

Educational Linguistics

Andrzej Cirocki
Irshat Madyarov
Laura Baecher *Editors*

Current Perspectives on the TESOL Practicum

Cases from around the Globe

 Springer

Educational Linguistics

Volume 40

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*To Prof. Teresa Siek-Piskozub
and Prof. Wolfgang Hallet*

Andrzej Cirocki

To my colleagues and friends in Armenia

Irshat Madyarov

To Ted, Zachary, Jacob and Rianna

Laura Baecher

Preface

TESOL teacher education and, in particular, the TESOL practicum have often been discussed and researched from various disciplinary perspectives, including education, psychology and applied linguistics. More recently, the practicum has been considered in terms of its impact on the construction of novice teachers' professional identity, the development of social and reflective skills of student teachers and the classroom success of novice teachers.

Over the years, we have been actively engaged in and committed to guiding student teachers as they develop their pedagogical skills and construct their professional identities. This complex process consists of not only examining and questioning pre-existing theories, principles, views and the educational experiences of student teachers, but also valorizing their personal and professional development. This development is affected by such sub-contexts as other teachers, administrators, students, policies, school culture and wider educational trends. Additionally, we have systematically involved student teachers in the co-construction of, and reflection on, the knowledge and understandings of pedagogical theories and practices that underpin successful classroom instruction.

During our mentoring journeys, we have had the privilege to work with pre- and in-service teachers from all over the world, thus learning about diverse contextual factors and their impact on teacher education programmes in a wide range of settings. Our awareness and understanding of these factors help us to better understand our student teachers as we strive to make our courses and programmes relevant to their needs. This global awareness also supports the larger construction of TESOL teacher identity in our field, across geographic, linguistic and cultural boundaries.

The driving motivation for the current volume is the international scope of our student teacher mentoring. In our view, it is important that English language teacher educators worldwide have access to innovative ideas about what successful TESOL programmes entail and how they can be delivered to offer hands-on experience to student teachers. It is our belief that the global perspective of this volume will provide language teacher educators with high-impact practices and offer a vision of critical issues to consider in their TESOL programme design.

Readership of the Book

This volume is the first publication to present diverse models of the TESOL practicum from several international contexts. Thus, this will be of interest to a wide readership. In particular, it is intended for:

- Academic staff involved in the design of programmes, such as TESOL, Applied Linguistics, Curriculum Studies, Language Teacher Education and Educational Leadership
- Department heads and leaders who oversee TESOL-related programmes
- Academic staff teaching and supervising courses, such as *TESOL Practicum*, *TESOL Internship*, *Curriculum Studies*, *Teaching English in Global Contexts*, *Classroom Supervision and Observation*, *Educational Leadership* and *English Language Teacher Professional Development*
- Postgraduate students taking the courses/programmes listed above
- Educational and applied linguistic researchers whose research interests lie within the area of English language teacher education and professional development
- CELTA, DELTA and CertTESOL teacher trainers

The Organization of the Book

This book starts with an introductory chapter that offers a review of the current literature on teacher learning and the TESOL practicum. The following 13 chapters describe unique TESOL practica situated in a global landscape. Each chapter is organized around the following sections:

1. **Introduction.** This part contextualizes and gives an overview of the chapter to follow.
2. **The Context of English Language Teaching and Learning.** This section situates the TESOL teacher education programme, or programmes, described in the chapter in the local context for English language teaching and teacher education.
3. **TESOL Teacher Education.** This section is a review of the types of qualifications offered by the programme, or programmes, introduced above and the curriculum upon which they are based.
4. **The TESOL Practicum.**
 - 4.1 **Theoretical and Philosophical Orientations.** This part describes how research on TESOL is made locally meaningful and how current theories in TESOL are connected to the practicum.
 - 4.2 **Skills and Competences Developed During the Practicum.** This part discusses issues on English language skills development in conjunction with the development of pedagogical skills.

- 4.3 **Expectations for the Practicum.** This section is an overview of the settings, hours and other expectations of the TESOL practicum.
 - 4.4 **Supervision of the Practicum.** This section is a description of how supervision is approached.
 - 4.5 **Evaluation and Assessment of the Practicum.** This part presents the system of feedback and assessment and the role of student teachers' reflections.
 - 4.6 **Strengths and Challenges in Enacting the Practicum.** This section is a critical analysis of the practicum.
5. **Conclusion, Future Directions and Trends Foreseen.** This part includes a discussion of future directions, trends, interests and needs.

The purpose of the concluding chapter is to briefly review the major themes and lessons learnt from the preceding chapters. Additionally, the concluding remarks highlight the way in which the current volume is more than the sum total of its component parts in proposing a collage of international experiences and understandings of the TESOL practicum.

York, UK
Yerevan, Armenia
New York, NY, USA

Andrzej Cirocki
Irshat Madyarov
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We wish to thank the contributing authors in the current volume for sharing their insider perspectives on language teacher education and the TESOL practicum from their unique vantage points. Without their contributions, this book would never have come to fruition. We would like to thank Kathi Bailey and Kelly Donovan for providing initial feedback, which significantly improved the structure and vision of the text, and Phil Martin for proofreading the current volume. Last but not least, we would like to acknowledge Francis M. Hult, the Editor of the Educational Linguistics Series, and the Springer editorial team whose extensive expertise has transformed our working manuscript into a polished book.

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Contemporary Perspectives on Student Teacher Learning and the TESOL Practicum



Andrzej Cirocki, Irshat Madyarov, and Laura Baecher

Abstract This introductory chapter begins by providing theoretical and research-driven perspectives on student teacher learning undergirding TESOL practica, based on a social constructivist approach. Concepts such as student teacher learning as a social activity as well as an emotional process, the formation of teacher identity and the importance of mediation are presented. This conceptual overview is then followed by a description of the TESOL practicum itself. The description points to the complex nature of practicum, considering its various models, as well as aspects such as: the timing of practicum within a TESOL programme, relationships with schools in relation to fieldwork placements, the qualities of practicum supervisors and coordinating teachers, the characteristics of pre- and post-observation feedback conferences with student teachers, and ways of supporting student teachers through assessment as well as promoting reflection. As such, this chapter lays the groundwork for the rest of the volume that shares locally relevant as well as innovative practices in the TESOL practicum around the world.

1 Introduction

Teacher learning, rather than occurring only in the teacher education classroom, is well-understood to be both situated and social (Johnson 2009; Johnson and Golombek 2011), as it takes place within the learning communities of schools. In turn, teacher learning goes hand in hand with school improvement (Fullan 1992;

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Nusche et al. 2011; Stoll and Temperley 2009). Within the development of schools in general, and the development of learning communities within these schools in particular, novice teachers engage in the process of “learning [the craft of teaching], [learning] how to learn, and [transforming] their knowledge into practice for the benefit of their students’ growth” (Avalos 2011, p. 10). As novices, the practicum experience affords student teachers the opportunity to take part in “an active [and] experiential process, through which knowledge is enacted, [socially] constructed and revised” (McLoughlin 2013, p. 193).

Deep engagement in ongoing learning during practica is vital, for it helps pre-service teachers to shift from students of teaching to teachers of students. This transformation is supported by regular mentoring conversations between student teachers and their supervisors as well as between student teachers and other teachers in the school (Cirocki and Farrell 2017). These complex dialogic encounters ideally “[focus] on learning, [are] critical in nature, [are] based on evidence from experiences and actions, [are] accountable for making connections between theory and practice and involve timely responsive feedback and collaborative goal setting” (Edwards-Groves 2014, p. 163).

The learning process that occurs for student teachers as they connect with more experienced teachers during the practicum “creates the zone of proximal development [ZPD], awaken[ing] a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when [student teachers] are interacting with people in their environment” (Vygotsky 1978, p. 90). During such interaction, experts assist novices in developing analytical, observational and reflective skills (Cirocki 2016). Additionally, more knowledgeable others guide novice teachers in enhancing their professional and organizational knowledge. The development of student teachers’ political awareness, their autonomy and, most importantly, their understanding of what being a teacher is and entails are also supported by interaction with experienced teachers. In other words, the practicum creates a conducive environment in which student teachers can benefit from what in-service teachers offer them (Lantolf 2000). During the practicum, new professional roles such as activists, reflectors, theorists and pragmatists are brought forward (Honey and Mumford 1992). Throughout the practicum, novice teachers are actively involved in new teaching-learning experiences and encouraged to reflect on those to improve their teaching.

Teacher learning is an ongoing, reflective and constructive process. It begins during university degree programmes, or certificate courses, and continues in and outside the classroom throughout teachers’ careers. The current chapter as well as the present volume focus specifically on student teacher learning that is related to respective degree programmes in TESOL and the accompanying TESOL practica. The TESOL practicum is the overarching “case” we investigate as it embodies what is valued in socially-constructed initial teacher education. The particular settings and individual practica portrayed in the subsequent chapters were selected to be part of this volume in order to, within limitations, present diverse contexts in terms of educational, cultural, EFL/ESL, and types of degree programmes in order to better understand the “situated” nature of practica. These practica cases had to also advance our understandings about theory-based, effective and original practices

within TESOL programmes and be authored by local experts with thorough understanding of the ELT context in their own countries as well as extensive experience in mentoring beginning EFL/ESL teachers. Local perspectivity is essential in this volume in that the selected practica are presented through the lens of the authors' individual teaching experiences, as well as their own language teaching awareness and knowledge of their national contexts.

2 Student Teachers as Learners

2.1 *Student Teacher Learning, Knowledge and Knowing*

The practicum cases presented in this volume demonstrate that teacher learning is predominantly grounded in social constructivism. Unlike cognitive models, which view teacher education as a clean, straightforward input-output model of training, social constructivism views the process of teacher learning as a dynamic social activity mediated by interaction, language, and context (Cirocki 2016; Lantolf 2000; Vygotsky 1978). Learning, therefore, is a dynamic process of gradually shifting from “external ... activity [that is] socially mediated to internal ... control by individual [teacher] learners, which results in the transformation of both the self and the activity” (Johnson 2009, p. 2). As a result, the socio-cognitive development of student teachers can be regarded as the re-enactment of existing knowledge from other fellow teachers, and as the creation of new knowledge due to the lived experience and varied interactions with other members of the teaching community.

Student teachers are thus creators of knowledge, not just consumers of others' knowledge (Crandall and Christison 2016; Edwards-Groves and Grootenboer 2017; Johnson and Golombek 2002). By interacting with other members of the teaching community, student teachers contribute to producing different types of knowledge, including: subject knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge (i.e., how to deal with students), curriculum knowledge, knowledge about learners, knowledge of educational contexts, and knowledge of educational goals and values (Shulman 1987). These different types of knowledge emerge from the student teachers' own lived realities and rest on the growing awareness and complex understanding of their pupils, classrooms, curricula, schools, communities of teaching professionals, and various social issues that affect their learning and teaching. In other words, constructed knowledge is the result of formal and informal learning situations in which student teachers engage on a regular basis (e.g., Straka 2003; Werquin 2010). Formal learning is purposeful, well-structured and meant to lead to the acquisition of knowledge, skills, and competences through degree programmes or certificate courses such as the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) or the Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults (DELTA). Informal learning, on the other hand, also known as learning by experience or incidental learning, is the result of carrying out routine tasks related to a lesser or greater extent to the

teaching profession. Lohman (2000) shares three examples of the latter, including *knowledge exchanging* (e.g., a group discussion of an article provided by a head-teacher), *experimenting* (e.g., the use of diverse motivational strategies to observe which ones are the most effective with a particular group of students), and *environmental scanning* (e.g., a visit to a library to extend knowledge or understanding about a particular issue).

The process of knowledge construction requires that student teachers actively combine different ways of knowing, which in turn triggers thoughtful actions in the classroom. For example, following Heron (1992) and Heron and Reason (1997), *experiential knowing* refers to what occurs in the face-to-face encounters between student teachers and their pupils, or between student teachers and other instructors. *Presentational knowing* is related to how student teachers represent their experiences through verbal and non-verbal modes that exemplify their attunement to the surrounding reality. *Propositional knowing* is student teachers' factual knowledge, whereas *practical knowing*, evidenced by skills and competences, is knowing how to do things, hence frequently referred to as student teachers' knowledge in action. All these types of knowing are integral elements of the complex process of knowledge creation, and like knowledge are constructed through social interaction.

