ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' COGNITION IN HANDLING LEARNERS' SPEAKING PROBLEMS

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ÖZET

ÖĞRENCİLERİN KONUŞMA SORUNLARINI ELE ALMA AÇISINDAN İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN BİLİŞİ

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Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
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Bu çalışmada Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü İngilizce öğretim elemanlarının konuşma öğretimine ilişkin algıları, davranışları ve bunlar arasındaki ilişki incelenerek bu öğretim elemanlarının öğrenim yaşantıları, mesleki donanımları, bağlam ve öğretim deneyimlerinden oluşan altyapı etmenlerinin konuşma becerisi öğretimine etkisi araştırılmıştır. Bu amaç doğrultusunda örnek olay incelemesi yapılmış; açık uçlu anket, gözlem, yansıtma raporu ve görüşme tekniklerinden yararlanılarak veri toplanmıştır. 28 öğretim elemanından genel görüşler alındıktan sonra aynı gruptan 5 kişiyle derinlemesine çalışılmıştır. Araştırma bulgularına göre öğretmenlerin çoğunluğu konuşmayı önemli bir beceri olarak görmekle ve bu becerinin gelişmesine yönelik önerilerde bulunmakla birlikte derinlemesine çalışılan üç öğretmenin öğretmen odaklı davranış sergiledikleri ve sınıfta öğrenci konuşmasının azaldığı gözlenmiştir. Bu bulguya ilişkin altyapı etmenlerinin etkisine bakıldığında ise öğrenim yaşantıları, bağlam ve öğretim deneyimlerinin üç öğretmenin üzerindeki etkisinin mesleki donanımın etkisinden daha fazla olduğu görülmüştür. Buna karşın iki öğretmen, mesleki donanım açısından kendilerini geliştirdiklerinden daha öğrenci odaklı etkinlikler gerçekleştirmişler ve bağlamdaki olumsuzluklardan diğer üç öğretmenden daha az söz etmişlerdir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Konuşma öğretimi, Öğretmen bilişi, Öğretmen algıları, Öğretmen davranışları, Altyapı etmenleri.

ABSTRACT

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' COGNITION
IN HANDLING LEARNERS' SPEAKING PROBLEMS

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Department of Foreign Language Education
Program in English Language Teaching
Anadolu University, Graduate School of Educational Sciences, June 2018
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This research was conducted at Foreign Languages Department of Eskişehir Osmangazi University with the aim of exploring English language teachers' perceptions, actions, correspondence between the two and the impact of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice on teaching speaking. In line with this aim, case study was carried out and data collection was implemented through open-ended questionnaires, observations, reflection reports and interviews. After gathering overall perceptions of 28 teachers, in-depth data were obtained from 5 teachers from the same group of participants. According to the findings of the research, most of the teachers perceived speaking as an important skill and made suggestions on improving this skill; however, three teachers' actions were observed to be teacher-centered and student oral production was observed to reduce. Considering the impact of the background factors, schooling, context and classroom practice were found to affect the three teachers more than professional coursework. In contrast, the two teachers who were involved in professional development did more learner-centered activities and mentioned contextual constraints less than the other three teachers.

Keywords: Teaching speaking, Teacher cognition, Teachers' perceptions, Teachers' actions, Background factors.

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I have always taken a Socratic saying as one of my guiding principles in my life: *Know thyself*. Conducting this research also became a challenging instrument for knowing myself as Yunus Emre (a Turkish mystical poet) says *"İlim kendin bilmektir"* (Science is to know thyself). During this journey of knowing myself, my guides and fellow travelers lightened my load; therefore, without mentioning their names, the thesis would be incomplete.

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Eskişehir 2018

05/06/2018

ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

Bu tezin bana ait, özgün bir çalışma olduğunu; çalışmamın hazırlık, veri toplama, analiz ve bilgilerin sunumu olmak üzere tüm aşamalarında bilimsel etik ilke ve kurallara uygun davrandığımı; bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilen tüm veri ve bilgiler için kaynak gösterdiğimi ve bu kaynaklara kaynakçada yer verdiğimi; bu çalışmanın Anadolu Üniversitesi tarafından kullanılan "bilimsel intihal tespit programı"yla tarandığını ve hiçbir şekilde "intihal içermediğini" beyan ederim. Herhangi bir zamanda, çalışmamla ilgili yaptığım bu beyana aykırı bir durumun saptanması durumunda, ortaya çıkacak tüm ahlaki ve hukuki sonuçları kabul ettiğimi bildiririm.

