbers of faculties to be visited per year, and the length of time between visits are decided by The Council of Higher Education (p.46)… The Council relies on the work of the visiting assessors to gather the evidence and make

judgements about how well faculties meet the accreditation standards (p.47).

The Turkish teacher education system has a lack of independence from the state in setting quality standards, defining expected features, and giving accreditation certificates. Yuksel and Adiguzel (2011) went on to say that NTEC does not have an efficient and functional organization; nor does it have any real power to improve circumstances, enhance the quality of teacher education, even to match the quality of faculties to a similar level. They criticize the committee for focusing on productivity and quality issues, rather than inspecting and auditing (Yuksel and Adiguzel, 2011). More than half of the academics in HEC's (2006) research perceive that levels of management do not proceed efficiently and effectively, while one third of them do not agree with the decisions made in their education faculties. Almost one third of the academics cited poor communication within the faculty and the same proportion stated that their faculty has no team culture (HEC, 2006).

Research undertaken in 45 schools of education in Turkey with 2702 academics discovered that education faculties are unreceptive to the changes brought by globalization. Globalization favours decentralization by giving importance to locally-governed education structures, application of international standards, participation in decision making, strategic planning, giving priority to effectiveness and efficiency, and giving up hierarchical and vertical structures and instead building horizontal ones; as Turkish education faculties insist on a strictly designed centralization structure they are resistant to this change (Burgaz and Senturk, 2008). It is worth mentioning here that Turkish academics do not have the authority to be able to change the structure. These are Turkish academics' conceptions about the current situation. The same study shows that Turkish academics expected a decentralization change to some extent while the research was being carried out.

Burgaz and Senturk (2008) found that Turkish education faculties are managed in a way that managers do not ask the opinions of members of the organization. They went on to say that education faculties in Turkey have not got autonomy and the structure should be redesigned to make it a more open system. They conclude that comparative studies by means of management of education faculties should be encouraged by the Higher Education Council or by the universities.

A study by Simsek and Aytemiz (1998) revealed that 51 respondents (academics, students, heads of education faculties) conceive that there are three main problems regarding the management of education faculties: low level of coordination, shortage of communication, and lack of professional managers.

Below is the schema designed by HEC (1998) for education faculties in Turkey:

Illustration 3.1
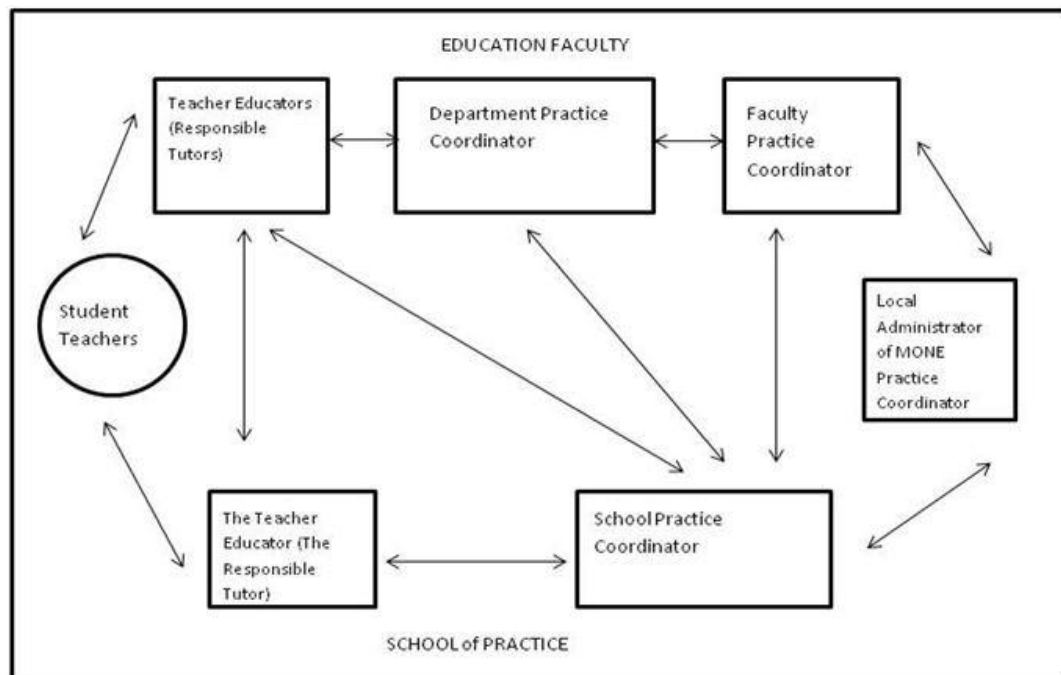
Figure 1. Theory-practice Relationship Scheme

Yildirim (2010) concluded that a revision of educational management is needed for the entire education system and particularly for education faculties.

3.7 - Management of Teacher Education (another example)

As mentioned above, other education systems such as those in England, compared to the Turkish example, are much more decentralized. Though some educationists are still not satisfied with the extent of decentralization, the likes of Deem and Brehony (2005) in their research in 1998-2000, believed the education system has got enough flexibility and authority to make changes at local level. In fact flexibility and deploying authority to lower levels are two important features of decentralization. Deem and Brehony (2005) stated that there was some decentralization in UK higher education. Decentralization can be accepted as an approach which originated from democratic policies. Decentralization of higher education in England has its roots in the universities of Oxford and Cambridge; however, the decentralization model applied at these universities differs from the other examples as it is a collegial decentralization (Bush, 1986).

The demand for education and so for higher education has grown. Eventually the recruitment system was changed and the masses were accepted to higher education although graduate quality was neglected. Deem (1998) claimed that graduates were not adequately skilled for work; this kind of approach was called Fordism. Later on, in the era of post-Fordism, multi accomplishment graduates became valued. Higher education institutions encourage working in groups which fitted in with the old tradition of English system as collegiality and teamwork are related.

Collegiate decision making and management has long been a tradition in English higher education. Becher and Kogan (1980) explained collegializm as: a kind of counsel which makes the decisions, and a teamwork which holds its members to account. This approach also promotes academic

freedom. 'Decisions on a whole range of academic and resource allocation issues take place within a labyrinth of committees rather than being the prerogative of the vice-chancellor. Issues are generally resolved by agreement or compromise rather than by voting or dissent' (Bush, 1986, p.51). However, there is still need for a leader to make the final decisions, at least where a quick decision is necessary, and for the moderation of meetings. According to Atari (2000) collegiality, which can be described as a professional form of fellowship, did not reject competitiveness. The only condition is that other academics should not be disturbed for the sake of a person's own interests and benefits (Atari, 2000). Middlehurst and Elton (1992) prioritized respect amongst colleagues for their academic studies and their ideas while making decisions. Emotional closeness may make collegiality into a brotherhood and this may reduce the conflicts amongst the academics. On the other hand, Middlehurst and Elton (1992), and Atari (2000) do not acknowledge or describe the difficulties involved in setting up a balance between professionalism and brotherhood; the implicit message given by them is that this is straightforward.

English universities were managed in a collegial way by academic-based managers, but today they now also need to work more professionally as there is pressure on universities regarding the expenditure of public money. Their spending should be cost-effective (Deem, 1998).

Trow (1997) criticized the English higher education from another perspective, stating that it involves too much bureaucracy and the authorities expect what they order to be done immediately. This, according to Trow, produced too many procedures and a decline in efficiency. While Trow mentiond the problems about management issues, Goodlad (1990) drew our attention especially to teaching quality at schools of education and complains that expecting teachers to learn teaching after they have started teaching is wrong, and goes on to say that this is why education faculties are a long way from meeting the demands for preparing complete teachers for the realities of schools.

Trow's criticism might have been due to a disagreement regarding the move from collegialism to managerializm (McCaffery, 2004) which, according to McCaffery, had become prevalent in English universities. Managerializm is a manager-centred approach within which managers are responsible for meliorating the products and graduates (Reid, 1988; Pollitt, 1990). In Keeling's (1972) opinion the frontrunner feature of managerializm was   efficient use of resources for pre-planned goals considering temporarily occurring conditions.

One of the positive points of English higher education is the budgetary support organization. Kivisto (2005) explains that Research Assessment Exercise (RAE) has been undertaken in UK universities since the 1990s, which evaluates British universities. (Note: In 2014 this was re-named the Research Excellence Framework – the REF.) Taking the evaluation made in 2001, Kivisto (2005) admires how the research budgetary support is decided. Universities informed RAE about their research activity and they are funded for future research depending on quality judgments based on that which they have already completed. On the other hand, Henkel and Kogan (1996) were sceptical about this system, which puts pressure on universities to undertake more academic publishing. It is good to increase the amount of research; however, it may reduce the quality of publishing in the long run.

As times are changing so too is managerializm. New managerializm is indicated by Kirkpatrick and Lucio (1995), and Power (1997) as concentrating on index of performance, league tables, pre-decision of goals, comparative analysis and managing the effective execution. New managerializm has some tools and technology such as encouraging competitiveness amongst staff, illustration of efficiency rates, evaluation of outputs, and personal rating of effectiveness (Deem, 1998). The effect of new managerializm upon English higher education is about budgetary sources, academic work types, workloads of staff due to greater students/

staff ratio, vehemence of working in teams for better research and lecturing, expenditure offices at universities, auditing for performances of academicians, and greater numbers of managers (Deem and Brehony, 2005).

Is it not possible to combine collegializm and new managerializm? And why are educational sciences copying management theories from other sciences? Though Evers and Lakomski (2001) defended the fact that educational administration has a closer relationship with administrative theory than educational theory, they have some difficulties because they are not appropriate for social sciences and particularly in the educational context. It is unfortunate that educational sciences did not establish a theory of management before the other sciences, e.g business sciences. Eventually, educational institutions found themselves in a position of applying theories from other sciences to the educational context.

It may be useful to give an English university as an example in order to comprehend how a school of education works to provide a better balance in the theory-practice relationship. As the researcher is currently a PhD student at the School of Education of Durham University, he has had the opportunity to observe and understand the working of the school and this will be the example used.

The researcher has observed that the University of Durham's School of Education has a high profile in successfully linking theory and practice in teacher education. Its academics provide support and counselling when needed, hold meetings with heads of schools and school coordinators and form strong ties between the practice environment of Generic Education Courses (within schools and classrooms) and academic environment of Generic Education Courses (within the Schools of Education). School Coordinators unite the theory-practice relationship and provide a buffering role in terms of official procedures. They link the expectations of the School of Education with the needs, concerns, complaints, suggestions,

feedback, and evaluation of head teachers and mentors at schools and the student teachers themselves.

Student teachers learn practice-oriented theory at the School of Education. They go to partnership schools around the North-East of England to practise teaching. Not only are head teachers put under pressure to provide student teachers with quality teaching practice in schools, but academics also help the head teachers to assist student teachers in their practice. This is done by academics during periodical meetings with head teachers and school coordinators and joint observations of practice.

Student teachers at Durham University are indirectly controlled by school coordinators who work semi-independently. They are aware of market competition because schools decide which university providers to work with. This awareness increases the willingness of the student teachers and makes them work harder. Student teachers are given responsibility for their own learning but that does not mean they are left alone; lectures, and academic and professional support continue.

Academics should maintain high quality as the rules of competition apply to the academic world as well. The structure of schools of education in England is like that of Ajax -a successful football club which applies the same tactics at every level to their football teams from the youth team to the first team. Academics at Durham University School of Education make every effort to display theory in practice at all levels of their activity.

Durham University has a disciplined relationship with schools, which means there are certain principles which are strictly applied, shared with all partners in the process through handbooks and partnership meetings. Schools are paid per head by the university for the student teachers they mentor.

The following section considers the extent to which an education faculty should be in control of external structures both outside and within the university.

3.8 - Centralization, Decentralization or Part-Centralization

All countries are governed by a central governing organization. Population, economics, political pressures, social and psychological needs are some of the reasons for that. In modern times new reasons have come into existence for the central governing of education: the equal spread of quality, international economic competition by means of science and technology and so of market forces, high population, speedy implementation of new methods and findings, working parents, and pressures of different socio-economic backgrounds. So there are grounds for centralization at least for education. The questions have to be asked: to what extent is centralization required and what form should it take?

Defining the ends might well help us to understand the means.. Centralized education is also known as top-down management of education. A massive amount of authority is given to the highest governing bodies in its extreme examples. For all centralized structures, top managers are responsible for the tasks. On the other hand, decentralized education is known as bottom-up management which deploys most of the decision making authority to the related lower level of staff (Heckscher *et al*, 1994).

Centralized management increases loyalty to goals and can execute strategies quicker. Top-down management is also good at explaining the rationale behind the implications for change (Heckscher et al., 1994). Decentralized management devolves some part of authority and shares the decision making tool at a higher level. It is 'democracy flavoured' (Davies, 2002).

While Hackman and Wageman (1995) stated that even the Total Quality Management model prefers a centralized management approach, Levin (1997) underlined bottom-up management as being better for education faculties. He added that decentralized structure means improved quality for teaching and learning. Resources can be used more efficiently. However, Fullan (1991b) warned that deploying so much decision making to lower levels may cause chaos. The reason is the possibility of different decisions being made by various lower level groups about the same issues. Clark (1998) mentioned that universities are so much non-pliant structured that they themselves put up barriers to possible change towards decentralization.

Tsai and Beverton (2007) proposed that managers of education faculties should participate in lower level decision making bodies of education faculties so that they can observe and understand what is going on in the faculty, making them open to requests for change coming from the bottom. They suggested managers should be in touch with staff, which may result in newer ideas and newer and more comprehensive perspectives and that administrators should meet whenever new decisions are needed so that real time decision making can occur for newer existing conditions.

As long as the staff of a school of education have a shared goal, shared vision, and similar values, changes in, reforms in and, if necessary, transformation of education faculties are possible within the England like systems (Tsai and Beverton, 2007). When it comes to the Turkish context, the education system is strictly centralized. Universities do not have the decision making abilities for many issues such as the courses studied in primary school teaching sections. Even those courses are decided by HEC (Higher Education Council, YOK). Education faculties are governed by universities. Most of them do not have enough flexibility to make decisions for themselves. Universities are the centre of authority for schools of education, and the Higher Education Council is the centre of authority for universities. There are times when education faculties need to ask

permission from HEC; thus, a partly-centralized higher education and university structure is needed to inspect and make decisions on general standards, for example, for teaching graduates. Higher education institutions might be inspected for quality and budgetary use, while universities have got their inner inspection (quality control) system. Education faculties should be allowed to decide their own standards, compatible with national level standards, and to have an internal quality control system. A homogenous and partly-centralized system would work within Turkish universities and faculties, with systems revised holistically.

3.8 - Management Theories

Management studies have attracted so many people and academics with the question: 'How can we run the organizations in a more successful way?' This has brought about many theories about management and administrational issues. But what is theory and how does it relate to administrational situations?

Willower (1975, p.78) stated that theory is 'a body of interrelated, consistent generalizations that serves to explain'. Ball (1995, p.266) looked at theory from another perspective, saying that 'theory is a vehicle for 'thinking otherwise'' and explains the purpose of theory as to set up an area so that new kinds of practice may take place. However, social sciences – including theory and research - is not there to find solutions to man's problems, rather it is there to comprehend and explain, according to Hoy (1978). Hoy (1996) continued to defend his idea that utilizing frameworks based on theory does not secure positive outcomes for administrational challenges, rather such frameworks provide an acceptable understanding to design tactics and action plans which can increase the possibility of achieving goals. According to Bates (1980), the fountain of achievement can only be reached if the intentions and psychology of humans and the sociology of society are understood. Their behaviours in organizations are critical for researchers to better

understand the management challenge. Greenfield (1973) articulated that, without the values and emotions of humans, organizations would not be a topic for research. 'Theories of education and the social sciences are very different from scientific theories' (Bush, 1986, p.15). House (1981) analysed the differences between social sciences and scientific theories and concludes that differences occur since social sciences are dynamic and changeable in time, whereas scientific theories are firm. They do not change because laws of physics do not change.

The following table summarises some of the theories set up to overcome the problems of management that are of relevance to schools and departments in universities.

Table 1
Management theories

Theory	Focus
Zen Organization Theory:	This theory suggests that everything in the universe is in harmony, and within that harmony everything works together and adds something to the common parts of living. While western theories put the individual at the heart of their studies, Zen Organization Theory, which is an eastern theory, looks at the creation as equal and civilization does not seek dominancy over nature (Lotto, 1981). According to Zen Organization Theory, teacher educators, pre-service teachers, and administrational staff should work in unity. This may motivate pre-service teachers to learn better. Dedication to the teaching profession may be a culture at the end and this may help motivated student teachers to internalize the relationship between theory and practice at a higher level.
Human Relations Theory:	According to research, treating employees well is more valuable than making them rest, lighting of the office or room, and even relating salary to their efficiency and productivity (Koontz and O'Donnell, 1964). This theory transformed the concept of inspecting teachers as teachers become stressed when being inspected (Bursalioglu, 1971). Keeping emotions in mind may help teacher-educators to find ways to overcome the problems and weaknesses of student teachers while they are putting theory into practice. However, this kind of teacher education may need one-to-one supervising more than the other systems and this could cause a shortage of teacher educators.
Cooperation Theory:	According to this theory, the life-span of an organization is directly proportional to its efficiency. Two things are perceived

	at its centre: the goals of the organization, and the needs of its members. If both are achieved, this will increase the life of the organization (Bursalioglu, 1971). Barnard (1948) underlined the importance of awareness of responsibility. Responsibility is an obligation to act upon the manager's authority.
	Cooperation Theory is goal oriented which may mean standards and competences come first. Clarity of the links between theory and practice of GEC may be the result of application of this theory and clear roles within an education faculty may increase the efficiency which may in turn create a positive atmosphere for the learning of pre-service teachers.
Rational Management Theory:	This theory puts decision-making at the heart of management (Simon, 1951). Quick and efficient decision-making comforts the people working in an organization. Using Rational Management Theory in a school of education may result in better partnership designs to close the gap between theory and practice in teacher education.
Social System Theory:	The kind of relationship between society and an organization or a system enforces the system or the organization to work harmoniously (Parsons, 1960). Social systems are composed of smaller sub-systems and are parts of super systems (Bursalioglu, 1971). This theory is in line with General Systems Theory.
	Idealizing this theory in the management of a school of education may create communicating institutions. Communication and cooperation of institutions within an education system may establish a coherent teacher education. Because these kinds of relationships may make schools of education be aware about the expectations in the surrounding system.
Information Systems Theory:	Feedback is at the centre of this theory. Taking feedback into account, comparisons should be made in order to progress (Bursalioglu, 1971). Communication is an important source of this theory. In particular, a nationwide education system should take communication within the system seriously and communication should be comprehended as other than official letters (Bursalioglu, 1971).
	Receiving feedback from pre-service teachers, mentors, and other teacher educators could support better links in the theory-practice relationship. In addition, stakeholders could enrich the content of the feedback in order to strengthen the links between theory and practice of GEC.

Having reviewed some of these theories, Drucker (1954) warned that planning and getting things done are distinct tasks of the same job and separating them from each other could reduce the benefits of the scientific

management approach. Barrel (1982, p.6), strongly criticized the management theories from the point of view of putting education at the centre. His research reveals that staff of schools and colleges conceive management theories as: 'An inappropriate attempt to introduce industrial techniques into a situation which is based on personal relationships. Education, they say, is not susceptible to the imposition of hard-headed business concepts designed to increase profit margins'.

Balci (1988a) stated that only a non-one-sided approach, which values lots of theories, can help us to understand organizations better. The following section looks at the General System Theory as a suggestion to design Turkish education structure and management according to.

3.8.1 - General System Theory

According to Bertalanffy (1979), one discipline of science alone cannot explain systems; it needs other angles as well. Only a combination and/or accumulation of perspectives derived from all sciences can embrace and explain complexity of systems. Mulej (2007, p.347) agreed with this idea and explained that: 'Many observers find that humankind is in crisis due to lack of holism and due to too much reductionism - in human thinking, insight, decision-making and action - caused by increasingly narrow specialization per professions and disciplines… Specialization is unavoidable, but it is frequently not enough'. Evers and Lakomski (2001) stressed that higher applicability of the General Systems Theory has attracted many scientists.

While recently traditional analysis models which have been shaped in the last two centuries have divided the systems into smaller, more meaningful parts, analytic and mechanistic analysis approaches tend to isolate conclusions from each other (Philips, 1969). Since those meaningful smaller parts are analysed in isolation, Hegelians, as Philips (1969) refered to, rejected it saying that that isolated parts lose their feature of

being part of meaningful whole and making analysis and scientific conclusions cannot guide to proper understanding and results. Aristotle stated 'The whole is more than the sum of its parts' (Bertalanffy, 1972, p.407). This is called holism in General System Theory (Ball, 1978).

A system refers to an organized structure for a purpose. General systems theory is a model of continuous reflection (Berrien, 1968) that attempts to establish a larger system constructed of smaller systems (Bursalioglu, 1971). Such theory stresses that systems are structured in a plan and/or a schema. Parts of a system are not independent; instead they are task-based and dependent on each other (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1972).

General System Theory targets a maximum level of comprehensiveness. It proposes a system which embraces all systems (Boulding, 1956). General System Theory aims not to see everything at once (Wilby, 2005), but rather focuses on the relationship of a part with the whole and with other parts. Boulding (1956) gave examples starting from smaller meaningful organizations (systems) to bigger ones: atom, molecule, cell, organs, plant, animal, human, family… school of education, university, education system, state… earth, the Milky Way, galaxy, and universe. Each system consists of sub-systems. GST supports the structure of applying similar rules or schema at different levels (sub-systems) of organizations. As mentioned before, tactical training of Ajax, a top professional football team is a good example of GST. Whatever the age group of the teams, they are trained to play in the same way as the senior team is. Lorsch and Lawrence (1970, p.1) agreed that 'the internal functioning of organizations must be consistent with the demands of the organization task, technology, or external environment, and the needs of the members if the organization is to be effective'.

Though Kast and Rosenzweig (1972, p.455) asserted that 'social organizations do not occur naturally in nature; they are contrived by man', indeed they do exist. There is not a place on earth where men exist

without a social organization; even the family is a social organization. So social organizations exist naturally even though, they are formed by men either intentionally or unintentionally.

So, there are three kinds of system: natural systems (already existing systems), man-made systems (copying natural systems intentionally or unintentionally), and symbolic systems (which Bertalanffy, 1979, called conceptual). Bertalanffy (1979) exemplified conceptual (symbolic) systems as logic, mathematics and music. To an extent conceptual systems can be accepted as representative systems.

In order to comprehend the relationship between systems and sub-systems, an example from biology may help us. Ackoff (1971) had asked whether or not organs like the lungs or the heart could be accepted as even sub-systems as they are heavily dependent on other organs. They can be conceived as sub-systems but direction is important. If you compare one organ with the whole system of the human body, one could make mistake. Instead lower elements (sub-systems of sub-systems) should be focused on. An organ, such as a lung, is a (sub)-system and its subsystems are working towards the same goal (Ackoff, 1971). They are organized for the same purpose: to breathe. Systems, we should remember, are purpose-oriented, dependent and cooperative. Ultimately, General Systems Theory advises relating sub-systems to upper systems; however, while checking a group, whether it is a system or not, the comparison should be downwards because downwards directional analysis helps us to reach the smaller parts where purposefulness around the same goal can be tested.

According to Johnson *et al* (1964), General Systems Theory (GST) expects organizations such as schools of education to have a clearly schematized web of sub-systems. They reveal that GST urges smaller parts to have a functional-based and emotional relationship with each other. Every sub-system displays the properties of a separate system

(Gouldner, 1955) because they can still work for a purpose with their own sub-sub-systems unless they become isolated. 'At least not in a longer term: no human can be self-sufficient' (Mulej, 2007, p.350) and so other systems cannot either. Sub-systems should complete all together around a purpose without making any competition, clash and conflict (De Bono, 2005; Christakis and Bausch, 2006; Mulej and Mulej, 2006).

Mulej (2007) noted that GST as a complete understanding and upwards relation control of holistic systems is an overwhelming task. However, the author of this thesis believes that this should always be the aim. Mulej (2007) went on to say that there should be a balance between realistic and holistic approach and that is interdisciplinary studies. 'Communication between the disciplines' (Boulding, 1956, p.198) are valued on a par with a researcher being an expert in more than one discipline or at least knowing more than one discipline to an important extent. Familiarity with the other disciplines should have already been an obligation.

With regards to the parts of a system, a part's relation to the whole should be known as well as its relation to other parts. Whenever you talk about a part you need to talk about the whole; without talking about the whole talking about the part does not mean anything (James, 1884). Bertalanffy (1960) drew our attention to some features of the whole that cannot be observed at any smaller level, part, organ or sub-system of a system. For instance, a mechanical gear is composed of parts such as gears but, for example, each gear does not have the potential to tell the time. Hegelian philosophers explain the roots of GST: '(i) the whole is more than the sum of the parts; (ii) the whole determines the nature of the parts; (iii) the parts cannot be understood if considered in isolation from the whole; (iv) the parts are dynamically interrelated or interdependent' (Philips, 1969, p.7).

In contrast Beer (1961) argued that it may be difficult to recognize the smaller systems separately; it depends on our success in selecting a

homogenous slice from the universe or establishing a slice in the universe that represents the general system. Otherwise, a carelessly taken sample may not represent the whole but the first explanation is correct. It is worth noting that the general systems theory does not make smaller systems connect to the universal one; instead it makes connection to the nearest and biggest possible one in order to facilitate understanding. The relationship between the parts and the whole is as important as the relationship of a part with other parts.

Open System Theory is when a system has an interaction in two directions; both input(s) and output(s). This theory is one of the supportive theories of the General System Theory. According to this theory, all systems are open systems so that they can have tradeoffs with each other and/or with bigger systems.

Open System theory combines the macro approach of sociologists and the micro approach of psychologists. The weakness of the macro approach is that it does not care about psychological forces that affect the situation. The micro approach has difficulty in seeing the broader picture. It only cares about a few generalized views. According to Bursalioglu (1971), a combination of these two may make us understand the systems better and he gives the example of a university, stating that the openness of a university increases if it carries out research because research raises the interaction between the university and other systems.

The mechanical clock example is one of an open system. The only difference with other open systems is that energy is the input given by a human or a battery and output is a social interaction of displaying the time to humans; it continues that social interaction until its input (energy) finishes. So systems are naturally open systems, apart from those designed intentionally as closed systems and artificially made ones which are destined to die (end) as long as no input is processed.

So, what happens if someone puts the first energy in a clock but never looks at it? The clock continues to display its social interaction (output) even if nobody looks at it. To some extent it is like a person singing in an empty desert. The point here is that it is up to the human to benefit from the outcome. Furthermore, what is the relationship of a singer in an empty desert with other subsystems and with the whole system? The same question stands for the clock example. For the singer, it is the sound waves for the other subsystems and also interestingly the social outcome for herself, as it may make her happier. This may be called boomerang interaction (output of a system becomes an input of the same system). For the clock it is again sound waves (at micro level) and relief of energy (neutral boomerang affect). Negative boomerang affect can be illustrated as a man punching a wall. The output is the energy and the input, which is a negative return for the system, is harm to the hand.

Bursalioglu (1971) stated that the crucial aim of systems is that every single system tends to de-organize. Research and innovation (e.g. necessary changes for organizations) can only postpone or delay it. Inevitable end is unavoidable. Systems may be successful as long as they are similar to natural systems and at the same time as much as they are innovative. How can a system copy a natural system and at the same time be innovative? There are billions (maybe more than that) of systems in the universe to copy. Many systems are discovered and explained but the amount is like a water drop in an ocean. There is still room for copying that will result in innovation.

We will now look at how social systems and organizations should be. Two main ends can be detected: authoritarian and democratic (there is also anarchy; however, if there is anarchy then there is no system or organization, so in this context anarchy cannot be accepted as an end). The difference between an authoritarian and a democratic system is not that a manager gives orders in the first one and takes others' views in the

second one. Rather it is that the decision-making and governmental authority is deployed among the staff (Bursalioglu, 1971).

Bursalioglu (1971) called our attention to whether if a system neglects human values, that system is destined to be unsuccessful both in explaining the structure and in terms of outcomes. It may be useful to reflect upon the systems in the universe and on the universe itself as a methodology of taking a social and psychological perspective in mind. A long-term research carried out by Mann (1957) showed that the relationship between members or staff of a group or an organization directly affects the efficiency of that organization. This means that organizations are affected by emotions, ethics, and values.

The following section will look at whether it is possible to apply General Systems Theory in schools of education.

3.8.1.1 - Application of General System Theory to the Management of Education Faculties:

There have been no serious efforts to apply GST to educational administration and particularly to the management of education faculties. Bush (1986) highlighted this problem as he ignores GST and complains about the lack of a comprehensive theory for educational management. Rather than complaining he could have tried to apply GST to educational organizations.

Bursalioglu (1971) rightly stated that it is inefficient to establish the sub-systems of an education system gradually; instead education systems (e.g. schools of education) can be established wholly at once depending on a pre-plan and schema. Otherwise, he notes, because the system is established by a method of gathering it may not represent a fully fitted whole and some critical features might be missing. Although Mizikaci (2006, p.43) detailed GST as 'universal principles of organization, which

hold true for all systems', the researcher believes that GST should be more about universal schemes and structures rather than principles. The major characteristics of systems were juxtaposed by Banathy (2000) as:

-Systems are target tailored.
-Systems should have inputs.
-Outputs are the contribution of a system to the super system and are about the goals of the system.
-Outputs are questioned and evaluated regarding the feedback coming from the other systems.

Evers and Lakomski (2001, p.501) stated that 'Systems employ feedback mechanisms in order to self-correct; and systems tend towards equilibrium'. Yes, indeed they are right; the universe looks like a system of equilibrium. This point is where administrative theories start their search for excellence (Evers and Lakomski, 2001).

As stated, feedback is important in order to correct the mistakes made in a system. Negative feedback (if there is any) is natural and reflexive; however positive feedback can only be given by creatures with consciousness (humans). Negative feedback is a kind of control mechanism for both products and the relationship with other systems. Outsourced negative feedback also warns the other systems. If the outcomes are expected outcomes for systems, there will be no need to recognize them as the systems are destined to achieve those goals. Interestingly, if a system works properly, it is already awarded as it is a contribution to the whole system to exist in a healthy way. If the whole system survives, the sub-systems can also survive. When it comes to systems, including humans as sub-systems, the situation changes a little. For motivational issues, positive outcomes of a system should be recognized and appreciated, and (where necessary) rewarded. For those psychology and sociology-based systems both negative and positive feedback is important for survival and achievements.

Taking any country's national education system as a super system, universities and all other natural and human copied systems are open sub-systems of that super system. They are open to exchange of inputs and outputs. Universities may accept an accreditation system (organization) to evaluate the feedback, efficiency, and quality of outcomes and in doing so mistakes are corrected and new values are added. Mizikaci (2006) concluded that the labour market and society are natural audit mechanisms. Young (1971) analysed labour markets and society effects of deploying authority to several equal or lower management levels which produces hierarchy and an elite class.

Kahyaoglu and Yangin (2007) placed achieving targets and efficiency as prerequisites within an education system. It is necessary for there to be congruence of the system regarding every single element and member of the system, such as teachers, students, managers, inspectors, schools, families, and stakeholders and he puts teachers at the heart of the system. The institutions for teacher education in modern times are schools of education (education faculties). Just as teachers are important so are schools of education.

Narrowing the kind of system from a university to a school of education within it, it can be seen that the latter needs to be studied within its own context. In Turkish universities, their education faculties have their own context but because of strict centralization, they are very similar in terms of structure. Before studying them individually, it may be useful to remember that every single system should have sub-systems dedicated to communication, and feedback mechanism (Bursalioglu, 1971). He added that the borders of sub-systems can be drawn regarding their tasks. The following section will offer the observation of the researcher and analysis regarding GST.

Looking at Turkish education faculties, at first glance it can be seen that their decision-making ability is very limited. They are under the management of university administrators and the HEC. Considering the ongoing flexibility they have, it can be put forward that the managers (deans) and/or management council of education faculties in Turkey do not know how to use their power effectively and efficiently to make decisions. This may be due to hesitation by upper authority holders in making decisions or from the HEC as, until recent years the HEC has been highly-politicized. Those who dared to use their power to decide were mostly prevented from doing so by strict regulations.

The sub-systems of Turkish education faculties need to communicate more than going on points and feedback coming from internal and external sources. Tasks of smaller organisms in education faculties should be clarified. Counselling should be encouraged and be a rule for decision making. Competition and collegialism (brotherhood and sisterhood) should go hand in hand. Each academic should conceive (logically) and perceive (emotionally) themselves as interdependent sub-systems. While in terms of science, competition should be a tool to seek true knowledge it should not be target or a way of stepping on others to reach higher levels. Academics should reach their desires by checking and controlling themselves as sub-systems and cooperation with other sub-systems (academics), counselling with each other and collegialism should be envisioned by managers. It might be useful for academics to ask, what is science apart from money? Managers should organize counselling meetings with academics both to share a vision and to gather their opinions in order to improve the faculty. Returning to academics, their knowledge of interdisciplinary approach should be improved; not that there should be academics from different disciplines but that each academic should have knowledge of different disciplines. Expertise in more than one is preferred.

For teacher education and theory-practice relationship within teacher education, managers should use every authority, flexibility, decision-making ability, and freedom to enhance the quality of that relationship. For instance, education faculties may put pressure on schools in which students do their teaching practice and on mentors when putting pressure on them, fostering them with academic seminars and academic resources (articles, books, related videos, etc.) should be at the centre.

The example of Durham University School of Education cited earlier is very different from its Turkish equivalents. Its staffs' decision-making abilities are far greater than those in Turkey; the School of Education staffs decide the structure of the relationship between the school and the university, the balance between teaching, supervising, and research is well regulated and the student/academic ratio is acceptable. The only missing point, it could be argued, is that encouraging the interdisciplinary knowledge of English academics might be enhanced; if there is an expertise in two subjects such as Generic Education Courses and Mathematics, then it could be encouraged to be three.

Conclusion

Eres (2004) said that it is better to focus on a forest than tree, although the author of this thesis values doing both at the same time. Education faculties should study their internal structure and styles of internal management while bearing in mind the bigger systems, such as the university and national education system. Moreover, educational management departments should also study higher education management, particularly management of education faculties.

This chapter has focused on management challenges in schools of education. General Systems Theory is examined as a solution for the better, more effective, and more efficient management of education faculties, and for a better quality theory-practice relationship. It is crucial to

hear how participants of this research conceive the theory-practice relationship in terms of Generic Education Courses and what they think about the role of management in terms of bettering that relationship. The final chapter will attempt to find answers to these questions.