Turning to the practicum cases presented in this volume, it is apparent that teacher learning, to varying degrees, is underpinned by social constructivism. For example, the practica presented promote teacher learning as an active, constructive and holistic process. During this process, student teachers construct useful knowledge that helps them to successfully function in the classroom reality. However, knowledge construction does not only depend on social interaction, but on other, more inherent, features of student teachers, including their attitudes, beliefs, values and emotions (Beck and Kosnik 2006). The practicum cases also evidence that knowledge is experience-based, hence heavy emphasis is placed on clinical practice and critical reflection. The latter is instrumental in helping student teachers to take risks and acquire ownership of their learning. In a similar fashion, critical reflection is believed to enable student teachers to develop their own teaching styles, congruent with their distinctive skills, talents and personalities.

In addition to social constructivism, some chapters additionally look at promoting intercultural competence among teachers, thus marrying theories of communication and cross-cultural adaptation. The growing interest in cultural diversity in education necessitates teacher knowledge about how “to achieve a culturally inclusive school, where students and staff alike recognise, appreciate and capitalise on diversity, aiming to enrich the overall learning experience” (Álvarez Valdivia and González Montoto 2018, p. 511). As Deardorff (2006) observes, educating interculturally competent teachers commences with the recognition of attitudes, and then the development of skill and knowledge. It is vital that at the end of this process, teachers: (1) be cognisant of their own assumptions and prejudices about human behaviour, (2) understand the students they teach, (3) employ culturally appropriate approaches in classrooms consisting of students from diverse language and culture backgrounds, and (4) show students how to be culturally responsive in the present-day diverse society (Han and Thomas 2010).

Going to a more critical view of teacher preparation, another viewpoint presented among the practicum cases in the volume is Foucault's theory of power. According to Foucault (1977), power and knowledge are inherently connected and deeply rooted in human social life, hence the importance of recognising this relationship at schools. In addition, Foucault's theory has significant implications for classroom observations, through which knowledge about the teaching-learning process is constructed. Consequently, to make sense of their observations, teachers must have deep awareness of the mechanisms of power as the latter underpin the former (O'Leary 2014).

It needs to be remembered, though, that the existence of these various theories in the individual contexts results from salient philosophical perspectives (i.e., idealism, realism, pragmatism, existentialism and postmodernism) underpinning education. The intensity and impact of these philosophical perspectives vary from one teaching context to another. Therefore, adopting a Dewey (1916) pragmatic line of reasoning, it seems appropriate to conclude that each of the thirteen cases gathered in the current volume gives an account of their own Eclectic Tendency, often referred to as a compatible blend of philosophies, that very much conforms to the changing norms and nuances of life in the respective countries.

2.2 *Student Teacher Identity, Emotion and Cognition*

Apart from constructing knowledge for teaching, student teachers also begin the work of establishing a professional identity. Just as with knowledge, professional identity is socially negotiated (Clarke 2008; Torres et al. 2009). More specifically, the process of identity formation stems from various power relations, social interactions and emotions that student teachers experience in their school contexts and during their teacher education programmes (Cheung et al. 2015; Cohen 2010; Zembylas 2003). Thus, identity formation is an unceasing process of becoming that is fully immersed in both social practices and contextual factors. Likewise, Varghese, Morgan, Johnston and Johnson (2005, p. 39) argue that teacher identity is "a social matter because [its] formation, negotiation, and growth (...) [take] place in institutional settings such as teacher education programmes and schools." The role of practicum instructors, field supervisors, and mentor teachers is to usher in novices as they identify with a TESOL *community of practice* (Lave and Wenger 1991), moving from peripheral participation to identifying themselves through a common knowledge of terminology, practices, and orientations as full-fledged members of the community.

Additionally, the process of constructing an identity is "individual and psychological (...) because it concerns the self-image and other-image of particular teachers" (Varghese et al. 2005, p. 39). It rests on identity motives, which are distinctive inclinations to take up certain stances and positions in the classroom vis-à-vis students through discourse (Davies and Harré 1990). Positioning and identity theories can be used as frames for how student teachers think critically and purposefully about the kind of teachers they want to become – their ideals – and how they negotiate their

actual, emerging identities within specific contexts (Alsup 2006). In other words, positioning theory not only serves as a frame for how new identities and responsibilities come into existence when student teachers position themselves and others in the teaching-learning process, but it also assists in noticing the discrepancies between the student teachers' ideals and how they actually behave while taking the first steps on their teaching journeys. In teacher education, this means that student teachers enact their identities by classifying themselves in terms of the shared ideas, beliefs, attitudes, values, and practices that portray the identity and expected behaviour of the group, or the individual teachers they aspire to emulate. This means that identity formation is dialogic in nature; student teachers' identities are developed through discursive practices and the diverse linguistic choices they make during their school practica (Bakhtin 1981). Mahboob (2017) states that in addition to their use of language, it is also student teachers' classroom practices and their implementation of the curriculum that contribute to their identity formation. The practices and the curriculum, as well as the perceptions of these by many stakeholders, shape student teachers' self- and other-perceived identities.

Teacher identity is clearly not stagnant. On the contrary, it is fluid and "achieved by active participation in [the] social space" (Coldron and Smith 1999, p. 711). In the case of student teachers, this active participation in social space means "exploring new ways of being that lie beyond [their] current state" (Wenger 1998, p. 264), and this is exactly what happens during their practica. While practising teaching at schools, student teachers explore multiple routes as they establish a new identity not only in relation to their English language classrooms, but also with regard to their position in the school as well and the community. The process of establishing varied professional connections with others is highly complex and replete with mixed emotions, which student teachers learn to manage over time (Benesch 2012).

The emotions student teachers experience during the initial stages of their teaching journeys are closely intertwined with their thinking (Compton et al. 2003; Yamasaki et al. 2002). The existence of the emotion-cognition interaction can be supported by psychological research. For instance, it has been found that certain cognitive processes are in charge of managing emotions, whereas certain emotional factors have a marked effect on cognitive performance (Davidson et al. 2003; Ochsner and Gross 2005). Benesch (2017) and Schutz and Zembylas (2009) indicate that the teacher's emotions as well as their emotional understanding of their classrooms contribute to creating positive learning environments, and towards making cogent decisions in relation to the teaching-learning process. This implies that emotions have a direct impact on teachers' cognitions, which are generally perceived as what teachers know, believe, and think, or what Borg (2003, p. 81) terms "the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching." Some of the recent debates on teacher cognition suggest broadening the scope of this concept by considering teacher attitudes and identities (Borg 2012; Golombek 2015; Kubanyiova 2015). Moodie and Feryok (2015), for example, suggest that teacher commitment be included under the umbrella term of teacher cognition. As a result, it is vital that student teachers develop, analyse, and understand their own cognitions in terms of both the immediate and the wider contexts of their teaching, their personal life stories, and their learning journeys.

It is important to stress that student teacher learning occurs through the synergy of what they bring to their teaching programmes, as well as the content of those programmes, and the practicum experience they are offered during their course of study. All three aspects must be taken into account, especially student teachers' prior knowledge and experience, in the powerful form of their *apprenticeship of observation* (Grossman 1991; Lortie 1974). As educational research reveals (e.g., Howe and Lisi 2014; Leglar and Collay 2002; Zepeda 2007), student teachers require time to be able to truly incorporate and utilize the ideas presented in their teacher education programmes. They first tend to construe systems of their own beliefs and intuitively select classroom practices, taking their own experiences as a guide. It is essential that during their teacher education programmes student teachers be afforded opportunities to reflect on their classroom performance. By doing so, the philosophies of teaching they develop, the methods of instruction they employ, and the learning environment they create in their classrooms align to widely held beliefs about teaching, and demonstrate congruence with whom they wish to be as professional teachers.

3 The TESOL Practicum

The rest of this chapter paints a picture of the TESOL practicum in broad strokes and makes sense of it from the social constructivist perspective. As such, the following discussion builds upon the concepts introduced in the first half of this chapter.

3.1 Nature and Purpose of the TESOL Practicum

The TESOL practicum is a key component in most TESOL programmes, ranging from undergraduate programmes lasting from 3 to 4 years, through certificate or diploma programmes lasting from several weeks to a year, to master's level programmes.

TESOL programmes and their practica are offered in a few typical contexts such as traditional face-to-face teaching settings, via distance learning and even in study abroad environments. Back when Hall and Knox (2009a, b) published their survey results, there were around 120 distance programmes around the world. However, the literature on distance TESOL programmes is still under-represented, with the exception of Turkey, where the Ministry of Education has been supporting this model of teacher education since 2000 (e.g., Keçik et al. 2012; Koç 2011; Merç 2015). The majority of TESOL programmes in Hall and Knox's (2009a) analysis come from the US and the UK, and award certificates and master's degrees. Some distance programmes also offer diplomas, and bachelor's and doctoral degrees (Hall and Knox 2009a; Merç 2015; Nel and Müller 2010; Teemant 2005).

Another TESOL practicum context is that of practicum experience abroad (e.g., Day 2013; Tomaš et al. 2008). Student teachers taking this course travel to a country for a few weeks or months to teach English in a variety of settings. These may either support non-native English-speaking teachers by immersing them in Anglophone contexts (e.g., Wong 2016) or support native-English-speaking teachers' empathy for what it is like to be a language learner and a non-dominant minority (e.g., Regalla 2017). For these TESOL student teachers, this kind of practicum placement often means teaching English as a foreign language – a context where English is not a typical medium of interaction.

This volume views practicum as primarily a supervised, practice teaching experience. In the literature, the practicum has been referred to as *teaching practice* (e.g., Eröz-Tuğa 2013; Farrell 2008; Mak 2011; Nel and Müller 2010; Ong'ondo and Borg 2011), *internship* (e.g., Crandall 2000; Lima and Pessoa 2010; Rosaen et al. 2008), *school teaching* or *field placement* (e.g., Farrell 2008; Yan and He 2010), *induction* (e.g., Farrell 2001), *practical* or *field-based experiences* (e.g., Crandall 2000; Farrell 2001), and *clinical experiences* (Ong'ondo and Jwan 2009; Richards and Crookes 1988). Many of these terms are introduced interchangeably in the chapters that follow. Similarly, the use of other terms, for example, teacher supervisors, faculty supervisors, host teachers, cooperating teachers, and mentoring teachers will vary from context to context. In addition, as the chapters demonstrate, some TESOL programmes focus on other experiences in the practicum, such as observations, peer teaching, and educational research in different shapes and forms.

A central purpose for a practicum is to connect theory and practice. In a social constructivist view, for learning to take place, it must be situated in an authentic social space. A TESOL practicum becomes that space in which student teachers make sense of the content in their programmes and transform their identities. Social constructivism assumes that much of our professional learning occurs as a result of “the dialectical unity of theory and practice ... referred to as *praxis*, in which theory guides practice but at the same time practice influences, and if need be, changes theory” (Lantolf and Poehner 2014, p. 27). Interpreting the nature and purpose of the TESOL practicum from the social constructivist perspective, an ideal setup might be developmental, sequenced fieldwork experiences that occur throughout the programme and engage student teachers in connecting what they learn in their courses to real-life teaching contexts.

This understanding of learning calls for an ongoing, dialogic interplay between theory and practice. This interplay is missing in many reported TESOL practica in the literature, which often shows that the practicum comes last in the teacher education experience. Some authors explicitly state that this separation of theory and practice in time, that is, the “learn-the-theory-and-then-apply-it model” leads to fragmented learning (Yan and He 2010, p. 60). Few studies report on teacher education programmes with multiple practicum experiences (Gu 2011; Leshem and Bar-Hama 2008; Mukeredzi 2015; Rajuan et al. 2007). Very few programmes weave practica into the teacher education experience throughout the training (Baecher 2012; Legutke and Schocker-v. Dittfurth 2009; Spooner-Lane et al. 2009; Ulvik and Smith 2011).