Sevgi GÖKÇE BATURLAR

05/06/2018

STATEMENT OF COMPLIANCE WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND RULES

I hereby truthfully declare that this thesis is an original work prepared by me; that I have behaved in accordance with the scientific ethical principles and rules throughout the stages of preparation, data collection, analysis and presentation of my work; that I have cited the sources of all the data and information that could be obtained within the scope of this study, and included these sources in the references section; and that this study has been scanned for plagiarism with "scientific plagiarism detection program" used by Anadolu University, and that "it does not have any plagiarism" whatsoever. I also declare that, if a case contrary to my declaration is detected in my work at any time, I hereby express my consent to all the ethical and legal consequences that are involved.

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1. INTRODUCTION

This research focuses on English language teachers' perceptions and actions in terms of teaching speaking and it takes the notion of teacher cognition as a point of departure. Thus, after expounding background to the study by describing the components and challenging features of speaking, the notion of teacher cognition together with its interaction with the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice is explained in this chapter. Research problem, aims, significance, scope and limitations of the study are also presented.

1.1. Background to the Study

Since English became the lingua franca in the era of globalization, teaching English as a foreign language has gained considerable significance. Thousands of people all over the world teach English to millions of people who devote effort to learning it. In other words, millions of learners want to be a "speaker" of English. They pursue this aim for various reasons such as getting a job, moving up career ladder, doing international business, travelling, communicating with foreign people, etc. Whatever their reason is, at least once they have encountered the question of "Do you speak English?" Ur (1996) also indicates that "people who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing" (p. 120). Then, what is meant by speaking and knowing how to speak?

Bygate (2002) defines speaking as a "multilevel, hierarchical skill, in which high-level plans, in the form of speaker intentions, are realized through the processes of formulation and articulation under a range of conditions" (p. 27). To visualize this definition, Bygate's (1987) analogy between speaking and driving would be appropriate. During driving, knowledge of the names of the controls of a vehicle is not sufficient; furthermore, the skill to use these controls properly at appropriate speed without putting oneself in danger is needed. Similarly, for speaking, he states that knowing how to assemble sentences should be combined with the skill to produce and to adapt them to circumstances. This process requires rapid decision-making, implementing decisions smoothly and adjusting conversation when unexpected problems appear just like driving. In line with Bygate's analogy, communication can be likened to traffic. In order to reach destination in communication, speakers should pay

attention to certain features of speaking just like driving: “dynamic”, “ever-changing”, “inter-personally oriented” and “contextually-defined” (Hughes, 2002, p. 15).

Similar to drivers who need gas pedal, brakes, steering wheel, etc. in order to drive, speakers also need to acquire certain components of speaking to communicate efficiently. Hinkel (2006) lists “fluency, accuracy, and a sufficient lexicogrammatical repertoire for meaningful communication” (p. 115) as requirements entailed in oral production. Harmer (2001) also divides elements of speaking into two. The first element pertains to knowledge of *language features* involving four subcomponents which are “connected speech”, “expressive devices”, “lexis and grammar” and “negotiation language”. To attain “connected speech”, speakers modify, omit, add or weaken phonemes. In order to make listeners sense the exact meaning of their utterances, speakers resort to “expressive devices” by adjusting pitch, stress, volume and speed of their voices, and by using body language. Speakers also have to possess “lexis and grammar” to perform certain language functions and “negotiation language” for clarification. The second element is *mental/social processing* which involves “language processing”, “interacting with others” and “on-the-spot information processing”. Language processing is related to retrieval of words and phrases from memory and their appropriate assembly in mind. Interacting with others requires effectively participating in conversations with one or more speakers by listening to each other and taking turns. Lastly, on-the-spot information processing is getting the message across as soon as it is received.

Likewise, Bygate (1987) touches upon “processing conditions” and “reciprocity conditions” as demands which are to be satisfied during spoken interaction and which can affect the nature of speech. In processing conditions, he underlines the time factor; speakers have to speak the moment they decide on the words. In contrast to writing, they have minimal time to make a plan in spontaneous speech. With reciprocity conditions he refers to speaker-listener relation in the process of speech. By taking the listener(s) into account, the speaker not only adapts his/her message but also pays attention to the listener’s reactions, which brings forth flexibility in communication.