Management is conceived as a combination of administration, management, and leadership within this context. Providing the relationship with other institutions (systems or sub-systems), university (systems or subsystems), and education system (super systems, systems, sub-systems) is an administrational task of the management body. Inspiration, motivation and goal-oriented vision are features which originate in leadership but are a part of management. Management itself is about controlling and organizational structure.

Organizational structures should be designed properly to achieve their goals. Management and system theories are there to aid. Zen Organization Theory, Human Relations Theory, Cooperation Theory, Rational Management Theory, Social System Theory, Information Systems Theory, and General Systems Theory are some of them. General Systems Theory embraces other theories. It offers a structure where every single part is related to every other and at the same time to the whole structure and leaves out no single detail. The researcher has preferred to focus on this theory as it is holistic and more comprehensive.

When it comes to applying there are two main issues: in the wider context, to apply it as a whole system a nationwide authority is needed but this is outside of our remit here. Secondly, at faculty level, authority and flexibility for decision-making is needed and this is where decentralization starts. A bottom-up approach puts pressure on faculty management as they need to listen to the ideas coming from lower levels but there should be limits so as not to cause chaos. Clashes of ideas are good but when it comes to decision-making authoritarian roles should be clarified. There should be a

last man or a counsel for decision making who listens to others and values ideas coming from other people.

Management has an effect on teacher education and so on the theory-practice relationship of GEC. That effect may be at a human level or at an organizational (structure) level. The rest is about applying correct policies, strategies, and theories for management and the system. The application of General Systems Theory to education systems, specifically to universities, and particularly to schools of education might bring about successful outcomes. One of those outcomes might be better links between the theory and practice of GEC in teacher education.

CHAPTER 4: METHODOLOGY

The chapter is organised as follows:

- Introduction discusses the nature and meaning of methodology .

- 4.1 Purpose of the study section clearifies the reasons behind this research.

- 4.2 About methods: In this part, validity, reliability and triangulation are investigated.

- 4.3 Data collection methods are also explained (Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Method).

- 4.4. The next title is about Phenomenography.

- 4.5 Types of Data Collection Tools (the Survey-Interview and Questionnaire) are described under some other titles.

- 4.6 Sampling part clearifies how data samples were collected.

- 4. 7 Ethics draw our attention to the points that the researcher applied.

- 4.8 Objectivity- Subjectivity discussion broadens our perspective about the reliability and validity issues for a research.

- 4.9 Phenomenographic Research and Analysis focuses on how Phenomenography was put in practice within this research.

- 4.10 Research Design sheds light on that this research has an inductive approach and gave reasons for that.

- 4.11 Discussion of the Pros and Cons of phenomenography as an approach.

- 4.12 Section named the procedures used in this study display the stages of research step by step.

- 4.13 Statistical Analysis section identifies the type calculations used to make statistical analysis.

- 4.14 A Pilot Test was carried out to learn the methodology, experience it, and see possible pitfalls beforehand.

- 4.15 About Comparison section explores comparative approaches between two or more different contexts.

- Then Methodology Chapter is summarized.

Introduction: What is methodology?

Methodology can be described as the map of the research, a map which allows the researcher to question what is going on, try to reach a conclusion, and to establish validity and reliability. The methodology can also be defined as the style of the research, and it prepares a basis for analysis (Arslanoğlu, 2008). Scott & Morrison describe methodology as:

> The theory (or set of ideas about the relationship between phenomena) of how researchers gain knowledge in research contexts and why. The 'why' question is critical since it is through methodological understanding that researchers and readers of research are provided with a rationale to explain the reasons for using specific strategies and methods in order to construct, collect, and develop particular kinds of knowledge about educational phenomena (Scott & Morrison, 2006, p.153).

There has been some criticism claiming that anti-positivist research methods should not be accepted as scientific methods. Cohen and Manion (1994, p.38) clarified such methods and they successfully legitimize them as scientific methods, in a way which should have been done long ago:

> By methods, we mean that range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and

prediction. Traditionally, the word refers to those techniques associated with the positivistic model – eliciting responses to predetermined questions, recording measurements, describing phenomena and performing experiments. For our purposes, we will extend the meaning to include not only the methods of normative research but also those associated with the interpretive paradigm - participant observation, role playing, non-directive interviewing, episodes and accounts.

All research aims to find out useful information in order to make life easier and to establish the truth. Mouly talks about three ways to the truth 'experience, reasoning and research' (Mouly, 1978, in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.1). Cohen and Manion (1994) highlight personal experience as a source of knowledge and skills. They add here that sharing knowledge and experiences may enable people to learn from each other and/or people may learn from an authoritative source or a religious source. Whatever the sources are for learning, scientists' main aim is to describe the laws in a way (language) that humans can understand. Regarding what is going on in the universe, the duty of the scientist is to make logical deductions and discoveries (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Research is the underpinning basis for science. Mouly (op cit) defines research as the direction we take towards a final destination where the results should be reliable. This journey to the results should be planned properly and use systematically-gathered data. It is also better to apply a systematic approach for analysis and interpretation, in order to facilitate the investigations.

This methodology section is composed of several parts: the purpose of the study, the type of research methodology used, the type of methods, sampling, reliability, and validity.

4.1 - The Purpose of Study

When newly-qualified teachers embark on their career they are faced with real life conditions and problems. Practice is the point at which the theory is seriously tested. It has to be asked whether these education workers will be able to successfully apply what they have learnt and overcome any problems during the practice of pedagogical content knowledge. At times even experienced teachers have to face serious challenges (Arslanoğlu, 2008). On a daily basis, the problematic nature of the theory-practice relationship is experienced.

The issues that have emerged from the literature review may aid us to problematize them. For instance by looking at the empirical studies made in Turkey, it can be understood that there is a great problem in the Turkish context. Turkish supervisors do not pay sufficient care and attention to student teachers or give importance to their teaching practice.

Many pitfalls in practice and gaps may occur between the knowledge gained during initial teacher training and practice (Arslanoğlu, 2008). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between theory and practice by considering Turkish primary school teachers' and English primary school teachers' training programmes, taught in education faculties. In order to explore this relationship, students from those departments and teachers in primary schools will be asked their opinions. This kind of research generally has the goal of presenting recommendations to governments and educational organizations or presenting research findings to the field (Arslanoğlu, 2008). It has 'the potential to influence policy and practice and therefore is important for Educational Leadership and Management' (Bush, 2002, p.101). In addition to these goals of research there is also the investigator's curiosity and as

with all researchers, this researcher's aim is to satisfy his curiosity. This study will focus on trying to answer the four specific questions below:

1- What are the teachers' (novice and experienced), student teachers' and teacher educators' conceptions and/or perceptions of theory, practice, and their relationship?

2- Does the way that teachers conceive the relationship of theory and practice change as they gain more experience?

3- How do other people (teacher educators, mentors, administrators, peer teachers) in teacher education affect the theory-practice relationship quality?

4-How can the management of education system and schools of education support the development of a better relationship between theory and practice?

All these questions are asked within the specific context of the Turkish education system, but where appropriate comparisons are drawn from other education systems such as that of England.

4.2 - About Methods and their Details

When involved in any research study validity, reliability and triangulation need to be considered. This sub-section will briefly explain why each of these is important.

4.2.1 - Validity:

Bush explains the purpose of validity as: 'To judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon that it is intended to describe'

(Bush, 2007, p.97). Bell expresses the relationship between validity and reliability as follows:

> Validity ... tells us whether an item measures or describes what it is supposed to measure or describe. If an item is unreliable, then it must also lack validity, but a reliable item is not necessarily also valid. It could produce the same or similar responses on all occasions, but not be measuring what it is supposed to measure (1999, p.104, in Bush, 2007, p.97).

This research will try to obtain useful data, with the questionnaire and interview questions being designed to have validity. Francis signals the importance of '… mutually agreed rephrasing of the original expression' (Francis, 1996, p.41). Thus, during the collection of data in the interviews, the interviewees are asked to verify that the information and data given by them is true and correctly understood. Sometimes the interviewees are stopped in order to clarify the meaning or the researcher asks whether he has understood the sentences correctly. However, the researcher tried to avoid leading the interviewees in any particular direction. For instance; some interviewees corrected the meanings, which had been misunderstood by the researcher. It is useful to note that Bowden (1996) states that validity and reliability lack the differences to be studied one hundred percent separately.

4.2.2 - Reliability:

Bell describes reliability it as follows: 'Reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions' (Bell, 2005, p.117).

She goes on to give the clock example:

> A clock which runs ten minutes slow some days and fast on other days is unreliable. A factual question which may produce one type of answer on one occasion but a different answer on another is equally unreliable. Questions which ask for opinions

may produce different answers for a whole range of reasons. The respondent may just have seen a television programme which affected opinions or may have had some experience which angered or pleased and so affected the response (Bell, 2005, p.117).

Hammersley (1987) emphasizes that it is difficult to make a comprehensive definition of reliability and validity. In a contradiction to his claim, Bush indicates that:

There is wide support for the view that reliability relates to the probability that repeating a research procedure or method would produce identical or similar results. It provides a degree of confidence that replicating the process would ensure consistency (2007, p.92).

Given ideas about reliability support the following ideas: '[Reliability demonstrates] that the operations of a study -such as the collection procedures - can be repeated, with the same results' (Yin, 1994, p.144, in Bush, 2007, p.92).

A measure is reliable if it provides the same results on two or more occasions, when the assumption is made that the object being measured has not changed ... if a measure, or indeed a series of measures when repeated give a similar result, it is possible to say that it has reliability (Scott and Morrison, 2006, p.208, in Bush, 2007, p.92).

What makes a scientific approach reliable can be found amongst its principles, as Mouly (1978) implies science has a self-correcting feature in its nature. Time decides whether scientific knowledge will remain the same, change or be removed from accepted literature. As Sandberg (1996) states: a method of science to be reliable and to self-check is replicability, and replicability is accepted as a main controller in reliability for social sciences. Kerlinger indicates how replicability can be achieved: If at least two independent researchers get results closer to the first one the research can be accepted as reliable, regarding that using the same data set is a necessity (1973).

A second method is the awareness of the researcher (Sandberg, Marton, 1996, Gurwitsch, 1964). If the researcher is aware of his bias or his biased nature, it may force him to become more objective.

The third method is interjudge reliability. Sandberg explains it as follows:

> It is a form of replicability in the sense that it gives a measurement of the extent to which other researchers are able to recognise the conceptions identified by the original researchers through his/her categories of description. … Interjudge reliability requires that one or more researchers (co-judges) read the same data as the original researcher, but with reference to the categories of description that have been identified by the original researcher (Sandberg, 1996, p.132).

Marton (1996), discussing phenomenography as a research tool, adds that interjudge reliability is a phenomenographic style check point. Fowler (1983) contributes one more condition to those already mentioned: when all interviewees are asked the same questions in the same way, then reliability can take place. In this research, questions which have the property of reliability are asked. When the questionnaire and interview are repeated after some time, hopefully they will achieve the same results. For the questionnaire in this study, the interviewees will be asked the same or similar questions face to face which will help to enable reliability.

4.2.3 - Triangulation:

Triangulation is accepted as one of the necessary features of good research. Bush (2007, p.100) explains its meaning as: 'Comparing many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of information or phenomena. It is essentially a means of cross checking data to establish its validity'. Cohen and Manion expand the definition:

> Triangulation may be defined as the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behaviour. ... The use of multiple methods, or the multi method approach, as it is sometimes called, contrasts with the

ubiquitous but generally more vulnerable single-method approach that characterises so much of research in the social sciences ... triangular techniques in the social sciences attempt to map out, or explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more than one standpoint (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.233).

Triangulation consists of at least three bases for comparison, which are at least two different methods of research (such as interview and questionnaire, or multiple data sources) and cross checking data analysis such as computer assisted analysis (using programmes such as SPSS, Nvivo or Weft Qda) and personal analysis by phenomenography. These three parts of the research underpin the theory or the research question. McFee interprets this interaction as:

Triangulation between methods employs two or more approaches to a single problem ... triangulation between methods compares (at least) two research 'solutions' to a single problem in an effort to 'validate' the outcomes of one approach in terms of the outcomes of another (McFee, 1992, p.215, in Bush, 2007, p.100).

Using such triangulation increases the validity and reliability of the study. Bush offers similar opinions about triangulation. He describes it as: '… fundamentally a device for improving validity by checking data, either by using mixed methods or by involving a range of participants' (Bush, 2007, p.101). The only important concern about triangulation is that it may 'cause discrepancies and disagreements among the different sources' (Robson, 2004). It is up to the researcher to prevent or to solve this and one possible solution would be to choose the right sources and to decide which ones are most valid and reliable.

To achieve triangulation, a researcher should be convinced that another method of data collection would result in similar outcomes (Lin, 1976). Cohen and Manion reflect upon Lin's idea and add that 'Where triangulation is used in interpretive research to investigate different actors' viewpoints, the same method, e.g. accounts, will naturally produce

different sets of data' (Cohen and Manion, 1994, pp.233-234). They also assert that validity produces some problems for researchers whose research is based on triangulation (1994). This criticism is due to the difficulties of tracking the analysis from a combination of several methods. However, the complexity should not be accepted as a problem as long as the triangulation is set up properly and in an organized way. McCormick and James (1983) suggest that: 'One way of doing this is for the researcher to write out his/her analysis for the subjects of the research in terms that they will understand, and then record their reactions to it. This is known as respondent validation' (McCormick and James, 1983 in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.241). However, some respondents may still react in a defensive way by rejecting the meaning, even if they agree with it or they might not understand exactly how the researcher revealed the meaning from the responses, without recognizing deep meaning lying behind their own sentences. Every data source is not necessarily expected to be an expert psychological analysis. This means that the rejection of a revealed meaning about a conception by an interviewee does not always require recognition. So for those reasons, rather than reaction of the respondents, relying on the researcher's comments may look like another solution. However, this does not mean that the comments of the researcher are perfectly reliable.

Triangulation is a mixed method approach. Small (2011, p.58) points out the ease in differentiating them from others as: 'mixed method [is] a quantitative survey supplemented by qualitative interviews'. She adds that for a mixed method study there should be two types of data collection (for example this research is composed of interviews and a questionnaire). In order to enhance the reliability and validity of my research - as two methods are used in the questionnaire (Likert Scale questions, and open ended questions) - within one questionnaire data, two pieces of data look different from each other they might be cancelled. The two main reasons for employing more than one kind of data in a single study is for them to

either complement one another or to confirm one another (Small, 2011, p.63). In this study two methods are applied in the questionnaire, for confirmation and in order to obtain a deeper understanding of what the respondents think. Moreover, this research seeks objective truth using a qualitative method though some suggest that qualitative method cannot match objective truth (Guba and Lincoln 1982; Smith and Heshusius, 1986; Lincoln and Guba, 2000). It can be said that the researcher should be able to understand the objective truth beyond the subjective understandings and conceptions. In this kind of analysis emotions should be separated from understandings as far as possible. This also highlights the difference between perceptions and conceptions.

4.3 - Methodology for this study

This research uses a mixed method approach which means using both qualitative and quantitative methods. By comparing the data obtained from these two methods (statistical data analysis and qualitative analysis of phenomenographical data), an attempt will be made to attain a valid and reliable conclusion and links between the data resources should be established, so that more valid and reliable results may occur.

While Small (2011, p.79) acknowledges the weakness of each as: 'interpretive techniques that lack formalization and statistical techniques that lack contextualization', it is helpful to remember that the qualitative method, specifically through the use of phenomenography (Marton, 1981), is prioritized in this inquiry and has been widely used as a valid and reliable method by social scientists since its introduction by Marton (see, for example, its use by Prosser et al., (1994), Njoka, (2007), and Newton & Newton, (2009)). Phenomenography as the main approach used here will be described in more detail later.

4.3 1 - Qualitative studies

Qualitative research is a kind of research which is interested in the composition of letters rather than the composition of numbers. Composition of letters relates to the words and sentences and their meaningful combinations. By choosing words instead of numbers as an interest area, qualitative research is clearly differentiated from quantitative research. Fetterman (1988) preferred qualitative methods, explaining the reasons as follows: 'A qualitative paradigm offers a new set of explanations of our educational system. It also enables researchers to ask new questions, answer different kinds of questions, and readdress old questions.' (Fetterman, 1988, p.6-7).

Watling and James (2007) saw very little difference between understandings and judgements we make in daily life, and qualitative methods. However, they added that there is a crucial difference in that those who have deeper understanding, are more systematic, more deeply critical and more careful. Because qualitative methods are naturally a part of our lives already, researchers and others who have interest in research, according to Watling and James, feel a familiarity with research that is qualitative.

Qualitative methods stand where positivist views are weak. Cohen and Manion (1994) explained this saying: 'The precise target of the anti-positivists' attack has been science's mechanistic and reductionist view of nature which, by definition, excludes notions of choice, freedom, individuality, and moral responsibility' (p.22). Nesfield-Cookson (1987) added that such a mechanistic science ignores life itself. He heavily criticized the positivist ideas saying:

> All they can do is to define life in terms of biochemistry, biophysics, vibrations, wavelengths, and so on; they reduce 'life'

to conceivable measurement but such a conception of life does not embrace the most evident element of all: that life can only be known by a living being, by 'inner' experience. No matter how exact measurement may be, it can never give us an experience of life, for life cannot be weighed and measured on a physical scale (Nesfield-Cookson in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p. 23).

Cohen and Manion (1994) agreed with Nesfield-Cookson that:

[Positivist Social Science] fails to take account for our unique ability to interpret our experiences and represent them to ourselves. We can, and do construct theories about ourselves and our world; moreover, we act on these theories… Social science, unlike natural science, stands in a subject-subject relation; it deals with a pre-interpreted world in which the meanings developed by active subjects enter the actual constitution or production of the world (p.25).

Interestingly, Hampden-Turner (1970) told of a similar mistake made by social scientists who behave as if they are positive sciences. How do those social scientists make these mistakes and what kind of mistakes are they? Hampden-Turner revealed the mistakes as focus mistakes. Social scientists are on the 'repetitive, predictable and invariant aspects of the person; 'on visible externalities' to the exclusion of the subjective world' (Hampden-Turner, 1970, in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.25).

So, do social sciences differ from positive sciences only in their focus or are there any other differences such as methodological ones? According to Beck (1979) it is impossible to learn about molecules from themselves, however, we can learn about humans from humans. We can learn from their perceptions and conceptions about social interaction. Social sciences enable us to understand the social world better rather than helping us to reach an absolute truth.

There are, of course, as with all types of research, some disadvantages to this kind. One of them was put forward by Wellington (1996) who talked about the effect of the researcher on the people being observed.

4.3.2 - Quantitative Studies

Quantitative methods are numerical methods that collect data from the research area that can usually be subjected to statistical analysis. In quantitative research participants' bias is understood by means of numbers. The most important advantage of quantitative methods is that it is easier to collect data and to interpret them. The statistical data are often collected using questionnaires or marking sheets which, for example, are to be marked in a range from one to five. There are two main disadvantages of the quantitative methods: the respondents' answers can be directed by the questions (- this is actually a weak point of all kinds of methods -), and you cannot obtain a deeper understanding of the social context.

4.3.3 - Mixed Methods

Small (2011) defined mixed methods as studies with two or more different types of data collection methods. One may be quantitative (generating data for statistical analysis) and another may be qualitative (e.g. interview-based data for interpretation).

Mixed methods studies have the advantage enabling triangulation of findings, inter-confirmation and/or inter-completion of what other methods say (Small, 2011). Bryman (1988) and Sieber (1973) described the adjective (attribute) of that kind of integration as beneficial.

Small (2011) reasoned why researchers prefer mixed method studies: 'Researchers have used complementary designs when they are reluctant to limit the kind of knowledge gained to that which a type of data can produce'. For this research that was exactly the same reason that the researcher desired. Numerical data gathered by questionnaires are expected to confirm and complete qualitative data obtained from interviews.

The approach favoured for this study is phenomenography (Marton, 1988), a mixed methods approach that involves a survey questionnaire and interviews, with data generaetd that can be subejcted to both qualitative and quantitative methods for analysis.

4.4 - Phenomenography

Comparable developments within social psychology may be perceived in the emerging 'science of persons' movement. Its proponents contend that because of our self-awareness and powers of language, we must be seen as systems of a different order of complexity from any other existing system whether natural, like an animal, or artificial, a computer, for instance. Because of this, no other system is capable of providing a sufficiently powerful model to advance our understanding of ourselves. It is argued, therefore, that we must use ourselves as a key to our understanding of others and conversely, our understanding of others as a way of finding out about ourselves. What is called for is an anthropomorphic model of man (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.27).

As Cohen and Manion have drawn the outlines of social sciences, it should also be said that Social Sciences are the side of the sciences which mainly focuses on human dependent variables of life. As humans are at the centre, psychology is an inevitable part of a social science research. Every narrowing step from the social sciences leads us closer to the human himself. So the question of how humans can be studied might be seen as one of the central questions in the methodologies of social sciences. There have been many kinds of methodology or approach to social science research and phenomenography is one of them.

Phenomenography is accepted as a research approach or methodology that is used to collect data and to make analysis. Those data that will be analysed are generally obtained using interviews or questionnaires (especially with open-ended questions). A phenomenographic research study is interested in how the phenomenon is understood and in the conceptions of the relations of the objects. Marton (1988, p.179) described phenomenography as:

> ….. about the qualitatively different ways in which people experience or think about various phenomena. This implies that phenomenography is neither about the phenomena that are experienced or thought about as such, nor about the human beings who are doing the experiencing or thinking. Phenomenography is about the relations between human beings and the world around them.

Fetterman agrees that the phenomenographic focus is 'perception itself by looking at the relations between human beings and the world around them' (1988, p.7). Another definition made previously by Marton (1981) includes perception and conception. So it may be helpful to understand their meanings for the benefit of understanding the whole chapter:

Perception: '…the impression you have of something' (Colins Cobuild Dictionary, 2006, 1st meaning)

Conception: 'A conception of something is an idea that you have of it in your mind' (Colins Cobuild Dictionary, 2006, 1st meaning)

'A concept is the relationship between the word (or symbol) and an idea or conception' (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.17). The richness of vocabulary about conceptions directly affects our perceptions (Cohen and Manion, 1994).

> If our perceptions of the world are determined by the concepts available to us, it follows that people with differing sets of concepts will tend to view the 'same' objective reality differently. … There are two important points to stress when considering scientific concepts. The first is that they do not exist independently of us: they are indeed our inventions enabling us to acquire some understanding at least of the apparent chaos of nature. The second is that they are limited in number and in this way contrast with the infinite number of phenomena they are required to explain (p.17-18).

Phenomenographic analysis is made by grouping and regrouping the answers of the same questions according to the similarities that they involve without excluding the exceptions. This means that if an answer is given even by only one person and if that answer is essential for the holistic comprehension of the research, it is not ignored. Comparison is also considered and applied where it is necessary. In conclusion, the father of Phenomenography, Marton, informs us that individual voices are valued but not declared as 'this is only one's idea' (an individual idea cannot be ignored):

> The description is a description of variation, a description on the collective level. In this sense individual voices are not heard… Phenomenography is simply an attempt to capture critical differences in how we experience the world and how we learn to experience the world. Nothing more and nothing less (Marton, 1996, p.187).

4.5 - The Survey-Interview and Questionnaire

There are many descriptions of a survey (Arslanoğlu, 2008). One of them is as follows:

> Specifically, a survey is the most advisable methodology where the research objective is to gather general information about attitudes, opinions or characteristics, where data are required in a standardized form and are not available from other sources and where the researcher wishes to explore quantifiable differences between groups or relations between variables (Fogelman and Comber, 2007, p.128).

Semi-Structured Interviews: These have gained recognition amongst the phenomenographers and it is the semi-structured interviews that are preferred in this study. There are two main questions, the rest are spontaneously produced questions depending on the answers received. The first is: What is the relationship between theory and practice in initial teacher training courses? The second question is: How can management support the improvement of the relationship between theory and practice? Other questions such as why, how, what… underpin these questions. Interviews are voice recorded and later transcribed to capture the richness of the responses. Interviewee candidates were sent an email introducing my study and those who agreed were interviewed. 25 teacher trainers and 25 working teachers were interviewed in Turkey. In England, 10 teacher trainers and 10 working teachers were interviewed.

Questionnaires: Five Likert-Scale questions including 28 contrasting phrases were asked of student teachers as well as three open-ended questions. In all, 404 student teachers responded from Turkey and 18 from England. The Turkish respondents were students of five different universities in Turkey and the English respondents were students of Durham University in England. There were two groups of scaled questions concerning the theory-practice relationship in Generic Education Courses and the role of management of education faculties in terms of the theory-practice relationship. The researcher explained the ethical issues to the

student teachers in Turkey before they gave their answers and the same was done in England by representatives of the researcher. In Turkey the undergraduates of four universities were in their final year, and the other was a third-year student. In England all of them were in their final year.

The questionnaire is an improved version of Yuksel's (2010) using some of his questions and some titles for comparison. The questions about management belong to the researcher of this study. Although the original questionnaire could be accessed (retrieved) online at an earlier stage in the study, the researcher cannot now access it. When the designer of the original questionnaire was contacted for a copy, he replied that he could not find his questionnaire either on his computer. His response is attached in Appendices E1 and E2.

In order to determine the relationship between theory and practice in Turkey and England, a comparison will be made according to the aims of this survey. Hopefully, by understanding the situation and its reasons, some analysis can follow.

4.6 - Sampling

In this research the main samples of teacher candidates were chosen for the survey were from the education faculties of universities in Turkey. In order to be able to obtain proper and relevant answers, the questionnaire was applied to student teachers who had taken most of the Generic Education Courses. Respondents cannot answer properly regarding topics about which they have no knowledge or with which they are not familiar (Taskin and Haciomeroglu, 2010). For this reason the questionnaire was applied to final year students and one group of third year students from a four year course in Turkey. Since Emir (2009) and Çubukçu (2006) are not

satisfied with the critical thinking abilities of Turkish student teachers, the researcher preferred not to interview them but to learn their ideas via a questionnaire.

As well as the samples being from several faculties of education, the sample also consisted of only volunteers from students of those faculties (Arslanoğlu, 2008). This kind of sampling is called opportunity sampling. Opportunity sampling makes data collection easier because the respondents were volunteers, and therefore could be expected to give more honest and detailed answers. The intention was to increase reliability and validity. Interviewees were also chosen from among graduates.

Two types of questions were used in the questionnaire: open-ended questions, and a ranking type of closed questions. The aim of using open-ended questions was to allow the students to answer more freely and to express their opinions and their feelings more easily (Arslanoğlu, 2008). This freedom and ease enabled the researcher to obtain the students' thoughts and ideas. The use of open ended questions is useful in social sciences although the answers to such questions are more likely to be influenced by the particular circumstances of the respondents. Close to final examinations students may be more stressed which may reduce objectivity and thus be an important disadvantage. At such times students are more likely to criticise the courses; however, the advantages outweigh the disadvantages in using this method. Statistical data are collected using ranking (closed) questions which is a fast way of obtaining information about something. This type of question allows the researcher to obtain the perceptions and views of the respondents. This too is open to outside effects, however because of the limitations of the numbers, it is less likely to be affected (people can express more ideas by words). As these kinds of questions have the advantage of being answered quickly, respondents

can easily be found for this type of survey. They are also easier for the researcher to evaluate (Arslanoğlu, 2008).

The researcher used open-ended questions when conducting the interviews, in order to learn more about the interviewees' experiences and conceptions (Arslanoğlu, 2008). The interviews were carried out face to face with a voice recorder. It is important for respondents to have enough time to answer them in order for the researcher to obtain reliable data. However, having the researcher there may cause psychological pressure for the respondent which may be a significant disadvantage. Again, the advantages of this kind of study outweigh its disadvantages. The data obtained is then evaluated by comparing the results with each other and comparing them with the information in the literature review. The researcher will comment on them where necessary according to his knowledge and experience (Arslanoğlu, 2008) in the chapter that discusses the findings.

4.7 - Ethics

Cohen and Manion (1994) pointed out, regarding being ethical, that: 'Social scientists generally have a responsibility not only to their profession in its search for knowledge and quest for truth, but also for the subjects they depend on for their work' (p.359). Cavan described ethics in research as: 'A matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others' (1977, in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.359).

Cohen and Manion talked about three legs of ethics: privacy, anonymity and confidentiality (1994). Privacy may be defined as the situation in which a person shares ideas or information with another person, but only on the condition that they are used anonymously in research. So here we need to

know what anonymity is. Anonymity relates to keeping the identity of the data source secret. Cohen and Manion explained confidentiality as follows: 'This means that although researchers know who has provided the information or are able to identify participants from the information given, they will in no way make the connection known publicly; the boundaries surrounding the shared secret will be protected' (1994, p.367).

The questionnaire and the interview were prepared for this research according to the general rules of ethics. The data gathered from the people who agreed to take part will not be made the public, it will be kept in a safe place or will be destroyed after the requisite period of time (normally ten years). When any data or phrases are used the name of the respondent will not be given or will be changed (Arslanoğlu, 2008). Schools and teachers will remain anonymous.

In the University of Durham in England there is an ethics committee and approval of this committee is necessary for this doctoral research to take place. This study successfully gained that committee's approval; in other words this research meets the standards of the Ethics Committee of Durham University (see Appendix D).

4.8 - Objectivity-Subjectivity Issues

In this part, it may be useful to consider some philosophical reasons behind the preference of phenomenography.

In order to understand why a researcher in social sciences chooses a method (or a research topic that can be explored better by that method)

one might start with an investigation about the researcher's life and/or his philosophical background (Balci, 1988b). Interestingly, this is also the point where objectivity-subjectivity discussions take place. Gordon *et al* (1990) agree stating that: 'We assert that the questions posed for research investigation, the methodologies selected, and the interpretations of findings are often influenced by the perspective with which the investigator approaches his or her work'. Heshusius (1994) argues for putting distance between the researcher and the phenomena, the roots of which have come from the natural sciences, which puts forward that the knowledge seeker distances himself from the studied object.

Objectivity may be interpreted as putting aside emotional preferences that may affect the research result. Heshusius says of subjectivity: 'What is seen as subjectivity is about one's own life. About one's past' (1994, p.19). To what extent can a researcher put himself aside? This question is also related to the extent to which objectivity is achieved or to whether we need to achieve a higher objectivity.

The first question is replied to by Barfield (1979) unintentionally, as he is talking about a slightly different context: 'We are studying the world itself (Heshusius gives a pre-explanation, 1994, p.18). Barfield extends the view of Heshusius that we are not studying some so called 'inner' world, divided off, by a skin or skull, from a so called 'outer' world; we are trying to study the world itself from its inner aspect' (1979, p.18). In his main text he argues in the context of consciousness, however, there is no need to hesitate to think about it and generalize it by means of social sciences.

There have been two scientific approaches to understanding this world. One is positivism; the other is anti-positivism, although historically the

latter came first. Holbrook (1977) strongly criticises positivism and he answers our second question about objectivity as a necessity: 'There can be no debate unless we are prepared to recognize the bankruptcy of positivism, and the failure of 'objectivity' to give an adequate account of existence, and prepared to find new modes of enquiry' (in Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.25).

Heshusius asks 'Are there parts of us that are not subjective? If so, are the not-subjective parts objective?' and answers 'Or maybe there are two kinds of subjectivity: the accounted for and the not accounted for, the tamed and the untamed (as suggested by Peshkin, 1988, pp.20-21)' (Heshusius, 1994, p.16).

Where does phenomenography stand regarding these issues and why has it been chosen in terms of objectivity-subjectivity issues? Pramling (1996) describes the understanding process as a collection of conceptions about the things and happenings around him. Experiences about phenomena also construct the understanding process. As phenomenography is about conceptions and perceptions, it appears to offer subjective ways of revealing the truth or parts of the truth, not because the researcher is subjective but what the researcher is trying to find out depends on subjective declarations of people. Marton explains why phenomenography is a better tool for an objectivism biased researcher collecting subjectivist data:

> The ontology phenomenography is based on is non-dualistic and that knowledge is neither subjective nor objective but both, which means that the subject and the object are internally related. The child is incorporated into the world and the world becomes a part of the child. (1992a) … Knowledge is thus both personal and collective, partly experienced by the individual and partly beyond the individual (1994b, in Pramling, 1996, p.83-84).

Whilst it was mentioned before that a researcher cannot separate himself (or herself) from his research one hundred percent or perfectly, this does not take away from him the responsibility to be as objective as possible. There is no perfect objectivism for social sciences; however, it is the social scientist's duty to pursue an enhanced objectivism. We will now look at how a researcher should power his objectivity According to Heshusius:

> The preoccupation with how to account for one's subjectivity can be seen as a subtle version of empiricist thought in that it portrays the belief that one knows 'how handle things,' that one knows what is 'behind' things and 'behind' oneself and how to keep it under control, a belief that was taken to its extreme in the positivist, empiricist tradition (Heshusius, 1994, p.16).

The researcher is in agreement with Heshusius that what we call objectivity is actually under-control or inspected subjectivity. So the researcher believes that there are two types of approach: natural (and/or intentional) subjectivity and under-control (and/or inspected) subjectivity.

4.9 - Phenomenographic Research and Analysis

This research is not primarily about attitudes, beliefs, acceptations, affirmations perceptions nor self-efficacy; rather it targets views, understandings, and conceptions. The researcher underlines the differences of those two groups as: while the first group represents emotional perspectives, the second group is more concerned with ideas, comprehending, and intelligent perspectives. The participants of this study are adults. They are educated people and they are at the very centre of teaching practice and teacher education. Their emotional responses were not sought as emotions – they are considered to be more about motivational issues by the researcher. The participants were asked their own opinions about the theory-practice relationship. Ideas are prior to, and more important than, emotions for this inquiry. However, that does not

mean that elements of the first group are neglected. They are definitely not. Attitudes, beliefs, acceptations, perceptions and self-efficacy are important and related to this study but they are accepted as side effects of it. Moreover, the ideas collected in this research are not an evaluation of each individual but an evaluation of the teacher education structure and/or education system.

Having talked earlier about the definitions of conceptions and perceptions, it may be useful to explain where they stand in a phenomenographic approach. Francis (1996) explained it as follows:

> … its insistence on attempting to capture conceptualizations which are faithful to the individual's experience of a selected learning phenomenon. This differentiates it from research which uses the preconceptions of the researcher to prompt thoughts about a suggested topic… In phenomenography conception comes fresh from the individual's reflection on a particular experience (Francis, 1996, p.36).

Although phenomenography was established for 'a better understanding of learning' (Sandberg, 1996, p.129), it is now applied in many occasions and situations besides education.