The amount of time student teachers spend teaching in the classroom likewise shows that many programmes place more emphasis on theory than practice. This prevalence of theory becomes more obvious in undergraduate programmes that may offer actual teaching opportunities from one lesson to several weeks only (e.g., Eröz-Tuğa 2013; Yan and He 2010; Yuan and Lee 2014). On the other hand, shorter teaching certificate programmes tend to provide richer classroom teaching opportunities, totalling to as many as 60 h within a year-long programme (Farrell 2008; Hyland and Lo 2006; Spooner-Lane et al. 2009; Ulvik and Smith 2011). Contextual variables such as state or ministerial credentialing requirements also contribute to shaping the number of hours in actual teaching that student teachers complete.

3.2 *TESOL Practicum Models and School Partnerships*

TESOL practicum models in many ways depend on the kinds of partnerships a TESOL programme establishes with schools for student teacher placements. Ideally, these social spaces become communities of practice in Lave and Wenger's (1991) terms, where student teachers successfully move from *legitimate peripheral participation* to full participation in their teaching activity. In successful TESOL practicum models and school partnerships, all the members of this activity, including supervisors, cooperating teachers, and school coordinators, share a common understanding of and responsibility for the success of the practicum.

There are various types of practicum models that have been developed, based on how they strategically partner with host schools. In their review of the practicum in general teacher education, Mattsson et al. (2011) propose nine models of partnerships with schools for practicum experiences. The *master-apprentice model* places student teachers with an expert teacher, and this professional relationship becomes central to learning the craft of teaching. In the *laboratory model*, a teacher education programme establishes its own school that follows programme expectations. In the *partnership model*, the programme carefully selects best practice schools, establishes clear expectations with them, and then completely hands the practicum experience to the school administration. The *integrated model* suggests shared responsibilities between the teacher education programme and partner schools. In the *community development model*, student teachers are placed to support a community in need. In the *case-based model*, the student teachers take up a researcher practitioner role to investigate specific cases in schools of their placement. The *platform model* is an approach where student teachers are given freedom to choose their own practicum purpose and format. In the *community of practice* model, the assumption is that student teachers are all participants of shared practice, where the goal is to become socialized into the culture of teaching. Finally, the *research and development model* seeks to establish partnerships between university programmes and schools in order to facilitate research and development goals. The descriptions of the practica in TESOL literature are not always detailed enough to define their models according to this framework, and of course, many practica draw on more than one model. However, some patterns are discernible.

Most TESOL teacher education programmes rely on the integrated model (e.g., Eröz-Tuğa 2013; Farrell 2008; Leshem and Bar-Hama 2008; Thomas 2017). In this model, the school's teachers and coordinators are likely to work with the student teachers on site, while the TESOL programme faculty visit to observe classes to provide feedback and assessment. The partnership model is another practicum scenario in TESOL programmes (Rajuan et al. 2007; Yuan and Lee 2014). In this context, the onus for the practicum is completely on the partner schools to provide high quality experience to the student teachers. Williams (2009) describes a project that resembles the community of practice model in which student teachers work one-on-one with learners, supporting them in their daily interactions in English as a second language. Finally, Mukeredzi (2015) discusses what could be defined as a community development model in which student teachers complete their practicum in rural villages, contributing to their own growth and that of the host communities. Some authors report on practicum contexts that draw on a combination of models. For example, Spooner-Lane et al. 2009 as well as Brown and Ruiz (2017) describe collaborations with schools where students engage in a variety of school practices in addition to teaching, thus resembling the community of practice and integrated models. Uzum et al. (2014) describe a practicum experience that corresponds to the community development and integrated models where student teachers provide support to multicultural English learners in a low-income school.

It is not so much the model of the practicum that defines its success as it is the implementation of the model. Most challenges stem from a lack of understanding of the roles that are expected of the TESOL programmes and partner schools, and as a result, they fail to establish communities of practice to transform student teachers' engagement to full participation (Lave and Wenger 1991). Here, success calls for a shared understanding of the goals and specific roles of all the participants, defined in manuals or guidelines, which are reviewed with all parties. A successful model or partnership seeks to benefit all the participants of this long-term commitment. Some of the ensuing chapters describe examples of successful school partnerships and how they have been achieved.

3.3 Practicum Supervision

Supervision of student teachers during their practica takes on different shapes, which depends in part on the model of partnership established between the TESOL programmes and the schools. A typical scenario is a triad model: a faculty member from the teacher education programme, a coordinating teacher from the school, and the student teacher meet in a team of three to discuss observed lessons (e.g., Brown and Ruiz 2017; Hyland and Lo 2006; Leshem and Bar-Hama 2008; Thomas 2017). This also tends to be the case in distance TESOL programmes with more responsibility placed on the school-based teacher (Keçik et al. 2012; Koç 2011; Merç 2015). In another approach, school-based teachers and/or coordinators take more responsibility for student teachers' mentorship, including class observations, pre- and

post-observation conferences, and evaluation (Rajuan et al. 2007; Yuan and Lee 2014). These school-based teachers are variously referred to in the literature as cooperating teachers, host teachers, and mentor teachers. There are other associated terms, and both their nomenclature and their roles differ from context to context (Bailey 2009; Malderez 2009).

As the mentoring experience is social in nature, the multiple agents involved interact more smoothly when they have shared goals (Engeström 2001). Many studies have reported that the TESOL practica lack a shared understanding of goals, strategies, and processes among student teachers, cooperating teachers, the supervising faculty, or other agents involved in the activity due to the issue of the organization or selection and training of mentors (Farrell 2008; Hyland and Lo 2006; Ma 2017; Ong'ondo and Borg 2011). Clear lines of communication among the participants involved support the goals of the practicum supervision. Student teachers are then given plenty of opportunity to construct and revisit their own goals and expectations and move along the learning trajectories with the support of the mentors. At the institutional level, the complex roles and competences of mentors are streamlined by established manuals, rigorous selection processes, and professional training. Andrew and Razoumova (2017) additionally recommend matching supervisors with student teachers to support effective working relationships.

Social constructivism emphasizes the role of relationships in the mentoring process. Even though a mentor comes to this process with more experience and expertise, this kind of mentor-mentee relationship assumes that a practicum is a collaborative and joint activity (Bailey 2009; Nguyen 2017). In this process, student teachers construct their own understanding through an in-depth analysis of their teaching with the thoughtful support of their mentor. This mentoring process empowers student teachers to own the practicum experience, identify their own goals, and transform their teaching capacity in ways that they find meaningful. The following sections on feedback and reflection elaborate more on the practical aspects of this kind of mentoring. However, this understanding of mentoring reiterates the important need for a careful selection and training process of practicum mentors.

3.4 Feedback and Assessment

Assessment is an integral element of the TESOL practicum. In fact, TESOL programmes employ multiple forms of evidence to judge student teachers' performance during their practica. They often include formative and summative assessment opportunities with evidence coming from lesson plans, materials, and class observations. These three aspects are often assessed during pre- and post-observation conferences between student teachers and their mentors (cooperating teachers and/or faculty supervisors). In these interactions, mentors offer feedback to student teachers in a conversation format. For a pre-observation conference, student teachers may be expected to prepare a lesson plan and accompanying materials along with

questions they may have about the upcoming class. In a post-observation conference, on the other hand, they share their perspective on the conducted lesson with the mentor and discuss their strengths and areas of growth.

It is important that feedback during pre- and post-observation conferences benefits from a more student- and learning-centred mindset. Student teachers need to be offered more talking time to enable them to take up the ownership of the process. It should be noted that externalizing thoughts orally or in writing facilitates cognitive processes and leads to insights (Vygotsky 1978). Likewise, following the principle of mediation and ZPD, mentors are advised to refrain from offering ready-made solutions during oral interactions. Instead, they are encouraged to probe student teachers with thought-provoking questions to make trainees reflect on their own teaching, and propose possible solutions to existing issues in their classrooms.

It is advisable that detailed guidelines and rubrics are utilized in the assessment process (Hollins 2015; Richardson et al. 2018). In this way, clear expectations and a shared vision between student teachers and mentors can be set. However, caution must be taken when holistic (i.e., impressionistic) and analytic (i.e., rubric-based) types of assessment are used in one programme (Leshem and Bar-Hama 2008). These two approaches may yield different performance results and reactions in student teachers.

As the goal of practicum is individual development, traditional assessment finds little room in social constructivism. For instance, Vygotsky's (1978) ZPD, introduced earlier in this chapter, suggests that learners grow from their current development stage to a level of potential progress with support (i.e., mediation or regulation) of a more capable person. Whatever a learner can achieve, being other-regulated is a reachable target when working on the task independently (Lantolf and Thorne 2007). However, in the process of regulation, the support should be selective, minimal, and provided only at the time when absolutely needed. The goal here is for the learner to reach self-regulation and accomplish the task independently. In sociocultural theory, this concept is also termed *dynamic assessment*.

Given this social constructivist understanding of mentor-mentee interaction, there are three challenges associated with pre- and post-observation conferences. They are rooted in the different expectations held among student teachers and their mentors. One challenge is that post-observation feedback provided to student teachers tends to be evaluative, directive, critical, too general, and more often than not takes up most of the time during the interaction (Hyland and Lo 2006; Ma 2017; Ong'ondo and Borg 2011). Second, student teachers tend to take a passive role, agree, and conform. Further, research highlights the need for more support of an emotional and personal nature that mentors should also provide (Brown and Ruiz 2017; Farrell 2008; Hyland and Lo 2006; Thomas 2017). Finally, student teachers and mentors sometimes view feedback and assessment as a formality, which affects its credibility and usefulness (Farrell 2008; Ong'ondo and Borg 2011; Yan and He 2010).

There are a few good practices to address these challenges related to feedback and assessment in the TESOL practica. One way to support student teachers in setting and tracking their own goals is that of the portfolio assessment (Freeman et al.

2009; Oprandy 2015). Portfolios allow student teachers to select what to consider as best practice in their practicum experience in relation to provided expert criteria. They provide an opportunity for on-going self-assessment and reflection on learning outcomes and processes. Another authentic feedback and assessment format is a dialogue journal where mentors read student teachers' reflections and probe them on their challenges, insights, and theory-to-practice connections (Lee 2007). Additionally, a very powerful means of promoting self-evaluation, with the mentor serving more as a coach, and in a less directive manner, is the use of video records of practice at the practicum stage. Video provides the teacher with their only opportunity to actually see themselves teach and to view their classroom from an outsider's perspective. The rewind and review capacity of video greatly lends itself to interaction and dynamic assessment during post-observation conversations (Baecher and McCormack 2015; Golombek 2011).

Based on the above, offering feedback to student teachers and carrying out assessment on their professional development is a challenging task. For this reason, carefully selecting and training mentors for these roles should be emphasized more in teacher education (Burns and Badiali 2016). It is vital that assessment activities successfully raise student teachers' awareness about their new roles and behaviours, identify areas for growth, and set a course for their professional success.

3.5 Student Teacher Reflections

The previous section touched upon student teacher reflections when discussing mentors' feedback. Because such reflections are key in transforming student teachers' learning and identities, they deserve a separate discussion. This understanding of reflections rests on the assumption that teaching practice is based on evidence-based inquiry, growth mindset, and professional collaboration (Cirocki and Farrell 2017). Reflections in the TESOL practicum come in two forms: in writing (also referred to as journals) and in oral interactions with mentors or peers.

In social constructivism, reflections can be viewed as a social and personal activity. As a social activity, be it written or oral, it becomes part of a complex web of historically and socially constructed and interconnected relationships and mediating tools (e.g., pen, paper, computer, blog, language). Understanding reflections from this perspective implies an in-depth qualitative analysis of relationships in the activities of involved agents, such as student teachers, mentors, as well as their institutional and personal contexts.

At a personal level, reflections become means of externalizing thoughts in a written or oral form, which facilitates thinking (Vygotsky 1978). Lantolf and Poehner (2014, p. 22) elucidate this point in the following way:

[Language] is outwardly directed as social speech at influencing other members of society and it is inwardly directed as private or inner speech (i.e., dialogue with the self) at influencing one's own psychological activity. On this view, language mediates thinking in the same way that human hands coupled with the physical tools mediate human activity in the world of objects.

In practical terms, it means that student teachers should be given enough opportunity to speak or write about their teaching experiences. Just the fact that they externalize their thoughts facilitates their thinking and learning, but it has to be aided by facilitation from the mentor.