Surrounded with the abovementioned features and conditions, speaking presents a vivid summary of a learner’s knowledge, skill and affective domain. First, learners need to have sociocultural knowledge, genre knowledge, speech acts, register, discourse, grammar, vocabulary and phonology. Secondly, they need to automate all this

knowledge to speak fluently. Finally, they have to overcome affective problems like lack of confidence or self-consciousness (Thornbury, 2005b). Furthermore, learners do not become successful in adopting such knowledge and skills necessary for speaking in a day; they have to go through developmental stages of *Awareness, Appropriation* and *Autonomy* (Thornbury, 2005b). At the stage of *Awareness*, learners pay attention to target language features, notice familiar and unfamiliar items and understand them through abundant exposure. At the stage of *Appropriation*, they integrate newly learned target language features into their existing knowledge base. Lastly, at the stage of *Autonomy*, learners are able to use the features they learned without assistance and under time pressure just as in usual speaking conditions (Thornbury, 2005b). In order to pass through these stages successfully, learners need to be guided by their teachers. Thus, during students' developmental journey of learning to speak, teachers' approach to teaching speaking is crucial for both providing knowledge necessary for speaking and training students patiently to attain fluency over time. Furthermore, unlike the other language skills, speaking involves the risk of losing face in front of others; as a result, teachers are responsible for increasing their learners' confidence, as well. Consequently, speaking stands out as a very important skill to show a teacher's expertise in terms of addressing all needs of learners and it has been a major focus in language teaching (Richards, 2003b). Speaking also reveals critical information about a learner's language proficiency on the spot; in second language learning speaking and writing provide "output" which has several functions: pushing learners to process language more deeply and to stretch their interlanguage to meet communicative goals, stimulating learners to move from processing for comprehension to processing for accurate production, promoting "noticing" through which learners not only notice the target language form but also notice what is different from their own interlanguage (a hole in their interlanguage), and leading learners to "hypothesis testing" (Swain, 2000). As an additional significance of speaking, learners and teachers can have "collaborative dialogue" which engages speakers in problem solving and knowledge building (Swain, 2000). Therefore, speaking is regarded as the single most important aspect of learning a language by many people (Nunan, 1991).

On the other hand, this significant skill poses challenges for learners and teachers in Turkish educational context. Learners are found to have problems with listening and speaking skills most (Bayram, 2011; Özkanal, 2009), and learners themselves describe

speaking and grammar the most challenging (Kayrak, 2010). They find themselves incompetent in A2-level spoken production (Gömleksiz and Özkaya, 2012) and they are inhibited and unwilling to speak (Esin, 2012). In another study by Güney (2010), students mention "thinking Turkish, trying to speak English", "speaking slowly", "lack of vocabulary knowledge", "difficulty in forming grammatical sentences" (p. 64) as their major problems which can actually be grouped in categories of fluency, accuracy and range. The students participating in the study mostly ascribe their speaking problems to their low language proficiency, lack of content knowledge and teaching materials and methods. Moreover, learners who comment on speaking activities in Şen's (2012) research do not find speaking activities sufficient and they suggest that speaking and listening skills should be taught separately from other language skills. In Tiryaki (2009), learners complain about insufficiency of speaking activities, and learning language skills at basic level and not surpassing it. Even pre-service English teachers feel incompetent in oral communication regardless of their motivational orientations about speaking (Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013).

In the studies above, Turkish language learners' problems with learning to speak English are laid bare, but teachers' critical role in teaching speaking and handling these problems should also be highlighted. For instance, Aydın (1999) investigated the sources of students' anxiety during learning to speak and to write, and found "teacher manners" and "teaching procedures" as two of the main factors causing learner anxiety in speaking classes. Learners having problems during speaking in Güney's (2010) research pointed out that teachers should provide a positive classroom environment comforting students and they should wait longer and more patiently for students' oral responses. Similarly, in Esin (2012), learners' inhibition and unwillingness to speak were put forth; thus it was suggested in the study that teachers should promote learners' confidence by enabling them to achieve their goals, sympathizing with their failures during participation in activities and praising their success. From teachers' perspective, on the other hand, Kabadayı (2013) and Tiryaki (2009) pointed out that English instructors at Turkish universities viewed the productive language skills of speaking and writing more difficult to teach and assess than the other skills; thus it can be presumed that teachers may be disadvantaged by their own perceptions in addition to students' negative feelings and perceptions during teaching speaking. However, the initiative to resolve both learners' and teachers' problems initially lies within the realm of teachers'

responsibility. Creating a favorable learning environment and teaching speaking effectively start with teachers' knowing their strengths and weaknesses on the basis of the concept of teacher cognition.