When phenomenographic researches are taken into consideration, it can be put forward that they clarify a social or psychological situation or problem. It may be the researcher's duty to find a solution or to make the findings more understandable. Lack of analysis for this kind of research may reduce the researcher from a scientist to just an experimenter or a data collector. This idea produces a contrast regarding Francis' point of view. He mentioned categories of descriptions as a main goal but not the analyses themselves (Sandberg, 1996). Here pragmatic and practical educational outcomes (if any) of phenomenographic researches can be questioned. Categories of descriptions may take a wide view of what

research questions are seeking but analysis is still required to produce some beneficial outcomes, mainly for social sciences and especially – as far as this study is concerned - for educational sciences.

Francis (1996) accepted the phenomenographic approach as a qualitative equivalent of exploratory factor analysis when quantitative research is kept in mind. Marton (1996) described the phenomenographic approach in a more comprehensive way as:

> The basic unit of phenomenography is experiential, non-dualistic, an internal person-world relationship, a stripped depiction of capability and constraint, non-psychological, collective but individually and culturally distributed, a reflection of the collective anatomy of awareness, inherent in a particular perspective (Marton, 1996, p.172).

He added that thinking is an activity of both fiction and a way of experiencing things (Marton, 1996).

When the theory and practice relation context is considered, the phenomenographic approach can be useful in order to reveal the perceptions and/or conceptions of teachers (novice and experienced), student teachers and lecturers who are university staff. While this type of analysis is about conceptions, it will help us to display them and it will be an appropriate tool to learn their ideas about the role of management in increasing the awareness of their knowledge while the teacher candidates are still bachelor degree students. By comparing the perceptions and conceptions of the above-mentioned participants in the education system, this analytical research tool will highlight the big picture of the situation and the show the way forward.

Therefore in this research phenomenography has been chosen as a research analysis tool. This tool or approach will help us to understand the conceptions of the research participants of the relationship of theory and practice experience in education faculties and practice in the real world. The way in which the management of education faculties contribute to the relationship between theory and practice will be examined. If the conceptions of those insiders are understood very well, the relationship between theory and practice may be established better.

4.9.1 - Phenomenographic Style

Phenomenographic research is mainly based upon interviews which are mostly semi structured. As Francis stated'In much other interviewing the researcher presents the topic and guides the interviewee through a range of questions based on the researcher's conception of it' (Francis, 1996, p.36). In other words, a questionnaire is a tacitly or openly set up scene of categories of description for the questionnaire respondents; however, for phenomenographic interviews, the situation is different: categories of descriptions are presented by the interviewees, not by the researcher. So phenomenographic research has the great advantage of lack of preconceptions of the researcher by means of categories of descriptions. Categories of descriptions are presented by interviewees consciously or unconsciously. To reveal conceptions, this approach puts forward a valuable though not perfect way if it can be applied properly, because the interviews are not pre-directed. This can also be seen as strength of the semi structured interview.

In this study the researcher presented the main topic in order to obtain permission to interview without showing any bias, nor guiding in any direction. The presentation of the main topic was also in a question style.

Marton (1994a, in Francis, p.39) gives a method for interviews in a dialogue concept. Long before this Marton put interviews at the very centre of the phenomenographic approach (Marton, 1986c, in Bowden, p.58). Bowden describes interviews as a style of 'having a focus, the way in which interviewees understand the chosen concept, and this focus is maintained through-out the interview' (1996, p.59). He gives examples of questions used during a phenomenographic interview: 'Could you explain that further? What do you mean by that? Is there anything else you would like to say about this problem?' (Bowden, 1996, p.59). It is also important to note that 'how' questions form the basis of phenomenographic interviews. Kroksmark (1987, in Uljens, 1996, p.108) explains this as: 'The what-aspect refers to the object of thought. The how-aspect again refers to the processes that delimit the object of thought'.

How are the data collected from the interviews evaluated? Marton answers this question:

> The researcher's attention is now shifted from the individual subjects (i.e. from the interviews from which the quotes were abstracted) to the meaning embedded in the quotes themselves. The boundaries separating individuals are abandoned and interest focused on the 'pool of meanings' discovered in data (1986c, p.42, in Bowden, p.60).

A phenomenographic research is like the atomization of complex molecules, which differs from chemistry as there is no clear formulation to atomize but only the understanding quality of the researcher. This kind of atomization is described by Marton as a step-by-step procedure. The mixed meanings are taken out and grouped according to their differences and the sentences with similar meanings are put in the same categories. Categories are decided upon according to their distinctness (Marton, 1986c). He goes on to say that many groups can be made related to the identification of categories of descriptions which consist of how the

phenomena are experienced and it does not matter whether the phenomena are explained literally or metaphorically. Marton calls these groups 'piles' (1994a). Bowden (1996, p.65) clarifies the relationship between conceptions and categories of descriptions:

> This is still consistent with Sandberg's notion of fidelity to the individuals' conceptions. The categories description should be as faithful as possible to the individuals' conceptions but without being claimed as being equivalent to them, as would be implied by the use of the term <u>conception</u> when referring to a category of description. I agree with Johansson, Marton and Svensson (1985, p.236) who claimed that a 'conception is not visible but remains tacit, implicit, or assumed'. I am satisfied that phenomenographic research produces descriptions which owe their content both to the relation between the individuals and the phenomenon (i.e. their conceptions) and also to the nature of the conversation between the researcher and each individual, and its context (which includes the relation between the researcher and the phenomenon).

I would like to extend Bowden's point of view. It is right that categories of descriptions are not something that can be accepted as equivalent of conceptions, however, they provide strong clues about conceptions and make it easier for readers to understand where conceptions stand in relation to the topic.

4.10 - Research Design

This research was designed to have an inductive approach as we are seeking categories of description to see a wider picture of the theory-practice relationship in terms of teacher training. The researcher has gathered data to build a broader perspective for the education system specifically for primary school teacher training. So it starts with small pieces which we call perceptions or conceptions, and ends as a completed puzzle by using the categories of descriptions, which can be accepted as bigger pieces composed of the smaller ones. As it is clear that we are

going from parts to the whole, this research may be accepted as an inductive research.

Since every single data derived from each individual is valued in a phenomenographic research, can phenomenographical social studies be accepted as the democratic roots of education system and/or educational research methods? It can be said that phenomenography is a way of revealing the mind map or mind set of people. As every single data group or category of description derived from that data is valuable and should be taken into account in a phenomenographic research, can we assert that a phenomenographic approach is a derivation of Einstein's relativity theory? Phenomenography looks like a search for relative meanings of a phenomenon, but interestingly, the outcomes may not be relative but common. Cohen and Manion might have meant this when they said: 'We thus live in a world of multiple realities' (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.30). This kind of understanding can be accepted as a kind of social relativity. The author of this thesis can only agree to some extent with this idea, because if there is not an agreed point for any situation in this world, what are we looking for? Sciences become useless and meaningless or at least they become 'overstood' (not understandable) for humans.

Bearing in mind that while phenomenographic research values all data, Uljens (1996) criticised phenomenographic research saying: 'it is impossible to reach absolute truth about something' (p.113). However, he corrected himself saying: 'In this sense reality is experience. Scientific truth is absolute only in a relative sense' (Uljens, 1996, p.113). He went on to explain how a phenomenographic approach should be understood by a missing example: 'The truth about for example a horse, is the sum of the observations of the horse-book writer, the jockey, the gambler, the farmer, the teenage girl, the veterinary' (1996, p.114). The missing point of this example is the truth about something is not necessarily the sum of

observations, as the observations could be wrong or low quality. Or rarely in social sciences, all parts may not be representatives of whole, like the water example: Water is composed of two kinds of atoms; one is naturally a burner (oxygen), the other is naturally burnable (hydrogen); but the whole (water) is an extinguisher.

4.11 - Discussion of the Pros and Cons of phenomenography as an approach

Although Saljo (1996, p.15 in Dall'Alba) argued that 'phenomenography lacks a theory of language and communication', it is clear that because this method (or approach) deals with people, there is no need to have a special kind of language as long as the language used by the researcher is in a 'probing' style without steering the interviewee in any direction. Furthermore, the communication refers to a gentle probing of the topic and making the interviewees speak as much as possible about what is relevant to the research topic. It is interesting to see Saljo criticise the phenomenographic approach on what I assume to be one of the strongest points, as it can be said that phenomenography has a limitless language to bring the perceptions and conceptions to the surface. There is a widened freedom in terms of style of questions whereas the only limit is not affecting interviewees' ideas and answers.

There are some debates around the conclusions of phenomenographic research. Francis' definition of the aim of phenomenographic research was criticized by the researcher before, but Bowden (1996) added a different dimension to this discussion. He talked about the conclusions lacking 'predictive power' (1996, p.50) and went on to say that he preferred research that could help people to alter their life style, keeping in mind that this should be established as a part of formal education. He called this style of phenomenography Developmental Phenomenography (Bowden,

1996). The author of this thesis agrees with Bowden (1996) that phenomenograhic research should have useful conclusions or offer suggestions that could result in a better relationship between people and phenomena. Understanding how phenomena are conceived by people should result in solutions to some of the problems in terms of education. Here, in this research, it is hoped that there may be some useful and practicable outcomes for some Turkish institutions and establishments, such as governments, schools of education and also universities themselves.

Another concern comes from Bowden (1996), that a person's conception may change in a short period of time and it is strongly related to the life conditions of that person. However, Bowden is forgetting that many conceptions continue throughout a person's whole life. So the point should be that a phenomenographic researcher is trying to find out a conception at a moment which may be a lifelong conception or a conception that is of short duration. However, this could possibly be said about all research methodologies. For example, regarding quantitative methods, it could be argued that statistical data taken via a questionnaire are ideas of a moment.

Giddens' (1976) point of view is logical in a sense that one of the weak points of phenomenography is that it is like bringing together the pieces of a puzzle, however sometimes the number of pieces brought together may not help us to see the broad picture clearly. Moreover, it is nearly impossible to prevent completely interviewees from misleading the researcher, not only in phenomenographic approach but also in any type of methodology.

It may be helpful to explain why phenomenography was preferred from amongst some alternative methodological approaches or tools. The superior and dominant features of phenomenography were described before. Other tools were not chosen for a variety of reasons.

Content Analysis: Content analysis depends on the phrases used in interviews or in answers. Frequency of words may also matter; the meanings behind the obvious ones are not probed. Marton (1986c, p.42, in Bowden, 1996, p.62) clarified it:

> An important difference between (phenomenographic analysis) and traditional content analysis is that, in the latter case, the categories into which the utterances are sorted are determined in advance. …the (phenomenographic) process is tedious, time consuming, labour-intensive, and interactive. It entails the continual sorting of data. ... Definitions for categories are tested against the data, adjusted, retested, and adjusted again. There is however a decreasing rate of change and eventually the whole system of meanings is stabilized.
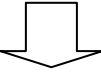
Case Study: A case study focuses on one example to reveal some useful outcomes for social sciences. Generalizations are targeted from a well-chosen case. As phenomenographic studies concentrate on people's conceptions, it is clear that the word 'people' refers to more than one person. If one person were taken as a case study example, the result would be far from a social science outcome and it would be difficult to generalize in such a study. Bowden's opinion is the same as that of the researcher: 'This [phenomenographic] analysis necessarily includes some input from the researchers and is feasible only by examining data from a number of individuals, not just one' (1996, p.64).

4.12 - The procedures used in this study

The aim of this phenomenographic research is to explore the perceptions and/or conceptions of teachers, teacher trainers and student teachers, so it is an explorative study. Additionally, because it targets and covers the categories of description, it is also a descriptive research. Uljens (1996) said that phenomenographic research is descriptive because 'every experience is described in content-loaded terminology' (p.107). This research is, finally, interpretive as well. Cohen and Manion's (1994) definition for interpretive researches fits the style of this research exactly and maybe all phenomenographic researches.

> But what of the interpretive researchers? They begin with individuals and set out to understand their interpretations of the world around them. Theory is emergent and must arise from particular situations; it should be 'grounded' on data generated by the research act. Theory should not precede research but follow it (1994, p.37).

In order to aid the reader, there follows a table (Table 2) that summarises how the data were collected and analysed. The first column shows the four key research questions being asked by the researcher to generate data for analysis. The middle column explains the stages or steps in the data collection followed over the period of roughly twelve months both in Turkey and England and the participants from whom the data were collected. Finally, the last column identifies the data collection tool used at each step or stage. To aid clarity, details of the interview and questionnaire tools and analysis are described under the columns. The clusters are decided according to their meannings, commonalities, relavance to each other, and relavance to the research questions.

Table 2

Research procedures

Research Questions	Operationalising	Data Collection Tools
[1] What are the teachers' (novice and experienced), student teachers' and teacher educators' conceptions and/or perceptions of theory, practice, and their relationship? [2] Does the way that teachers conceive the relationship of theory and practice change as they gain more experience (do their values and beliefs change)?	**Step 0 – pilot test** with 2 teachers to test the phenomenographic approach. _____ **Step 1-** An email was sent to **Turkish teacher educators**, (N=25) asking whether they accept the interview or not. In this email the topic of interview, a guarantee of anonymity and usage of a voice recorder were declared. The teacher educators who accepted were subsequently interviewed using the phenomenographical approach. ⬇ **Step 2- Working teachers, in Turkey,** were interviewed by asking permission from the school managers and teachers themselves. Interviewees were chosen from volunteers up to 25 (the target interview size). Interviews were done out of school hours. In England, a small sample of school heads were sent same email as the teacher educators. English working teachers at schools who accepted interviews were all volunteers. ⬇	[1] I**nterviews*** with teacher educators and working teachers (See Appendix F1 and F2). Interviews were done using a structured sheet with two main questions. Responses plus follow-up completed for all interviewees. [2] Using a **Structured Questionnaire*** (See

[3] How do the people (teacher educators, mentors, administrators, peer teachers) in teacher education affect theory-practice relationship quality?	**Step 3- Turkish student teachers** (N=404) were asked to complete the questionnaire. **Step 4- In England** the 3 previous steps were repeated with a small opportunistic sample of 10 teacher educators, 10 working teachers, and 18 student teachers to allow some perspective from another context.	Appendix B and C) for student teachers. The questionnaire used a Likert Scale grading in response to 28 questions and 3 open-ended questions. (undergraduates) *Please see section below for further details
[4] How can management of education system and schools of education support the development of a better relationship between theory and practice?		

Expansion:

Interviews: A structured sheet, containing 2 main questions, was used with each interviewee. All interviews were 1 to 1 with the researcher in a suitable room with no-one else present. Up to half an hour was allowed for this step. Answers to the 2 main questions were recorded and generated further probing questions, specific to each individual.

An additional question was asked of the working teachers only: 'Do you conceive yourself as a novice or an experienced teacher?' So they could be identified as either novice or experienced. This allowed some comparison when interpreting the

responses.

Analysing of Interviews: First of all, voice records were transcribed by two independent colleagues. Then the researcher separated the transcripts into four groups as: Turkish teacher educators, English Teacher Educators, Turkish Working Teachers, and English Working teachers. Any comments of relevance to the research questions were highlighted by using coloured pens in all transcripts.

For each group the next step was cutting the highlighted comments out. They were spread on a big table to be able to see them at once and to be able to group them by hand. These form the phenomenographic groups as clusters describing the theory-practice relationship and management effects on them. This is Marton (1986)'s iterative sort stage. They were grouped and then regrouped several times (categories of descriptions) until comments cannot be sorted any further.

Questionnaire: It was applied with the permission of the head of faculty and lecturers who agreed to apply the questionnaire during their sessions. Student teachers were free to decline.

Analysis of Questionnaire: The questionnaire included Likert scale styled questions and open ended questions. The open-ended questions had the potential to generate qualitative data to inform the discussion. The Likert scale generated data for qualitative analysis using statistics. Data gathered by the questionnaire consisted of Likert scale grading (1 to 5) and were put into an excel file.

Respondents were warned orally at the beginning to pay attention because similar adjectives were not always on the same side of the scale (Left or Right). This was done to increase the conscientiousness while answering the questions.

Later, an analysis were done using SPSS program. The analysis was composed of descriptive analysis, factor analysis, t-test, and One-way Anova.

4.13 - Statistical Analysis

In this study, statistical data were collected only as a supporting element, so the main focus was upon the interviews and open ended questions. This method was used additionally because of pre-assumptions of the researcher about the lack of academic depth of student teachers to answer the questions about theory-practice relationship. The researcher

also justified his pre-assumption about this while his empirical studies were going on in Turkey.

A five-point Likert-Scale was used with the respondents being asked which side they felt closer to. Contrasting terms were put at each end.

To analyse the results a number of quantitative analysis methods were used: Descriptive Statistics, Factor Analysis, T-Test, and One Way Anova. The calculations were made using a Private Software Company programme designed for this process, called the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Although there are some other similar software such as PSPP and RKward, this program is preferred as it achieves the requirements most easily. The techniques used in this thesis will be explained using simplified definitions by Julie Pallant (2010).

Descriptive Statistics: These statistics are used to achieve three goals: To illustrate a general view of the features of the research, to ensure the exemptions amongst the variables and to highlight out the selected questions (Pallant, 2010).

Factor Analysis: 'It is included in SPSS as a 'data reduction' technique. It takes a large set of variables and looks for a way the data may be 'reduced' or summarized using a smaller set of factors or components' Pallant (2010, p.181).

T-Test (Independent-Samples) : This test is 'used when you want to compare the mean scores of two different groups of people or conditions' (Pallant, 2010, p.239).

<u>One-Way Anova:</u> 'One-way analysis of variance involves one independent variable (referred to as a factor) which has a number of different levels. These levels correspond to the different groups or conditions' (2010, p.249).

4.14 - Pilot Test

Francis advised that researchers do 'pilot interviews for developing possible conceptions strategy' (1996, p.39), I preferred to do a pilot test in a slightly different manner.

Firstly, at stage A, I chose and downloaded a video displaying a primary school teacher in a classroom from a teacher's television website (www.teacherstv.co.uk), which no longer exists as it was taken offline following the new government election in May 2010. Secondly, I watched it several times to prepare questions for my interviews and I asked to interview two of my colleagues separately. Both also accepted to be voice recorded. Thirdly, I asked them to watch the video (about ten minutes in length) and while watching the video I asked them questions, for which notes were also written on my question paper, by pausing the video player.

At stage B, which is the analysis stage, I transcribed the voice recordings and started making categories of descriptions about what kind of pedagogical content knowledge had been revealed from the observations of the interviewees. I did this several times to reduce the groups of categories of descriptions to a stable level. When I could not reduce them any further the main categories were shaped depending on the

perceptions of the interviewees about the relevancy of teaching practice to the pedagogical content knowledge.

This experience taught me the difficulty of the interviews for the researcher. I realised from it that I had made the mistake of steering the interview in my pilot phenomenographic test. The researcher believes he therefore learnt how not to bias and direct interviewees. Maybe the most important lesson for the researcher was that a phenomenographic researcher should only ask questions related to the topic to make the interviewees talk more about their ideas. Questions other than basic how, why, what questions could affect the interviews.

4.15 - About Comparison

Comparative studies may take place between two countries though the number is not necessarily set. However, comparing more than two countries makes the comparison difficult and more complex to analyse. When it comes to comparison of two countries of very different contexts, it is very difficult to make a proper comparison regardless of the topic. England and Turkey are good examples of an irregular comparison, particularly for this research. As stated in the literature review chapter, there have only been a few empirical studies in the Turkish context related to this research and even fewer philosophical discussions on the relationship between theory and practice. In contrast, the English context is richer in both ways. This imbalance in the number of studies and the huge contextual differences have originated from the structural differences in teacher education (centralized-decentralized) which prevents this research from being a quasi-comparative study. However, it does attempt to make a comparison within these conditions.

Dede and Baskan (2011) pointed out the general problems of comparing two countries in one perspective (research): Religion, geography, ethnic composition, climate, culture, governmental preferences (centralized, decentralized…), economic resources and backgrounds, educational experiences, social structure, and political points of views. Comparative studies are explained by Dede and Baskan (2011) as efforts to monitor educational stances by looking at each other which we will refer to as 'mirrorizing'. Sciences can only help humans to understand by making comparisons. For everything, we need a check point; for example, to be able to understand the length of something a ruler is used as a check point. An educational system of one country may help another to see their own mistakes and/or to find solutions. One country becomes a mirror to the other one.

According to Dede and Baskan (2011) a comparison of countries may be particularly useful for the administration of education systems. They add that while making a comparison it may be helpful to seek commonalities (2011). The researcher believes that it can even be useful when the countries have little in common. Kubow and Fossum (2007) simplify the comparison to differences and similarities of countries regarding the research topic. Bereday (1964) gives comparison a more important role, describing it as a means of seeking lessons. While Kandel (1933) perceives internationalism as having a place at the centre of comparative studies, the researcher disagrees and suggests that it is globalization that enhances those studies. Comparative studies may be accepted as consultation between those countries.

This study therefore aims to learn from both the English and the Turkish contexts by making a limited comparison so that the former can be used as a check point for the latter.

Summary

This chapter has provided a detailed discussion of the methodology underpinning this research study. Concepts such as validity and reliability, objectivity and subjectivity have been explained. The advantages a of a mixed-methods approach (as opposed to a pure quantitative ot qualitative approach) is justified. The main methodological approach used in this research is phenomenography and it is described in detail, along with its advantages and disavantages conmpred with other methods. The opportunistic sampling is explained and the interview and questionnaire procedures are described. A table to summarise the key questions, steps in the proccess and tools used is provided for the reader.

CHAPTER 5: ANALYSIS

In this chapter the focus is on the analysis of the data. The chapter is organised to as follows:

- An Introduction to this chapter.
- Part A includes clustrized responses from Turkish teacher educators and working teachers.
- Part B includes clustrized responses from Turkish student teachers.
- Part C includes clustrized responses from English teacher educators and working teachers (to broaden our perspective).
- Part D includes clustrized responses from English student teachers.

Introduction

There are four main parts to this chapter: The first part, Part A, deals with the conceptions of teacher educators and working teachers. The comments are sorted and clustered according to phenomenography (Marton, 1981). Part B investigates Turkish student teachers' perceptions with regard to statistical analysis using SPSS. Part C explores conceptions of English teacher educators and working teachers from an opportunistic sample. The responses of student teachers will be studied using the phenomenographic method described in Chapter 4, the chapter on methodology in Part D. Finally, the findings will be analysed and discussed at the end of this chapter in the Analysis and Discussion section.

Subtitles are included to facilitate understanding. It should be remembered that phenomenographic analysis aims to identify general clusters of ideas or concepts.

To ensure anonymity, the respondents are identified as follows: The first letter of the name of their province followed by TE (teacher educator) or WT (working teacher) and then the number representing the interviewee. For example, TWT-2 means Turkish working teacher number 2. Five Turkish provinces are included: Muğla (M), Burdur (B), Uşak (U), Şanlıurfa (Ş), and Aydın (A).

Interviewees' comments are shown in *italics*. Turkish comments have been translated by the researcher. For accuracy, another Turkish PhD student at Durham University was asked to check the translations and confirmed them to be accurate.

I have not attempted a detailed comparison between the main data (ITE in Turkey) and data from the sample from England but I have included data from the English context to throw more light on the situation in Turkey, which is my main focus.

-Part A (Turkish teacher educators, and working teachers)-

Part A investigates the conceptions of Turkish teacher educators, and working teachers. The responses are phenomenographically grouped. This was done following Martons' 1981 approach, by identifying individual conceptions, sorting them into similar groups (conceptual clusters), repeating the sort of the groups until no new clusters could be formulated and then giving each conceptual cluster its own identifying label. From this iterative sorting process five clusters were identified:

- Theory, Practice and their Relationship;

- Management Issues;

- Facilities and Opportunities;

- People in Teacher Education;

- Other Issues.

Each of these will be discussed in turn by providing examples of the interviewees' comments and some explanatory interpretations. Explanations are given where required and analysis made to enhance understanding.

5A.1 - Theory, Practice and their Relationship (Cluster Name)

In this section conceptions about theory, practice and their relationship are explored. Biases for any of those are sought.

Table 5A.1.a: Turkish Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
Turkish Teacher Educator (TTE)-1: Theory and practice are inseparable parts of a whole. They cannot exist without each other. Theory is needed, when practice is considered, it is more important than ever. However, a knowledge that is not applied is not necessary… Especially for education faculties, the importance of theory relies on the design of theory regarding the practice of it.	This Turkish teacher educator conceives that the existence of theory and practice cannot be separated successfully as they are heavily dependent on each other. He explains according to which criteria theory should be applied in his consecutive comment:
TTE- 1: In knowledge literature, as it is known, there are types of knowledge, and types of contents of knowledge… They are taught according to the modern taxonomy: Telling, Reminding, Practice,	Firstly, this teacher educator reminds us of one of the modern approaches of how theory can be applied. He emphasizes that where those stages within theory itself are practised properly there should

Analysis, and Synthesis. If a student teacher can do all of these things then there is no problem. If s/he does not know which theory will be applied where, when, and in what circumstances then whatever results cannot be called teaching. Not only student teachers but also teacher educators and mentors should know those stages.	be no problems. A proper relationship between theory and practice should take place with an emphasis on the practice stages that theories propose. Secondly, though this explanation is more directly about the relationship between theory and practice, it alludes to the understanding and the structure of the education system in Turkey. As Turkey has got a very strongly- centralized system in terms of education, the teacher educator prefers one theory even without realizing it himself that the Turkish education system prefers a style (a theory) and expects it to be applied by teachers. How teachers are educated and which theories should be applied is decided by the central authority.
TTE- 1: Without practice, teacher education would be like preaching about swimming or surgery or repairing cars: telling, telling, telling… They are like someone who never attempts to practise swimming, or a surgeon who does not practise surgery, or a mechanic who does not repair a car; can someone achieve their goals without ever having practised?... Without theory, it would be like learning by experiment. Imagine a surgeon who performs surgery on you without knowing where the problem is. He starts surgery and ruins your inner organs, then ends the surgery telling you that he discovered that the problem is not with your stomach; sorry the problem is with your foot. Indeed you do not need surgery at all, even on your foot. This analogy is similar to that of teaching practice without theory. Practice without	The analogy he is using, actually, refers to the weaknesses of theory and practice when they occur separately. Theory without practice could remain as an imaginary teaching experience, while practice without theory is like a teaching style without direction. In reality, it is very difficult for a person to learn to swim with only oral instruction. Trying improves understanding and eases the practice. With the swimming example, the learner can only complete their theoretical knowledge regarding swimming when he experiences the lifting force of the water. In fact practice makes and/or tests the theory in reality.

Practice without theory has its own weaknesses. The surgery example shows us that theory can be accepted as a guide for practice. It answers the question 'how to'. Without theory, it will be all experiment |

theory would waste time and cause loss of motivation and efficiency. Learned desperation (helplessness) may start.	and reinventing the wheel individually (for every separate student teacher). It wastes time, is not efficient, and moreover, it can have a negative effect on student teachers' motivation and pupils' learning in classrooms. Contradicting what he said but at the same time overlapping what he meant; theory and practice can exist separately but will not be successful, meaningful, and purposeful. Together they complete each other. They form a union.
TTE- 2: Experience for teachers is important to the theory practice relationship.	Experience may improve practice and in the long term it may also improve the theory. Experiencing different kinds of situations may trigger questioning the theory-practice relationship and this questioning could enrich the practice based learning. If these practices are carefully reflected upon in order to establish better ties between theory and practice, then dual feeding could occur between theory and practice.
TTE- 3: Theories are not correctly presented for practice in Turkey. Perhaps theory itself is not suitable for practice. Theoretical knowledge is suitable for memorizing. I do believe that the theories we teach are not qualified enough for practice. I am concerned about the amount of theory as well. There is not enough richness in terms of theory.	This is one of the rare comments that criticises theory. According to this teacher educator, current theories are not rich enough and not applicable. Education faculties may need academics who are good at critical thinking, academic quality, and field knowledge. The teacher appears unsure about what to think about theory. Interestingly the teacher educator talks somewhere else about the education of teacher educators. Knowing himself is a good starting point.
TTE- 4: We have got problems internalizing the theory and explicating	Many of the respondents analyse the theory-practice relationship but only a few

theory as behaviour.	of them put forward solutions regarding their analysis. For example: how can a teacher candidate internalize theory and put it into practice? No clear answer.
TTE- 4: Our teacher candidates have got communication problems with students	He does not provide any explanation regarding the internalizing process. Do some of our teacher educators not know much about the theory-practice relationship? If not, then how can they educate prospective teachers? Could it be that some teacher educators ignore the importance of educational philosophy and sociology?
TTE- 4: School practice hours should be increased without decreasing the amount of theory.	More practice could reduce the mistakes made during teaching. What is more important is that the teacher educator does not want it to be done by reducing the amount of theory. He feels that there is still a need for theory to support practice.
TTE- 5: Theory underpins teaching practice. However, duration of practice during initial teacher education is insufficient. Student teachers perform their practice sessions just because they have to without fulfilling the content of their practice. Starting from the second year (out of four), it may be better to offer one practice day per week within the faculty or in school.	This teacher educator draws our attention to the importance of theory and how it relates to practice. Then he complains that teaching practice occurs only as paper procedures in Turkey. He suggests starting teaching practice in the second year one day a week.
TTE- 6: Turkish teacher education is dominated by theory by means of generic education courses. We use translated books from the U.S.A and the U.K for a theoretical base.	This teacher educator stresses the dominance of theory over practice and underlines knowledge transfer from other countries. Using translated books without considering the local differences may have adverse effects on some details of

	educational theories.
TTE- 6: Teaching is an occupation of experience.	This teacher educator draws our attention to experience which is strongly related to practice.
TTE- 7: I believe the relationship between theory and practice has a harmony. Practice sessions are suitable for what we teach during the GEC… To improve the relationship, small student teacher groups could be designed for teacher educators to help to establish the relationship better.	This teacher educator conceives that harmony between theory and practice by means of GEC has already been established. To enhance the situation positively, small-group interaction between student teachers and teacher educators could be supported by regulations. This is a rare situation that is faced during this research in that this teacher educator is satisfied with how and to what extent the relationship is established. Small groups could improve interaction and learning but it should be remembered that this would only be made possible by either increasing the number of teacher educators or decreasing the number of student teachers.
TTE- 7: Examples from everyday life can be related to theories in GEC rather than giving idealistic examples which may take place rarely or not at all.	Familiar examples may not only increase the interest of the student teachers in the lessons but also help them to establish better links between theory and practice.
TTE- 8: Student teachers are not aware that theory is necessary.	The reason for this may be that some of them may have no idea what theory actually means.
TTE- 9: Should we educate student teachers according to present practice methods or according to educational science? The main criticism is that it will be a mistake if 'educational theories do not match real school practice'.	This interviewee says that educational theories do match practice.

TTE- 10: The problem of transfer from theory to practice may take place because of not leaving traditional theories behind. And also modern theories are taught to increase the workload of working teachers.	Traditional theories may be easier to apply and/or modern theories may need extra energy to learn. In conclusion working teachers might prefer traditional methods to modern ones.
TTE- 10: Authoritarian methods are common just because they guarantee class discipline.	To be listened to carefully and easily, some teachers may prefer old methods and neglect new ones.
TTE- 11: Theory enriches practice. Theory audits practice and its continuity.	This teacher educator indicates that theory is a means of checking practice.
TTE- 12: As we expect graduates who become doctors to do their job properly the day after their graduation, the same applies to graduates who become teachers. Student teachers should be as well prepared as the student doctors.	This interviewee reveals the truth that teachers are no less important than doctors in terms of professionalism. Teachers cannot be expected to learn the theory-practice relationship while working, though they can improve it.
TTE- 13: Theory is the base for science. Theories are organized ways and schema of knowledge and definitions. Educational theories are the guidelines for teachers. If theory is neglected then there are two methods for learning: The first is spontaneous, random learning, or learning by luck. The second is learning by trying and testing. Both are time wasting activities.	This teacher educator emphasizes the place of theory in learning to teach pedagogically.
TTE- 15: Theories can definitely be put into practice. It is up to the student teacher to practise the theories.	This teacher educator blames student teachers.

From table *5A.1.a*, Turkish interviewees accept a relationship between theory and practice in terms of Generic Education Courses. Many teacher educators who responded to questions conceive that theory and practice

of GEC cannot be separated. Modern taxonomy of learning domains is suggested by one respondent. If theory or practice is applied separately, they may become weaker. A harmony, combination, and/or cooperation may make GEC learning stronger. In the table x, it is displayed that experience may improve their relationship and them one by one as well. It is expressed that current theories are not rich and applicable enough. One teacher educator does not believe that reducing the amount of theory helps. One interviewee says that practice experience quality only remains on paper in Turkey. Translated knowledge may not fit into the local context, a teacher educator complains. On the other hand another teacher educator is satisfied with current relationship between theory and practice. One respondent issues a reminder that examples derived from everyday life may enhance the quality of the relationship, while another one underlines that loyalty to the traditional pedagogic knowledge may affect GEC practice negatively. It is suggested that theory should be an auditing element of practice. One teacher educator blames student teachers as the source of lower quality relationship between theory and practice.

These all give us important data about how the theory and practice relationship is conceived in Turkey in terms of GEC. While Turkish teacher educators see a relevant relationship between theory and practice, they also think that there are some significant points that hinder that relationship.

Table 5A.1.b: *Turkish Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
Turkish Working Teacher (TWT) 1: Following graduation from my education faculty, when I started working in a school, I realised that the academic books I used during my undergraduate degree were useless. The real teaching media and its conditions are very	This working teacher explains what she experienced during her first years of teaching. She started to think that the information given during Generic Education Courses was useless regarding the

different from what I was taught. The curriculum, the psychology of the kids you are faced with in the classroom and the life conditions of those students, their family structures and cultures, and most importantly gathering of different students with different backgrounds made me think that I was starting to learn about the teaching profession from zero level.	knowledge in academic books. She comments that students are more than what teachers are taught in GEC. She gives a reason for this unexpected 'moreness' that life conditions, family structures and cultures, and different backgrounds of life experience make every single child's case unique.