Mentors assume a key role by mediating student teachers' reflective activity. As discussed above, the concept of ZPD is key here as well. The nature of the questions and support that mentors provide in the process become critical for the successful learning experience. Unfortunately, according to the literature above, student teachers are provided little opportunity to speak during their interactions with mentors.

Another form of mediation during a reflection activity is peer regulation. Much like with the support of a mentor, peer regulation is considered a form of other regulation in social constructivism. Here, the support is provided by classmates, and this too can successfully move the learners along their ZPD (Lantolf and Poehner 2014). TESOL practicum literature offers some positive evidence suggesting that peer observations can facilitate productive reflection in student teachers. For example, Day's (2013) study shows that these reflections enable student teachers to change some of their teaching practices and beliefs.

Yet another form of regulation that transforms one's thinking and understanding is self-regulation (Lantolf and Poehner 2014; Lantolf and Thorne 2007). Externalizing one's thoughts in writing or speaking is a form of self-regulation. There is also strong evidence, as mentioned earlier, that viewing video recordings of student teachers' own teaching raises their awareness of language, their presence, and the overall quality of their instruction (Eröz-Tuğa 2013; Rosaen et al. 2008), especially when done alongside mentors (Baecher et al. 2014). With guidance, video recordings can help student teachers to shift their reflections from themselves to their students' learning experiences.

4 Conclusion

There has been a move away from teacher training to teacher education and development since the end of the last century (Gebhard 2009). This positive change is obvious in the review discussed above. A variety of research into the TESOL practicum has so far covered, among other things, student teachers' reflections, identity and beliefs.

One important implication of the literature is that engaging student teachers in the field, in teacher roles, as often and as early in the programme as possible, can facilitate the interaction between theory and practice. This recommendation may carry more weight for undergraduate teacher education programmes than shorter certificate and diploma programmes. In her well-recognized book about successful teacher education programmes in the US, Darling-Hammond (2012, pp. 99–100) states that:

[o]lder versions of teacher education often had students taking batches of coursework in isolation from practice and then adding a short dollop of student teaching to the end of the program ... The sites we studied interweave coursework and clinical work throughout the entire program.

Another area for exploration is related to school partnerships and practicum supervision. Specific recommendations in this arena include sharing expectations among the stakeholders, which could call for the development of a document with clear practicum guidelines and for on-going interaction between the TESOL programme and the partner schools. When student teachers enter the schools for their placements, it is important that they are introduced and socialized into the larger school community. Another recommendation is that cooperating teachers and faculty supervisors are carefully selected and prepared for their mentorship roles, ensuring that their workload is reasonably distributed. During pre- and post-observation conferences, mentors should offer enough opportunity for student teachers to share their impressions and analyses, including their emotional and affective concerns when needed. In some contexts, matching student teachers with mentors may be an important first step before the practicum.

Another aspect to consider is how to promote embedded, performance-based assessment of the kind that relies on student teachers' performance in specific real-life tasks in authentic contexts such as classrooms or other school settings. In TESOL practica, personal goal setting and self-assessment are important tasks for student teachers. The practica should offer student teachers plenty of opportunity to learn from failure in a safe environment and receive feedback that is emotionally supportive and helpful in addressing the most critical areas of their growth.

Finally, student teacher reflections occupy a special niche in the literature. It is suggested that oral and written reflections have a strong potential to transform student teachers' beliefs, identities, understanding, and practices. An important recommendation during pre- and post-observation conferences is to provide enough freedom for student teachers to identify topics for discussion, use evidence like student artefacts to ground discussion, and to provide time and space for sharing their observations. Reflections based on peer observations and video recordings show promising results when done in a thoughtful manner.

The chapters in this volume offer a wealth of innovative ideas and promising practices in the TESOL practicum on the topics discussed above. They also present real-life dilemmas and constraints that arise from the particulars of their contexts. Readers will resonate with much that is similarly found in their own TESOL practica, while also coming to recognize that what we believe to be common or routine, may be enacted very differently in another part of the world. By linking these descriptions of TESOL practica, we gain a stronger understanding of our shared, global, community of TESOL practice.

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A TESOL Practicum in Indonesia



Kusumarasdyati and Pratiwi Retnaningdyah

Abstract This chapter describes two stages of a TESOL practicum at the State University of Surabaya, Indonesia. The first stage requires student teachers to participate in peer teaching and videotaped micro-teaching, as well as secondary school teaching practice during a semester break. This stage is part of an undergraduate degree in TEFL and takes place during the first semester of the third year of study. The second stage is available only to undergraduate degree holders and ends with a government-funded certification. The second stage grants certification and status as fully-qualified teachers, and requires that candidates attend an intensive pre-service teacher training at the university to develop detailed lesson plans, design engaging teaching materials, experience peer teaching, engage in classroom instruction at urban secondary schools, and conduct classroom-based action research. Prior to being awarded the government-required teaching certificates, pre-service teachers must also pass a compulsory competence examination set by the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education.

1 Introduction

This chapter begins by describing the context of English language learning and teaching and TESOL teacher education in Indonesia, specifically contextualized within the TESOL practicum at the English Department of the State University of Surabaya (UNESA). The next part of the chapter discusses the two stages of this practicum. The first stage, *Program Pengelolaan Pembelajaran (PPP)*, is the Learning Management Programme for undergraduate third-year students in the TEFL Study Programme in the English Department. The second stage, *Pendidikan Profesi Guru (PPG)* or Teacher Professional Education Programme, focuses on the professional development of those who have graduated from the university and would like to pursue a career in teaching as licenced EFL teachers. The chapter then

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describes the implementation of *PPP* and *PPG* with respect to the pedagogical skills and competences developed, the procedures of supervision, the types of assessment which are employed, and the strengths and challenges of implementing this two-stage practicum. The chapter ends with conclusions, future directions, and trends foreseen related to the practicum as a part of TESOL teacher education in Indonesia.

2 The Context of English Language Teaching and Learning

English has been taught in Indonesia since 1914 and remains the most important foreign language at all levels of education. Following Kachru's (1985) model of concentric circles, Indonesia belongs to the Expanding Circle, where English is taught as a foreign language. In recent decades, English has become very important in Indonesia, especially in business, politics, education, technology (Lauder, 2008), and the media, and has been used as a lingua franca to communicate with the members of the ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) region. Therefore, it is understandable that Indonesians from various walks of life demonstrate an increasing interest in and enthusiasm for learning English, although in daily communication they use it very rarely. This is partially related to the complexity of the Indonesian context. It is a geographically fragmented country that consists of more than 13,000 islands. There are over 700 local languages that are used by many different ethnic groups. What unites the Indonesian nation is Bahasa Indonesia – the national language, which is compulsory at school. While Bahasa Indonesia is the national language in the Indonesian archipelago, in reality, it is often a second or even third language for many Indonesians.

While Indonesian functions as a tool to unite a nation of diverse linguistic and socio-cultural backgrounds, English is used to communicate with foreigners, to build international relations, and to keep up with the latest developments in science and technology. For these reasons, mastering English is indispensable for Indonesians, hence its inclusion in school curricula.

As a compulsory subject in secondary education, English has been part of various national curricula centrally set by the Ministry of Education and Culture. The changes in the policy of TESOL Education in Indonesia have so far been influenced by economic and political factors rather than academic and research-based considerations (Widodo 2016). The National Curriculum for English has undergone extensive revisions three times in the last 14 years, and recently has been strongly influenced by the Australian genre-based curriculum cycle (Martin and Rose 2005). One of the basic principles of this approach is that particular genres are taught in secondary schools to enable learners to understand and construct different types of texts across the content areas (Tardy 2013).

However, the local influence is seen in other areas. For example, most materials in English textbooks reflect attempts to provide space for local content as well as promote intercultural awareness (Mukundan 2005). Emphasis on local wisdom and

character building is represented by the core competences, which are quite general and do not specifically relate to English as a foreign language (EFL). For instance, one of the core competences in the junior high school English curriculum states that students are expected to demonstrate behaviours that reflect honesty, discipline, responsibility, courtesy, confidence, nationalism, citizenship, independence, and creativity in making interactions with peers and the surrounding reality. This implies that character building is taken into account in the Indonesian context when teachers attempt to improve learners' English proficiency (Retnaningdyah et al. 2016). The current 2013 curriculum also provides opportunities for teachers to employ methods that promote higher order thinking skills. However, studies reveal that teachers face problems in implementing appropriate literacy strategies to develop students' critical thinking and creativity (Khairi et al. 2018; Laksono and Retnaningdyah 2018).

The various changes in the English curriculum in Indonesia have greatly affected the way English teachers are trained in the universities that offer teacher preparation programmes. It has become more common for leading universities to promote active, collaborative, and technology-based instruction.

3 TESOL Teacher Education

The system of teacher professional education in Indonesia underwent a transition following the enactment of the Decree of Teachers and Lecturers (Exec. Order no 14, 2005), which required all public-school teachers to hold teacher certificates. To certify as professionals, teachers have to attend in-service training sessions to improve their knowledge and skills. Due to numerous benefits that a teacher certificate brings, the teaching profession has become more desirable for the Indonesian people. As indicated in the World Bank report (2010), the enrolment in teacher education programmes has increased. The regulation has also influenced policies within teacher education. Previously, the graduates of education study programmes were eligible to teach immediately. With the enactment of the new regulation, however, fresh graduates are required to attend a pre-service teacher professional development programme for a certain period of time before obtaining teacher certificates.

English language teacher education at UNESA is managed by the English Department. Formerly named Surabaya Teachers' College, UNESA has trained students to become English teachers in junior high, senior high, and vocational schools since 1964. In 1998, the Ministry of Education and Culture transformed all government-owned teacher training colleges into universities, with a wider mandate to open other academic programmes in addition to the existing educational study programmes.

The English Department now runs two 4-year study programmes: the TEFL Study Programme and the English Literature Study Programme. Students who are admitted into the TEFL Study Programme are trained to become English teachers, while those enrolled in the Literature Study Programme are trained to enter various English-related professions, such as translation, linguistics, or journalism.

The TEFL Study Programme has so far been in the top five at UNESA in terms of the number of applicants. The policy of the teacher certification mentioned above has made entry into the TEFL Study Programme even more competitive, with a ratio of 1:10, as compared to a ratio of 1:4 to enter the English Literature Study Programme. Admission into either programme is determined by students' high school academic records and non-academic achievements, their performance on a national scholastic aptitude test and subject-based academic entrance test, and their performance on a university-based oral and written English test. Upon admission, all first-year students are required to take an English proficiency test administered by the UNESA Language Centre. This test is essential for them because all English-related subjects are taught using English as the medium of instruction. Students also write their undergraduate theses in English. In order to be able to defend their theses orally, students must demonstrate language proficiency at a level equivalent to a paper-based TOEFL score of 527.

While UNESA has some autonomy in developing its own curriculum to educate teachers, it follows certain centrally-established regulations related to teacher training. In accordance with the 2005 Decree of Teachers and Lecturers, The Ministry of Education and Culture has set a regulation that teachers have to demonstrate competence in four areas: pedagogy, professionalism, affect, and social interaction. In the curriculum of the TEFL Study Programme, the pedagogical competence of student teachers is developed through general pedagogical courses such as *Foundations of Education*, *Philosophy of Education*, and *Educational Psychology* as well as TEFL-related courses, which include *Instructional Design*, *Developing ELT Materials*, *Innovative Learning*, *Learning Media*, *ELT Methods*, and *ELT Assessment*. Student teachers also learn to conduct research through courses like *Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis* and *Educational Research Methodology*. Additionally, student teachers' professional competence is developed through courses on language skills, linguistics, and literature. It is vital to emphasize here that some pedagogical courses serve as prerequisites for the TESOL practicum, which is conducted both on- and off-campus in the sixth semester. In the seventh semester, student teachers write a thesis proposal. Ideally, they finish their study at the end of the eighth semester.

Through the years, the TESOL practicum has been continuously evaluated; adjustments have been made to address aspects of the programme that needed improvement. In its earliest form, the practicum programme was held only as part of the undergraduate study at the teacher training college. The graduates of the TEFL Study Programme were then entitled to teach in secondary schools immediately upon completing their programme. When teacher training colleges became universities, they became less focused on teacher training; as a result, the quality of the teachers they produced decreased.