In this respect, Larsen-Freeman (2000) suggests that teachers should become aware of the thoughts that guide their action. In other words, a careful examination of one's thoughts as a teacher leads to reviewing one's actions in classroom. When one reviews his/her actions, it may get much easier to see better alternatives. Likewise, gaining knowledge of various teachers' thoughts guiding their actions about teaching speaking can show not only their limits of their cognition and actions but also limitless possibilities extending their thinking and acting. In other words, getting informed about the other teachers' cognition and actions may give helpful ideas and pedagogical implications to teachers who face similar problems in teaching. Hence, in this study, the notion of teacher cognition gives the opportunity to identify teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking, their observations of learners' speaking problems and their personal ways of handling these problems in certain conditions. The difference of this study is that beyond surveying teachers' perceptions and actions of speaking, it is aimed to examine how they teach it while backgrounded by four critical factors which might affect their cognition and actions.

1.2. Teacher Cognition

Teacher cognition is briefly described as "teachers' mental lives" and "Teacher cognition research is concerned with understanding what teachers think, know and believe" (Borg, 2009a, p. 1). The term began to have an impact on educational research in 1970s (Borg, 2003) and it brought the perspective that teachers are more than practitioners of determined curricula, and teaching is "viewed as a much more complex cognitively-driven process affected by the classroom context, the teachers' general and specific instructional goals, the learners' motivations and reactions to the lesson, the teacher's management of critical moments during a lesson" (Richards, 2008, p. 167). Therefore, teacher cognition encompasses not only observable in-class practices but also unobservable factors influencing these practices from teachers' point of view. Observable and unobservable aspects of teacher cognition can be seen in the "schematic conceptualisation of teaching within which teacher cognition plays a pivotal role in

teachers' lives" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Figure 1.1. displays the four dimensions affected by and/or affecting teacher cognition.

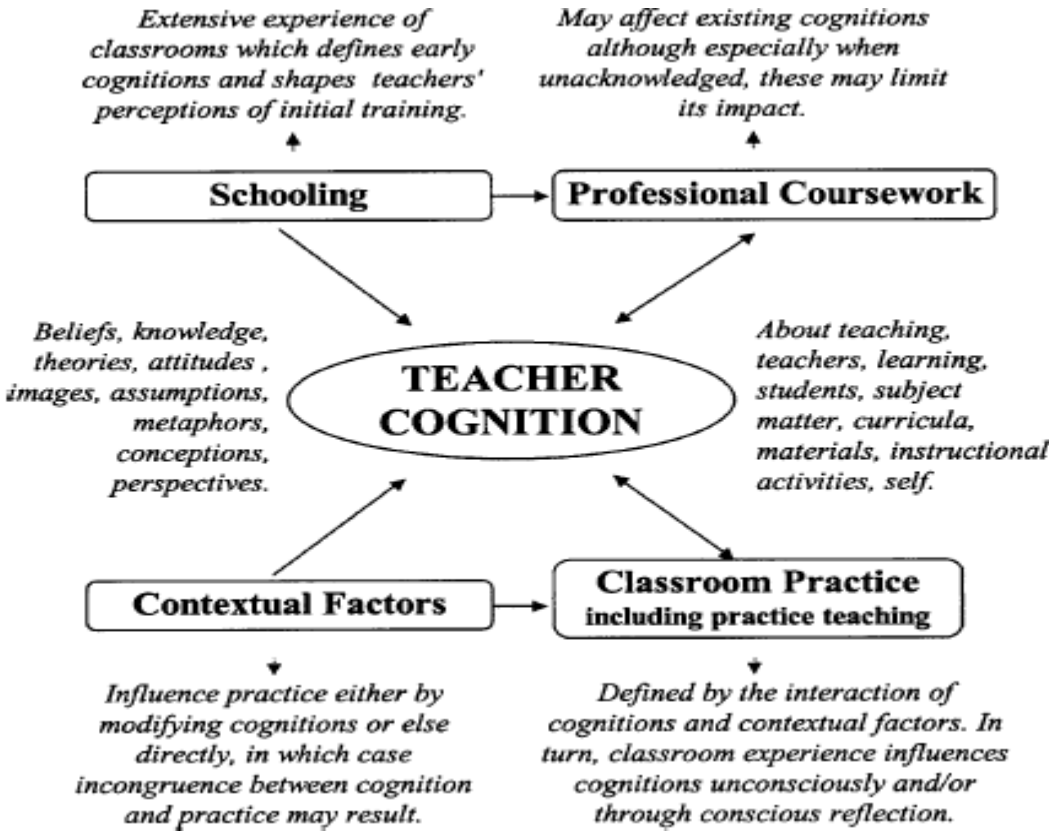

Figure 1.1. *Four factors affecting and affected by teacher cognition (Borg, 2003, p. 82)*