Clearly, this situation makes it more difficult for GEC to make generalizations which might have made the working teacher feel that academic books about GEC are useless. Interestingly, the working teacher unintentionally points out a problem which causes working teachers to wrongly make negative comments about the content of GEC. This generalization of problems may lead teachers to the misguided belief that it is the GEC's mistake not to offer solutions for unique cases. However, it is almost impossible for the GEC to show every single method for individual guidance in classroom performance in a limited time period, so it may be too judgemental to say that the information in academic books is useless. |
| *TWT- 2: Theoretical knowledge gained during GEC overlaps with the practice 80 percent.* | This teacher is satisfied with the ratio of theory to practice. |
| *TWT- 3: When I started working as a teacher, the first thing I realized was that what I had learned during four years at the education faculty was completely different from real school* | This primary school teacher complains that the theoretical background gained at the education faculty did not cover real school |

practice.	practice.
TWT- 3: I think there are some problems with the content of generic education courses on child psychology. Generalized explanations do not fit to every year group of children.	This working teacher claims that child psychology theories are not well enough designed according to children's age groups.
TWT- 4: After a point a teacher has to produce his/her own method for practice. Received knowledge cannot pass beyond a level.	To be fair this teacher thinks his/her own method actually is a combination, mixture, and/or affixed (tailed) series of theory. This could make us think that some education faculty graduates do not know what they know. They are not aware of their theoretical knowledge.
TWT- 4: I, myself, learned how to establish dialogue with students and how to communicate with them after I started working.	Communication skills are shaped throughout life. The period before university is a part of the communication skills development period however this does not mean that education faculties should not improve dialogue and communication skills.
TWT- 5: If you have got 24 students in your class in a primary school, then you may need to apply 24 different models of behaviour management. Actually theories involved in GEC do not have to overlap with practice completely.	This working teacher stresses a significant point that theories are detailed guidelines for different situations.
TWT- 5: In my opinion, not every theory should be taught. Some common ones are enough for student teachers.	The common one may not be the right one, and according to what criteria should the theories be eliminated?
TWT- 6: As an experienced teacher I think the difference between theory (in education faculties) and practice (in schools) are like night and day. I advise student teachers to complete all the courses by the end of third year and in	This respondent's answer is contradictory in that s/he still accepts that there should be three years of theory. From this it can be understood that even such a harsh

the fourth year they should only practise like in medicine and health schools.	critic cannot ignore the theory. S/he suggests a year dedicated to practice as doctor candidates do.
TWT- 7: As a novice teacher I believe that just 25% of theory is related to practice.	The respondent sees the relationship between theory and practice as low.
TWT- 8: As an experienced teacher, what we have learn from theoretical courses does not match our classroom practice. The theories are still more academic than real life conditions. My first year in teaching was a disaster.	Theories need to be translated into simple language that student teachers can easily understand. More theory based practices may be useful in order to avoid that kind of disaster.
TWT- 8: Teacher education high schools are better than education faculties. I learned many things at such a high school. When I graduated from my education faculty I had forgotten what I had learned during high school. I think teacher education should be at high school level (for primary school teachers). We can be teachers when we are more energetic at early ages.	This working teacher is not happy to be a graduate of an education faculty. It is suggested that s/he could be a primary school teacher after his/her teacher education high school graduation.
TWT- 9: What you practice remains in your mind more than theoretical knowledge.	A practice biased comment. Practice based learning is defended.
TWT- 9: If I talk to you about how fire burns for hours and hours, it will not be a complete knowledge unless you touch a fire.	The response coincides with three layers of learning by Nursi (1930): Theoretical understanding, observational understanding, and practice based understanding.
TWT- 10: As an experienced teacher, teacher education can be divided between education faculties and schools so that workload of education faculties can be lowered.	This working teacher highlights the idea of a balanced workload, which indeed increases the importance and role of schools in teacher education. To some extent school based teacher training is explained here.

TWT- 11: As an experienced teacher, practice cannot exist without theory. Theory is definitely necessary.	One working teacher, who is aware of the importance of theory, comments.
TWT- 12: As a novice teacher, I think effectiveness of education theories changes regarding each child.	In fact, education theories find ways to reach every single child. The point is which one to choose for whom.

The table *5A.1.b,* composed of answers from Turkish working teachers, is biased to Ideas related to valuing practice and tips about practice. One working teacher indicates that there are more conflicts that await solutions and reactions than mentioned in academic (theory) books. One teacher is satisfied with the ratio of theory to practice. Another favours producing his/her own theory for his/her practice. One of the respondents points at communication skills that can be learned during work. An interviewee stresses a significant point that theories are detailed guide lines for different situations. One working teacher says that not every theory should be taught. Some common ones are enough for teaching. An experienced teacher denies a relationship between current theories of GEC and practice, but still suggests one year theoretical learning. One teacher emphasizes the need for simplicity in language of theory. Another one draws our attention to the view that every single child may require a different theory and/or theoretical mixture. When it comes to Turkish working teachers, it can be understood from their opinions that they are not satisfied with the relevance of theory to practice to a large extent. A significant complaint may be described as follows: a variety of psychological approaches is needed depending on every single student in primary schools. Working teachers seem to expect a general theory that fits for all or they want to learn theories matching each single child's psychology or specific situation.

5A.1.1 - Reflective Practitioner Model (Sub-Cluster)

This section is dedicated to the comments from interviewees that emphasized reflection directly or indirectly. Opinions including teachers' views on reflective thinking skills are included under this title.

Table 5A.1.1.a: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 1: Working teachers should be like academics. Teachers should reflect on theories and if possible do research.	This teacher educator highlights the importance of reflecting upon theory and emphasizes the innovativeness of research for keeping up to date, active, and forward thinking.
TTE- 5: Only practice can help psychomotor skills. If cognitive and emotional levels are aimed for, a theoretical base is strongly needed.	This teacher educator points to how theory supports higher level learning.
TTE- 16: Thought provoking questions may be asked of student teachers. Student teachers may be encouraged to undertake research and deeper analysis.	This definition tacitly draws our attention to reflection, which is a key element of a reflective practitioner. Reflecting upon a question, situation, problem, and an idea may enhance learning and may produce new ideas.
TTE- 16: Sometimes teacher educators are faced with student teachers who have not yet understood theoretical definitions, phrases, and discourses. To achieve this, student teachers may be given homework consisting of interviews and observation.	Homework reinforces learning. Interviews and observation can provide the opportunity to comprehend how others understand the theory and what others do to combine it with practice. Interview and observation may give way to taking someone as a tacit role model.
TTE- 16: If opportunities are presented to	Making working teachers obtain

working teachers to do a Masters degree and/or a Doctorate, I think we could be at a far better level regarding the theory-practice relationship.	academic degrees could give them the opportunity to reflect on GEC and its practice. It would provide deeper learning and support reason-based comprehension.
TTE- 17: After theory based lessons, we ask questions about the theory and student teachers can answer those questions. When we ask them to apply those theories, student teachers stop there. The theories remain as explanations and/or definitions in their minds and they cannot transform their knowledge into practice.	It can be understood that Turkish student teachers remain at the first stages of understanding from the cognitive point of view.
TTE- 13: Our teachers do not have critical thinking abilities.	Critical thinking abilities are significant for reflection upon education theories and teaching practice.

Within the table *5A.1.1.a*, reflecting upon theory is advised by one teacher educator. Another points to how theory supports higher level learning. One underlines homework as it may reinforce learning. It is expressed that obtaining academic degrees may help teachers to achieve a better GEC and practice relationship. It is complained that Turkish student teachers can only repeat definitions in theory and cannot go beyond them. Another adds Turkish teachers lack critical thinking abilities.

Turkish Teacher educators complain about the quality of the analyzing abilities of student teachers about theory and/or practice. Moreover, without any use of reflection during interviews, it can be concluded that they are not aware of this kind of teacher education and improvement. However, what they gave as replies point at reflection tacitly. Turkish teacher educators look like they are on the way to a solution but they do not look like they know what it is.

Table 5A.1.1.b: Turkish Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT- 4: As an experienced teacher I believe that a teacher should be open to new theories and like to reflect upon his/her teaching.	This experienced teacher points out the importance of being a reflective practitioner.

It can be understood by looking at the table *5A.1.1.b* that being a reflective practitioner is supported by Turkish working teachers. What the researcher could not hear from Turkish Teacher educators came from a working teacher: Reflection upon teaching. This could lead us to an interesting conclusion that doing so much teaching practice may trigger teachers to think upon his/her practice innovatively. On the other hand, this triggering may be dependent on willingness and motivation level of that teacher.

5A.1.2 - Socialization of Teachers (Sub-Cluster)

Since teachers are humans, it is natural for them to interact with other people. Below are the opinions of the respondents about interaction, communication, and teachers' relationships with people of education (other teachers, managers, administrators, parents of students, and stake holders, etc.). This process is known as socialization of teachers.

Table 5A.1.2.a: Turkish Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 4: Teachers should be role models to their children in every field of life with their character.	This is a part of the socialization of teachers, not only in terms of their occupation but in terms of their

	society as well. Indeed, the latter affects the former.
TTE- 18: Teachers should be responsible not only for their classroom but also for their social environment. To supply this, at education faculties, student teachers should be taught sociology, social psychology, and general psychology.	The interviewee conceives teachers as guides of society as well. To do this, education faculty courses should be enriched by some additional courses. Thinking teachers applying the contents of GEC in every area of their life could enhance and enrich their capability of relating theory to practice not only with students but also with adults in the society. It is well known that something practised a lot is more difficult to forget as long as it is underpinned by a well comprehended theory.
TTE- 19: Student teachers do not feel a sense of belonging to their job. They do not take on the identity of teacher as a profession until the final (4th) year of their studies. They have to prepare themselves for the teaching profession from the very first year of their undergraduate study.	The failure to construct a professional identity may be because of past educational experiences or maybe they do not actually want to be teachers.

In a teacher educator`s opinion included in table *5A.1.2.a*, being a role model is important, as they are role models at school and for society as well. Being a role model is a part of the socialization of teachers. Some student teachers have a problem of belonging to their future job. Turkish teacher educators underline that socialization of teachers is not restricted to the school environment but occurs in community and society, too.

Table 5A.1.2.b: Turkish Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT- 10: Adapting to the school environment is one of the greatest problems of newly-qualified teachers.	Interaction with other teachers may have a positive effect on teachers' success.

Presented in table *5A.1.2.b,* this working teacher draws our attention to the issue of adapting to school as a problem. This Turkish working teacher draws our attention to the problems of socialization within school.

5A.1.3 - Role Model Issue (Sub-Cluster)

This section explores the role model issue, which is expected of teacher educators, mentors, experienced teachers, and inspectors.

Table 5A.1.3.a: Turkish Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 6: Experienced teachers can be invited to lessons at education faculties not only to share their knowledge but also to share experiences because sometimes academics at education faculties may prefer to be pure theoreticians rather than to be responsible for both theory and practice.	The interviewee puts forward two points: The first is about working teachers sharing their experiences and the second is about academics who see themselves more as theoreticians and relate more to theory than practice. If working teachers come to education faculties and recount their experiences, the examples they can give may pass beyond being knowledge and set themselves to be role models to the student

	teachers. Teacher educators should also bear in mind or be reminded that they are also responsible for the quality of teaching practice if not at an equal level.
TTE- 20: During the lessons as a teacher educator I have to show how to practise explicitly or tacitly. I have to be a role model for student teachers.	The respondent reveals how to be a role model with regard to the relationship between educational theories and their practice.
TTE- 12: Experienced teachers and/or local managers of education could be invited to share their experiences.	They could be role models for student teachers. It is not an obligation to send student teachers to mentors; role models could visit education faculties as well.

Comments in table *5A.1.3.a* emphasize experience sharing processes. Turkish teacher educators are asking actively working teachers and school managers to share their knowledge and experiences at university environment.

Table 5A.1.3.b: *Turkish Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT-3 : What I have learned from my peers is more than I learned at my education faculty. Experienced teachers became great role models to me.	Newly-qualified teachers tend to take experienced teachers as role models in their school environment. They tend to apply the methods which experienced teachers apply.

One Turkish working teacher explains in table *5A.1.3.b* that if teachers take their peers as role models, they may learn better than what they have learnt theoretically at university.

5A.2 - About Management Issues (Cluster)

This section focuses on how management affects the theory-practice relationship. It is studied via management of education faculties, issues relating to management of the education system, and GST; and Inspection of Teachers, Education Faculties, and Teacher Education.

5A.2.1 - Management of Education Faculties (Sub-Cluster)

It may be helpful to look at respondents' opinions on how the management of education faculties affects the theory-practice relationship in terms of Generic Education Courses. The kind of problems which occur and their solutions are also investigated.

Table 5A.2.1.a: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 1: A democratic structure, a democratic management tradition, a scientific approach and behaviour is needed for management of education faculties.	Beyond the clarity of a more democratic management request, the teacher educator asks for the more academic based and research oriented management of education faculties. Research oriented management is suggested because research is an important basis that underpins 'a scientific approach and behaviour'. This teacher educator's idea could be interpreted as there being a lack of management theories in managing schools of education. Application of management theories

	may result in better organized and tidier management of teacher education.
TTE- 2: Management of education faculties should have the freedom and flexibility for decision making. Freedom of design for education faculty programmes regarding local life, realities of classroom environment, and their own faculty students is a necessity… Education faculty programmes should have the opportunity to be locally updated.	Though there are more similarities within a country than at international level, there can still be differences within the regions of a country. This teacher educator indicates the need for freedom and flexibility of decision making for programme content design. The teacher educator reveals that this can be done regarding local issues and culture. Prospective teacher undergraduates do not come as empty glasses. They have at least observed teaching and they have strong relations with how they were brought up by their families and the surrounding society. So a student teacher's own pedagogy is deeply related to the way a society shapes him/her. This is the point where locality should be taken into account. To do this, education faculties need decision-making abilities, freedom, and flexibility.
TTE- 6: Education faculties should be autonomous structures.	An autonomous structure not only gives more freedom of decision making ability apart from HEC but also increases the number of possibilities and methods applied to be managed apart from university.
TTE- 7: I do not believe changes in management of education faculties could have an effect on GEC and its practice. It is up to the teacher educators' skills and talent to manage a	This respondent conceives that management may not bring about any change in that relationship. It may be understood that teacher

successful relationship between theory and practice.	educators and student teachers are out of touch in terms of GEC and its application regarding management issues. Is conceiving education systems so simple a solution or an acceptable perspective? Can any elements of the education system be out of interaction and communication with the other parts of the system? How can there be a one hundred percent closed system? Neglecting any effect of management issues on GEC and practice relationship may only be closing one's eyes to the reality. All systems can be conceived as open systems despite how 'closed' they are. Literature on GST proves the opposite, that as long as there are inputs and outputs, a system cannot be a closed system. Without inputs and outputs a structure cannot continue as a system as circulating systems are destined to end quickly without any outer interaction.
TTE- 16: Scientific research and evidence-based management style should be established.	Universities are centres for science making and education faculties are part of that science making. It is interesting to hear concerns that education faculties are not managed according to scientific research and with available proofs. If a scientific institution does not care about scientific findings then who should?
TTE- 21: Student teachers practise only in the	Practice just after learning theory

first and fourth years of their education. They should practise every year.	would reinforce learning and strengthen the link between theory and practice.
TTE- 12: Hours of psychology courses should be increased.	Psychology is one of the core subjects in education. A higher level of comprehension of it could help student teachers to establish a stronger link between theory and practice.

Looking at table *5A.2.1.a*, Turkish teacher educators prioritise 4 issues: Delegation of decision making abilities to education faculties in Turkey, flexibility in decision making, research and evidence based management at education faculties, increase in both theory and practice lesson hours.

Table 5A.2.1.b: *Turkish Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	**Interpretations**
TWT- 11: Courses (those that are unnecessary) apart from GEC and practice hours should be omitted in favour of more GEC and practice.	This respondent talks about omitting general culture courses.

It can be inferred from the table *5A.2.1.b* that this Turkish working teacher suggests removing general culture courses and instead more GEC and practice hours can be added. It is conceived by the teacher that this can enhance the quality of relationship between theory and practice. So it can be elicited that management has an effect and something to say on theory-practice relationship.

5A.2.2 - Issues relating to management of the education system, and GST (Sub-Cluster)

On a broader perspective, the theory-practice relationship with regard to GEC could be affected by bigger scale decisions. In a huge system like an education system, actions, regulations, and decisions may affect the other details unintentionally. The harmony, relationship, transfer, and interaction of systems and sub-systems are important from this point of view.

General System Theory provides a holistic understanding of the whole system. This section investigates how the upper management affects the theory-practice relationship of GEC content and how GST can contribute to the system and the relationship.

Table 5A.2.2: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 22: Teacher education should be taken into account with a holistic approach. If every single element of a system works properly and cooperatively, then theory may consequently integrate better with practice. A holistic system approach may increase efficiency.	This teacher educator unintentionally points out General Systems Theory. A holistic approach to the education system and within the education system to teacher education could well increase coordination and cooperation, which are already two main concerns in the Turkish context. Coordination and cooperation of sub-systems could bring about the synchronization of content orientation. If General Systems Theory is applied in the Turkish education system, the HEC and MONE would be expected to work like the organs of one body. They could target the same things

	and share the same goal and vision for teacher education. This coordination could easily spread to the sub-systems such as education faculties and schools. A better relationship at a lower level could enhance the abilities of student teachers to apply the contents of the Generic Education Courses.
TTE- 22: If universities are to be autonomous, then they need to do their best for their own existence and wellness. Inputs and outputs should be reflected upon more than ever. What if autonomous universities do not do what they should do? They will lose students. The students will start not to choose that university. Regional inter-university councils may be established for decision making and standardisation.	This teacher educator draws our attention to the benefits of autonomous universities. Making them autonomous could make them self-driven for success.
TTE- 3: A holistic systematic approach might be needed. Within that whole, universities could open schools of practice which belong to universities. This could reduce the number of problems.	Having confronted cooperation problems, some teacher educators suggest having practice schools to remove the pitfalls occurring because of insufficient coordination. This idea coincides with the idea against duality in management of teacher education. If an education faculty has its own practice school, there will be no dualism in terms of at least the theory-practice relationship. A monolithic and holistic approach may sometimes be useful in order to decrease the amount of conflict.
TTE- 1: I am a progressing teacher. It is difficult for a teacher if the education system changes too often… I am not saying that we should	She signals the problems of adapting to the changes in education system. It could be said

never change the system but the frequency of change in the system should not be so high.	that changes in the education system could decrease the level of expertise in teaching.
TTE- 11: If every single unit of a system is designed to support each other and to be in harmony then a successful system will welcome us in consequence.	The researcher believes that this is a very important comment which directs us to the General Systems Theory. With this theory, harmony and integration increase and this could bring about improvement in efficiency and decision making. Coming from whole to teacher education, all these positive developments could lead to a better theory-practice design. Imagine a structure in which the HEC, MONE, and education faculties work in harmony in relation to teacher education and so for GEC.

Derived from table *5A.2.2,* Turkish teacher educators seem to suggest that bodies that have roles and responsibilities in teacher education cannot cooperate. They do not seem to be seen to have a successful and efficient relationship and may even be percieved to contradict each others' actions at some levels. To solve this, an holistic and harmonical structure is demanded by teacher educators in Turkey. Finally, Turkish working teachers did not express ideas related to upper educational bodies of teacher education.

5A.2.2.1 - Centralization-Decentralization (Top-Down or Bottom-up) (Sub-Sub-Cluster)

In the hierarchy of the decision making bodies, there are two ways of constructing a decision making protocol. One is to take the picture from

the broader perspective and the other is to make a detailed analysis from close range. The Turkish education system seems to prefer the former and our respondents' comments are as follows:

Table 5A.2.2.1.a: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 22: Indeed, we do not need HEC to join teacher education. Regulations are always top-down. Orders come from the higher management bodies and must be applied. It would be better for Mugla province, if Mugla University were to contact Mugla Province Educational Administration locally to establish a mutual relationship.	Top-down management has been a weak style when it comes to local issues. Coordination of local education administrative bodies with universities is an issue that occurs at local level. So, orders coming from a central administration may affect efficiency, validity, and even more the inspection of the quality of the application of orders and regulations. A central management style may not be aware of local issues that education faculties and schools are facing while local management could be.
TTE- 22: All state institutions are designed in a pyramid shape in Turkey. Schools are managed in pyramid style, universities are managed in pyramid style, and the Turkish education system is also a pyramid structure.	These comments are evidence of top-down management and a centralized structure.
TTE- 5: Academicians at education faculties cannot change their style and methodology of teacher education according to their own points of view. Everything is planned by the government even the choice of whether or not to take an approach such as constructivist or not.	Lack of flexibility in decision making in Turkish education faculties appears here once more. Education faculties cannot even put forth their own point of view regarding their methodology of teacher education.
TTE- 16: Education faculties should have the	The researcher believes that

authority to be able to make protocols with the schools they want at local level.	Turkish education faculties should be trusted more in their science making ability. If this can be done, education faculties may find ways to improve the theory-practice relationship. One of the solutions could be to give them the decision making ability to make protocols with local schools. They could choose schools in which to practice and they could make different protocols with different schools.
TTE- 10: Taking local culture into account is valuable when choosing which educational theories to apply.	Keeping local differences in mind may be helpful in choosing which theory to practice.
TTE- 10: Education faculties are free enough to decide which courses are needed for undergraduate programmes. Some optional courses do not give the freedom to education faculties they need.	A decentralized structure may mean more freedom for education faculties to offer the courses they think student teachers might need.
TTE- 11: In Turkey, we are a very practical thinking society. We cannot foresee the benefits of theory at the beginning. We are not patient enough. Sometimes we do not believe that theories are useful.	This is an interesting example of country based differences and local differences. To be able to satisfy this kind of society, it may be more useful to provide the opportunity for practice just after theory than in other countries with regard to local context.
TTE- 20: Autonomous universities could help education faculties to design an improved theory-practice relationship.	Another structure is suggested for enhanced decision making ability.
TTE- 12: There is a memory that once the French or German Minister of Education (I cannot remember which) visited his Turkish counterpart. The Turkish Minister of Education said, if you show me any city, town, or village on	This is a good example of the degree of centralization in the Turkish education system.

map of Turkey, I can tell you which class is being taught which lesson and I can tell you the topic. The foreign minister was surprised and added that he could not tell anything equal to that in his own country. This memory proves how centralized our education system is.	

It can be deduced from the table *5A.2.2.1.a* that teacher educators in Turkey are demanding of local governing abilities with regard to teacher education to be improved.

Table 5A.2.2.1.b: *Turkish Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT- 13: Top-down management style produces all the problems. It would be better for teacher education to be designed according to the feedback of practitioners.	Governmental bodies should listen to teachers regarding teacher education.

In table *5A.2.2.1.b,* one of the working teachers in Turkey states that decentralization in teacher education may help teacher educators to design newer and better theories relevant to the feedback they received from working teachers.

5A.2.2.2 - Relationships, Duality, and One Handed Management (Sub-Sub-Cluster)

Below are the comments about the management of Turkish teacher education by both MONE and HEC.

Table 5A.2.2.2: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 1: Regarding academic research and studies in the education area, their practicability is questionable. Hundreds of Master degree dissertations and PhD thesis are written; to what extent are they applied? What are their values in terms of academic criteria? These are the questions we should be asking in Turkey.	This respondent questions the quality of academic studies in terms of applicability. This comment could help us to decide whether Turkish academic studies on education are too theoretical, or have no say with regards the theory-practice relationship, or are not academic enough. It is clear from the literature review of this thesis that there are not enough theoretical studies so this is not the issue here. The reason for the low quality academic studies in the education field may be the lack of strong ties between education faculties, schools, and local educational administrations.
TTE- 22: An important point is not to leave teachers to their own devices after they graduate from education faculties. Education faculties should continue to offer in-service training to their graduates or local working teachers regardless of their university background.	This teacher educator points out the relationship between working teachers and education faculties. If education faculties are given the authority to educate working teachers too, it may allow those teachers to be kept up to date on theory and its implications. Not only additional authority but also extra motivation, encouragement, and perhaps more inspection of the education faculties are required. These updates can be considered as similar to the operating systems in our computers. In many cases updating software increases

	efficiency and validity. In the same way teachers can learn new approaches. Updates may trigger teachers to see that knowledge is advancing and inspire them to want to keep up with it.
	The respondent's view can also be likened to the after purchase of technical service for white goods. When white goods break down, we take them to the producer to be repaired. According to this teacher educator, teachers should be conceived in the same. If teachers' pedagogical practices are seen to be decreasing in quality, this should trigger local educational bodies to contact universities to 'repair' them. This shows why local educational administrators in Turkey should have strong ties with education faculties.
TTE- 22: In Turkey, Education faculties are theoreticians and the Ministry of National Education (MONE) is a practitioner. Cooperation is needed.	TTE-22's comments continue with an emphasis on duality in the management of teacher education:
	Though it is unhealthy to think that education faculties are just theoreticians, he is right in saying that cooperation is needed. Moreover, coordination may be better. When it comes to that kind of thinking, accepting education faculties as places of theory alone may increase the problems of the theory-practice relationship. When there is separation of the two, theory becomes unrelated to

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	practice. Education faculties are the natural homes of theories but they should not be institutions that are separate from practice. To make an analogy, education faculties are homes to theories, which are often visited by their best friend 'practice'. It is disappointing to hear that in Turkey theory and practice are separated from each other at administration and application level.
TTE- 22: When the Turkish education system is studied, it can be seen that the Higher Education Council (HEC) is in coordination with MONE, but only on paper. They are two separate blocks.	This summarizes the situation in Turkey.
TTE- 3: One of the problems we are facing regarding the relationship between theory and practice is that the philosophical approaches applied in schools and in education faculties are different… In schools, expectations are constructivist oriented, however, in education faculties the dominant approach is behaviourist.	A supporting comment comes from the same university member: This comment highlights the serious situation regarding cooperation between HEC and MONE. Teacher education content is decided by cooperation between HEC and MONE; however, the teaching style approach in teacher education does not match the style in schools. This could be seen as unprofessionalism in state institutions or lack of qualified inspection or non-existence of coordination. Unprofessionalism points to a problem in work ethic. It would appear that managers and officials do not care about the written agreements between the institutions. There seems to be a problem of insufficient inspection of

	education faculties. The small number of university inspectors based in the capital city clearly does not seem to be enough. There should be a department dedicated solely to the inspection of education faculties so that content synchronization can be built.
	Finally, if the mistake is coming from top administration (HEC and MONE), the failure lies with them not applying what they have agreed. It could be said that coordination does not exist, if this is the reason.
TTE- 3: A council of coordinators including people from both education faculties and schools could be set up to increase the efficiency of coordination between education faculties and schools.	This kind of council could be beneficial; however, it might slow down the speed of coordination and decision making. Recruiting independent coordinators could bring the same benefits as a council and at the same time it could speed up the processes.
TTE- 6: The dual-headed management approach produces some problems. When you look at the structure of management of teacher education, it can be seen that universities, and therefore education faculties, are under the responsibility of HEC. However, teacher education requirements and recruitments are the responsibilities of MONE. HEC thinks MONE is more responsible for teacher education than HEC, MONE thinks vice versa. By and large, the deployment of THE responsibility to MONE completely is a hot topic in Turkey as then education faculties could be given to MONE to educate teachers. Some suggest that the quality of teachers educated in	This interviewee is trying to say that two equal decision making authorities could cause confusion and an inefficient structure. Indeed, double headed structures could be transformed into a more efficient organization by designing a hierarchy amongst the decision making bodies. Moreover, clarified roles in double headed management could help to increase the speed and efficiency in bureaucracy which might help the theory-practice relationship design regarding the GEC. At the end of

Turkey before 1982 under MONE is higher than those educated after 1982 under the double-headed management approach. Single-headed options involve easier coordination and planning with regard to the theory-practice relationship with or without the influence of GEC (on any issues).	the day setting up a hierarchy between two equal bodies could mean a single-headed structure rather than double headed.
TTE- 20: MONE does not want student teachers to practise in state schools as they think student teachers disrupt continuing education.	MONE needs qualified teachers but interestingly it does not want an activity that improves the quality of prospective teachers.
TTE- 20: MONE does not like having to deal with education faculties. They think that education faculties perceive themselves as superior	There would appear to be emotional disagreement like envying, which causes disharmony amongst the responsible institutions.
TTE- 12: Education faculties should be governed by MONE not HEC.	This teacher educator objects to the dual headed structure and instead prefers MONE.

Teacher educators complain in table *5A.2.2.2* that two headed (MONE and HEC) management of teacher education produces disagreements and confusions in responsibilities, decision making, and pace of processes. It also leaves gap for roles of bodies, for example some duties may remain unregistered to a body. To prevent this, unification (one-handed management), and research based management are requested by teacher educators. No significant reply was received from working teachers about this sub-sub-cluster.

5A.2.3 - Inspection of Teachers, Education Faculties, and Teacher Education (Sub-Cluster)

If a system is established and it is not checked or controlled properly, a time may come when that system or structure fails. This section provides comments and analysis about the inspection of teachers, education faculties, and teacher education in general.

Table 5A.2.3: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 1: An investigator's role should be more about guidance for a contemporary approach and teachers' leadership… Actually, inspectors should be the bridges between academics who transfer contemporary theories and understandings. Indeed, inspectors should be walking up and down the corridors of education faculties contacting academics. However, we have not seen such inspectors.	This respondent suggests that investigators should be mentors rather than just people who are responsible for the evaluation of the teaching practice of teachers. The investigators' mentorship should be designed as in-service mentorship for working teachers. Being in touch with academics, they can be the updaters and correctors of teachers. Although, the inspectors have the authority to do that, this teacher educator is concerned that Turkish inspectors are seen in education faculties much less than expected.
TTE- 22: Inspectors in Turkey also have the role of mentors. Beside their duties of inspection, they should inform working teachers about the updates in theory and practice. Inspectors should assist teachers in their development. They have duties of auditing, observation to give feedback, and guidance. As educationists, inspectors should carry out their existing responsibilities seriously… Inspectors have	The role of mentor to student teachers is specifically given to working teachers in schools. This interviewee reminds us that inspectors also have a mentorship role. Increasing the number of inspectors could result in additional mentorship for working teachers, which could indirectly have a

official duties to audit, to educate, and to undertake research. Of those duties only auditing and evaluation can currently be carried out. The number of inspectors is insufficient. They cannot fulfil their written responsibilities by just visiting a teacher once a year.	positive affect on the mentorship of working teachers to student teachers.
TTE- 20: There is nothing to inspect my teaching as a teacher educator. An inspection mechanism could trigger teacher educators to behave more professionally and to be role models at a higher level.	An inspection and evaluation mechanism could force teacher educators to be more careful about establishing a better relationship.
TTE- 12: Rather than education faculties at 80 universities, there should be 10 teacher education universities.	This teacher educator suggests opening universities specialising in teacher education.

In table _5A.2.3_, Turkish teacher educators are suggesting an investigative body for teacher education as it may put pressure on education faculties positively. Universities designed to specialize on teacher education in a limited number is put forward as a quality enhancer in GEC and practice relationship. Once more no significant comments are detected from working teachers on this sub-cluster.

5A.3 - Facilities and Opportunities (Cluster)

Activities cannot be taught separately from places and media (context and support). Physical conditions may affect our behaviour, performance, motivation, and concentration. This section studies all of the above.

5A.3.1 - Physical and Financial Factors (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5A.3.1: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 2: I do not want to make a generalization but we are experiencing a validity problem between theory and practice…	Although the researcher could not reveal a further answer to explain the reason behind this idea, the respondent conceives that facilities and psychical opportunities do affect the theory-practice relationship quality. He says in his next comment that:
TTE- 2: Motivation of student teachers, teacher educators, and local administrators is high (in the case of Mugla) but they are not enough. Facilities that are not in good condition and/or lack high technology may de-motivate teaching and so the relationship between theory and practice.	It is difficult to agree with the teacher educator other than regarding motivation. Facilities have got little to do with pedagogical content. The teaching and learning environment, if not severe conditions, can only affect the motivation of teachers. Regarding the average quality of schools within a country, the way the theory of pedagogical content is put into practice should be no different. The researcher is aware here that the teacher educator is talking about average schools and his claim cannot be accepted. Bearing in mind that whether the psychical conditions differ so much amongst the state schools across the whole country, then, it can be said that facilities matter.
TTE- 4: In my opinion every single education faculty should have a school of practice officially owned and governed by education faculties, as	It is interesting that in Turkey schools of health (medicine) are allowed to establish practice

the schools of health and medicine have.	hospitals; education faculties should be allowed to do the same as their purpose is education which affects the lives of future generations and the future of the country.
TTE- 18: Having schools of practice belonging to education faculties could give academics the chance to experiment with new theories and how they relate to the practice.	The schools that belong to MONE are not flexible regarding university experiments. MONE wants schools to be in line with other schools on the pre-planned routes. This restricts education faculties to test their new findings even in the few schools with which they cooperate. Owning a school of practice could give education faculties freedom in research and science making.
TTE- 4: A consultation meeting with three groups (teacher educators, mentor, and student teachers) should take place.	This is a good suggestion by the teacher educator. With that kind of consultation, student teachers could learn better from their teacher educators and mentors. A cooperation between those three groups could remove the barriers between the theory and practice construction of student teachers.
TTE- 16: Education faculties could send student teachers to more schools for practice. The reason they cannot do that is financial. More practice schools mean more payment by the university to those schools.	As seen, money does not mean everything but it is important.

According to table *5A.3.1*, phsysical and financial situation and opportunities may hinder or improve testing abilities of education faculties with regard to GEC and its practice. No significant comment was detected from Turkish working teachers about this sub-cluster.

5A.3.2 - Academic Resources (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5A.3.2.a: Turkish Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 3: Academic books about Generic Education Courses are insufficient for a transfer to practice. This may be because most of them are translations.	This opinion points to one of the crucial problems in the Turkish context. Better translations are needed for both teacher educators and student teachers to understand the theories. An even better solution would be for Turkey to lead the way in educational sciences so that the theory could be produced in Turkey. Then the language barrier between theory and practice could be removed. Other educationists would also then be forced to translate from Turkish into their own languages.
TTE- 7: Academic books are prepared by many writers and I think this causes disruption of interrelatedness. I am not satisfied with the academic books about GEC and its practice in Turkey.	Although there are also many single author academic GEC books in Turkey, the interviewee is concerned about collectivist books outnumbering them. This should not be a problem if interrelatedness is achieved and the things mentioned in a book prepared by many authors support and coincide with each other. Academic books are the resources of knowledge for student teachers to learn the

	theory and the practice, and how to relate them to each other. It may not be wrong that sometimes collections of different authors do not fit and/or complement each other and unite the knowledge even though those books are prepared under an editorship of another author.
TTE- 7: Though what is written in academic GEC books can be applied to practice, there are no sufficient methods shown in them. They just talk about theory and do not relate them to practice.	This respondent continues to criticise academic resources that the other academic books are satisfying neither. Such books only talk about theory ignoring how to relate those theories to practice. Despite the respondent being right to criticise educational books about the relationship, the researcher is aware that some books have been published to fill this gap recently.
TTE- 16: If theory remains as a theory it will be still in touch with practice. However, what students confront in Turkey is shortened theory. Students read generalized phrases and sentences that have lost their essence.	This teacher educator criticises lessons and books for being too shallow. They are too generalized and cannot be reflected upon due to the lack of detail.
TTE- 16: The insufficient number of teacher educators has a negative effect on the link between GEC and its practice.	More and more teacher educators are needed to establish a suitable ratio of student teachers per academician for a higher quality of teacher education and a better theory-practice

	relationship.
TTE- 4: We have got such a heavy workload here in terms of lectures. Whenever we are in one lecture, many of our students may be in their practices in schools. There are not enough academics in schools of education. Academics at education faculties should be pushed to the boundaries under 15 hours of lectures a week.	This is one of the main concerns of teacher educators, that their workload does not allow time for observation of practice of student teachers or meeting mentors. As the interviewee declared, an increase in the number of academic staff could provide a solution. Better guidance, supervision, and mentorship could mean learning how to practise the theory better.
TTE- 23: Teacher educators' workload (indeed lesson load) affects the quality of the theory-practice relationship. They cannot spend more time on student teachers' practice.	Another comment is on insufficient number of teacher educators per student teacher.
TTE- 24: Most of the GEC books are foreign originated books. I think this sometimes causes problematic issues which contradict our cultural codes.	Education is related to culture. Producing theories and their practice in respect of local culture may enhance applicability.