In response to the need to improve the efficiency and quality of education in Indonesia, the government has developed a non-degree teacher education system. Policies that mandate training for teachers and equip them with specific skills and competences have been introduced. It is these policies that undergird the aims of *PPG* to produce teachers who possess competences in five areas: (1) planning,

carrying out, and assessing learning; (2) following up the results of assessment; (3) providing guidance and training for learners; (4) conducting research; and (5) continuously engaging in professional development. The establishment of *PPG* is part of the Indonesian government's attempts to standardize teacher education. There are currently 23 universities that are authorized by the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education to offer *PPG*, and UNESA is one of them.

Since 2005, graduates have been required to earn a teacher certificate through *PPG*, with on- and off-campus practica. The following section describes different mechanisms of the *TESOL Practicum* course designed for undergraduate students at UNESA to enable them to obtain teacher certification and earn the status of fully-qualified EFL teachers.

4 The TESOL Practicum

As mentioned earlier, the practicum at UNESA is comprised of two stages. The first stage is conducted in the *PPP* course, which is offered to undergraduate students in the sixth semester (Fig. 1). This course aims to equip student teachers with relevant pedagogical skills and dispositions by providing them with opportunities to apply knowledge about the principles of teaching through simulated and real classes. Held within a relatively short period of time, approximately 6 months, this course is considered as an introductory practicum before student teachers proceed to the next stage, labelled *PPG*.

After student teachers have completed their study in the English Department and obtained their Bachelor's degrees in TEFL, they attend the *PPG* training, which is a more intensive practicum of longer duration. As the capstone experience of the teaching practicum in Indonesia, *PPG* is designed to engage student teachers in a series of workshops and an internship to support their development as professional teachers who are well-prepared to educate secondary school students in the twenty-first century.

During their practica, in both stages, student teachers work with mentoring teachers at host schools along with visiting mentors from the university to make the practicum a truly professional and rewarding experience.

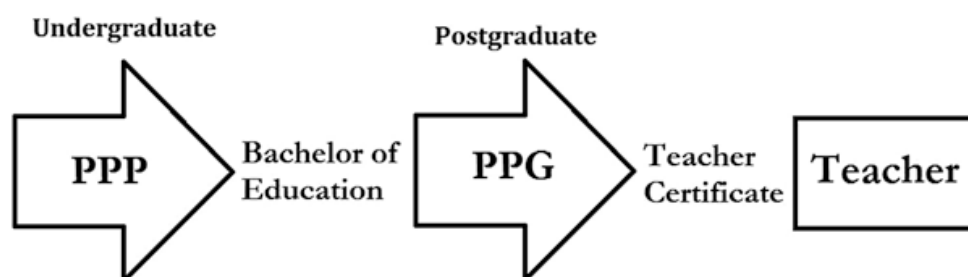


Fig. 1 The stages of the TESOL practicum

The following sections give a detailed account of the TESOL practica at the *PPP* and *PPG* stages. Before introducing various procedural aspects pertaining to UNESA's practica, it is essential that the theories and philosophies that underpin the practica are first briefly reviewed.

4.1 Theoretical and Philosophical Orientations

The TESOL practica at UNESA mainly embrace social constructivism as their theoretical underpinning. When UNESA began to carry out a practicum programme in the 1960s, it adopted behaviourism because, at that time, behaviourism as a school of thought in psychology had a major influence on the field of education. The behaviourist approaches were particularly visible in the micro-teaching, peer teaching, and student teaching that UNESA offered at the undergraduate level. Three decades later, habit formation was considered inadequate to develop pedagogical knowledge and skills, so the underlying theory shifted to social constructivism. On closer inspection, and as will be seen later, in some situations, *positive* aspects of behaviourism are employed in the practicum, yet they are kept to a minimum.

Social constructivism acknowledges the importance of social interaction in learning. According to Vygotsky, learners construct knowledge in their minds, but this occurs after they have been involved in interaction with more capable others. From the social constructivism stance, "knowledge is a social product, and learning is a social process" (Pritchard and Woollard 2010, p. 9). In this social process, knowledge is actively constructed, and learning is viewed as a process of active discovery (Cirocki 2016). It is these tenets of social constructivism that guide teacher education programmes at UNESA today.

The next section details several skills and competences that student teachers need to master during the practicum.

4.2 Skills and Competences Developed During the Practicum

Teacher education in the English Department at UNESA begins with improving student teachers' language proficiency. Afterwards, teaching related courses follow. It is essential that student teachers acquire the competences and skills needed to conduct effective lessons. Some courses from the latter group are offered quite early in the programme to ensure that student teachers develop certain competences and skills before they start their practicum experience. Later, at the *PPG* stage, these competences and skills are strengthened by offering student teachers practical workshops rather than traditional theory-vs-practice-based courses. Active participation during the workshops is essential. The major competences and skills that are systematically developed at both levels include:

- *Designing effective instruction*

Language instruction must be well-planned to achieve the desired outcomes. As a result, student teachers need to learn how to successfully design English lessons. At UNESA, student teachers take a compulsory course, *Instructional Design*, which familiarizes them with the systematic design of instruction promoted by Dick, Carey and Carey (2016). Such a design consists of the following steps: (1) identifying instructional goals, (2) conducting instructional analysis as well as analyzing learners and the context, (3) writing performance objectives, (4) developing assessment instruments, (5) developing instructional strategy, (6) developing and selecting instructional materials, (7) designing and conducting formative evaluation, and (8) designing and conducting summative evaluation. Upon successful completion of this course, student teachers move on to take the *Analysis of School Curriculum*, where they examine the various core competences and skills listed in the Indonesian curriculum, develop a syllabus that is based on these competences, and write lesson plans aligned with the syllabus. By the end of this course, successful pre-service teachers can formulate precise learning objectives and detail several procedures needed to achieve these objectives.

One of the determining factors in the attainment of learning objectives is the approaches and methods of teaching used in the classroom. In the *ELT Methods* course, student teachers learn about past and current methods and approaches to teaching English as a foreign language. As the approaches and methods used to teach in the primary and secondary schools differ, pre-service teachers attend courses addressing issues related to these specific groups of learners. For example, the courses focusing specifically on young learners include *Teaching English to Young Learners* and *Innovative Teaching in Primary Schools*. However, there is no fieldwork at schools for these courses because the English Department puts emphasis on the teaching of English at the secondary level.

- *Developing quality ELT materials*

Student teachers are made aware that coursebooks are important, yet not ideal, because they do not always accommodate all the possible needs of EFL learners. For this reason, the development and adaptation of teaching materials is a crucial element of pre-service training. For example, student teachers take a compulsory course – *Developing ELT Materials* – where they focus on various principles and frameworks of developing and evaluating materials, both print and digital ones. More interestingly, all student teachers have to individually design one EFL coursebook unit which includes sections on language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) and language areas such as vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation. The designed units are then piloted among a small group of EFL secondary school students. The piloting of the instruments hardly ever takes place in school settings; student teachers usually pilot them outside schools by arranging meetings with relevant groups of students. It is essential that student teachers receive feedback on their units in terms of their organization, attractiveness, usefulness, and the like. Such feedback comes from secondary school students, other student teachers, and

the lecturer. After revisions, the final drafts of the units are shared with other fellow student teachers and subsequently used in the practicum.

- *Assessing learners accurately and in various ways*

To find out whether the learning objectives they have set are successfully achieved or not, student teachers need to assess EFL learners' performance. A compulsory course offered by the English Department – *ELT Assessment* – trains student teachers in diverse and effective ways of assessment. This course introduces the principles of assessment, both formative and summative, as well as provides student teachers with the opportunity to create assessment tools, for example, tests, and examines their validity and reliability. In addition, various aspects of authentic assessment are also introduced.

- *Conducting classroom action research*

UNESA'S student teachers are encouraged to be reflective practitioners. To this end, student teachers are familiarized with the action research cycle and encouraged to engage in three types of reflection: reflection in, reflection on, and reflection for action (Grushka et al. 2005; Killion and Todnem 1991; Schön 1983). The English Department considers action research as an integral part of teaching; as a result, all pre-service teachers are required to take two courses – *Educational Research Methodologies* and *Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis* – which prepare them to become teacher-researchers.

To conclude this section, it must be clarified that student teachers must pass all the above prerequisite courses before doing their practica at the undergraduate level. The practicum experience allows student teachers to transfer the knowledge they have gained to the classroom context. After graduating from the university, pre-service teachers move on to the second stage of the practicum, that is *PPG*, where they have more opportunities to develop their teaching competences as well as construct more complex teacher identities.

4.3 Expectations for the Practicum

The *PPP* practicum consists of three phases: *peer teaching*, in which student teachers simulate the teaching process in the classrooms with their peers acting as EFL students, *micro-teaching*, in which student teachers teach their peers in the departmental laboratory, and later analyze their videotaped performance, receiving feedback for improvement, and *student teaching*, which gives student teachers an opportunity to work with secondary school EFL learners. These phases are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1 shows what the triad of peer teaching, micro-teaching, and student teaching looks like at UNESA. In theory, the practicum consists of micro-teaching and student teaching, but in practice, UNESA divides the former into peer teaching and micro-teaching, hence three phases. Each phase will now be briefly introduced.

Table 1 Micro-teaching, peer teaching and student teaching in the PPP course

Concepts	Terms used at UNESA	Pre-service teachers	Time (min)	Location	Video taped	Feedback
Micro-teaching	Peer teaching	Individual	20	Classrooms	No	Peers, university mentors
	Micro-teaching	Group	40	Laboratory	Yes	Peers, university mentors
Student teaching	Student teaching	Individual	45	Schools	No	Host school mentors, university mentors

Peer teaching allows student teachers ample time to design an English lesson and try it out with their peers under the supervision of a university mentor. For more effective mentoring, peer teaching classes are kept small and consist of eight student teachers. Prior to peer teaching, all groups of student teachers attend three general lectures that introduce various aspects of the curriculum, teaching methodology, and assessment to them. After that, the university mentor models teaching in two sessions. The purpose of the demo sessions is to familiarize students with various teaching techniques, show several classroom management strategies, as well as encourage students to be creative in the teaching-learning process. Each student teacher is required to design two lesson plans: one for junior, and one for senior high school levels. At the beginning of the semester, student teachers develop lesson plans to be used in junior high schools, preferably focusing on the topics they will be teaching in schools later. While working on their lesson plans, student teachers mobilize all of the pedagogical knowledge they have gained in the prerequisite courses. They are also encouraged to consult their university mentors about problematic parts of their lesson plans. Afterwards, each student teacher is given 20 min to teach parts of their lesson plans to their classmates, who pretend to be junior high school students. This simulation is a valuable experience for student teachers as it helps them to transfer theoretical knowledge to classroom practice. The teaching is immediately followed by a 70-min reflection in a supportive forum, which means UNESA allocates 90 min for each student teacher at this stage. First, student teachers are invited to self-reflect on their mini lessons and justify their decisions regarding the methodology and materials used. Then, thorough peer reflection follows. Both peers and mentors offer constructive feedback, the purpose of which is to identify strengths and weaknesses of the classes taught, and to provide ideas for the latter to be improved in the future. The same procedure is applied to the design of lesson plans for senior high schools. The time allocation of the above activities is shown in Table 2.

In the second part of the semester, student teachers prepare for *micro-teaching*. In this phase, student teachers teach in groups. They remain in the same groups as in peer teaching, but their task is different. This time, they develop lesson plans in groups, collaborating in writing scripts of what they intend to say to their EFL students. When the scripts are ready, student teachers perform the simulation in the micro-teaching lab (a sound-proof room designed to resemble a small classroom for 12 students) with the help of their peers acting as their EFL students. Although micro-teaching is encouraged to be done with real schoolchildren, UNESA does not

Table 2 Time allocation for the PPP practicum

	General lecture	Modelling teaching	Peer teaching and feedback (junior high level)	Peer teaching and feedback (senior high level)	Micro-teaching and feedback (senior high level)
Number of students	90–100	8	8	8	5
Number of weeks	3	2	4	4	2
Number of hours	9	6	12	12	6

Table 3 Description of the simulation in micro-teaching

Student teachers	Stages of the lesson	Activities	Time allocation (min)
A	Pre-teaching	<i>Opening</i> : checking attendance, apperception	5
B	While-teaching	<i>Teaching a receptive skill</i> : reading or listening	10
C	While-teaching	<i>Teaching a language component</i> : vocabulary, grammar, or pronunciation	10
D	While-teaching	<i>Teaching a productive skill</i> : writing or speaking	10
E	Post-teaching	<i>Closing</i> : summary, homework	5

practise this due to several ethical issues. The format of the micro-teaching simulation is presented in Table 3.

There are eight student teachers in each group, but only five of them practise teaching. The rest act as EFL students; nine student teachers from other groups are also invited to act as language learners. At the very beginning, one of the five student teachers starts the lesson by checking attendance and revising material from the previous class. This part lasts 5 min. The second continues the lesson by teaching a receptive skill, either reading or listening, for about 10 min. Afterwards, two other student teachers take it in turns and focus on teaching productive skills, 10 min each. The simulation ends with a summary of the whole lesson by the last student teacher, who also sets a homework assignment. This stage takes 5 min. The above process is videotaped and a few days later the group meets again to watch the video, critically reflect on it, and provide ideas of how to improve teaching. The feedback provided is very supportive in nature and seeks to boost student teachers' confidence.

It must be clarified here that student teachers have several opportunities in the course of the semester to practise different stages of the lesson. UNESA does it in this way for two reasons. Firstly, learning – constructing knowledge and acquiring new skills – is a developmental process. Secondly, the university is aware of a high level of anxiety among student teachers, and thus reduces it by giving them relatively long pauses between their teaching events. The latter has recently been observed not to bring the desired result. In consequence, new ways of dealing with the existing problem are being discussed. One possible solution is offering student

Table 4 The PPP practicum in host schools: time allocation per student teacher

	Observing experienced EFL teachers	Classroom teaching	Reflective report	Non-teaching activities
No of weeks	2	6	1	8
No of hours per week	3	3	8	2–4
Total (h)	6	18	8	128

teachers more practice so that they can learn to control their anxiety, and hopefully derive pleasure from teaching in the end.

Having participated in the simulations at the peer teaching and micro-teaching phases, pre-service teachers embark on their *student teaching* experience. In this last phase of the practicum, they are placed in secondary schools located in and around Surabaya to teach students for 9 weeks. The details of the time allocated for each UNESA student teacher are presented in Table 4.

After student teachers spend 45 h – devoted to peer teaching and micro-teaching – on campus, they then spend 160 h at host schools in the 8-week span. They observe experienced teachers during the first 2 weeks. Then, they practise teaching for 6 weeks, usually 3 h per week. In the final week, they write a reflective report about their teaching experience.

Student teachers have two types of mentors: university mentors and host school mentors. These two mentors work closely with each other. During this collaboration, the university mentors inform the host school mentors about the pedagogical knowledge and skills that were developed during the various university courses. Host school mentors then ensure that the university material is transferred to the classroom practice. The university mentors visit student teachers at host schools twice during the practicum, while the host school mentors become the leading mentors facilitating all possible aspects of the pre-service teachers' practice.

By working closely with their host school mentors, student teachers learn how to bridge theory and practice. They are also expected to design high-quality lesson plans that reflect their understanding of teaching methodology as well as materials development/adaptation. All lesson plans are evaluated by the host school mentors; the evaluation criteria include: clear aims and stages of the lesson, appropriate methodology, a variety of teaching materials and interaction types, and diverse formative assessments.

As mentioned earlier, the *PPG* practicum differs from *PPP* in that it focuses on teacher certification. As a consequence, the *PPG* practicum involves both teaching and non-teaching activities. The *PPG* practicum spans 2 semesters – 16 weeks each. Student teachers spend the first semester at the UNESA campus, whereas the second semester they teach in host schools. Table 5 presents the time allocation for the *PPG* practicum that takes place on the campus.

Altogether, student teachers spend 520 h on the campus. Many activities student teachers are involved in there take the form of workshops. For example, 12 h of workshops are allocated to prepare for peer teaching, where student teachers design six lesson plans with teaching materials for grades seven to 12. Having received

Table 5 The PPG practicum on the campus

	Workshops (junior and senior high school levels)	Peer teaching (junior high level)	Peer teaching (senior high level)
No of students	25	10	10
No of weeks	14	1	1
No of hours	490	15	15

Table 6 Time allocation for the PPG practicum in host schools

	Observation	Classroom teaching	Non-teaching activities	Reflective report	Action research report	Portfolio
No of weeks	2	13		1	3	2
No of hours per week	9	9	27.5	15	10	10
Total hours	18	117	440	15	30	20

detailed feedback and suggestions from their two mentors, student teachers then revise their lesson plans and teaching materials accordingly. The revised lesson plans and materials will later be taught at the relevant host schools, and finally included in their teaching practice portfolios.

Regarding the host school experience, *PPG* student teachers spend 8 h a day there, 5 days a week for 4 months (Table 6). The objective of the teaching activities is to provide student teachers with classroom experience in which they can combine theory and practice. Each pre-service teacher is expected to teach 117 h in the period of 13 weeks. In reality, however, the number of hours may vary, depending on the host school's expectations.

Additionally, student teachers are required to observe their own classes very carefully as well as identify and solve classroom problems so that the learning process is not impeded in any way. Afterwards, the various problems and solutions are detailed in student teachers' action research reports. The purpose of these reports is to promote action research in the classroom – one of the compulsory tasks of qualified EFL teachers in Indonesia.

By contrast, the non-teaching activities are arranged in order to help student teachers to take part in activities which directly support the teaching-learning process. The non-teaching activities are related, among other things, to student guidance and counselling, and planning and organizing extracurricular activities for students.

During the practicum, student teachers are mentored by their host school teachers on a regular basis. Professional guidance is provided to the *PPG* student teachers in relation to both pedagogical and non-pedagogical duties. Additionally, university mentors are expected to visit student teachers at schools to check whether their teaching practice is running smoothly. What this entails is concisely presented in the next section.

4.4 *Supervision of the Practicum*

In the *PPP* and *PPG* practica, student teachers are encouraged to work both in groups and individually. They are supervised by both university and host school mentors. The former must fulfil the following requirements: holding a master's or doctoral degree in TESOL, having at least 10-years' of teaching experience, demonstrating mastery of pedagogical knowledge and skills, having a high proficiency in English, and showing a strong commitment to professional development. University mentors are appointed by The Head of the TEFL Study Programme in the English Department on a yearly basis.

Host school mentors, on the other hand, must meet the following requirements: holding a bachelor's degree in TEFL and a teacher certificate, having at least 10 years' experience in teaching English, and demonstrating evidence of participating in UNESA-organised training focusing on mentoring student teachers during the practicum. The training is earmarked for mentors based in host schools as well as the university, and seeks to develop their understanding about mentoring, as well as familiarize them with relevant tasks they will have to complete before, during and after the practicum.

In general, mentors guide student teachers in planning, conducting and evaluating lessons, but with time, their involvement in these three activities is reduced so that towards the end of their practicum student teachers can demonstrate that they can perform a number of pedagogical tasks independently. Reflection is an important part of the practicum. Both university and host school mentors are expected to be reflective practitioners and serve as role models to student teachers in this particular respect. As a result, critical reflection is systematically practised to enable student teachers to "gain a better understanding of relatively complicated or unstructured ideas [related to schools in general and teaching in particular], and is largely based on the reprocessing of knowledge, understanding and ... emotions that [they] already possess" (Moon 2005, p. 1).

As mentioned earlier, host school mentors play a major role in the practicum supervision, and therefore assist student teachers on a daily basis. Regarding the university mentors, they are required to visit local schools to supervise their student teachers. UNESA normally schedules two such visits in the duration of the practicum. During these visits, the university mentors need to perform several tasks. These include: (1) observe student teachers in the classroom; (2) check whether or not the practicum documentation is detailed and up to date; (3) reflect with student teachers on the practicum experience to identify their pedagogical strengths and weaknesses; (4) discuss with student teachers their overall satisfaction with the practicum, including their host school mentors, school facilities, schools' contribution to students teachers' professional development; (5) review, together with host school mentors and school principals if required by the schools, student teachers' progress and professional attitude, and finally (6) identify broadly defined problems that the university should be aware of in relation to the practicum experience of its pre-service teachers. As soon as the practicum comes to an end, student teachers as well as their mentors submit the relevant documents to UNESA, where they need to be processed and officially approved.

Table 7 Assessment of the practicum at UNESA

<i>PPP</i>			<i>PPG</i>		
Components	Weighting (%)	Assessors	Components	Weighting (%)	Assessors
Peer teaching and micro-teaching	30	Student teachers, university mentors	Peer teaching	20	Student teachers, university mentors
Student teaching	30	Host teachers, university mentors	Student teaching	20	Host teachers, university mentors
Social and affective competences	10	Host teachers, university mentors	Social and affective competences	10	Host teachers, university mentors
Practicum report	30	University mentors	Portfolio	15	University mentors
			Practicum report	20	University mentors
			Action research report	15	University mentors

4.5 Evaluation and Assessment of the Practicum

In line with the principles of social constructivism, the assessment of pre-service teachers' performance in the practica, both at *PPP* and *PPG* levels, focuses on the process rather than the end product. Therefore, student teachers' performance is assessed both qualitatively and quantitatively by means of various instruments throughout the practicum (Table 7). To minimize subjectivity and give student teachers experience of assessment as early as possible, the English Department requires all parties to be involved in this process by doing self-, peer and teacher assessment.

The assessment in *PPP* and *PPG* has similarities and differences with respect to its components, weighting, and assessors. The grading system at the *PPP* and *PPG* levels is similar in that it takes four components into account: (1) peer teaching (and micro-teaching in *PPP*), (2) student teaching, (3) social and affective competences, and (4) the practicum report (the reflective report at the *PPP* level, and the portfolio and the action research report at the *PPG* level). During the simulations in the peer teaching and micro-teaching phases, university mentors and student teachers collaboratively complete questionnaires based on a five-point-scale (Appendix A and Appendix B). The averages of the scores from the self-, peer and mentor assessments are computed, and make up 30 per cent of the *PPP* and 20 per cent of the *PPG* grades.

Regarding the student teaching phase, the assessment of student teachers' performance is done solely by mentor teachers in the host schools and the university mentors from UNESA. The assessment procedure includes not only teaching activities, but also non-teaching tasks, for example, observing school management systems,

attending staff meetings, assisting school counsellors in dealing with students' learning problems, and participating in extracurricular activities. The student teaching phase contributes 30% of the *PPP* and 20% of the *PPG* grades.

Another similarity in the assessment of student teachers' performance is the inclusion of social and affective competences in the practicum process. More specifically, these include cooperation, work ethics, discipline, care about others, responsibility, politeness, and courtesy that are reflected in their behaviours during their student teaching. Both stages contribute 10% to the final grade.

There are two components that additionally determine the final grades at the *PPG* level, thus making it different from the *PPP* stage. One of the components is the practicum portfolio, which consists of all the lesson plans and teaching materials student teachers have designed and used in the classroom. *PPG* portfolios make up 15% of student teachers' final grades, and so does the other component, namely the classroom action research report. As mentioned earlier, the classroom action research report describes the issues and problems that student teachers encountered and solved during their practicum.

The submission of all the grades to UNESA finalises the practicum journey for the pre-service teachers. Successful pre-service teachers are then awarded the long-awaited certificates by the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education. For the mentors and staff from the Practicum Management Unit at UNESA, the journey does not end here. The latter group now engages in critical reflection on the recently-completed practicum. The purpose of this stage is to identify various strengths and challenges, and to address them in a relatively short period of time. Some of these are briefly presented in the next section.

4.6 Strengths and Challenges in Enacting the Practicum

The practicum programme brings a number of benefits. It is the only programme that enables student teachers to combine theoretical and practical types of knowledge in real schools under expert supervision. Another benefit is the positive change of mindset on the part of student teachers. After the practicum, they realise that teaching is a complex process in which teachers must efficiently orchestrate such components as the curriculum, teaching methodology, materials, as well as deal with learners' individual differences, such as English proficiency levels, interests or motivation.