Table *5A.3.2.a* reveals that lack and quality of academic resources are two more complaints recieved from teacher educators in Turkey. Number of academics (teacher educators at education faculties), workload of teacher educators, and suitability of academic books and information to Turkish context were also declared.

Table 5A.3.2.b: Turkish Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT- 1: I have rarely consulted GEC academic books for help. I say rarely because they did not take me any higher after a point.	She explains that since starting working as a teacher, she has not used academic resources about GEC very often. She says that these sources did not help her practice after a certain point. This signals the weakness of GEC for generalization.
TWT- 1: Academic resources which include updated knowledge and methodologies should be used in teacher education. Teacher educators should keep their knowledge up to date.	She criticizes academic resources and teacher educators for being out of date. If teacher educators as academicians and scientists become out of touch with modern knowledge, it could suggest a need for a pressure upon teacher educators to develop themselves.
TWT- 13: As an experienced teacher, I think working teachers should have the opportunity to read academic studies so that they can improve themselves.	The researcher agrees and adds that reading academic resources may help teachers to be reflective practitioners.

Table *5A.3.2.b* sheds light on a lack of academic information resources (books, textbooks, and articles) as a cause of concern also by working teachers. In addition to them, one Turkish working teacher asks for more opportunities for teachers to access academic articles.

5A.4 - People in Teacher Education (Cluster)

This section is about how people who are responsible for teacher education affect the quality of the theory-practice relationship. By 'responsible people', is meant teacher educators, people with mentorship responsibilities (mentors, experienced teachers, inspectors…), and student teachers themselves.

5A.4.1 - Teacher educators (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5A.4.1.a: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 1: Nobody interferes with the teacher educators regarding their lessons here.	This respondent points to the freedom in lessons for student teachers. The academics are not inspected nor put under pressure by anyone else in terms of their lesson style. Lack of inspection allows flexibility in applying the theories in various methods that individual teacher educators may prefer, however it is again only up to the teacher educator's own professionalism and work ethic to teach student teachers properly.
TTE- 3: Sometimes teacher educators lose touch with the real classroom environment. For example, how a teacher educator teaches theory here may be irrelevant to classroom practice. So whatever their position in education faculties, teacher educators need to be sent into schools to carry out teaching practice.	This is a crucial point of view. The researcher thinks there are three ways for teacher educators to remain in touch with classroom practice: First by regularly working in schools, second by meeting with working teachers to learn from their experiences, and finally by undertaking classroom related research.
TTE- 3: Many teacher educators do not attend the student teachers' school practices to observe and guide them. This is not an issue only in Mugla University, it is the case in many universities.	Disappointing realities come to the surface. Work ethic, discipline, or professionalism problems are observed this time in relation to teacher educators. This also points to the importance of auditing teacher educators.

TTE- 3: Expertise in generic education courses (GEC) is needed when recruiting teacher educators. Sometimes GEC lecturers are chosen from History departments or other departments just to fill the shortage of teachers.	It is difficult to disagree with the respondent about the requirement of expertise in GEC lecturers. Universities and education faculties should ready in terms of lecturing staff before opening.
TTE- 5: The practice credits are six hours at the faculty - four hours practice and two hours for supervision. Those two hours are there for teacher educators to supervise student teachers. This means that the academician should sit with his/her students, have a conversation about their practice and experiences at schools and finally evaluate, assist and guide them (but they do not). Teacher educators need periodic seminars.	Here, the complaint is that teacher educators are not doing their job properly regarding their supervision of student teachers' practice. The use of seminars is advised to remind, motivate, and update knowledge of academicians who are responsible for teaching practice.
TTE- 6: Turkish teacher educators prefer to do their academic studies on theoretical issues because their expertise tends to be on theories. This situation might have led to educational practice being neglected.	The respondent points to the academic study biases. Bias toward theory causes less importance to be given to practice according to the respondent. Academic studies on practice and/or theory-practice related studies could be supported and encouraged by governmental bodies or at least by universities.
TTE- 16: A student teacher takes the course in the psychological development of children; however student teachers are not aware of their own character and psychology.	Knowing him/herself may also help the student teacher to understand others, including children.
TTE- 16: Many teacher educators do not know how to put theory into practice.	A harsh criticism but it should be perceived as a warning to enhance the quality of academics in Turkish education faculties.
TTE- 24: Teacher educators should be	This could put pressure on

evaluated regularly too.	academics to improve their knowledge, expertise, and their practice.
TTE- 23: it would be better to divide teacher educators into two: theoreticians and practitioners.	This respondent suggests two types of academicians in education faculties: one for theory expertise and the other for practice expertise. The question of whether this kind of separation could be helpful in linking theory to practice is an important one. Think about theoreticians who know little about practice and practitioners who know little about theory. The researcher foresees a complete separation rather than a link between theory and practice.
TTE- 20: As teacher educators, some of us are also responsible for an unsuccessful theory-practice relationship. We think that if we teach the theory, student teachers can complete the practice later on when they are working in schools.	The researcher cannot decide under which title to put this comment. The interviewee exposes a lack of professionalism of teacher educators.
TTE- 15: Teacher educators should be selected from amongst teachers who have previously worked in schools.	The interviewee suggests that staff with teaching experience should be recruited.

Regarding table *5A.4.1.a*, it can be seen that some Turkish teacher educators accuse some of their colleagues of not working professionally as they are not taking and practicing teacher Generic Education Courses seriously. One teacher educator explains that some teacher educators are lost in theories so much that they may forget about the real-life practice experiences. Another one complains that some teacher educators teach only theories leaving practice to schools. It is also suggested that teacher

educators should be selected from amongst teachers with working experience.

Table 5A.4.1.b: Turkish Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT- 14: I cannot forget one of my teacher educators making me carry out a teaching practice in front of my colleagues, telling me my strengths and my weaknesses, and showing how to do what in detail. He was a great teacher educator.	This is a good example of a good teacher educator. S/he cares about the student teacher and his/her performance in putting theory into practice.
TWT- 14: Old teacher educators do not have the energy and motivation to teach and guide student teachers.	The interviewee indirectly suggests that younger academics should educate student teachers.
TWT- 9: As an experienced teacher, teacher educators are far removed from practice. They might have practised teaching so long ago that they might have forgotten how to practise over time.	From time to time teacher educators may need to practise in schools to remember the practice details, media, and the atmosphere of teaching.

Table *5A.4.1.b* shows that a Turkish working teacher tend to value teacher educators who give exaples from daily praxis of GEC during lessons. Showing the relevance of theory to practice during university lectures form positive memories of working teachers.

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5A.4.2 - Mentorship (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5A.4.2: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 4: Mentor teachers are leaving the classroom completely to the student teachers (leaving them alone) for their practice. But this is not the point of us sending undergraduates into schools. They are there to learn from their mentors as well. They have to be in touch with each other and their mentors should guide them in their practice.	There is clearly insufficient work ethic here. Mentors should be fined for their unprofessional behaviour as well as they are paid for their mentorship. This situation reported by the respondent, is not only harmful for student teachers for the pupils in the classroom too.
TTE- 5: There is an interesting mentorship problem: Student teachers go to schools for their teaching practice but instead of applying what they have learned here in the education faculties, they start copying what mentor teachers are doing. So they replicate the older versions of teaching while they could be a newer version full of modern teaching methods and techniques. Working teachers do not update their knowledge themselves and in-service training offered to them by the government is insufficient.	This teacher educator presents a different problem to our views. He mentions that student teachers prefer to take mentor teachers as role models; however mentor teachers are not equipped with modern standards and this causes an undesirable situation. As mentor teachers are not sufficiently equipped, student teachers should follow what they learn at education faculties, according to the sixth teacher educator from Mugla province.
TTE- 7: Mentor teachers in schools may be encouraged to guide student teachers who come to their schools as to which practice is a result of which theory.	This teacher educator offers a suggestion about how to design the roles of mentors in schools. Taking the teacher educator's suggestion, mentors could be representatives (mirrors) of teacher educators in schools.
TTE- 18: Mentor teachers in schools should update their knowledge. There may be some	In Turkey, some working teachers are expected to be mentors while

mentors with 20-25 year old knowledge which has never been updated. The extent to which they have remained up to date is not known.	their teaching approach represents old styles of teaching. The level of personal attempts to update their knowledge is not known. In-service training occurs but there is a question of how well they are 'trained' during that period (the researcher would prefer working teachers to hear some theoretical developments).
TTE- 18: Universities should have the ability to choose mentors.	If education faculties are allowed to decide who should be mentors the quality of mentorship could increase, because by doing so, both capable and volunteer teachers could be recruited as mentors. This kind of elimination could also bring out potential good mentors. Education faculties could design criteria lists and elimination methods to do this.
TTE- 23: Working teachers, who are also mentors of student teachers, have got a heavy curriculum. To be able to finish their workload they cannot guide student teachers at the level that they should.	A balance is needed for mentors in schools of practice between workload and assistance to the student teachers. Regulations and incentives are required.
TTE- 17: Mentors should be chosen from amongst experienced and volunteer teachers.	The meaning of 'experienced' should be discussed as experienced teachers are more familiar with old theories and new teachers are more familiar with contemporary theories. Newer ones can help more with modern theories and their application. The researcher agrees with the idea of using volunteers. If mentors are eager to help student teachers, at

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
	least they may always attempt to guide student teachers.
TTE- 25: Investigators should also guide and mentor working teachers.	Additional help may be useful.

In table *5A.4.2,* it is suggested by Turkish teacher educators that the selection of mentors should be the responsibility of education faculties. There are quality problems in mentorship consisting of the content of mentorship training, inspection of mentorship activity, and professionalism problems of mentors (for instance: not mentoring student teachers). The content issue is about mentors applying older GEC content.

5A.4.3 - Student teachers (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5A.4.3.a: *Turkish Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 7: Some student teachers prefer to memorize theories rather than to learn them and learn to apply them.	The teacher educator blames student teachers who instead of attempting to learn simply memorize knowledge. Actually, learning may occur after memorizing but the interviewee may be right that student teachers should pass beyond memorizing to further learning levels.
TTE- 7: Student teachers have got problems with studying hard. We (as teacher educators) face reluctance from student teachers to GEC. I cannot understand why this happens.	The reason for this reluctance could be investigated in a separate study in the future. The education system in Turkey may cause students to dislike studying hard. It is an important but

	completely different study. However, it will affect how student teachers learn and establish a better theory-practice relationship.

Teacher educators complain in table *5A.4.3.a* that student teachers in Turkey do not study hard enough. They prefer to memorize the content rather than learning it with deep understanding, as the former is easier for them and requires much less mental effort.

Table 5A.4.3.b: Turkish Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT- 14: My colleagues were not interested in General Education Courses. Many of us attended the courses just because we had to.	Similar reluctances were expressed by other working teachers and teacher educators about teachers. The question is why than did s/he prefer to be a student at an education faculty?

One working teacher exposes (table *5A.4.3.a*) that while s/he was a student teacher, s/he attended the lessons not because s/he liked them but just because s/he had to.

5A.4.3.1 - Recruitment and motivation for the job (Sub-Sub-Cluster)

Table 5A.4.3.1.a: Turkish Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 1: Unusable theory kills the motivation and	This teacher educator mentions that

expectations of student teachers.	if a student teacher cannot practise some of the theories this may cause them to be reluctant to learn or produce a 'lost in the jungle' effect. Thinking about a theory that cannot be applied may raise questions and doubts about the practicability of the other theories, too. This situation may arise not because of the other theories themselves but because of the learned despondency.
TTE- 2: So much idealism causes teacher candidates disappointment when they face a real school environment while working professionally.	There are two important conceptions in this sentence: firstly, idealism is a rich source of motivation and if more idealism is loaded to teacher candidates than needed, it may cause disappointment considering the real situations in their prospective professional life. Idealism can push motivation to higher levels and higher motivation may trigger desire for a better quality of theory-practice relationship. Secondly, there is a tacit emphasis that school experiences while they are undergraduates, no matter how realistic they are still may not be as realistic as the profession itself. He later goes on to explain the differences between professional teaching experiences and school practice experiences as:
TTE- 2: The classrooms they attend are not one hundred percent under their control and responsibility. They are not accepted as real teachers in the schools where they practice.	Prospective teacher undergraduates are not accepted as teachers by either mentors or pupils. This affects the motivation, quality and seriousness of their

	practice. They cannot be motivated in their practice as they start to perceive themselves as not being teachers. The quality is affected because their mentors do not view them as professionals and so their practice is also affected. A lack of seriousness may arise, which takes away the meaning of practice of pedagogical courses.
TTE- 4: Our teacher candidates have got communication problems with students. Undergraduate student teachers should face a pre-election period before they start their studies at education faculties.	If student teachers are eliminated before starting their university life according to some criteria, apart from their exam results, this could improve the quality of teachers. As underlined by the teacher educator, teacher candidates with higher communication skills could be chosen or, he continues:
TTE- 4: A preparation class of Generic Education Courses could be presented to the candidates as a first stage to pass. They could prepare themselves psychologically for the teaching job. Making a nationwide exam to test the knowledge of students is not enough to be teachers. At that class and level the student may recognize whether s/he is suitable for the job or not, and whether s/he loves teaching or not.	Clearly a knowledge based nationwide exam is not enough for the acceptance of students to education faculties. Teaching needs devotion, motivation, desire, and capabilities. The interviewee goes on to inform about the skills that are necessary for teaching:
TTE- 4: Elocution, character and communication skills are capabilities a teacher should have.	TTE- 4 lists some important features that teachers should perform. Elocution skills could increase the clarity of speaking during lessons in addition to the benefit of charismatic appearance. An admirable character in a teacher is attractive to students, while communication skills

	are one of the most important points in Generic Education Courses in order to keep the classroom atmosphere under control.
TTE- 4: A jury should evaluate according to their own observations within the preparation year and undergraduate's performance at the end of the year.	Here, the teacher educator proposes a final year oral exam, keeping in mind the performance of the teacher candidate's performance within the preparation year.
TTE- 16: The nationwide exam for state schools to recruit teachers is not very suitable for the purpose. Imagine two students. One of them has got a degree of 90 out of 100 from undergraduate courses with a result of 70 out of 100 from the nationwide recruitment exam, and the other has 70 for undergraduate courses but 90 from the nationwide recruitment exam. According to the rules the second one has got a better chance of being accepted because he has done better in a two hour test exam! The test replaces undergraduate courses for recruitment. In that test you choose one answer out of five, which may remind you of the answer and cannot evaluate teacher practice.	Having agreed with the interviewee, it can be said that with a population of around 75million and thousands of teacher candidates, the question remains as to how the practice can be evaluated. The solution may be as in England that student teachers' practice is evaluated as a graduation criterion.
*TTE- 24: Our teachers are low in self-esteem. We do not have **ecole** schools. Traditional schools may help self-esteem.*	Having schools like Eton and Westminster may increase Turkish teachers' self-esteem.
TTE- 23: Student teachers should take a character test just after the declaration of acceptance for state schools (the result of KPSS, which is a nationwide exam to eliminate and recruit teachers).	A character test may result in recruiting more suitable teachers to the profession. A suitable character for teaching may also mean good communication skills, which is directly related to the practices of GEC.
TTE- 11: Lower financial status of working	Improving the financial status of

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	teachers with bonuses for better performances could enhance the quality of the link between theory and practice.
teachers may de-motivate them with regard to better practice and improving themselves.	
TTE- 26: Some student teachers tell us that if there was not 70 percent attendance required of them, they would not have attended any lessons. They might have chosen education faculties just because securing an after graduation job is more certain than others.	This displays an important lack of desire and motivation not only for courses but also for the teaching profession. Some student teachers seem to just choose a faculty in order to secure a place at a state school afterwards.

According to Turkish teacher educators (table *5A.4.3.1.a*), not being able to put theory into practice demotivates both teachers and student teachers teaching. Occupational issues, such as lower salary, also causes lower motivation. Student teachers who regret choosing teaching are struggling to motivate themselves for their profession.

Table 5A.4.3.1.b: *Turkish Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	**Interpretations**
TWT- 3: If working teachers are rewarded for their successful practice of theories, then this may trigger competitiveness.	Competition amongst working teachers may motivate them toward better practices and may motivate them to develop themselves.

Working teachers expect rewards, as seen in table *5A.4.3.1.b* after higher level performance in terms of putting theory into practice.

5A.5 - Other issues and opinions affecting the theory-practice relationship in teacher education (Cluster)

This section includes comments and analyses that do not fit into other groups. Since phenomenographic analysis values each and every single comment or opinion they cannot be excluded and they are considered next.

Table 5A.5.a: Turkish Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 22: I do not find it right that an academic of another department other than education faculties (such as a professor coming from the agriculture faculty) should be a dean or manager in a school of education.	It is surprising that some education faculties are run by deans who are not from an education faculty background and do not know much about educational sciences, including pedagogy. How can the decisions made by such an authority be reliable? Such deans should not be allowed to manage and lead teacher education. It is clear that being unaware of the content and problems of teacher education could cause a great deal of trouble. How can someone make a valid decision about teacher education if they do not have a teacher education background? This is a disappointing recruitment example from Turkey.
TTE- 22: Although some people think that establishing Teacher Education Universities would be better for the theory-practice relationship, I cannot agree with that. We should not destroy the media of interaction between the	This opinion needs separate research. However, the researcher questions whether it would be worth ignoring the many benefits of having a university which specialises in

students of different faculties. Interaction between students enables them to exchange their points of view.	teacher education in order to protect one benefit achieved from undergraduate students coming together. A teacher education university could increase the expertise and focus in teacher education. Thus, it could also enhance the quality of integration of theory and practice.
TTE- 17: Clarified roles and duty lists for each occupation at every level of education and its management.	If every individual knows exactly what to do and what not to do, then professional conflict may be lowered. Ultimately, the management of teacher education could become more efficient. Eventually, a more successful design of theory-practice relationship could be constructed.
TTE- 17: Education is affected too much by politics. Education has to have its own path.	Political choices sometimes tend to prioritize popularity rather than rational choice. This may be as a result of concerns about votes near elections. It is almost impossible to separate education from politics completely; however, education can be isolated from popularity by the preferences of politicians. It makes us question what politics are for. If politics are for the sake of the country then rational choice should be the priority over popularity.

It can be seen from table *5A.5.a* that teacher educators put forward several issues that also affect GEC-practice relationship. They include: involving academics from other departments, establishing teacher education universities to improve specialization, clarifying official duty roles

both within the education faculties and universities, and lessening the populist negative effects and perceptions generated by politics.

Table 5A.5.b: Turkish Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TWT- 1: Education faculties in Turkey are very politicized. The politic disagreements harm the harmony and efficiency within education faculties.	This respondent is concerned that political differences cause a decrease in the efficiency of education faculties. This could affect the quality of teacher education directly.

In table *5A.5.a* , a working teacher thinks that non educational political debates at education faculties cause inefficiency and block peer learning of academics.

5A.5.1 - Work Ethic, Work Discipline, and Professionalism (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5A.5.1.a: Turkish Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
TTE- 16: Teacher educators should be visiting schools to observe, to guide, and to evaluate the practices of student teachers. However, they do not do that as much as they should.	This respondent suggests that teacher educators are not doing their job properly, which is against ethical requirements of professionalism. Guidance of teacher educators is crucial. If teacher educators do not perform one of their main duties, how can prospective teachers be

	expected to link GEC to practice? These kinds of mistakes may be the result of lack of work discipline and insufficient professionalism.
TTE- 16: The protocol between universities and schools of MONE involves student teachers attending practices totalling at least 24 hours. Here it says at least 24, which means it is advised to attend more than 24 hours. The administrations of education faculties are not careful enough about some important things.	Another example of lack of discipline but this time at managerial level. Management of education faculties should be an accelerator of quality for their institution; however they appear to be trying to meet the lower limits.
TTE- 10: Student teachers perceive practice hours at schools as empty days of their life. They just go to school and come back without learning anything. Teacher educators are responsible for this scenario as they ought to follow students more seriously.	Another example of the insufficient work discipline of some teacher educators and insufficient motivation for and awareness of the teaching profession.

Amongst the comments in table *5A.5.1.a,* some interviewed teacher educators in Turkey believe that there is a professionalism problem of teacher educators and mentors at schools. This professionalism problem is basically about the work ethic.

Table 5A.5.1.b: *Turkish Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	**Interpretations**
TWT- 4: Mentors at our schools of practice were leaving the classroom so that they could rest instead of guiding us.	Another example of unprofessional behaviour is presented by mentors

Work ethic problems are also confirmed by working teachers in table *5A.5.1.b.* Mentors are accused of not giving guidance and taking responsibility for student teachers.

-Part B (Turkish student teachers' Perceptions)

In this part, perceptions of Turkish student teachers will be analysed statistically using the computer software SPSS. The study consisted of 404 student teachers: 369 final year students (4th for Turkey) and 35 of them 3rd year students. Fifteen cases have been excluded from data including 13 outliers. The respondents are from five different provinces in Turkey.

Data were collected using a questionnaire with 28 Likert Scale questions mainly on theory perception, practice perception, perception of the relationship between them, and management of teacher education (at state level) and education faculties. Demographic structure is also looked at.

Their perceptions are sought more than their conceptions as there are more questions on how they feel about theory, practice, and theory-practice relationship rather than how they think about them.

At first normality tests are carried out to control whether the data collected are analysable by parametric tests or non-parametric (where normal distribution cannot be assumed). Thirty-two different variables are used and three new variables are formed by means of factor analysis; these are recoded into 'theory perception', 'practice perception', 'relationship perception' and 'satisfaction from the management'. Among those 32 variables, five of them are normally distributed. The new factor, labelled 'relationship perception' is also normally distributed.

5B.1- Reporting

5B.1.1 - Normality Test

This test is carried out to pass the assumptions of one-way ANOVA, t-tests, and correlation. The following variables and factors are normally distributed: 'boringness', 'reluctance', 'connection', 'design of relationship', 'motivation for theory' and 'relationship perception' (factor). Below are the histograms of these variables and the factor:
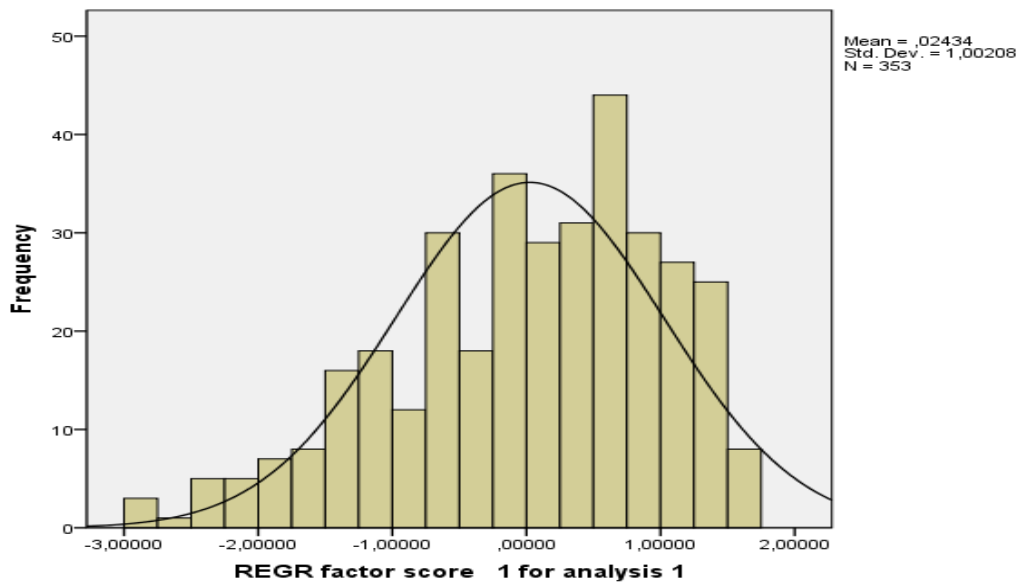

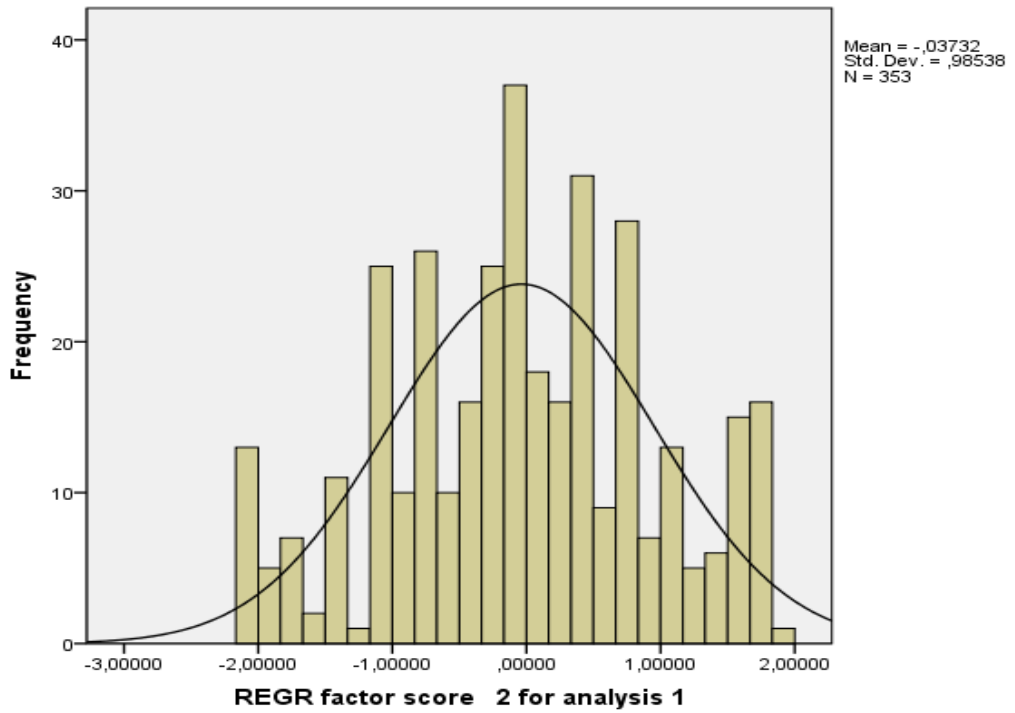*Figure 2.* Normality Graph of Regression Factor Score-1

Figure 3. Normality Graph of Regression Factor Score-2
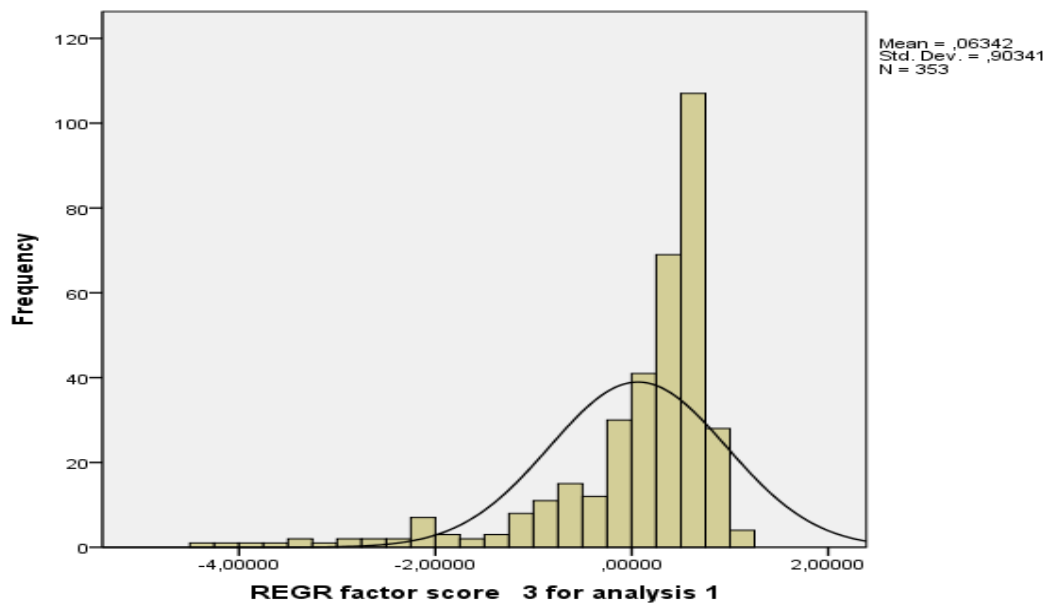
Figure 4. Normality Graph of Regression Factor Score-3

Of these variables, many of them have mean scores that are very close to the expected values, the middle values (3.00) with Likert scales. However, some of them are noteworthy. For instance, the mean values for 'gender' and its pie chart reveals that more females participated in the survey.

5B.2 - Descriptive Statistics

5B.2.1 - Mean Values and Variances

The mean values for 'theory perception' are relatively moderate rather than positive or negative but participants generally believe that theory is necessary (mean score = 4.21) and useful (mean score = 4.02). We would also argue that participants tend to dislike theory greatly and tend to see it as not worth spending much time on ('like/dislike' mean score = 3.62 and 'time waste' mean score = 3.77). This confirms that they do not think theory is a real priority.

One very significant result is that the bulk of the participants prefer courses that are related to their occupation ('general education courses' mean score = 1.11 out of 2) which could suggest they are aware of how important GEC is for their future occupation.

Another very significant result concerns the importance of practice. Participants strongly agree that practice is important ('importance of practice' mean score = 4.76 and variance = 0.649) and even more important than theory which has a mean score of only 3.36 ('importance of theory'). And these results can be confirmed by other variables: 4.21 mean score for 'necessity' and 4.02 mean score for 'usefulness' which are both less than 4.76 mean score for 'importance of practice'.

Again, the direct question about the relationship between theory and practice versus practice and teaching also reveals the same results because the mean 3.36 (of theory-teaching relationship) is considerably less than 4.68 (practice-teaching relationship) with a small variance (0.838).

Participants also believe that they can more easily motivate themselves for practice (mean score = 4.18) than theory (mean score = 2.99). Besides, the majority of the participants believe that education departments need reorganizing and restructuring (mean score = 4.28).

5B.3 - Factor Analysis

5B.3.1 - Suitability of Data

1- According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p.613), 300 cases are sufficient. This research includes 404 cases.

2- Inter-correlation among the items is recommended to be less than 0.3 by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). If few correlations are found above this level, factor analysis may not be appropriate. Moreover, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Barlett, 1954) should be significant ($p <$ .05) and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (Kaiser, 1970, 1974) is suggested to be 0.6 as the minimum for factor analysis.

The data here is suitable for factor analysis because KMO value is 0.854 (above 0.6) and Barlett's Test of Sphericity is 0.000 (<= .05).

Six components (factors) can be extracted with the eigen values above 1 (5.593, 2.127, 1.670, 1.568, 1.225, and 1.005). However, looking at the scree plot and realizing the conceptual reality and similarity between the variables, three factors can be extracted. They are theory perception, practice perception, and theory-practice relationship perception. Noting that the component matrix results for un-rotated loadings of our components (factors), it can be realized that two or three factors are likely.
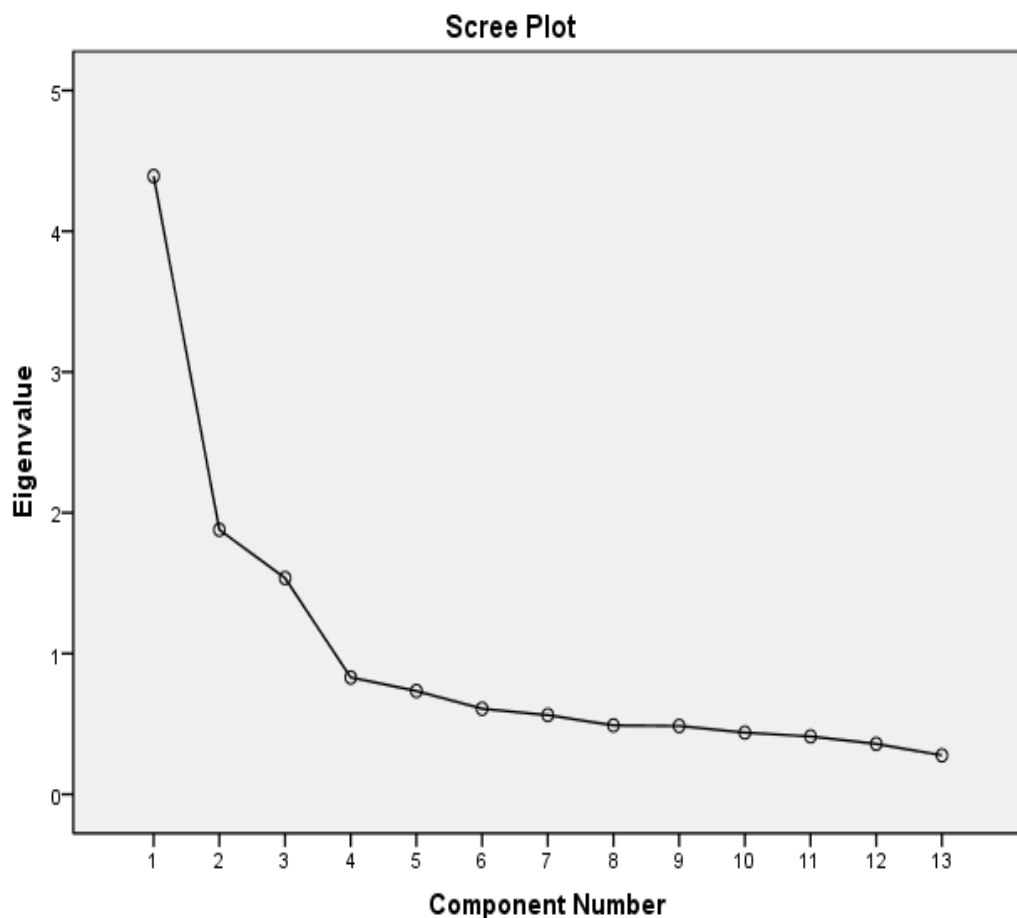

Figure 5. Theory-practice Relationship Scheme. Scree Plot

Total variance explained by our three factors is 44.717%, which seems moderate. Looking at the component correlation matrix, it can be seen that the correlation between the 1st and 3rd components is greater than -0.3 (-0.374). Therefore, the oblimin rotation is reported below.

In order to refine our components, it is necessary to refer to the communalities and pattern matrix where the variable 'Course Content' communality is only 0.159 and 'Theory Teaching Relationship' communality is 0.194. Loading of these variables is .352 and .396 respectively. It can be seen that 'Motivation for Theory' and 'Importance of Theory' with .287, .224 correlations, and .389, .301 loadings respectively.

In our third attempt 'tiring' is released with .70 correlations and no loading (looking at the pattern matrix Table for output used oblimin, which is one of the rotation techniques used in factor analysis) and 'obligation' with .253 correlation and -5.32 loading (this is the only negative value in the Pattern Matrix Table).

Having learnt that there is no correlation less than .3 in our correlation matrix, or recent oblimin, outputs can be reported. They are: Table-2: Structure Matrix and Table 0: Pattern Matrix. Unlike previous attempts now our scree plot also clearly shows the elbows corresponding to our three components. These are:

1st Component:

After one more trial it can be seen that the total variance could indeed be improved to 60% from initial value of 44.7. If the weakest variables 'satisfaction level' and 'realistic-unrealistic' are released, it can reach 60 percent. When these variables are released, 60.053 of the total variance are explained. And by looking at the component correlation matrix, it can be noted that none of the components have correlation greater than .3. This means that new Varimax rotation is enough and it is not necessary to report the Pattern and Structure matrices of the oblimin output. The scree

plot also confirms our findings. The weakest correlation of Communalities tables is now only .416 from an initial 0.100s.

Thus, **the First Component's Make-Up is:**

1-D- Like-Dislike

1F- Time Waste

1K- Reluctance

1E- Boringness

1A- Necessity

1B- Usefulness

1G- Priority

The Second Component's Make-Up is:

3A- Relation

3B- Connection

3C- Design of Relationship

The Third Component's Make-Up is:

4D- Practice-Teaching Relationship

4B- Importance of Practice

4C- Motivation for Practice

Moreover, even a brief look shows the clarity of the results with negative values collected under the second component only, and that all the components have values from one part of the questionnaire and only set of variables asked by certain parts of the questionnaire (they are all from 1st part) for the first component, 3rd part for the second component, and 4th part for the third component.

According to education journals, details of the methods of factor extraction should be shown. Additionally, 'Parallel Analysis' and the values under 0.3 are to be included and shown. Pallant (2010) stresses that Component Matrix and scree plot should also be reported.

These three scores are saved as new variables with the method of regression of which coefficient matrix is named as 'recoding'.

There are two more factors regarding management issues:

1- Successful Management of Education Faculties

2- Need for Restructuring of Educational System Management

5B.4 - Correlation

Firstly, any outliers are sought if they exist. According to the results, 13 outliers are extracted by double checking the Scotter Plot and identifying the points.

Correlation between '**theory perception**' and **'relationship perception'** is -.332 which is a medium correlation according to Pallant (2010). The negative sign of the Pearson Correlation value means that as the

participants' perceptions on theory become more positive; their perceptions on the '**relationship'** between theory and practice become more negative. There is a reverse correlation between positive attitudes to theory and attitudes to the relationship between theory and practice.

Table 5B.1: Statistics- Correlations 1

		REGR factor score 2 for analysis 1	REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1
REGR factor score 2 for analysis 1	Pearson Correlation	1	-.332[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	342	342
REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1	Pearson Correlation	-.332[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	342	342

 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlation between the factors 'practice perception' and 'relationship perception' is -.027 which is a small correlation according to Pallant (2010). The negative sign of the Pearson Correlation value means that as the participants' perceptions on practice becomes more positive; their perceptions on the relationship between theory and practice become more negative. There is a small reverse correlation between positive attitudes to practice and attitudes to the relationship between theory and practice.

Table 5B.2: Statistics- Correlations 2

		REGR factor score 2 for analysis 1	REGR factor score 3 for analysis 1
REGR factor score 2 for analysis 1	Pearson Correlation	1	-.027
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.620
	N	342	342
REGR factor score 3 for analysis 1	Pearson Correlation	-.027	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.620	
	N	342	342

Correlation between the factors 'theory perception' and 'practice perception' is -.236 which is a small correlation according to Pallant (2010). The positive sign of the Spearman's rho correlation value means that as the participants' perceptions on practice become more positive, their perceptions on the theory become more negative. There is a small correlation between attitudes to practice and theory.

Table 5B.3: Statistics- Correlations 3

			REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1	REGR factor score 3 for analysis 1
Spearman's rho	REGR factor score 1 for analysis 1	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.236**
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
		N	342	342
	REGR factor score 3 for analysis 1	Correlation Coefficient	.236**	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
		N	342	342

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5B.5 - t-Tests

5B.5.1 - Difference between 3rd and 4th Year Students' Perceptions

As the following tables on t tests suggest, 3rd and 4th year students' responses are significantly different on the following variables: 'boringness', 'reluctance', 'connection', 'importance of theory'. As Levene's Test for Equality of Variances failed, we do not assume equal variances and reach a significant value (0.000 and 0.001).

Levene Test for Equality of Variances for Independent Sample Test

Table 5B.4: Statistics- 1E-Boringness

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference		
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	4.53	.034	3.61	375	.00	.783	.217	.356	1.209
Equal variances not assumed			4.53	51.00	.00	.783	.173	.436	1.129

Independent Samples Test

Table 5B.5: Statistics- 1K-Reluctance

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference		
							Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	1.075	.301	3.16	374	.002	.701	.221	.266	1.137
Equal variances not assumed			3.456	46.347	.001	.701	.203	.293	1.109

Table 5B.6: Statistics 3B-Connection

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference		
							Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	1.415	.235	2.667	377	.008	.580	.218	.152	1.008
Equal variances not assumed			3.156	46.916	.003	.580	.184	.210	.950

As the following tables on t tests suggest, there are significant differences between females and males on a factor we formed using factor analysis which is indeed about the State's management of education departments ('5B').

Table 5B.7: Statistics- *5B*

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference		
							Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	.625	.430	2.141	372	.033	.258	.121	.021	.495
Equal variances not assumed			2.167	335.338	.031	.258	.119	.024	.492

As the following tables on t tests suggest, that there are significant differences between the students who prefer 'general teaching courses' and those who do not on 'boringness' and 'reluctance'.

Table 5B.8: Statistics- 1E-Boringness

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference		
							Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	.045	.832	2.361	359	.019	.514	.218	.086	.942
Equal variances not assumed			2.522	47.897	.015	.514	.204	.104	.924

Table 5B.9: Statistics- 1K-Reluctance

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Std. Error Difference	Mean Difference		
							Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	2.293	.131	3.956	358	.000	.866	.219	.436	1.297
Equal variances not assumed			4.487	49.839	.000	.866	.193	.478	1.254

5B.6 - One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) between Groups

Looking at the group differences between five different universities that participated in the survey, our analyses discovered the following significant differences.

5B.6.1 - 'Motivation for Theory' Difference between Groups

As the following tables show, the 'motivation for theory' significantly differs between some of the universities (ANOVA sig. value = 0.009 (p <.05) and passed the homogeneity of variance test as shown under the title 'Robust Test of Equality of Means' (0.011 and 0.009).

Test of Homogeneity of Varıances

Table 5B.10: Statistics 4E-Motivation-for-theory

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.426	4	374	.790

Robust Tests of Equality of Means

Table 5B.11: Statistics 4E-Motivation-for-Theory

	Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
Welch	3.403	4	140.181	.011
Brown-Forsythe	3.429	4	288.836	.009

ANOVA

Table 5B.12: Statistics 4E-Motivation-for-theory

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	20.106	4	5.026	3.407	.009
Within Groups	551.852	374	1.476		
Total	571.958	378			

Conducting a Post Hoc test, the researcher found a difference between a south western Turkish University and a western Turkish University with a mean difference of 0.678.

Multiple Comparisons

Table 5B.13: Statistics- Turkey HSD 4E-Motivation-for-theory

(I) 0A-Univercity	(J) 0A-Univercity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.678*	.211	.013	.10	1.26
	3	.355	.192	.344	-.17	.88
	4	.456	.181	.087	-.04	.95
	5	.030	.255	1.000	-.67	.73
2	1	-.678*	.211	.013	-1.26	-.10
	3	-.322	.201	.496	-.87	.23
	4	-.221	.190	.773	-.74	.30
	5	-.647	.262	.101	-1.37	.07
3	1	-.355	.192	.344	-.88	.17
	2	.322	.201	.496	-.23	.87
	4	.101	.168	.975	-.36	.56
	5	-.325	.247	.681	-1.00	.35
4	1	-.456	.181	.087	-.95	.04
	2	.221	.190	.773	-.30	.74
	3	-.101	.168	.975	-.56	.36
	5	-.426	.238	.383	-1.08	.23
5	1	-.030	.255	1.000	-.73	.67
	2	.647	.262	.101	-.07	1.37
	3	.325	.247	.681	-.35	1.00
	4	.426	.238	.383	-.23	1.08

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

5B.6.2 - 'Connection' Difference between Groups

As the following tables show, our test passes the homogeneity of variance test (sig. 0.222) and reveals that there is significant difference between the universities' connection perception measures (sig. 0.001).

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Table Statistics

Table 5B.14: 3B-Connection

Levene Statistic	*df1*	*df2*	Sig.
1.433	4	375	.222

ANOVA Table

Table 5B.15: Statistics

	Sum of Squares	*df*	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.
Between Groups	29.781	4	7.445	4.95	0.001
Within Groups	564.058	375	1.504		
Total	593.839	379			

Post Hoc analysis identifies the differing cases: a southern Turkish University is significantly different from a south western Turkish University.

Table 5B.16: Post Hoc Analyses

(I) 0A-Univercity	(J) 0A-Univercity	Mean Differenc e (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	0.243	0.211	0.779	-0.34	0.82
	3	0.37	0.193	0.311	-0.16	0.9
	4	.643[*]	0.182	0.004	0.14	1.14
	5	-0.206	0.257	0.93	-0.91	0.5
2	1	-0.243	0.211	0.779	-0.82	0.34
	3	0.127	0.201	0.97	-0.43	0.68
	4	0.4	0.191	0.223	-0.12	0.92
	5	-0.449	0.264	0.433	-1.17	0.27
3	1	-0.37	0.193	0.311	-0.9	0.16
	2	-0.127	0.201	0.97	-0.68	0.43
	4	0.273	0.171	0.5	-0.2	0.74
	5	-0.576	0.25	0.145	-1.26	0.11
4	1	-.643[*]	0.182	0.004	-1.14	-0.14
	2	-0.4	0.191	0.223	-0.92	0.12
	3	-0.273	0.171	0.5	-0.74	0.2
	5	-.848[*]	0.241	0.004	-1.51	-0.19
5	1	0.206	0.257	0.93	-0.5	0.91
	2	0.449	0.264	0.433	-0.27	1.17
	3	0.576	0.25	0.145	-0.11	1.26
	4	.848[*]	0.241	0.004	0.19	1.51

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

5B.6.3 - 'Reluctance' Difference between Groups

Multiple Comparisons

Table 5B.17: Statistics *1K-Reluctance*

Tukey HSD

(I) 0A-Univercity	(J) 0A-Univercity	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.203	.221	.890	-.40	.81
	3	.179	.200	.900	-.37	.73
	4	.552*	.188	.029	.04	1.07
	5	-.395	.264	.564	-1.12	.33
2	1	-.203	.221	.890	-.81	.40
	3	-.024	.212	1.000	-.61	.56
	4	.348	.200	.411	-.20	.90
	5	-.598	.272	.184	-1.34	.15
3	1	-.179	.200	.900	-.73	.37
	2	.024	.212	1.000	-.56	.61
	4	.373	.177	.221	-.11	.86
	5	-.574	.256	.167	-1.28	.13
4	1	-.552*	.188	.029	-1.07	-.04
	2	-.348	.200	.411	-.90	.20
	3	-.373	.177	.221	-.86	.11
	5	-.947*	.246	.001	-1.62	-.27
5	1	.395	.264	.564	-.33	1.12
	2	.598	.272	.184	-.15	1.34
	3	.574	.256	.167	-.13	1.28
	4	.947*	.246	.001	.27	1.62

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

As the following tables show, our test passes the homogeneity of variance test (sig. 0.420) and reveals that there is significant difference between the universities' reluctance perception measures (sig. 0.001).

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Table 5B.18: Statistics 1K-Reluctance

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.978	4	372	.420

ANOVA

Table 5B.19: Statistics 1K-Reluctance

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	29.859	4	7.465	4.634	.001
Within Groups	599.217	372	1.611		
Total	629.077	376			

-Part C (English teacher educators and working teachers)

In this part opinions of some English teacher educators and working teachers (an opportunistic sample, taken to enrich the discussion) are displayed. Repeated answers are excluded. Only comprehensive and/or answers with another perspective of different interviewees are involved.

There are two layers of analysis. To clarify in order: the comments that belong to interviewees are *italicised* and interpretations are given next to them.

5C.1 - Theory, Practice, and their Relationship (Cluster)

5C.1.1 - Theory Biased Comments (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.1.1.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE- 1: When we say theory we mean research based theory, evidence from the research that has been discussed in research papers and interpreted by the writers of those research papers. So explanations that they give! I don't mean theory that is very distant and philosophical underway from reality.	This teacher educator suggests that theory can only be accepted as theory when it is research based. S/He continues that as long as the theory is research based theory, there cannot be contradictions between it and its practice as the theory is shaped by empirical studies. Practically grounded theory cannot be separated from practice. What the respondent conceives about research based theory may be correct; however, it is a mistake to distinguish between non-research based theory and practice. It may be correct that untested theories involve risk in their nature as they are not tested yet; however, excluding non-research based theory from education theories is not right. Instead ways to test them should be sought.
ETE- 1: What theory does is to give you an	The idea coincides with that

approach to practice, which you can then think about when it has been tried to see whether it works. What it does not do is to give you instant solutions. It does give you a depth of understanding.	mentioned in the literature review that theory is a kind of interpreter of practice. Apart from instant solutions, theory provides ground for understanding the practice. Theory is like a map which makes the connection between practice and outcomes of practice. Theory may also help teachers to produce new practicable theories for more effective teaching.
ETE- 2: You can think about broad things like constructivism or behaviourism and the idea that either constructivism or behaviourism is the right answer.	This comment is selected just because the interviewee talks about educational theory names. It may be useful to see this comment to make a comparison as there were only indirect comments about education theories coming from Turkish respondents. Talking about theories referring to their names may mean that English respondents have a clearer understanding of education theories and so they know what they are talking about.
ETE- 2: …which is a bit like riding a bicycle. But inside it is hard to say how do you ride a bicycle? How do you say, you can sit on it and you turn the pedals, which is fine. But then say how do you interact with people?	This teacher educator emphasizes that the theory-practice relationship is not as mechanical as riding a bicycle. Interaction with humans it is more complicated than instructions of riding a bicycle. Theoretical descriptions cannot be as simple and direct as user handbook instructions. Describing what to do is fine but when it comes to humans they have different psychologies. The theory-practice relationship is complex and not

	easy.
ETE-5: It is very important that the trainees who are going out there to be teachers have a very good understanding of the theory! I think there is a move at the moment for teachers just needing skills, it's a craft. Whereas in the university we consider that to be an effective teacher you have to have a good grounding, good understanding in the theoretical perspectives. So for example, if children are misbehaving it is not enough just to know how to make them behave. It is essential to understand why they are misbehaving in the first place.	This teacher educator argues that teaching should not be accepted as a craft. GEC should be beyond the know-how, and it should surround 'know-why' as well.

It can be understood from the table *5C.1.1.a* that English teachers educators believe that there is sufficient evidence to support the notion that theory has a healthy relationship with practice keeping in mind that theory itself, and the reason for theory, should be understood well.

Table 5C.1.1.b: English Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	**Interpretations**
EWT-4: As an experienced teacher, in a sense what theory does is to give someone a deeper perspective to review or think about what their role is all about.	This experienced teacher is aware of the relationship between theory and practice. Implicitly, they reject the idea that teaching is a robotic process. Knowing theory breaks that mechanistic process. Theory supports reflection and evaluation which raise teaching to a higher level than obeying commands like robots.
EWT-4: What these theories do is they give us a way of understanding what we see in	While ETE-1 talks about eliciting theory from practice (research based theory),

the world. Now is not that practicable. I think we have to be careful not to make an overly strict division between the practical and other world. The theorizing can be done in another way to increase people's understanding, their insights, and their sensitivity.	this teacher educator highlights the idea that theory overlaps with observation of practice. Remembering the three steps of learning, both of these comments are in line with them. The opinion of ETE-1 refers to Practice Based Understanding and EWT-4's opinion coincides with Observational Understanding. The third one is Theoretical Understanding, which can be understood in this phase as producing theory from theory. It is useful to remember that they cannot be isolated from each other completely. Thus, interestingly, it can be concluded here that learning phases can also be conceived as theory producing phases.
EWT-7: As a novice teacher, I think sometimes theories are very general; they do not take into account specific cases.	This working teacher claims that theories are too general to apply to specific cases. To clarify, would there have not been so much theory if the theory was suitable for every single practice and/or to explain every single possible situation? Also, would it be possible to do that?

Regarding the table *5C.1.1.b* , it can be seen that interviewed English teachers have a conception that theory is useful but too much general for some specific cases.

5C.1.1.1 - Awareness of Theory (Sub-Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.1.1.1.a: English Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-4: A lot of the knowledge that teachers require for the professional context is called tacit knowledge.	Since tacit knowledge is a kind of theoretical knowledge that has been accumulated throughout life, depending on reading, reflection, observations, and practical experiences, teachers should be aware of that knowledge. Teachers' tacit knowledge should be put into a process of evaluation, whether it is correct or not, by teachers themselves. What they have constructed tacitly may not be useful and/or correct.
ETE-10: Anybody who has been a pupil in a school would come to the teaching profession with a theory. It is a native theory, a theory they develop through experience. We have to acknowledge the theories of experience and build upon those. All of those experiences have an impact on what they believe teaching and education to be like.	Taught theories in schools of education should be the criterion for checking that tacit knowledge.
ETE-10: We cannot a hundred percent perfectly shape a teacher's perception of a theory because there are a lot of things affecting this situation.	Since many things affect a teacher's tacit knowledge comparison criteria should be given to teachers and that should be the content of GEC. Rather than shaping the tacit knowledge, student teachers could be given the inspection criteria (GEC) to check what they have constituted.

In table *5C.1.1.1.a*, teacher educators inform us that tacit knowledge which has been shaped all through life shapes how a teacher understands theory and its practice. A teacher's conception of a theory is affected and may be distracted by so many conditions and life experiences.

Table 5C.1.1.1.b: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-6: But as you get further and further on, the university becomes more of a memory. If I read the books, I would probably think 'Oh, it is in there!'	This is a significant comment. The interviewee honestly declares that what is practised may already be in books written as theories. During the interview, the researcher asked questions to obtain a deeper understanding of what lies beyond these opinions without directing the respondent and suddenly the interviewee made these comments. Until this sentence, this working teacher commented that theory has little to do with the practice. What emerged in fact was that the working teacher is not aware of the theory that s/he learnt at the school of education. It can be understood that for some teachers, the theory-practice relationship may be a matter of awareness of theory.

An English working teacher in table *5C.1.1.1.b* reveals that if teachers revisit academic resources from their training, they can recognize that something they experienced in their own practices was already indicated in their academic resources when they studied during their initial teacher education.

5C.1.2 - Practice Biased Comments (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.1.2: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-4: A lot of what makes an outstanding teacher can't be taught. if you haven't got it, you haven't got it.	There is a theory that teachers are either born or made. So this working teacher agrees with the opinion that they are born. Actually this opinion is implicitly practice biased. It stresses that there is no way to learn how to be a teacher. The researcher put this comment here though it would not be qualified and natural; teachers might copy what other teachers do to some extent. This practice (observation of peer teacher) based learning may result some inconsistent successful teaching experiences.
EWT-4: I do think that one hundred percent university based learning could not produce a teacher. But with one hundred percent classroom based learning, if you have a teacher who has the time and willingness to teach about basic things like curriculum, learning objectives and assessment criteria, you could produce a teacher.	EWT-4 claims that a teacher with zero theory can produce a teacher with basic skills. This is a very arguable opinion. Would that kind of teacher not simply be a mechanical teacher without qualified thinking abilities?
EWT-5: As a novice teacher, what I learned at university was obviously more to do with theory but this was more so in assignments, doing things like that which I did not think necessarily would have made me a good teacher. I do think you need some of the basis of the theory that you are given at university but I do think that	This working teacher indirectly claims that assignments and exams at undergraduate level could force student teachers just to get prepared for the pass-fail duration. Instead, more practice in schools could be supported. Teaching pass-

you need a lot more time in school.	fail could be decided looking more at these practices.
EWT-5: When I came into school I just thought the scenarios I faced were totally different to what I had been taught. If you are learning a theory, you cannot cover everything. You can only cover so much.	This time the respondent talks about differences between theory and real school practice, even though theory supports much of practice.
EWT-6: I think that the things I learned at university, quite often, when I came to this school I found quite irrelevant. Not everything, but a lot. I can't remember anything I did at university in terms of assignments and essays, and I don't think assignments and essays helped me to become a good teacher. Sort of, out of touch with what really is going on at school? I found the teaching practice a much more useful way to become a teacher than reading from books.	This working teacher asserts that the relation between theory and practice is weak. Schools of education are places of theory according to this teacher.
EWT-7: I think you learn through practice, I learned so much more in my first year than I did when I was in teaching practice. Learning and writing an essay won't help you to teach a class. Yes! Learn it but take it and pack it straight away.	The researcher could understand the point the working teacher is making if it was advised to leave theory behind; however, the researcher cannot understand still taking and packing theory if they are of no use.

While one working teacher thinks that teachers are born and cannot be made, others conceive that practice is the main element that teaches and improves teaching. Practice is accepted to have a more dominant role in teacher education compared to theory according to table *5C.1.2*.

5C.1.3 - Theory-Practice Relationship (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.1.3.a: English Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-1: I would not want to think of theory, research, and practice as separate stages . I see them as part of... points of a circle that keep going round and round or development that keeps going rather than there being a block which is theory and a separate block which is research and practice.	This teacher educator mentions two points: Firstly, theory and practice are not separate; hence, they are integrated. Second, they form a continuing circle.
ETE-2: A friend of mine at an Australian university has a system where the students work in small groups of three. And the students really hate it. One of the things they say is 'if you have three children, you see huge differences that each children is quite different. And each child has a different view. If you have a whole class, there is no difference, which is crazy. Because they are suddenly aware of how different individual children are. The role of a teacher is to produce a beautiful broadcast like a good television presenter without receiving any response from the students or seeing where the students are and without engaging with the students.	This opinion tells us that individual differences are important when applying GEC content, it is difficult to apply regarding each individual pupil for both pupils and teachers, and finally; applying GEC content ignoring the specific properties of each pupil is like television broadcasting.
ETE-3: I think it is totally achievable. Theory and practice should be never separate. You do a theory test and a practical test for driving, but they are intertwined because you need to understand what the road signs mean, what the rules are.	The road example clarifies how the relationship should be. If someone just tries to learn the signs and the rules on the road, it could be a disaster causing many mistakes and accidents. Theories complete practice even during the process (while learning how to drive).
ETE-4: A transfer is where you have learned	This teacher educator draws our

something and you apply it to another setting. So the students make the transfer, and the tutor does the bridging.	attention to the relationship between theory and practice and to the roles of people where teacher educators are responsible for bridging and student teachers are responsible for the transfer. This idea contradicts the one which states that theory and practice form a union. ETE-4 defends the notion that they add to each other.
ETE-5: Students would see quite a tight relationship between theory and practice because of the way we design the course; we try to make explicit the theory and practice.	ETE-5 conceives that teacher educators have designed a close relationship between theory and practice.
ETE-10: I think it would be unhealthy if there wasn't any gap between theory and practice.	Just as friction not only results in cars being able to initially start to move forward but can also be a barrier to cars moving freely and easily, it may be the same for the gap between theory and practice. The gap may force the relationship to be active and move towards each other or on the other hand it could prevent more successful teaching.
ETE-10: You are swinging between precisions where you become comfortable and then through experimentation and thinking you create the gap again.	Coming close to the practice may encourage theory to produce newer theories. These newer theories may enlarge the gap again. The opposite is also correct.
ETE-10: I would never see it solely as a process of putting theory into practice. It is a dual process between practice informing what we are calling theory and then theory informing practice. Therefore, I would not see that being given a body of knowledge that it is important for teachers to master to put it into practice. It	This teacher educator supports the idea of continuous interaction between theory and practice.

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should influence them, and all the time they should be learning the context of their experience and that will interact with the body of knowledge.	

According to table *5C.1.3.a*, English teacher educators emphasise that there is an inter-connected relationship of theory and practice. They are conceived as inseparable and completing each other. Another one points at individual differences of students that teachers face in classrooms.

Table 5C.1.3.b: English Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-4: I don't think you can be taught that from books. You can't be taught it sitting in a lecture theatre at university; you have to do it hands on in the classroom. I would prefer to do a lot more teacher training in school than in a classroom… I would not say all of it. You can't have it a hundred percent because you need still some theory at university.	Another working teacher puts distance between her/himself and theory but cannot isolate the practice from theory.
EWT-4: I am definitely pleased that theory is taught at university because a lot of students start university with no experience of teaching or understanding of education at all. So starting from zero, so before going first to classroom at all, they do need a theory background like different learning styles, but they do have to consider behaviour management. But you cannot teach somebody how to deal with behaviour management from a book or by sitting in a lecture theatre. They have to see it actually in a classroom because every single child is different. Every single child responds to	Starting with theories satisfies this working teacher, however our attention is once more directed to the significance of practice-based learning.

me differently.	
EWT-5: I had the knowledge of it, but until I put it into practice I don't think I really understood it properly.	This is about learning stages. Without putting the theories into practice actively, learning cannot be completed to a quality level.
EWT-7: I think the theories are fantastic but very idealistic. I think it is very hard to implement some of the practice all the time because it depends on the children. When you have got 30 children, it does not always work. It is important to find the balance for your children and for your class and catering it to their needs.	GEC are accused of being unrealistic regarding classroom conditions. This weakness in realism of theory is because of differences between the children teachers have to deal with. This working teacher goes on to say that success in the theory-practice relationship is based upon individual differences between children.
EWT-8: As an experienced teacher, I would say that a lot of the learning actually comes about when the students are in school, on school placements. Because a lot of the theory may serve as a background initially, I think students need that basis. Because I do not think you could have picked somebody off the street who hadn't thought and considered how to organize theory behind teaching and learning. You could not just pick anybody out, and put them into a class. So what I am saying fundamentally is that students learn most from their hands-on practice and reflection. However, I don't think that they could be in a position to learn best and to reflect best, if they did not have that pedagogical base which you would get at university.	Theory is conceived as a basis for practice by this working teacher. Hands-on practice and reflection are accepted as the sources of learning for teachers. However, continuously updated theory can save time instead of discovering those theories by themselves.
EWT-9: As a novice teacher, you can read it in a book and you can still almost imagine it in your head. But seeing it day in and day out at school just puts it in place and makes it more	Practice is conceived as a reinforcement of theory learning by this working teacher.

permanent in my mind.	
EWT-10: As a novice teacher, during my teacher training, I was given a lot of examples of the reasons behind what teachers do and why they do them in a particular way. So, it was good in that it provided examples of what can be done but also why they are being done.	This working teacher explains that theory increases awareness about teaching and enhances the quality of reflection.

Expressed in table *5C.1.3.b* by the working teachers from England who were interviewed, was the notion that though theory has a role GEC it is mainly learned via more practice. The reason behind this is given as theory is not directly and intentionally related to practice by examples from everyday practices. Experienced teachers believe that theory mismatches with practice while novice teachers still believe theory has a relationship with practice but is in need of refinement.

5C.2 - Management of the Relationship and Teacher Education (Cluster)

5C.2.1 - Managing Schools of Education (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.2.1: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-4: I had a first-time teaching student in November. So she had been in university since September, with her very first teaching practice in November but had never sat in a class before and did not have a basis. But she was expected to walk into the classroom and teach for 60 percent of the time.	Two things are obvious here: Student teachers in England are sent to practice knowing very little theory by some universities. Secondly, student teachers are given the opportunity to practise a great deal from their very first days

	of their student years.
	The researcher does not see any problem with starting to practise with very little theory in the early period of their studentship. Secondly, the researcher believes putting student teachers into the classroom from the first months may significantly prepare them for real school life conditions well and quickly. The researcher believes this to be a successful decision by this teacher's school of education.
EWT-5: You might get more experience in different schools. You might get more experience with different children.	This working teacher indicates that practising at different schools representing different social layers of a country may provide student teachers with richer real-life experiences. These kinds of experiences may be arranged by the management of schools of education.
EWT-9: I know it is a difficult job, but I think the management of education faculties have almost been removed from working with children and putting things into practice. I think they are too far removed from the classroom. They are still learning from books.	People who undertake management issues in schools of education are accused of being out of touch with schools of practice.
EWT-9: Most head teachers are more ready to manage schools of education than other people. I am speaking only from my personal experience, we have a very good head teacher here who can work with the university in order to inform them.	An interesting suggestion comes from a working teacher that head teachers should be recruited as managers of schools of education. It is asserted that they could manage them better.

Table *5C.2.1* tells us that School of education managers, supervisors, and mentors should check and monitor student teachers in terms of guidance and attendence. Arranging more practice is demanded by working teachers from the management of schools of education. One working teacher suggests that schools of education should be managed by people with head teacher experience.

5C.2.2 - Management of the Relationship (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.2.2.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-3: I think it is very important that we not only listen to what students say but also to what the teachers say who helped train them and those who employ them, so that we find out from them how well equipped our students are to work in schools. So if they say to us that they are good at this but they are not good at that, then we need to address that. And that's usually by making the theory clearer so that they understand how it relates to practice.	It is advised by this teacher educator that listening to teachers may benefit the relationship. As teachers are continuous practitioners of theory, they will be more aware of pitfalls and requirements for improvement. Chances should be provided for managers of schools of education and teacher educators to listen to working teachers again by managers of schools of education.

Table *5C.2.2.a* can reveal that listening to the ideas, comments, and experiences of student teachers and working teachers is crucial as well. This teacher educator shines a spot light on hearing the voices of the teaching profession participants and candidates for it.

Table 5C.2.2.b: English Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-4: A teacher who taught about thirty years got 'Ah, this is what we taught 20 years ago, this is what I taught fifteen years ago'. It comes around in cycles, what was in fashion goes out of fashion, and comes back into fashion again.	This experienced teacher is concerned that education theories do not bring any new strategies and developments; rather they repeat what was said long ago in rotation.
EWT-7: We have got external agencies coming to help us and diagnose different things and make different suggestions. If you have a child that you are concerned is not making adequate progress, you complete a referral form for Learning and Support Services. And you detail how you are concerned; they will then refer them to specialist. They might be speech therapists or educational psychologists. Under the council! The problem with that is the waiting list and it costs money.	This working teacher explains how external agencies in England support working teachers when they are asked to. The teacher is disappointed with the waiting list and the cost to her/his school.

In table *5C.2.2.b*, an English working teacher claims that it is a circle of GEC in education that theories become popular in turn and nothing is new. Although she is happy to be assisted by external agencies in England, she is concerned that because of financial reasons waiting lists occur.

5C.2.3 - Centralization-Decentralization (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.2.3: English Teacher Educators

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-3: There are the requirements that the government makes. We have to follow, just being inspected. If our students are not learning	This teacher educator points to the tension between political choices and scientific interests of schools of

what the government wants them to learn, then we will fail the inspection. The issue is, some people would say, that we train them to do what the government wants them to do, but will tell them that actually the government is wrong and they should really be doing this. Or you might put it in a different way and say - perhaps more as I do - this is what you need to able to do to qualify as a teacher. However this is the way it's been done in the past, and in the future it may be done in this way again. So you need to be aware that things may change. This is how it is at the moment, to see things in a broader context.	education. The teacher educator indicates that whatever the theoretical preferences of upper management bodies, Durham University School of Education teaches what is right and wrong, and what is dictated and not. Durham University benefits from the flexibility and freedom of decision making ability and authority that they have compared to Turkish counter parts. This may mean England is more decentralized than Turkey.
ETE-10: Within the standards of the government, I can keep you going for hours on this. I would argue that certain conditions need to be created in schools or in training courses to encourage teachers to be more creative. Some of the important conditions are that they need what I call permission, so they are encouraged to think, do things differently, have ideas, try things, experiment, innovate. They are actually encouraged to do that within certain limits. In England, schools have got the authority to do that. But they often don't do it. And the state, they would have a very strict view on this 'how you should teach'. But there are more creative schools which create these conditions and give permission to their teachers to try different things. This is definitely about school culture.	This teacher educator describes the flexibility of decision making in English schools saying that although schools in England have got the authority for more decision making within their school culture, they tend not to use it. This teacher educator implicitly dissatisfied about the level of decentralization in English education system. More is demanded.

It can be seen in table *5C.2.3* that in England, teacher educators see a tension between the expectations of governments and classroom realities. It is taught that teachers should know this but learn and apply something different. English teacher educators tend to support openness. Teacher

educators also value decentralization in teacher education so that they can teach what they see as more relavant.

5C.2.4 - Management and Inspection (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.2.4: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-4: When they come and inspect the education here, there are certain things that you have to do. You have to turn out the best teachers you possibly can. So the management's role here is to enable that to work and you might have heard about Ofsted inspections. Things are obviously working there. The second thing we have to do is to try to raise the intellectual and academic abilities of students. So we are trying to do that as well. So there is an academic component about it - so you are getting a degree here, so you have to broaden your thinking and become a graduate - an element of being a graduate, which is about being able to understand complex ideas and write about them in problematized ways and so on.	It is explained here that OFSTED inspects schools of education as well as schools. This shows the positive pressure that can be put on schools of education by OFSTED. This teacher educator adds that student teachers are also taught academic features beyond the expectations of OFSTED.
ETE-4: One of the difficulties in the old universities lies in balancing the pressure to be researchers with the pressure of Ofsted-type teacher training. You have to do a lot of administration, a lot of time has to be spent on the making of programmes and making sure the school is collaborating well and so on.	Swinging between being researchers and meeting the expectations of Ofsted increase workload of managers and teacher educators in schools of education.
ETE-10: Who would design a system of education like the one we've got. If you started from a blank piece of paper, that is not a system	This comment is about General Systems Theory. This teacher educator criticizes the education

you would come up with. It is just an accident of history. You can't start with a blank piece of paper. So, you have to start from where you are at.	system as being a patchwork. However, it is suggested that there is no need to start reconstructing the education system from the very beginning. The researcher observed and learnt while in England that the English education system has some important features of GST. Such as: coordination, interaction, and communication amongst the sub-systems if not at a high level, much better than in Turkey. Hence, Turkey could reconstruct its education system from a blank paper, or at least from little more than a blank paper.