The university also benefits from the practicum because of the link between the university as a teacher training institution and the host schools as venues for student teachers' practica. The close relationship enables the university to transfer some of the best practices from schools to its own context. Additionally, the English Department has a chance to better understand EFL teachers' needs and challenges, and address them in their teacher education programmes. The schools, on the other hand, are systematically updated on the latest pedagogical and empirical developments regarding English language learning and teaching. Furthermore, the quality

of mentoring of host school teachers is enhanced not only due to the regular conversations they have with university mentors, but also due to the various continuing professional development courses on mentoring that UNESA offers them. Finally, serving as a mentor for a well-known university also enhances host school teachers' prestige in the local environment.

Apart from the various benefits, the enactment of the practicum also faces challenges. The first one is related to the on-campus mentoring, whereby mentors are recruited in a fairly complex and criterion-based process. From time to time, university lecturers are invited to play the role of mentors for student teachers without meeting all the criteria. This is a recent phenomenon related to the growing numbers of students in the English Department. To alleviate this challenge, the English Department regularly organizes seminars and workshops for inexperienced mentors. These seminars and workshops, informally called upgrading events, aim to support mentors in their new roles and improve their pedagogical knowledge and skills.

Some mentors find it challenging to combine the time spent on mentoring with other academic duties. As a result, they may show a lack of commitment to student teachers and their development. Similarly, some student teachers can also be a challenge, especially those with low levels of motivation. It should be clarified that not all students enrolled in the TEFL Study Programme want to be teachers. Some of them attend the programme only because they want to master English. As the practicum is compulsory, UNESA mentors have to put a lot of effort into motivating such students so that their performance is satisfactory and their EFL students are not disadvantaged in any way.

The challenges occur not only at the university level; some challenges also exist at the host schools where student teachers conduct their teaching practice. For example, there are cases where schools recruit inexperienced mentors to supervise UNESA's student teachers. Several cases have been reported in which student teachers were treated as substitute teachers; as a result, they were provided with insufficient support in relation to developing lesson plans and conducting lessons, or sometimes, they were simply asked to teach classes independently without any guidance and feedback. To prevent such situations UNESA now carefully monitors the process.

5 Conclusion, Future Directions and Trends Foreseen

Evaluating the practicum provides a foundation for the English Department not only to identify growing trends, but also determine the future directions of English teacher training at UNESA, both at the *PPP* and *PPG* stages. The practicum that UNESA currently offers enables pre-service teachers not only to plan innovative and up-to-date instruction, but also to deliver it successfully. It also seeks to transform pre-service teachers into reflective practitioners who constantly examine their own practice to maximize the learning experience of their students. As an English Department, we are steadily growing, and hope to continue to educate teachers for a better tomorrow.

There are three issues that are our priority for the foreseeable future. Firstly, the TESOL practicum needs to promote more classroom action research. This kind of research makes classroom changes manageable and empowers teachers’ professional growth. Secondly, more intensive off-campus mentoring needs to be offered to student teachers to ensure they receive quality feedback on their teaching as well as grow personally and professionally. Thirdly, the English Department plans to incorporate Lesson Study in real teaching experience at the host schools. Lesson Study is a professional development practice where educators plan, conduct, evaluate and reflect on lessons collaboratively with peers (Arani et al. 2010; Myers 2012). By implementing it in EFL student teaching at schools, university mentors could facilitate student teachers’ knowledge and skills on a regular basis and train them to be reflective educators (Cirocki and Farrell 2017).

Appendices

Appendix A: Instrument to Evaluate the Lesson Plans in Peer Teaching and Micro-teaching

EVALUATION OF LESSON PLAN IN THE SIMULATION						
Instructions						
Evaluate the lesson plan by circling the scores in the right column.						
1 = very poor						
2 = poor						
3 = moderate						
4 = good						
5 = very good						
No	Aspects to Evaluate	Scores				
1	The clarity of the learning objectives (unambiguous and measuring the learning behaviours).	1	2	3	4	5
2	The selection of learning materials (relevant to the learning objectives and the learners’ characteristics).	1	2	3	4	5
3	The organization of the learning materials (systematic and suitable to the time allocation).	1	2	3	4	5
4	The selection of learning resources and teaching aids (in line with the learning objectives, materials and the learners’ characteristics).	1	2	3	4	5
5	The clarity of the learning scenario (the procedures at the beginning, the middle and the end of the lesson)	1	2	3	4	5
6	The detail of the learning scenario (the relevant techniques/methods and the time allocation in each step)	1	2	3	4	5
7	The relevance between the assessment technique and the learning objectives, e.g. authentic assessment, portfolio and observation	1	2	3	4	5
8	The instruments of assessment (tests, answer keys and scoring guidelines)	1	2	3	4	5
Total score						
Score = $\frac{\text{Total score}}{40} \times 100 = \dots$		Assessor, 				

Appendix B: Instrument to Evaluate the Pre-service Teachers' Performance in Peer Teaching and Micro-teaching

EVALUATION OF PERFORMANCE IN THE SIMULATION						
Instructions						
Evaluate the pre-service teachers' performance by circling the scores in the right column.						
1 = very poor						
2 = poor						
3 = moderate						
4 = good						
5 = very good						
No	Indicators	Scores				
PRETEACHING						
1	Prepare the students to learn.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Do apperception, motivate the learners, and state the learning objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
WHILE-TEACHING						
A. Mastery of learning materials						
3	Master the learning materials.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Relate the materials to relevant fields of study.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Explain the materials clearly, suitable to the learners' characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Relate the materials to daily life.	1	2	3	4	5
B. Teaching strategies						
7	Teach in line with the basic competences and the learners' characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Teach by using a scientific approach (observing, questioning, associating, experimenting and communicating).	1	2	3	4	5
9	Manage the class well.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Encourage contextual learning.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Encourage positive learning habits.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Stay within the allotted time.	1	2	3	4	5
C. Teaching aids						
13	Use teaching aids effectively and efficiently.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Give positive messages to the learners.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Involve the learners in using the media.	1	2	3	4	5
D. Learning engagement						
16	Encourage active participation of students.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Be open-minded to students' responses.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Make the students enthusiastic in learning.	1	2	3	4	5
E. Assessment of learning process						
19	Monitor the learning progress while teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Perform assessment to evaluate the achievement of learning objectives, e.g. written test, performance test, attitude test and portfolio (authentic assessment is preferable).	1	2	3	4	5
F. Language use						
21	Use written and spoken language well.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Express ideas systematically.	1	2	3	4	5
POST-TEACHING						
23	Do reflection about and make summary of the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Follow them up with a remedial/enrichment activity or assignment.	1	2	3	4	5
Total score						
<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin-bottom: 10px;"> Score = $\frac{\text{Total score}}{120} \times 100 = \dots$ </div> <div style="text-align: right;"> Assessor, </div>						

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The TESOL Practicum: A Diverse Landscape



Andrzej Cirocki, Irshat Madyarov, and Laura Baecher

Abstract This chapter provides a summary of the practicum cases from around the world presented in this volume. Specific themes addressed include: theoretical underpinnings, construction of teacher knowledge, enhancing teacher reflection, the position of English in the global TESOL landscape, partnerships with the larger community, and the role of mentors. Key takeaways and insights for TESOL educators in various contexts are highlighted such as the innovation and originality found in these TESOL programmes, challenges they face, and proposed questions for future practice and research.

The purpose of the current volume has been to depict the TESOL practicum in 13 countries in order to better understand and essentialize this critical component of TESOL teacher education programmes. These descriptions are enriched with snapshots of significant trends that have been shaping English language teacher education in the selected teaching contexts. Thus, jointly, these 13 chapters portray current and global orientations in the ideology of teacher education in the field of TESOL. This ideology is underpinned by the beliefs, principles, and standards constructed and followed by local and international teacher educators, ELT leaders and educational researchers, who not only set out the course of action for teacher education to advance, but also formulate priorities that lead to the sustainability of student teachers' professional learning.

As put forth in the first chapter of this volume, learning to teach is a very complex process and is affected by the student teachers' sociocultural contexts in which they carry out their practica. These contexts include preparation programmes and partner

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schools with numerous internal and external policies, all of which shape the student teachers' experiences. Additionally, numerous cognitive processes connected to acquiring, understanding and making use of different types of knowledge come into play. No less importantly, student teachers' identity development connects their external and internal worlds as they learn to think, know, feel and act as teachers (Feiman-Nemser 2008). The knowledge, competences and skills that student teachers construct and develop during their studies are also influenced by their mentors' beliefs, knowledge and practices. This observation is corroborated by Williams and Burden (1997, p. 53), who state that mentors' "words ... actions and ... interactions form part of every individual [student teacher's] own construction of knowledge." Mentors' beliefs, actions and practices form part of student teachers' creation of knowledge, and contribute to the construction of narratives that give meaning to the development of student teachers' personal and professional identity.

The various models of the TESOL practicum presented in this volume show several points of similarity. For example, the practicum component for the most part takes up the ideologies of social constructivism. This is evidenced by approaches which position teacher learning as an experiential, reflective and contextualised process. In this process, student teachers are perceived as "complex, culturally bound, communicative beings, not mere reproducers [of knowledge]" (Cirocki 2016, p. 35), whereas their mentors, the so-called more knowledgeable others, are those who at the right moment provide "a protective umbrella of explanations (...), clarifications" (Mason 1990, p. 2) as well as a broadly defined scaffolding which facilitates student teachers' cognitive, emotional, social and professional development.

Although TESOL practica are designed in unique ways in different contexts, their common aim is to enable student teachers to develop their knowledge of classroom teaching. This holds true in the 13 countries included in this volume. Teaching knowledge has two component parts: *pedagogical content/subject knowledge* and *knowledge of learners* (Golombek 1998; Johnson and Goettsch 2000; Shulman 1986). Knowledge of learners is, among other things, about the characteristics that language learners of different ages, gender and backgrounds bring to the teaching-learning process. Pedagogical content/subject knowledge, on the other hand, as Shulman (1986, p. 9) puts it:

(...) embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability (...) the most regularly taught topics in [a particular] subject area ... the most useful forms of representation of those ideas (...) the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations (...), the ways of representing (...) the subject that make it comprehensible to others.

The systematic development of teaching knowledge contributes to the development of professional competence in core areas. Some of these core sub-competences include: instructional delivery, personal effectiveness, research skills, reflective practice, and career and professional development. The various elements of these sub-competences seem to be integrated into the presented TESOL programmes, yet their extent varies from one context to another. The reasons for this are miscellaneous, and more often than not include contextual, financial, organizational as well

as expertise-, technology- and needs-related factors. By way of illustration, in Chile, close attention is given to the use of educational technology and teacher engagement in professional development. In Croatia, a critical approach to classroom observation is promoted, so that theory and practice can be combined in student teachers' observation tasks or diary entries. In Malta, student teachers develop research skills to be able to investigate classroom issues.

Reflection is another aspect that deserves special attention. As the present volume has shown, reflection is an important part of teacher education in the selected countries. During the practicum, student teachers engage in reflection that in Farrell's (2015, p. 123) terms is viewed as "a cognitive process, accompanied by a set of attitudes in which [student] teachers systematically collect data about their practice, and while engaging in dialogue with others use the data to make informed decisions about their practice both inside and outside the classroom." It is also important to note that at different stages of their practicum, student teachers are encouraged to engage in reflection-in-action, reflection-on-action and reflection-for-action (Grushka et al. 2005; Schön 1983). The purpose of this exercise is to create situations in which student teachers learn to "compare theory with practice, ask probing questions about the teaching-learning process, analyse cause-effect relationships between teaching and learning, and seek optimal solutions for classroom dilemmas" (Cirocki and Farrell 2017, p. 7).

Another similarity that the 13 teaching contexts share is the universal promotion of British and American forms of English in the classroom. In times of vigorous debates about English as an international language, the above statement may be a source of disappointment for many. Although most English language interactions occur among non-native speakers these days, the concept of English as an international language, or English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), in TESOL practica, seems to exist more in theory than in practice. Such a state of affairs may be related to certain unspoken assumptions that exist in some countries that British English and American English are superior to other varieties, for example, those with colonial roots. In Europe, for example, British English is commonly considered "a superior model" or "a prestige variety" (McKenzie 2010, p. 60). However, as some of the preceding chapters have revealed, there are some deviations from the established norm. For example, in Australia, "TESOL teacher education courses are offered to satisfy the needs of distinct cohorts, [including] students who will teach (...) English as an International Language," whereas in the USA, there are programmes that "empower individuals with English as the lingua franca for mobility around the world." This highlights the potential influence of being situated in Anglophone contexts on beliefs about language variety.