According to table *5C.2.4,* teacher educators see management as more about running the system properly and getting things work properly. Additionally, in Universities tensions and conflicts arise between OFSTED (the UK government's Office for Standards in Education) inspections and research expectations (the REF – Research Excellence Framework which determines funding to universities). These conflicting results also need to be managed carefully. Teacher education should be different from the current situation, notwithstanding, it is argued, that it is difficult to design a system from the very beginning.

5C.2.5 - Management of the Partnership (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.2.5: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-5: I think what the management needs to be monitoring is what the schools do. We need it to be a co-operation, a true partnership. We do not want the trainee students to say 'the university theory, the schools practice!' We also need the schools to make those links to the theory that the students have been taught. We can make our expectations clear through mentor training.	A perfect partnership should be targeted by managers at schools of education. Monitoring the activities of schools of practice may be beneficial. Mentor training may help those managers to monitor the schools and to support better cooperation.
ETE-5: I think the key to linking the theory to practice is the partnership between the universities, the school of education and the people in school. If each partner knows exactly what is expected of them and trusts that each partner is going to deliver that training, I think that's the key.	According to this teacher educator clarifying the roles of schools and schools of education may ease setting up a proper partnership.
ETE-5: We would only use the schools that we are doing a good job with for the kids.	Partnership performances of schools may guide schools of education toward further school choices.

Table *5C.2.5* suggests that better cooperation and relationships between universities and schools may provide a better relationships between theory and practice. A good selection of schools to practice in may improve the quality of student teachers' establishment of ties between GEC and its practice.

5C.3 - About People in Teacher Education (Cluster)

By 'people in teacher education' we mean student teachers, mentors (amongst working teachers), and teacher educators.

5C.3.1 - About Teachers and Student Teachers (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.3.1.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-10: You can't just leave the system completely, but the vast majority of teachers are either good or better in England. And I think we should work from the fact that they are ok, trust them and work with them rather than working against them. So we have too much management, too much accountability, too much inspection, too much of all that and it stifles creativity.	This teacher educator believes English teachers should be trusted in their theory-practice performance. Room should be made for their creativity.

This English teacher educator's comment in table *5C.3.1.a* indicates that trusting current working teachers is a way for better relationships between theory and practice. In time, teachers may put theory into practice more successfully.

Table 5C.3.1.b: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-4: You had an exam, an interview and a group task and everybody was so nervous, they were so scared; the chances of you getting on	This working teacher describes what is felt and experienced during the oral exam for acceptance into

the course are slim because there is such a demand for it. So everybody goes and not maturing themselves because they are so nervous. Because everybody is looking at you, you can't be yourself. You might miss a fantastic person because at that moment in time, you are so imbalanced and panicked that you can't be that fabulous person. There is no definite answer. I don't think of any selection process.	schools of education. It is suggested that there is not an ideal selection process.
EWT-7: The knowledge is useful but it depends on the person. And the person applying it affects the quality.	EWT-7 identifies the responsibility on working teachers. It depends on the quality of every teacher solely.

In table *5C.3.1.b,* the criteria according to which teachers may be selected is argued by an English working teacher as lacking any clarity. Since a human's psychology can always be an advantage or an elemination factor at any time, there can be no perfect selection process.

5C.3.1.1 - Competences (and/or Standards) (Sub-Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.3.1.1: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-10: I would say that the whole process of having teacher education courses governed by sets of standard or competences has had a small positive effect on making sure that courses cover certain areas of experience.	Government control has little impact on the amount and quality of standards and competences covered by schools of education. Having reflected upon all the comments from this respondent, the researcher feels that the teacher educator aims a 'centreless' education system or at least weaker central control on the education

	system.
ETE-10: If I try something new, I make myself a novice over again. I become an expert and I am giving up my expertise by making a change.	This teacher educator highlights continuous reflection, which indeed reduces the expertise of teaching to that of a novice for every new finding.
ETE-10: There are some fantastic teachers who are really angry about the process because there has been no discussion or debate about why they were doing the things they were doing. Somebody has just come in with some checklists or criteria taking no account of their thoughts.	In this teacher educator's opinion, competences and standards are not the ideal solution with which to inspect teachers.

It is asserted by an English teacher educator in table *5C.3.1.1* that competences and/or standards have a little positive effect on GEC and practice relationship. Every single new item of knowledge in theory makes a teacher a novice again after being expert. Another teacher educator informs us that many teachers complain that they are not asked about their ideas.

5C.3.1.2 - Socialization of Teachers (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.3.1.2.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-10: What I would call quality dialogue is very rarely founded in schools: dialogue between teacher trainers, teacher trainers and students, dialogue between students, dialogue between teachers when they are practicing in schools! If you and I are going to work together	Dialogue can be defined here as communication, interaction, and learning from each other. Also dialogue with stakeholders and parents may complete and support teaching.

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
on, say, improving my teaching, I have to trust you. If I don't trust you, if I don't value you as a professional colleague, then our relationship is probably not going to be very productive.	

Articulated to table *5C.3.1.2.a*, dialogue between colleagues can be a first step in the socialization of teachers. One teacher educator continues that teachers can only learn from those whom they trust and value.

Table 5C.3.1.2.b: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-7: And then you've got to think about other people you interact with and other teachers you meet along the way.	A similar comment comes from a working teacher.

In line with the previous teacher educator *5C.3.1.2.a*, working teacher in table *5C.3.1.2.b* confirms the importance of interaction amongst people of teaching occupation.

5C.3.2 - About Teacher Educators (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.3.2.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-10: I think the individual tutor is probably the most important factor that determines a student's experience of the course.	This teacher educator states that the quality of teacher educators is crucial and is the most determining

	factor.

In table *5C.3.2.a*, the teacher educator emphasizes the importance of the quality of academics in schools of education.

Table 5C.3.2.b: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-5: If teacher educators increase the amount of time you spend in schools, they should also increase the number of schools you visited.	This working teacher advises teacher educators to spend more time in schools in order to be more aware of real school life than usual. Also, visiting different schools may show the teacher educator a variety of situations and problems.
EWT-5: If the students are in for six weeks, then the university tutor would come in once only if there is a problem. It would motivate us but it would also ensure accuracy across the board [Partnership] I think.	The number of visits made by teacher educators is important as those visits may motivate student teachers during their practice in schools and it may offer a more accurate partnership between universities and schools.
EWT-7: I didn't see my people very often. Some of them, you are meeting with them. A lot of them hadn't had the time, because you've got so many people on the course. I find it hard to give somebody advice on their teaching if I have never seen them teaching. So if people could come out and observe the students more, they would be able to give more constructive feedback.	This working teacher asks how students can be helped with issues of practice if they are not observed by teachers in their hands-on practice. Feedback may guide teacher educators in the areas in which student teachers need help.
EWT-8: I think certainly they would think and ensure that staff who work for the university who have real credibility would be directly involved	This respondent invites teacher educators to go into schools so that they can learn new things and situations from schools.

with the school and so see how things work in the school. I think they should also provide closer and more direct links with schools.	
EWT-10: I think it's just that when teacher educators are in the university environment for quite a long time that they may sometimes not think about what is happening in schools. So, I think it may be just a case of them being reminded of some of the pressures that school might put upon you.	This working teacher asserts that if they visit, school practices may be reminders to teacher educators about how theories are put into practice.

It is complained in table *5C.3.2.b* by working teachers that during studentship, student teachers should ne supported more by academics. This can be achieved by practice guidance and supervision. Visiting schools more often may help teacher educators remember conflicts related to practice and observe newer examples.

5C.3.3 - Mentorship- Role Model Issue (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.3.3: English Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-5: You are learning what other people doing.	Peer learning is a part of socialization. This comment broadens the perspective by saying 'other people' rather than other teachers.
EWT-7: It was normally sitting in the lecture theatres and being taught how to teach. But you never saw them teaching in the same way, so	In this working teacher's opinion student teachers need to see teacher educators teaching so that

maybe you could observe different teachers or the expert teaching. It took me a long time to realize what I was observing. But if there was somebody with you saying 'have you noticed they are doing that, have you noticed they are doing that.' Then you would get a lot more from the observations.	they can be role models for them. In addition they warn that a teacher educator is valued for their observation of teaching and/or the practice of teaching.
EWT-8: One of the reasons for that is that when we deliver to student teachers, we are almost modelling practice. So, if student teachers see a didactic style which is merely a lecture style, then perhaps when they go into a class to teach, their natural reaction would be just to copy that, to model that. That is not the best model for all students because that approach would work with some children, but other children would benefit from a more investigative approach.	Mentor and peer teachers are setting a bad example of teaching in that they make student teachers take old style teaching like didactic teaching as a role model. The reflective practitioner model is advised and it is implied that mentors and working teachers should be given in-service training.
EWT-8: I had the benefit of working for a head teacher who was 58 years old and who had a Doctorate. So, he was a model of a teacher learning just as the children are learning, as students are learning; it should be about teacher's learning.	This is a good example of how a good role model makes student teachers benefit from their school visits.
EWT-10: I think it would be beneficial to have more working teachers, at the moment, come into universities or teacher training institutes to speak about the life they have in their school.	Working teachers are advised to be invited by schools of education to share their experiences and their memories of practice, which could make them a role model for student teachers.

Working teachers signal in table *5C.3.3* that mentors are practicing what they learnt long before, so student teachers are learning mentors' older styles of teaching. Mentors should guide more seriously and in detail drawing on more current ideas.

5C.3.4 - Motivation (Sub-Cluster)

Table 5C.3.4.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-2: I think it is easy for people not to improve. It is easy for people to find ways of getting by or surviving in the classroom. If it is good enough then it is okay. People do not necessarily strive for excellence. Of course a lot of people do strive for excellence but a lot of people think 'well, it is good enough'	It is stated here that if people find a level to survive they prefer this to a better level. If this is teaching practice then most teachers do not care about improvement as it easier to stick with what they have already discovered than to look for that which is as yet undiscovered. There is a Turkish saying that covers the meaning above: The shortest way to a destination is the one you know. However, this is not an ideal way for teaching. This teacher educator tries to make us understand that this is wrong. Teachers should be encouraged to strive for excellence.

In table *5C.3.4.a*, the English teacher educator conceives that if teachers are motivated for more than classroom survival level, then they can be encouraged to make more of the relationship between theory and practice.

Table 5C.3.4.b: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-2: For this financial award for schools, because every school which is a training centre	Financial reward can motivate mentor teachers in schools much

gets a certain amount of money per trainee. But that money does not saved to weight to a mentor or to a coordinator. So, although the university is paying that money, the people who are currently putting in the effort do not get their money reward, what they get is hopefully to see the future of teaching continue.	more, this working teacher suggests. They add that:
EWT-2: I do not think you could ever accuse teachers of being real money oriented people. You know, otherwise, you don't get teachers making really much amount of money. I think they just want to get paid for the extra work they have done.	To prevent misunderstanding, this working teacher explains the reason behind the demand for money as that they just want to be paid for their extra work.

According to table *5C.3.4.b,* working teachers believe that more financial rewarding may make teachers eager for enhancement.

5C.4 - Reflective Practitioner (Cluster)

Table 5C.4.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-1: We want them to be open-minded.	One of the features that a reflective practitioner has is that they are open-minded. If a reflective practitioner is not open-minded the how can reflection be done since reflection may bring out newer theories and/or practices?
ETE-3: I think it is essential that the practice is informed by the theory and so it is very important for our students to know why they are doing what they are doing, or what they are	Theories are conceived as prescriptions of practice by this teacher educator. This teacher educator indicates that student

being asked to do. It is important when we train teachers that we train them to cope with potential changes - we are just talking about government changes and how policies change therefore the requirements for the teachers change. So it is important that we equip trainees to think more broadly, more widely. So if they have a theoretical underpinning to their understanding then they will be better equipped to cope with changes that will happen once they become teachers.	teachers are prepared for any possible upcoming changes by making them reflective practitioners. In this way student teachers can understand and evaluate newer situations and they can adapt themselves to their new status of teaching.
ETE-3: When our students finish training, they are qualified teachers, but they are not the finished article. They still have much to learn. And I would like to think that they would be still thinking they have much to learn in forty years time when they are about to retire because to be a good teacher you need to be able to learn constantly and to reflect upon what you do. I think it is very important that we give them this perspective so that they become reflective teachers and teachers who are capable of adapting to whatever changes are thrown at them.	At Durham University School of Education, student teachers are prepared for continuous learning and development. This opinion is contrary to the opinion that teachers should be as ready as doctors on the day they graduate. To combine two contradictory ideas, it can be said that teachers should be ready for their profession when graduating and at the same time they should be open to more development the day after graduation.
ETE-4: What I am trying to do is to apply the theories in such a way that teachers can find a value not in terms of what they would do tomorrow but in terms of understanding the classroom that they are in. Giving them a more sensitive, sensitized grasp of the world they inhabit. Because one of the dangers for teachers is that they can get into a kind of a narrow understanding.	According to this teacher educator, theory enhances understanding of practice.
ETE-10: Action is a critical part of learning as a teacher but so is learning from that action, so learning from the experience and reflecting on it	Theory sets a platform for newer theories and theory sets a platform for reflection via practice for newer

is the balancing part, So, action and reflection. Well, I think that theory has two places in that dynamic of learning. One is that it may provide a source for new ideas. It can also help the process of reflection; it may help people make sense of what has happened in the classroom. So, I think it has that dual role to play. And over time, something that might be regarded as more formal theory can come to be understood as part of the living theory. So that it becomes internalized by the way in which the teacher thinks and plans for their teaching.	theories again.
ETE-10: … the practitioner enquiry. you would expect the people involved in professional education in the faculty to go through very similar processes of experimenting, gathering evidence, reflecting. So, over time their theory and practice are well integrated.	This time it is teacher educators who are expected to be reflective practitioners. They should be representatives of practitioner enquiry.

Bearing in mind the table *5C.4.a*, it can be conceived that reflection upon practice and pondering theories are advised by teacher educators. Enquiry based and reflective teacher education not only add value to the practice but also can enrich theoretical content of GEC.

Table 5C.4.b: English Working Teachers

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-1: As an experienced teacher, I think it is a failure that the ordinary teacher cannot access journals without going through a university system. And we don't have passwords to get e-journals. Occasionally they get told about it when they do training courses, but they are not able to independently research. Teachers lose	This working teacher finds a solution to support working teachers to be reflective practitioners. They question why working teachers cannot access academic articles, journals, and studies as if they were a part of a school of education and

touch with what is at the forefront at the moment in educational research.	so of a university, so that they can develop themselves and reflect more easily.
EWT-8: I would not say that more theory is needed. What I would say is that teachers need to have the space and time to reflect and I think it is up to us as school leaders, perhaps, to guide them to read, occasionally, what they can access. The teacher's time is quite precious. The reality is that most of the time, most nights, most weekends they will spend marking work, preparing work, trying to do the best job they can for the children. Probably once in a post, teachers will learn more from first-hand experience and also from each other. I think it would be a good model as well for teachers to watch each other and particularly those with an area of expertise… So, if teachers are aware of several articles or PhD thesis, even as discussion points…	As time constricts prevent teachers from spending time on their own development, colleague learning can be encouraged and supported. Then it is repeated that access to academic resources should be enabled.

In table *5C.4.b*, working teachers think no differently from teacher educators. However, to achieve being reflective, they request more access to academic resources and opportunities for academic research and studies.

5C.5 - Financial, Physical, and Other Opportunities (Cluster)

Table 5C.5.a: *English Teacher Educators*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
ETE-3: One or two students per school…	This explanation may be a clue that the financial and physical opportunities in England are

	superior to those in Turkey from this point of view at the time of preparation of this thesis. One or two student teachers per school provide a great opportunity for student teachers to be nurtured much more by their mentors at their schools of practices.

English teacher educator comment in table *5C.5.a* states that the lesser number of students, the better GEC can be practiced.

Table 5C.5.b: *English Working Teachers*

Comments of Interviewees	Interpretations
EWT-8: I think the key things have to come from the school. You might need to have what I call the learning school culture.	If teachers in a school always remain eager to improve, that forms a school culture encouraging every member of teaching staff in the school to improve their teaching.

According to table *5C.5.b*, a group of teachers willing to improve themselves may help indvidual teachers for better performances of the theory-practice relationship.

-Part D (Comments of Some English Students and their Analysis)

In this part, answers received from English teacher education students at Durham University School of Education are presented and later on analysed. Answers were given to two open ended questions asking their

opinions on the relationship between theory and practice, and how management of schools of education can contribute to that relationship.

There are two layers of analysis. To clarify by order: the comments that belong to interviewees are *italicised* and underlined.

5D.1 - Theory, Practice, and their Relationship

- *They are both equally important. I feel I learned more from teacher practice.*

- *I think theory should be taught in line with practice to become a better teacher.*

- *I think it is important to know the theory so that practice can be informed.*

- *Theory is important as it gives ideas and views to try in your practice. One only is not enough, they work together to create better teaching.*

- *Both aspects (theory and practice) are important to develop better teaching.*

- *I think it is important to learn the theory. It allows teachers to plan according to their children's needs.*

- *Practice allows you to put the theory you have learned into the school. Theory allows you to reflect on your practice and develop your knowledge.*

- *I have enjoyed learning about the theory related to education but I often find this hard to put into practice in school. I think it can depend quite a lot on the teacher you are placed with and their*

teaching philosophy. During school placements, you try to adopt some of their approaches so that the children experience continuity but these may conflict, at least to a certain extent, with what you have learned at university. Also, sometimes the theory behind the practice can feel slightly ideological because you wonder how successfully it can be implemented in the classroom.

- *It is not until you get into school that you realise what a huge advantage it is to have a solid knowledge of the theory behind the practice. It makes me wonder how GTP and PGCE students can possibly deliver quality teaching without the broad base that we receive on the three year degree programme.*

- *I do not think theory affects my teaching day to day. Much of the theory we are taught is very idealistic and can rarely be applied to a classroom situation.*

- *Sometimes the theory is irrelevant.*

- *It does not always relate in my opinion. Some of the theory taught to us on our course is not relevant or not used in school and so not useful. I think it would be much more useful if we were in schools more gaining experience instead of learning a lot of theory and writing assignments on it when they are no always relevant.*

5D.2 - Role of Management in terms of Theory-Practice Relationship

Balance should be more practice than theory.

More time spent in placement.

In the General Education Courses, more time and focus should be spent linking theory with practice, for example what teaching

activities could be used in class to support one type of learning theory.

Provide more teaching about how theory can be embedded into practice.

Have more seminars that show us how to adopt the theory to a suitable level for the classroom.

Reference in lectures to teaching practice in the classroom how it relates explicitly to school based practice.

By including, a greater number of real-life examples of how theories, for example Piaget & Vygotsky, relate to day to day classroom practice. By applying these theories to situations it enhances understanding of otherwise abstract concepts.

I think more practical advice could be given to students for when they go on teaching placements… I think it would also be good to implement a peer observation system. This would be informal and obviously optional but being able to watch your peers teach could provide a valuable comparison for your own teaching. We often observe practising/experienced teachers which is good but can make you feel inadequate when you compare yourself to them. However, observing those at the same stage as you in their teaching career could be beneficial to both parties.

More time in schools during lectures.

It could be improved by increasing the time spent in school. By doing so feedback could be given to the university and so sessions taught in accordance to what we are seeing and what we feel we need more support on.

5D.3 - Reflecting on the Comments of English Student Teachers:

Opinions given under both sub-titles are evaluated here as what student teachers say about theory-practice relationship almost overlaps with what they say about management contribution.

English students tend to view the theory and practice relationship as important. Many of the student teachers see theory as mostly relevant to practice though some find the relationship irrelevant. Student teachers who described the relationship as irrelevant demanded more school practice, which is indeed in line with the comments coming from students who think the relationship relevant. One student teacher declares that theory is satisfying and asks how, with less theory learned by GTP and PGCE students, they can become proper teachers.

When it comes to management, one student teacher asks for additional seminars on how to put theory into practice. Another one suggests learning from their peers by observation without removing the observation of working teachers. One student teacher accuses theory of being ideological. Many of them demand that more time be devoted to practice in schools. Two students asked for more real-life examples to be given in General Education Courses.

Summary:

In this chapter the results obtained from the different stages of data collection have been presented and discussed. In essence:

Some obstacles were underlined by the interviewees and questionnaire respondents. Some of these hurdles occurred between theory and practice were addressed as problems directly related to the theory-practice relationship in terms of Generic Education Courses, facilities and opportunities, people in teacher education, and maybe most importantly management issues that affect the theory-practice relationship. It is recognizable that some respondents have opinions that management of education system and particularly teacher education can help to improve the quality of theory-practice relationship.

The final chapter will draw conclusions from these data and make some recommendations.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

- In this chapter, findings will be evaluated reffering to the research questions.

- Further discussions are provided in relation with the research questions and comparisons are made with literature review as well.

- Thesis is concluded.

- Limitations and Powerful points of this research are presented respectively.

- Another section is devoted to suggestions to responsible bodies in education.

Findings and Discussions:

Under this title findings related to the research questions are investigated and discussed.

1-What are the teachers' (novice and experienced), student teachers' and teacher educators' conceptions and/or perceptions of theory, practice, and their relationship?

a- **Turkish Teacher Educators:**

Many Turkish teacher educators are aware of what theories are whilst some are not. Educational sociology and educational philosophy seem to be necessary to study (again) for Turkish teacher educators, so that they can comprehend what theories are and how they can be applied.

Turkish educators conceive a strong relationship between theory and practice. They add that teacher educators should be more careful about giving real-life examples.

b- **English Teacher Educators:**

English teacher educators are aware of what theory and its practice are. The researcher was faced with a significant amount of knowledge about theory, practice, and their relationship during interviews and the analysis of the transcripts of interviews. Although the fact that someone knows a lot does not necessarily mean they will be successful in putting the theory into practice during GEC, at least they sound as if they know what to do.

English Teacher Educators give importance to reflection and development of teachers through it. Continuous learning and reflection is encouraged and supported by English Teacher Educators.

English Teacher Educators are satisfied with the strength of the relationship established between theory and practice. Some of them conceive the gap between theory and practice as a natural and a driving force.

c- **Turkish Working Teachers:**

Many teachers in Turkey are not aware of what theoretical knowledge GEC includes even though they know the pedagogical content. This may be because of insufficient academic, critical thinking, and research abilities.

d- English Working Teachers:

Some English working teachers are not aware of how theory affects their practice. They are not aware that what they are applying actually already has a place in theory.

English working teachers are not satisfied with the relationship between theory and practice. They say that some theory is needed but it is the practice that shapes teaching. According to them teaching can be learned dominantly by practising.

English Teacher Educators are invited into schools by working teachers to relate more details about teaching practice.

e- Turkish Student Teachers:

According to statistical results Turkish students perceive that practice is more valuable than theory. In addition they think the theory is not negligible.

f- **English Student Teachers:**

English Student teachers value both theory and practice but demand more practice time in schools.

2-Does the way teachers conceive the relationship of theory and practice change as they gain more experience (do their values and beliefs change)?

Turkish teachers tend to value practice a little more as their expertise increases. They tend to put distance between themselves and the content of Generic Education Courses after many years of teaching experience. Regarding their opinions it can be said that there is not a significant difference in conception between novice and experienced Turkish teachers. This may be because Turkish teachers are not aware of what the theories are and theories they already know. This small difference in conception is identified because the researcher believes that all levels that student teachers pass until they become teachers do not include or include very little academic thinking education, which means critical thinking abilities and reflection abilities. The more years have gone by the more working teachers; as they are not reflective practitioners perceive the theory to be less important. This is not the only reason why practice should be valued more. Being active practitioners, working teachers may start to conceive that practice is the main thing as they are only dealing with it.

There are no obvious differences between the opinions of novice and experienced English teachers. This result is surprising as English student teachers are taught as reflective practitioners. A difference between novice and experienced working teachers could have occurred as novice ones

might have conceived theory to be still very relevant to practice. However, they do not. The reason for this may be that they have not understood how to be reflective practitioners and/or they do not have the opportunities that support them being reflective. One English working teacher asked that there should be accesses to academic resources so that working teachers can improve themselves.

3- How do the people (teacher educators, mentors, administrators, peer teachers) in teacher education affect the theory-practice relationship quality?

a- Turkish Teacher Educators:

Turkish teacher educators declare that mentors should be motivated to guide student teachers better. They add that student teachers' levels of desire for GEC affect their learning.

Some Turkish educators complain that many Turkish teacher educators and mentors in schools tend to have an insufficient amount of professionalism, work ethic, and work discipline. Turkish teacher educators are accused by their counterparts of not attending sessions to observe the student teachers at their practices. Mentors are also accused of not guiding and helping student teachers properly. Some teacher educators are charged with not attempting to build bridges between theory and practice during lessons.

b- **English Teacher Educators:**

English Teacher Educators conceive that each teacher educator and working teacher affects the quality of the relationship personally. This means that the individual quality of teacher educators and mentors influences the extent to which student teachers learn to establish a strong relationship between theory and practice.

English Teacher Educators conceive socialization as a positive factor for the development of teachers. Interaction with other people and especially with other teachers, head teachers, teacher educators, and parents of pupils, etc. may improve teachers' motivation as well as their knowledge. Socialization, indeed, increases the amount of life experiences as well as new information. Socialization increases peer learning, which is a crucial element of continuous learning.

c- **Turkish Working Teachers:**

Teacher educators should remember teaching practice by practising at schools. Turkish teacher educators should be selected from amongst the applicants according to whether or not they have worked as teachers before. If teacher educators with teaching experience in schools are recruited, they may be expected to keep their practice day in mind.

d- **English Working Teachers:**

Teacher educators should remember teaching practice by practising in schools. English Teacher Educators are invited into schools by working teachers to remember more details about teaching practice. English working teachers demand that teacher educators practise in their schools

so that teacher educators can produce more academic knowledge and theory related to practice.

e- **Turkish Student Teachers:**

Many Turkish teacher educators and mentors in schools tend to have insufficient professionalism, work ethic, and work discipline.

f- **English Student Teachers:**

English student teachers want more practical advice from teacher educators on their practices in schools. They demand closer attention from English teacher educators. The difference from their Turkish counterparts is that there are no strong complaints.

4-How can management of education system and schools of education support the development of a better relationship between theory and practice?

a- **Turkish Teacher Educators:**

Turkish teacher educators conceive that the Turkish Education System should be renewed and repaired. Renewal of it may enhance the teacher education quality.

Better cooperation should be sought between MONE and HEC for better teacher education. It is one of the most repeated opinions that MONE and HEC have coordination, partnership, and hierarchical problems, which directly affect the relationship between theory and practice as HEC controls education faculties and MONE controls schools.

Turkish education faculties should be managed according to research findings. It should be in the nature of academic institutions to be managed regarding scientific findings and research results. Education faculties should take the findings from their own research into account.

Turkish education faculties need more auto-control and decentralized structure so that they can apply scientific findings to teacher education. More decision making ability and flexibility is required for Turkish education faculties. Hence, they can manage education faculties by scientific criteria.

One headed teacher education is required in Turkey. In terms of teacher education, either MONE or HEC should be superior by means of hierarchy. In this was many conflicts between the governmental bodies responsible for teacher education could be prevented.

b- **English Teacher Educators:**

One teacher educator from England asks for more flexibility in teacher education so that creativity in teacher education is not prevented. Comparing English teacher educators to their Turkish counterparts, English ones have more decision making ability but they still ask for more.

c- **Turkish Working Teachers:**

Turkish working teachers agree with the ideas announced by Turkish teacher educators. Better cooperation should be sought between MONE and HEC for better teacher education. One headed teacher education is required in Turkey.

d- **English Working Teachers:**

Management of schools of education are only asked for more practice in schools. English working teachers think that student teachers should practise more than they currently do.

e- **Turkish Student Teachers:**

Turkish student teachers demand more practice as they perceive practice to be very important.

f- **English Student Teachers:**

English student teachers are in line with English working teachers as management of schools of education are only asked for more practice at schools.

Analysis and Discussion

Having identified the findings, it is now time to analyse and discuss them. The following analysis and discussionaddress the research questions one by one. Where necessary, references will be made to relevant literature.

1- What are the teachers' (novice and experienced), student teachers' and teacher educators' conceptions and/or perceptions of theory, practice, and their relationship?

Theory (GEC) and practice relationship has a complex structure but this relationship should be strengthened in Turkey, according to this research. Turkish teacher educators, working teachers, and student teachers are in line with each other that theory and practice need each other. Teacher educators conceive that current level of interaction between theory and practice is satisfying. This finding is line with HEC (2006). Moreover they all agree that there should be better ways, theories, and teaching methods for teacher educators. This research informs that student teachers perceive theory-practice relationship slightly positive to some extend in line with the studies of Kilic and Acat (2007) with primary school teaching students in Turkey, Hobson et al (2008) with English student teachers stating the link as clear, and Taskin and Haciomeroglu (2010) including Turkish primary school teaching students. On the other hand this result contradicts the result of Saban (2003) and Boz and Boz (2006) in which study student teachers expressed that teaching cannot be taught. This contradiction might have occurred because changes made in 2007 with improvement in GEC hours and content. Turkish student teachers look like more focused on obtaining the teaching certificate than teaching itself.

GEC should be taught at universities giving examples more about from daily experiences and everyday school life. Student teachers and working teachers should be made aware of how theory relates to practice and show that they are already applying the theories they learnt already in their teaching practice. It can be concluded from this research that Turkish student teachers and working teachers favour practice more than theory

where this coincides with Kılınç and Altuk's study (2010) and Hergüner (2002) in Turkey while Turkish teacher educators approach more balanced to the relationship (This finding is in between mentioned research and Cabaroglu and Tillema's research in 2011). It may be because humans may be short term outcome aimed and fast and quick outcomes are preferred.

Finally , since reflection upon theory is not mentioned directly or indirectly by working teachers in Turkey except one teacher, it can be concluded that many Turkish working teachers may not be aware of reflection methods whether they do it intentionally or tacitly (unintentionally).

2-Does the way teachers conceive the relationship of theory and practice change as they gain more experience (do their values and beliefs change)?

Answer to this research question is yes. Experienced Turkish working teachers put a greater distance between theory and practice relationship compared to novice Turkish working teachers. The more a teacher becomes experienced the more they think theory is useless and on the job learning is favoured. This outcome is in line with a research made in Australia by Allen et al (2010). So after years in teaching profession, working teachers should be reminded that theory is actually inside of their own practice at schools. Turkish teachers do not seem to know theories (GEC) well and how they can be implemented, even though they are already practicing them - similar findings can be found in Saracaloglu et al's (2011) inquiry.

3- How do the people (teacher educators, mentors, administrators, peer teachers) in teacher education affect the theory-practice relationship quality?

This is what we can call human effect on teacher education. This study can reveal that there are professionalism and work ethic problems of Turkish teacher educators, mentors (agreeing with the findings about mentors in Yapici and Yapici, 2004; Ekiz, 2006; contradicts with the research of Haciomeroglu and Sahin, 2011), and administrators. These problems were expressed by both teacher educators and working teachers. The reasons of this finding can be investigated in another study as the researcher has not come across a study confirming or contradicting with this research considering Turkish education system work ethic issues including all the related personnel.

4-How can management of education system and schools of education support the development of a better relationship between theory and practice?

Turkish education system (in particular teacher education) needs stabilization. It is under radical patching changes so often that harmony between responsible bodies is harmed. Once more the researcher cannot find a research suggesting that management has a role on GEC and practice relationship regarding inspection of teacher education, quality control before inspection, system and content design (as there is a strong centralization and top-down approach in Turkey). This study might be the first one to declare this.

It can be revealed with this enquiry that in Turkey theory-practice relationship depends on both structural and human centred problems. It can also be exposed that there is not a congruity amongst the managerial bodies of teacher education. This appears to be because of blurred taxonomy of roles dedicated to the bodies and there seems a structural design problem of Turkish education system (especially teacher education). The ground for this analysis is the responses and complaints of the interviewees and respondents to the questionnaire about each other and about every governing body related to teacher education. In harmony with the outcomes of Burgaz and Senturk's (2008) study in Turkey, more decision making ability, flexibility, deploying authority to the lower levels are favoured by the research participants. So that newer theories, practices, and approaches can be produced, tested and applied.

As some respondents suggested, a holistic perspective for teacher education system and structure design, the researcher picked up General Systems Theory (GST) as a solution. GST offers a holistic approach in system design and a holistic interaction amongst the parts is supported. With this, Turkish education system in broader perspective and teacher education structure in centre can achieve a harmony based, roles clarified, efficiency based cooperation. Within GST, inspection may put pressure on work ethic issues as well.

Lessons from International Samples

English teacher educators speak more deeply about theory and its practice compared to their Turkish counterparts. According to this study English teacher educators and mentors have not received so many complaints about their professionalism and their work ethics which is

supported by research of Collison and Edwards (1994), Edwards and Collison (1995).

English novice teachers and experienced ones express similar ideas aiming at practice. Justifying Atkinson's study (2004), it looks like they know theories and how to apply them but not aware of their own knowledge. This finding is similar with Elliott et al's (2011) research outcomes. However, Elliott et al's study underlines the differences between experienced teachers and novice ones as experienced teachers can detect poor solutions easier.

English student teachers expressed more motivated impressions about teaching occupation than Turkish ones. Coinciding with Hobson et al's (2008) research, it can be inferred from this research that English student teachers can observe and experience links (Hobson et al. (2008) found that the link is perceived as clear) between theory and practice.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research aimed to identify how the relationship between theory and practice is understood by teacher educators, working teachers, and student teachers. Theory and practice refer to the counter parts of General Education Courses. Primary school teaching was our focus.

To improve understanding and to see the broader picture, England was chosen as a check point. What was done to understand the Turkish context was repeated for the English context.

Firstly, a brief look at the English and Turkish education systems was provided to show the circumstances under which teachers' education and our research took place.

The second chapter was a review of the literature on theory, practice, and their relationship. This chapter included parts dedicated to competences and standards as well as role model approach. Empirical studies about related topics were presented in the final part of this chapter.

The third chapter reviewed the management of education faculties, management theories, and other factors affecting the management of education faculties and teacher education.

Chapter Four examined the methodologies applied in this research. Phenomenography was selected as the main analysis approach for which statistical analysis SPSS software was applied.

The final Chapter provided a review of the data and analysed it. Interview transcripts were analysed phenomenographically whilst statistical data was analysed using mathematical calculations with SPSS. Two open ended questions answered by English student teachers were analysed regarding what they meant directly.

Limitations of this Research

At inception, it might have been better for the same research participants to have been followed in a longititudinal study; for example, starting from their undergraduate education and ending after ten years' teaching experience. However time was limited and prevented doing it that way.

Secondly, an assumption of lack of academic knowledge to be able to make comments about theory-practice relationship in teacher training was a concern regarding student teachers, and that is why they were not interviewed. Saljo (1996, p.21) states a similar view: '… Adults and children are forced into some kind of strange meta-talk about issues which they have never talked about before (and where they often seem lost in the discussions)'.

Thirdly, ideally teacher trainers would be chosen from amongst the people with doctorate degrees; however a few of the teacher trainers only had a master's degree.

Fourthly, Turkish student teachers of four universities, whose perceptions were sought, were final year students. The fifth university had only third year students (a bachelor degree in education faculties is four years).

Fifthly, English undergraduates of one university were sent a questionnaire in the wrong form. Although the researcher is using a five-point Likert Scale, they received a three-point questionnaire. This came about due to lack of communication between the researcher and the person who applied it.

The sixth limitation is that the respondent numbers in Turkey were incredibly high in contrast to those from England. As the researcher is doing a quasi-comparative between those two countries, it would be better if the numbers had been closer.

Powerful Points of This Research

It is worth mentioning some powerful aspects of this research here. The semi-structured interview style was very enriching for my phenomenographic research. It gave me freedom to probe and expose the conceptions of people. The researcher feels – although he used additional techniques to gather data such as open ended questions and Likert scaled questions in the questionnaire – that the semi structured questions fit far better than any for my research.

Phenomenography itself is a powerful approach for researchers who are trying to determine the perceptions and/or conceptions of people. Thus, the development of phenomenography completely depends on this purpose.

Many respondents from Turkey may strengthen my research whilst sometimes more data may mean more generalizable results. In particular, the questionnaire response rates are more than satisfactory.

The quality of teacher trainers whom I interviewed both in England and Turkey raises the quality of data.

Finally, because two countries are comparatively understood, it may clarify some points as we are in a world where understanding is derived from comparison.

DISCUSSION

According to this research, human centred problems and system related (structure) ones have an effect on theory (GEC) and practice relationship. These effects can be related to the design of education system and in particular teacher education structure, efficiency of the system, harmony and cooperation of responsible bodies of teacher education, professional behaviour and ethical problems of people, and inspectional insufficiencies.

These are concluded depending on the answers received from Turkish teacher educators, working teachers, and student teachers. Since respondents do not neglect the importance of both parties, working teachers and student teachers tend to give more importance to practice than theory. Some of the respondents see theory as a source to nurture practice.

It can be concluded that working teachers tend to put distance between themselves and theory as years pass by. This may be because working teachers start forgetting about what they studied in terms of theory. Thus, this can lead us to the view that Turkish working teachers might not be doing additional reading about and/or revisiting Generic Education Courses after they start their professional career as teachers. However, this analysis may need further research to be confirmed, to determine how often Turkish working teachers read GEC sources while doing their job and comparing the findings with their conception of theory.

Academic staff at education faculties and mentors at schools are subject to complaint by teacher educators, working teachers, and student teachers in Turkey that they are not following the student teachers as they are supposed to do. Notwithstanding teacher educators are also criticized for not supervising student teachers properly and not giving much more effort (by giving relevant examples) on theory and practice relationship in their lectures.

Finally, it can be understood that the partial, not very well organized, insufficient cooperational structure of governing bodies responsible for teacher education, unclarified roles of those bodies, inspectional insufficiencies, and lack of harmony between related bodies show a need for a holistic perspective for education system and so for teacher education. General System Theory (GST) may be evaluated as a good option to overcome mentioned problems, which (may) cause the relationship between theory and practice to weaken. Redesigning education system and/or teacher education according to GST (even from the scratch) may help Turkey to overcome those problems. One feature of Western Enlightenment (Atari, 2000) as preparing neat designs can be applied via GST by setting up more neat structure lessening the confusions and the contradictions within the system.

Suggestions

> In making these assertions, I am concerned with the usefulness
> of research to teachers. The argument is located in the domain
> of pedagogic research and does not necessarily refer to all
> educational research. It may be that the search for

generalisation can help administrators to improve educational practice (Bassey, 1981, p.73).

a-) Suggestions to Turkish Teacher Education Responsibles

It could be suggested that a better and closer partnership between schools and education faculties is necessary. To accomplish this, faculty practice coordinators should take their job more seriously.

It could also be suggested that managers of education faculties should have an auditor role on teacher educators regarding work ethic and work discipline issues.

A further suggestion could be that more hours should be devoted to practice without decreasing the number of theoretical courses.

Mentors at schools of practice should be motivated, encouraged, and have pressure put on them for the disciplined mentorship for student teachers.

Financial and physical opportunities should be provided to education faculties such as practice schools owned by education faculties.

In line with this, the researcher reminds the reader here that General Systems Theory may be one of the theories that can solve the expressed issues.

A more decentralized structure may be a source of more innovation and new approaches. A more decentralized structure may allow academics at

education faculties to innovate and give an opportunity to them to test their ideas and new theories that they can develop.

At one time the Swedish national football team tried to have two equal managers at a time. The result was that they had to change their system to one in which one manager was more equal than other by means of hierarchy of decision making.

Opportunities of education faculties, such as having a practice school, could have an effect on the theory-practice relationship. A better financial status could provide richer possibilities and options. Academic resources envisage reflecting on abilities and richness of knowledge.

b-) Comprehensive Suggestions to Turkish Governmental Bodies

Firstly, a complete revision of Turkish education is suggested. This could start from the very begining. Starting from blank paper does not mean destroying everything, just implementing a structural, schematic, functional, efficient and operational redesign. Clarifying roles within strict lines would be a good start. Patching up the system may not be cheaper than redesigning it. Harmony, integration, and interaction is important for the institutions of the Turkish education system. General System Theory seems to answer all these demands. Thus, the Turkish education System could be re-constructed regarding General System Theory. This re-construction would be expected to influence teacher education positively as it could remove conflicts between the institutions responsible for teacher education. It could also enhance the quality of planning in teacher

education and the amount of time consuming procedures could be reduced.

Secondly, it is suggested that Turkish students at all levels should be educated with academic abilities including crititcal thinking, academic research, and reflection abilities. By doing that students coming to education faculties would be prepared for academic abilities at university level. This would improve student teachers' learning of reflection on theory and practice and provide and encourage a deeper understanding of theories. After their graduation those abilites could continue to help their teaching practices to be theoretically underpinned.

Further Research

Further research could be carried out to establish the reasons behind reluctance of Turkish student teachers to GEC.

Additional research on the decentralization of education faculties could be undertaken as permission for an education faculty to make its own decisions (be autonomous) would provide an interesting contrast: for a scientific research about decentralization of education faculties, central body should allow). And another one in the same city ruled by central governmental bodies (HEC and MONE) is needed for this research. Equivalent level students should be enroled. After fours years (graduation) in an education faculty, interviews and tests should be applied to the graduates and after starting their job in the classroom they should be observed by academics to compare two groups from those education faculties. This could show whether or not more decentralized education faculties are more successful in the theory-practice relationship.

Epilogue

Theory and practice has a complex relationship. They cannot be separated completely. We do not need to choose one over the other. In teacher education it may only be necessary to change their ratios from time to time according to contemportary needs. Actually, the tension between theory and practice feeds the improvement in teacher education.
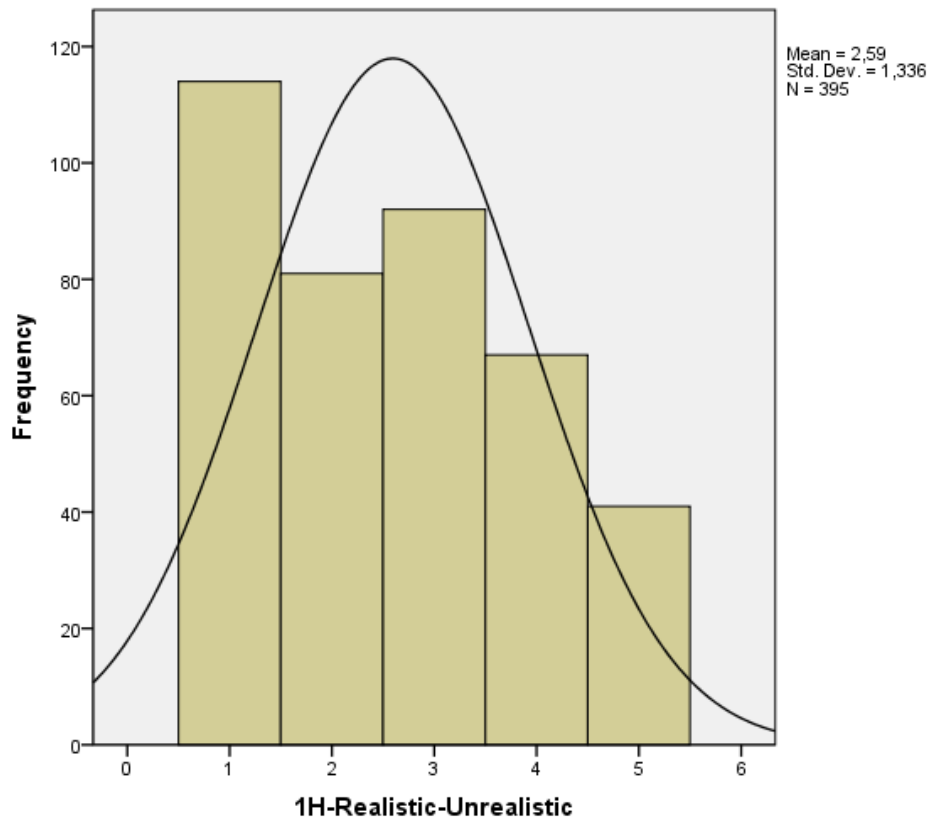
Management of the education system and teacher education has a lot to offer to the relationship between theory and practice whether directly or indirectly. Time, planning, efficiency, and good design are all needed.

Appendices

Appendix A

Mean = 3,74
Std. Dev. = 1,265
N = 384

1F-Time Waste

Mean = 3,63
Std. Dev. = 1,331
N = 386

1G-Priority

Mean = 2,59
Std. Dev. = 1,336
N = 395

1H-Realistic-Unrealistic

Mean = 2,46
Std. Dev. = 1,5
N = 390

1I-Obligation

1J-Tiring

Mean = 2,55
Std. Dev. = 1,29
N = 382

1K-Reluctance

Mean = 3,15
Std. Dev. = 1,303
N = 391

Mean = 2,45
Std. Dev. = 1,164
N = 391

1L-Course content

Mean = 1,11
Std. Dev. = ,322
N = 388

2A-GEC

Mean = 2,64
Std. Dev. = 1,274
N = 395

3A-Relation

Mean = 3,05
Std. Dev. = 1,246
N = 394

3B-Connection

Mean = 2,79
Std. Dev. = 1,189
N = 390

3C-Design of Relationship

Mean = 3,35
Std. Dev. = 1,298
N = 391

4A-Importance-of-Theory

Mean = 4,72
Std. Dev. = ,719
N = 394

4B-Importance-of-practice

Mean = 3,37
Std. Dev. = 1,323
N = 394

4C-theory-teaching-relationship

4D-Practice-teaching-relationship

Mean = 4,65
Std. Dev. = ,887
N = 399

4E-Motivation-for-theory

Mean = 2,99
Std. Dev. = 1,22
N = 393

Mean = 4,14
Std. Dev. = 1,059
N = 396

4F-Motivation-for-practice

Mean = 2,58
Std. Dev. = 1,242
N = 395

5A

Mean = 2,45
Std. Dev. = 1,144
N = 391

5B

Mean = 2,26
Std. Dev. = 1,298
N = 383

5C

Mean = 4,28
Std. Dev. = 1,057
N = 392
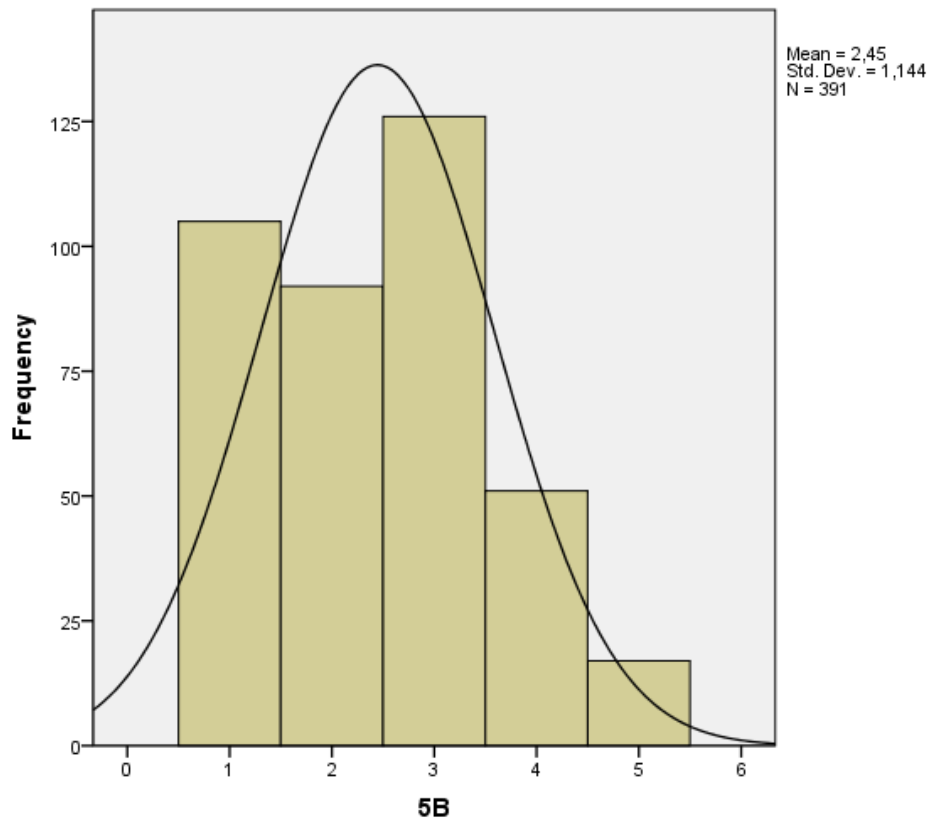
5D

Mean = 3,98
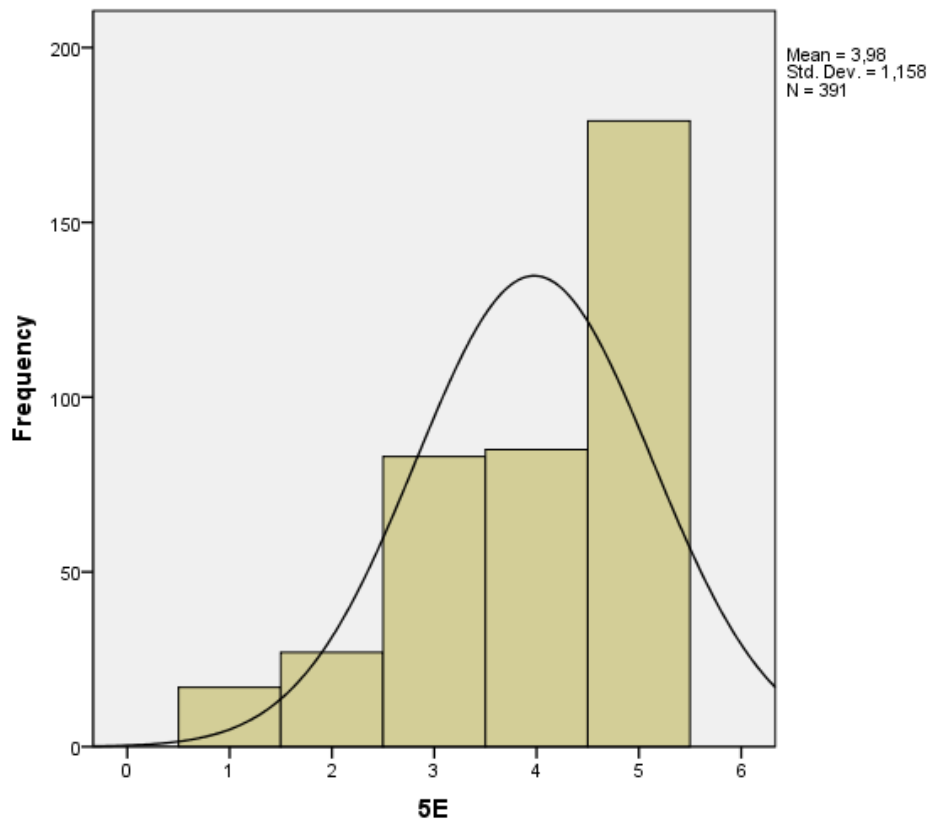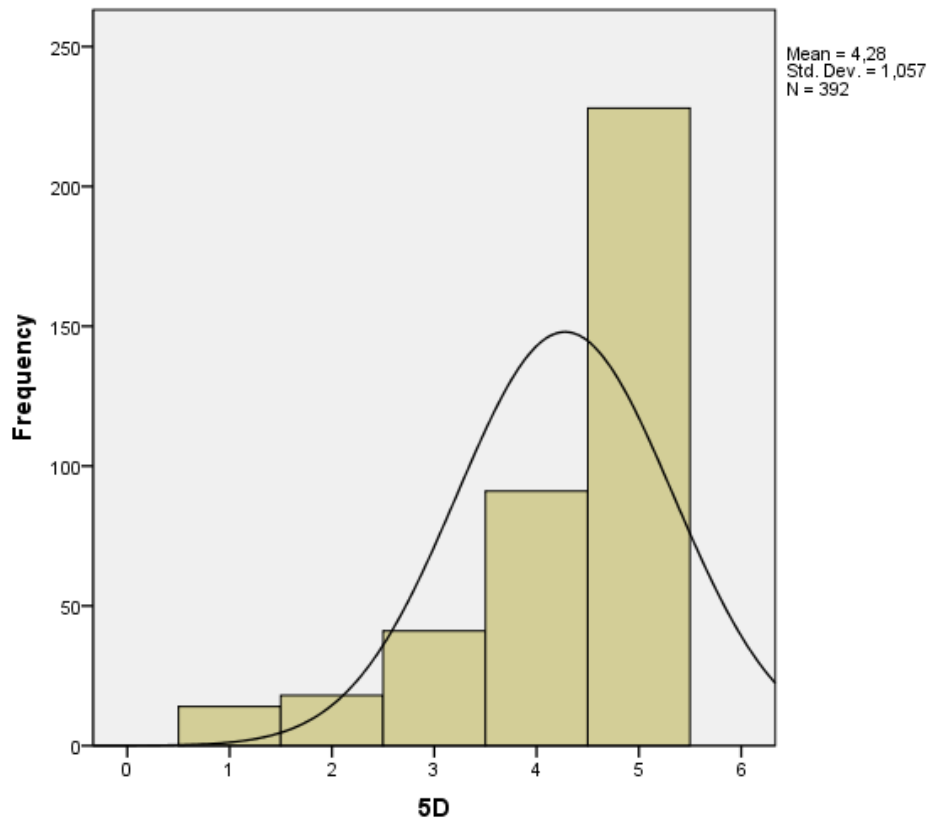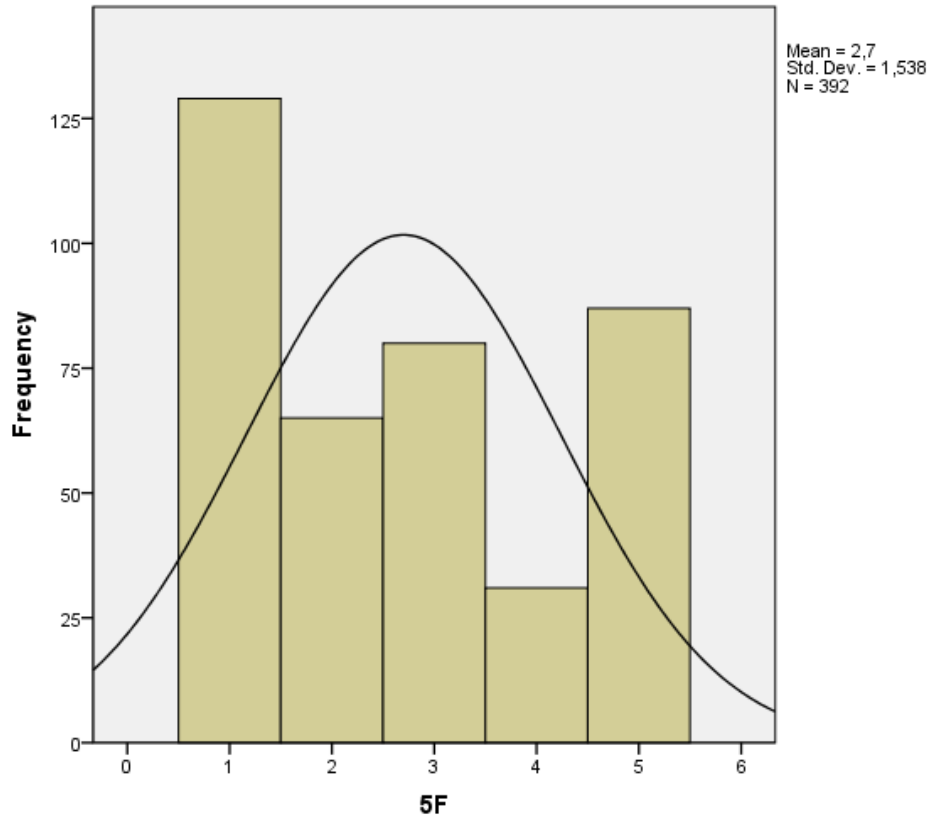Std. Dev. = 1,158
N = 391

5E

Mean = 2,7
Std. Dev. = 1,538
N = 392

Information about Questionnaire:

This questionnaire is a part of a PhD research project. The aim of this research is to explore the relationship between theory and practice in Teacher Training. All responses will be anonymized. Thank you for answering and **please note that the questionnaire goes on at the back of this page.**

Questionnaire:

Gender:

Year at the University (Out of 3):

Which city are you from in your country:

Please put a mark in a box representing which view best fits your conception. Putting a mark in the middle one will be accepted as not decided, not sure or balanced where appropriate. Please put only one mark in a box in each row.

1- Thinking about your teacher education courses, what do you think about and how would you conceive and rate the course?

Not Necessary						Necessary
Useless						Useful
Dissatisfying						Satisfying
Like						Dislike
Boring						Not Boring
Time Wasting						Time Beneficial

Not Necessary						Necessary
Not Priority						Priority
Irrelevant to Real School-life						Relevant to Real School-life
Should be Obligatory						Should be Optional
Tiring						Not Tiring
Makes me feel Reluctant						Makes me feel Keen
Their Curriculum is overloaded						Their Curriculum is light

2- Depending on the education that you are getting in Schools of Education, which one would you choose; General Education Courses and Subject Courses? Please put a mark. And **_why_** would you choose that one? Please explain in your words.

General Education Courses	
Subject (other) Courses	

3- Thinking about the course and your school-practice, what do you think about and how would you conceive and rate the theory and practice relationship in teacher training?

Weak Ties						Strong Ties
Not Related						Well Related
Is theory-practice relationship Badly Designed?						Is theory-practice relationship Well Designed?

4- Thinking about the course and your school-practice, what do you think about and how would you conceive and rate the comparison between theory and practice?

Theory is not Important						Theory is Important
Practice is not Important						Practice is Important
Theory does not help me to improve as a teacher						Theory helps me to improve as a teacher
Practice does not help me to improve as a teacher						Practice helps me to improve as a teacher
Demotivated for the Theory						Motivated for the Theory
Demotivated for the Practice						Motivated for the Practice

5- Considering the Management of Education, and Schools of Education, how would you conceive and rate the Management issues?

My Education Faculty is not well Managed internally						My Education Faculty is well Managed internally
I am Unsatisfied with the Governmental Management of Education Faculties						I am Satisfied with the Governmental Management of Education Faculties
I Support Centralized Structure						I Support decentralized Structure
Management Structure does not need revision internally						Management Structure needs revision internally
Management Structure does not need revision						Management Structure needs revision at national

My Education Faculty is not well Managed internally						My Education Faculty is well Managed internally
at national level						level
Should teacher training be school based?						Should teacher training be at universities?

In this part please express your ideas in writing. There are two (2) questions:

6- In your own words, please describe how important you think the relationship between theory and practice on a Teacher Training Course.

7- In your own words, how could the management of Education Faculties be changed to enhance the relationship between theory and practice in a Teacher Training Course?

Go to back side please

Appendix C

Anket Hakkında Genel Bilgi:

Bu anket bir PhD araştırmasının parçası olarak gerçekleştirilmektedir. Kim olduğunuza dair hiçbir bilgi sorulmayacaktır. Burada toplanan veriler özel bilgi olarak kabul edilecek ve saklı kalacaktır. Bu araştırmanın amacı öğretmen eğitimindeki Teori/kuram ve Uygulama arasındaki ilişki durumunu keşfetmektir. Yardımcı olup, cevap verdiğiniz için sağolun.

Anket:

Cinsiyetiniz :

Kaçıncı sınıftasınız? :

Nerelisiniz? :

Lütfen hangi fikir sizin kabulünüze ve anlayışınıza uygunsa ve yakınsa ona göre aradaki kutulara bir işaret koyun. En ortadaki kutuya konan işaret kararsız, emin değil ya da dengeli şeklinde kabule dilecektir. Bir satıra sadece bir işaret koymanız yeterlidir.

1- Eğitim Fakültesinde şu ana kadar aldığınız eğitime dayanarak, Öğretmenlik Meslek Dersleri (ÖMD) hakkındaki düşünceleriniz ve değerlendirmeleriniz nasıl olur?

Gereksiz						Gerekli
Faydalı						Faydasız
Tatmin Edici Seviyede Değil						Tatmin Edici Seviyede
Hoşlanıyorum						Hoşlanmıyorum
Sıkıcı						Eğlenceli
Zaman Kaybı						Kaydadeğer
Öncelikli Değil						Öncelikli
Gerçek Okul Hayatından Kopuk						Gerçek Okul Hayatıyla Örtüşüyor
Zorunlu Olmalı						Seçmeli Olmalı
Yorucu						Yorucu Değil
Bende İsteksizlik Duygusu Oluşturuyor						Bende İştiyak Uyandırıyor
Ders İçeriği Gereğinden Fazla						Ders İçeriği Gereğinden Az

2- Eğitim Fakültesinde şu ana kadar aldığınız eğitime dayanarak, hangisini tercih ederdiniz? Lütfen seçeneklerin yanındaki kutulardan birine işaret koyunuz ve neden onu seçtiğinizi aşağıdaki boş alana açıklayınız.

Öğretmenlik Bilgisi Dersleri	
Diğer Dersler	

3- Eğitim Fakültesinde ÖMD derslerinde aldığınız teorik/kuramsal bilgileri ve de okullarda yaptığınız uygulamaları göz önünde bulundurarak, öğretmen eğitimindeki teori/kuram ve uygulama hakkındaki düşünce ve değerlendirmeleriniz nasıl olur?

Birbiriyle İlişkisi/alakası Zayıf					Birbiriyle İlişkisi/alakası Güçlü
Birbiriyle Bağlantılı					Birbiriyle Bağlantılı

Değil						
Teori/kuram ve Uygulama İlişkisi Kötü Tasarlanmış						Teori/kuram ve Uygulama İlişkisi İyi Tasarlanmış

4- Eğitim Fakültesinde ÖMD derslerinde aldığınız teorik/kuramsal bilgileri ve de okullarda yaptığınız uygulamaları göz önünde bulundurarak, karşılaştıracak olursanız ayrı ayrı Teori/kuram ve Uygulama hakkındaki his ve görüşleriniz nasıl olur?

Teori Önemli Değildir						Teori Önemlidir
Uygulama Önemli Değildir						Uygulama Önemlidir
Teori/kuram benim daha iyi bir öğretmen olmama yardımcı olmaz						Teori/kuram benim daha iyi bir öğretmen olmama yardımcı olur
Uygulama benim daha iyi bir öğretmen olmama yardımcı olmaz						Uygulama benim daha iyi bir öğretmen olmama yardımcı olur
Teori/kuram hakkında kendimi motive edemiyorum						Teori/kuram hakkında kendimi motive edebiliyorum
Uygulama hakkında kendimi motive edemiyorum						Uygulama hakkında kendimi motive edebiliyorum

5- Eğitimin ve Eğitim Fakültelerinin yönetimini göz önünde bulundurursanız, aşağıdaki maddeler hakkındaki görüş ve değerlendirmeleriniz nasıl olur? **Önemli: Bu sorunun eğitim fakültelerinin yönetimi hakkında olan kısmında, kişisel yönetim becerileri değil, eğitim fakültelerinin kurumsal olarak, kurallarıyla düzenlenmiş hali sorulmaktadır.**

Eğitim Fakülteleri, üniversite bazında iyi yönetilmemektedir					Eğitim Fakülteleri, üniversite bazında iyi yönetilmektedir
Eğitim Fakülteleri Hükümetler bazında iyi yönetilmemektedir					Eğitm Fakülteleri hükümetler bazında iyi yönetilmektedir
Merkezi yapının güçlü olduğu bir eğitimi destekliyorum					Merkezi yapının güçlü olmadığı bir eğitimi destekliyorum.
Eğitim Fakültelerinin yönetim yapısını gözden geçirmeye ihtiyaç yoktur					Eğitim Fakültelerinin yönetim yapısını gözden geçirmeye ihtiyaç vardır
Eğitim Fakültelerinin devlet tarafından yönetim anlayışı açısından gözden geçirilmesi gerekmez					Eğitim Fakültelerinin devlet tarafından yönetim anlayışı açısından gözden geçirilmesi gerekir
Öğretmen Eğitimi Okullarda mı olmalı?					Öğretmen Eğitimi Üniversitelerde mi olmalı?

Lütfen bu bölümde fikirlerinizi yazılı olarak ifade ediniz. Aşağıda iki (2) soru vardır.

6- Bir öğretmenlik bölümünde Teori/kuram ve Uygulama arasındaki ilişkinin önemi hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

7- Eğitim Fakültelerinin yönetim şekli, Teori/kuram ve Uygulama ilişkisini artırmak için nasıl yeniden düzenlenebilir sizce?

Appendix D

https://owa.dur.ac.uk/owa/?ae=Item&a=Open&t=IPM.Note&id=RgAAAADDlqlk4TQhTY2J9ZHd%2brkEBwDFvD4yhzZ7SpCwh0yHKCBzAAAAHFrtAADzmNGalLwJRb0KZ%2bkaHjm1AAAFfyApAAAA&pspid=_1417176308224_180938297

Reply   Reply All   Forward

Ethical approval: O. Arslanoglu

SMITH J.C.

To: ARSLANOGLU O.

Categories: Blue Category

12 December 2013 12:13

· Flag for follow up. Completed on 07 November 2014.

Dear Ozcan

I am pleased to inform you that your application for ethical approval in respect of 'The relationship between theory and practice in primary school teaching training for General Education Courses and the role of management of Education Faculties' was approved by the School of Education Ethics Committee on 29 November 2010.

Sheena Smith
Research Office
School of Education
Durham University

Tel: (0191) 334 8403
www.dur.ac.uk/education

I work part time Monday - Thursday

Appendix E1

Below are my correspondences with the academic whose questionnaire I have changed and used.

Translations (Turkish from bottom to up):

Yuksel: Regards, I think the article you are looking for may be the one attached. Though I searched my computer, I cannot find the questionnaire. I can only send you the article. I hope it helps.

Ozcan (the researcher of this thesis) replies and asks in more detail (under following email thread): How about have you prepared any article with a questionnaire related to the perceptions or conceptions of teachers and/or student teachers? Thanks again for your helps. The article I am looking for may be the one you sent to me but to be sure I am asking in detail once more. It is disappointing for me that you cannot find the questionnaire of your article but i can show my supervisors our correspondance [at least]. Thanks once more.
Best Regards

From: 'Arş.Gör. Özcan ARSLANOĞLU' <eyplan@harran.edu.tr>
To: 'SEDAT YÜKSEL' <sedaty@uludag.edu.tr>
Sent: Wednesday, October 15, 2014 4:29:33 PM
Subject: Re: Sayın Yüksel- ACİL- Öğretmenlerin (ya da adayların) meslek algısı (perception- conception)

Sayın Yüksel;

Öğretmenlerin (ya da adayların) meslek algısı (perception- conception) ile alakalı bir çalışmanız ve anketi var mıydı acaba? Yardımlarınız için çok teşekkür ederim.

Aradığım makaleniz bu olabilir ama gene de bir kez daha bir de böyle soayım dedim. Anketi bulamamış olmanız üzücü ama en azından oradaki hocalarıma sizinle yazışmamı gösterebilirim. Tekrar Sağolun.

Saygılarımla

Kimden: 'SEDAT YÜKSEL' <sedaty@uludag.edu.tr>
Kime: 'Arş.Gör. Özcan ARSLANOĞLU' <eyplan@harran.edu.tr>
Gönderilenler: 15 Ekim Çarşamba 2014 15:23:38
Konu: Re: Sayın Yüksel- ACİL- Öğretmenlerin mesleğe bakış açılarını inceleyen Makaleniz- İngiltere

Selamlar, Zannedersem gördüğünüz çalışma ekte gönderdiğim olacak. Ancak kullandığım ölçeği bilgisayardan aramama rağmen bulamadım. Ben size makaleyi gönderebiliyorum. Umarım işinize yarar.

Appendix E2

Appendix F1

Appendix F2

Letter of Interview Acceptance

With This letter, I confirm that I accepted to be made an interview by PhD student, Ozcan Arslanoglu. I also accept that the interview will be recorded by a voice recorder. The interview is about Relationship between Theory and Practice in Teacher Training in which primary school teaching is in the centre. Additionally, how management of schools of education affects that relationship will also be questioned during the interview.

Mülakat Kabul Belgesi

1416 sayılı kanunla Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı bursuyla yurtdışında Doktora eğitimini sürdüren Özcan Arslanoğlu ile Öğretmen Eğitiminde Kuram ve Uygulama ilişkisi (Sınıf Öğretmenliği Örneği) üzerine yüz yüze görüşme yapmayı kabul ediyorum. Bu görüşmede Eğitim Fakültelerinin yönetiminin bu ilişkiye nasıl katkı yapabileceği de sorgulanacaktır. Görüşmenin ses kayıt cihazıyla kaydedilmesini de onaylıyorum.

Name of the Researcher/Mülakatı Yapan Kişi

Ozcan Arslanoglu

Signature/İmza

Signature/İmza

Appendix G

Structured Interview Questions:

1-What do you think about theory and practice and their relationship in terms of Generic Education Courses?

2- How can management of education help the relationship between theory and practice (of Generic Education Courses)

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