As ELF is not a new notion, and its importance has so far been discussed on a number of occasions (Jenkins 2014; Jenkins et al. 2018; Kirkpatrick 2010; Seidlhofer 2011), one would expect to see clear educational policies, or at least determined attempts, to integrate the concept of English as a global language into classroom instruction in the selected countries. Likewise, their teacher education programmes would be expected to raise student teachers' awareness of ELF and draw their attention to various sociolinguistic concepts related to it, including the ownership of

English, plurilingualism, native vs. non-native English discourse, and the *Lingua Franca Core*, to name but a few. Unfortunately, there is no explicit mention of these in this volume.

The concluding chapter would not be complete without addressing the originality and innovation embedded in some of the practica in this volume. While many of these ideas have been cited in the literature, they are still exceptional on the landscape of the TESOL practicum and deserve highlighting. These practices are categorized into those related to the inner workings of the practica within TESOL programmes, and those concerned with the relationships between the practicum cases and their external contexts.

An important strength related to the inner structure of some TESOL programmes and their practica comes from clearly articulated standards or performance expectations for student teachers (e.g., in Malta and the UK). Those expectations are well aligned with specific learning experiences and assessment practices that keep the bar high in courses and modules, including practica. Related to the standards is a unique practicum case in Sweden, where student teachers are prepared to teach two school subjects, a model that brings an inter-disciplinary approach to what in many countries is a compartmentalized educational system. Further, practicum cases from Armenia, Indonesia, Japan, Poland and Sweden report multiple, extensive and varied types of fieldwork opportunities, including observations, teacher assistance, research, tutoring and administrative work, besides the actual classroom teaching. Such extensive exposure during the practicum immerses student teachers in the school culture and helps them to become part of the teaching community of practice (Lave and Wenger 1991). Armenia and Costa Rica share their approach of utilizing team-teaching between student teachers. When set up properly, they provide additional peer support and reduce an intensive observation demand placed on practicum supervisors. In Japan and the US, student teachers self-assess and reflect on their teaching practices with the help of video-recordings of their own classes. Chile, South Korea and CELTA in the UK have incorporated continuous formative assessment with plenty of feedback in the form of post-observation conferences and written comments provided to their student teachers throughout the practicum experience. Finally, a number of TESOL programmes realize a key role of supervisors and cooperating teachers, who are carefully selected, prepared and monitored for quality performance.

The second category of good practices belongs to the relationships between the TESOL programmes and the larger community. Incentivizing cooperating teachers from local schools is a frequently reported challenge, which impacts their commitment to and the resultant quality of the practicum. To address this challenge, some TESOL programmes, like the one reported in Chile, invite cooperating teachers to attend university courses. A few TESOL programmes keep their finger on the pulse for needs in the local market as well as those of their alumni and adjust their practicum expectations accordingly. The practicum profiled in Costa Rica places student teachers to develop, teach and research an ESP course given the demands of particular departments such as nursing, engineering, and statistics. Armenia, Sweden, and the US practicum cases demonstrate how student teachers are prepared to be agents of

social change by engaging in community outreach and by exploring issues of social justice and equity in their practica. The cases in Japan and Malta adapt the structures and expectations of the practicum to the needs of their English learner populations, in-service teachers and in-service teachers' work-related constraints. Finally, a few cases (e.g., Croatia) report smoothly working partnerships with local schools for practicum placements. The practicum case in the US shares an example of student teacher placements outside their country, which provides a rich exposure to a new culture and service to the local communities where student teachers are placed.

Besides the various similarities and innovations, the individual contexts have signalled several challenges. Many programmes believe that the number of teaching hours could grow and be distributed more evenly throughout the programme, rather than being placed in one or few learning milestones throughout the course of study. Diverse English learner populations in some contexts, for example, refugees, occupational ESP, EAP, or children vs. adults, require further attention to the complex decision making about practicum placements. Some TESOL practica place unreasonable demands on their supervisors, who are asked to mentor too many student teachers to the detriment of their learning outcomes. In some practicum cases, there are conflicts in teaching beliefs and expectations between the partner schools and TESOL programmes. Finally, some of the successes discussed above remain challenges in other contexts. These include concerns related to the selection and preparation of supervisors and cooperating teachers, limited resources to build strong partnerships with schools, and challenges scheduling practicum placements with the partner schools.

While on the one hand this volume looks into diverse models of practica, on the other, it allows analysis of the extent to which recent trends in TESOL have found a home in teacher education in the 13 contexts. In other words, the chapters reveal how contemporary theory and practice intertwine, and what works, what poses problems and what needs to be improved in relevant teacher education programmes. The purpose of this in-depth review is to encourage colleagues in the field to critically reflect on their own teacher education programmes to identify their strengths and weaknesses, and to continue the debate outside this volume.

On closer inspection, it can be seen that some of the current trends are triggered by larger globalization processes, whereas others are more specific to the field of TESOL. The reported cases suggest that globalization is making a significant impact on the TESOL field and practicum experiences. For example, there is a continuous growth in demand for English language teachers and a steady increase in the diversity of English learners, including immigrant, occupational, ESP, EAP and young learners. In many contexts, English language learners are also expected to develop multiple literacies, use educational technology and demonstrate autonomy, and in some cases, social responsibility. These new additions to the language curriculum place increased demands on English language teachers in different parts of the world, and responsive TESOL programmes accordingly adapt their curricula and practica to expose their student teachers to all these innovations, to ensure that high-quality and relevant instruction is offered, and conducive and supportive learning environments are created.

Although this volume primarily distinguishes between British and American English, there is some evidence that in certain countries ELF is assuming more and more importance, obviating the need for students to sound native-like. This desirable change validates the role of non-native English teachers, at the same time making the dichotomy between native- and non-native speaking instructors less problematic. Similarly, but to a significantly larger degree than the English language, teacher education programmes and their practica in the selected EFL contexts have moved into the outer circle and become nativized in certain regards, thus deviating from long-established UK or US models. This is specifically visible in the localization of the structure and length of the practicum, mentorship requirements, the fostering of reflection among student teachers, to name but a few.

The other trends observed in the reported cases reflect the changes in the TESOL field. For instance, there is strong evidence that the TESOL programmes are guided by principled teaching methodology, as befits the post-methods era. As such, the presented TESOL programmes support eclecticism in teaching, and encourage their student teachers to aim for the three well-known pedagogical parameters of particularity (i.e., promoting pedagogy that considers institutional, socio-cultural and local contexts), practicality (i.e., combining theory and practice while teaching, and theorizing from own teaching practice) and possibility (i.e., surpassing limitations and boundaries) in their teaching practicum experiences (Kumaravadivelu 2001).

Another interesting observation that emerges from the current volume is related to the social construction of teacher identity and its role in teaching and teacher learning. Although the construct of language teacher identity is not explicitly discussed in the individual chapters, this theme does weave through the volume. Teacher identity is here portrayed as a dynamic construct that is formed by the context in which teachers operate, which once again, highlights the importance of integrating local aspects, such as regional policies or school-produced instructional materials, into teacher education programmes. What is more, the selected teacher education programmes perceive teacher identity as a core component of teacher learning, and rightly so. The emphasis is placed not only on what it means to be an English language teacher, but also on teachers' professional knowledge, that is, TESOL pedagogy, second language acquisition processes, and deep understanding of learners.

As teacher identity is a social construct, it requires conducive environments in which to grow, hence the need for teacher education programmes to promote communities of practice. Such communities can have different formats and diverse foci. As some of the chapters have demonstrated, TESOL practica naturally lend themselves to acting as "communities of practice" for a few reasons: (1) they often take place in local communities and schools; (2) they enable student teachers to work with, build professional relationships with and learn from other fellow student teachers and educators such as practicum mentors, school teachers and principals; (3) they give teachers time to critically discuss and reflect on their own and others' teaching experiences; and last but not least, (4) they may provide a platform for designing classroom innovations or classroom-based research. The latter appears to be promoted in very few contexts; thus, this volume sends a very important message to the field – the role of action research in teachers' work must be re-examined and successfully integrated into TESOL programmes.

The current volume suggests a number of important considerations for future practice and research. Addressing some of the challenges currently faced by TESOL programmes worldwide that have been raised in the preceding chapters will depend upon leadership from within these programmes. In addition, greater transparency among the professional community to allow for the sharing of promising practices can support problem solving and innovation. Some of the possible future directions of TESOL practica include both those that are more technical and practical and those that run much deeper and touch upon complex factors. On the technical side, some questions raised in this volume relate to the expectations of teaching and supervision in practica, including:

1. How many hours of actual teaching should the field expect from those with a teaching degree in TESOL to have had? The amount of the actual teaching varied widely in the cases in this volume, from as few as 15 h in a master's level programme up to 60 h in an undergraduate programme. Future research can consider what the affordances of extended teaching practice are, and at what point diminishing returns occur. Finding settings that are synchronous with the vision of the local programme and support of student teacher learning will continue to be challenging as schools are under increasing pressures and may not see themselves benefitting from the connection to the university's programmes. Relationships with sites will also continue to be a crucial element in determining opportunities to teach for practica.
2. What and whom will the student teachers be teaching? For example, there may still be a tendency to prepare teachers via adolescent and adult learners of English even though there are strong demands for teaching young learners. Students with disabilities are another population that very few student teachers have the opportunity to teach. Additionally, the trend towards content-based English language teaching was evident in some TESOL practica cases described, hence future directions could lead to more such courses being designed.
3. How many formal observations should student teachers participate in and what should the feedback they receive focus on? As the preceding chapters showed, the content, structure, quantity, frequency and formality of observations on practica vary in relation to the amount of practice teaching. In many cases, there appears to be an opportunity for consideration of greater use of pre-observation, for example, which seems to be largely absent. How can the feedback cycle be optimized by using video, student work samples and training in classroom observation for peers in the years ahead?
4. What value will we, as a field, continue to place on skilled supervision? Although supervision is a component part of all the practica described, going forward, there are opportunities for further development of supervisors' skills and leveraging those throughout the practicum. For instance, we still see supervisors used to rating single lessons; how can supervisors observe the coherence of curriculum across several lessons, support student teachers' use of student data, or be used in a differentiated manner to spend more time with weaker candidates? To achieve greater impact from supervision, programmes may also begin to consider how to develop the supervisor's capacity, through a supervisor's

professional development that attends to ensuring that there is a shared vision and understanding of the desired English language teaching practice.

5. How is language awareness fostered throughout the practicum experience? In some settings, student teachers' English proficiency needs to be developed along with their pedagogical knowledge; in Anglophone contexts, for instance, study abroad experiences can enhance empathy for the language learning process. What are the settings for English language teaching offered to student teachers, and do they reflect English-only, bilingual or content-based English learning environments? How are the varieties of English used, or the concept of ELF introduced in practica?

Deeper questions remain to be explored as well, as the practicum evolves in years to come. Fundamental to the practicum is problematizing received terminology such as “trainee,” that perceives teachers as beings to be trained and monitored vs. recognizing teachers as intellectual, creative and self-directed. Moving from a teacher “training” approach in practica to a teacher “development” stance might influence many of the curricular decisions that programmes make in the design of TESOL practica. Some of the decisions could be related to moving towards video records, student work samples and other data collection processes that position the student teacher as a researcher of practice; engaging student teachers in professional, collaborative dialogues rather than participating in one-way evaluation from supervisors; and seeking out new ways to envision reflective practice given the opportunities technology can provide.

The various cases presented in this volume capture the particularities of the TESOL practicum in diverse settings. They additionally open windows into how the practica mirror larger educational, societal, cultural and policy environments that the field of English language teaching transverses. Reducing the isolation many of us experience in the design and implementation of practica can only occur when we, as TESOL practitioners, join in this global dialogue. Only then will innovation, sustainability, and ultimately, improvement be fostered.

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