Schooling which is also defined as "apprenticeship of observation" (Lortie, 1975, cited in Bailey et al., 1996) is related to language teachers' prior knowledge and beliefs derived from observing their own teachers. It covers the period before a student starts to get professional teacher training, and its effects are considered to be ingrained and arising naturally (Bailey et al., 1996). Kennedy (1989) makes a simple calculation about this period starting from the kindergarten until university to concretize the effect of schooling:

> "By the time we receive our bachelor's degree, we have observed teachers and participated in their work for up to 3060 days. In contrast, teacher preparation programs usually require something in the neighborhood of 75 days of classroom experience. What could possibly happen during these 75 days to significantly alter the practices learned during the preceding 3060 days?" (p. 5)

Parallel to Kennedy's argumentation, Sanchez (2013) reports that resistant pre-training beliefs may affect teachers' educational processes to such an extent that

"teacher education courses have been observed to exert little or no impact on the development of such beliefs" (p. 52). Although there are studies contradicting Sanchez (Cabaroğlu and Roberts, 2000; Mattheoudakis, 2007), his argument draws attention to the strong impact of schooling.

Schooling is followed by **professional coursework** which includes teacher training programs. Borg (2003) points out variability in the outcomes of the impact of teacher education on teacher cognition. In other words, every trainee is affected by an educational program in his/her own way. Unless trainees' cognition prior to teacher education is taken into consideration, the expected influence of education programs may lessen. As it can be seen in Figure 1.1., there is a mutual relationship between teacher cognition and professional coursework: While professional coursework is intended to affect and even change trainees' prior cognition, resistant beliefs formed through schooling can delimit the effect of educational process.

Contextual factors may cover a spectrum of social, economic, political and educational components of wider contexts of the contemporary world, the country being lived in, and then narrower contexts of educational institutions. As shown in the figure, contextual factors affect both teacher cognition and classroom practice which interacts with teacher cognition. Thus, contextual factors influence teacher cognition both directly and indirectly. In his framework, Borg (2003) proposes "parents, principals' requirements, the school, society, curriculum mandates, classroom and school layout, school policies, colleagues, standardised tests and the availability of resources" (p. 94) as the factors shaping teachers' practices and cognition. Nishino (2012) puts contextual factors into categories of socioeducational contexts, school conditions, broader educational conditions and student conditions. For the purposes of this study, Nishino's factors of school conditions and student conditions are focused on since it may provide a more categorical and organized framework to outline the immediate context.

The interrelationship between **classroom practice** and teacher cognition displays itself in teachers' actions and the impact of teaching experience. Teacher cognition may inform teachers' instructional decisions in classrooms and may give good clues about the rationales behind their acts. In return, classroom practice in the form of teaching experience may nurture teacher cognition. Smith (1996) reports that experienced teachers make selections from a range of theoretical ideas correlating with their beliefs and they use techniques which they have found to be effective on the basis of their

experience. Crookes and Arakaki (1999) also analyzed the sources of teachers' ideas, and the teachers participating in the research most frequently accounted accumulated teaching experience as their source of thinking and acting. The researchers defined teaching experience as "a personal history of knowledge and information gained through trial and error, concerning which teaching ideas (and their sources) were effective in which circumstances" (p. 16).

Regarding these factors above, Johnson's (2006) argument for the significance of research in teacher cognition becomes more meaningful: "This research has helped capture the complexities of who teachers are, what they know and believe, how they learn to teach, and how they carry out their work in diverse contexts throughout their careers" (p. 236). In order to capture this complexity, Borg's (2003) schematic representation may provide the necessary framework to deal with teacher cognition with possible background aspects. Just looking at behavioral side may lead to failure to notice the impact of teacher education (Freeman, 1996b). Just looking at cognitive side may result in drawing unrealistic teacher portraits that are not tested by practical reality. On the basis of this line of thinking, in this study it is aimed to reveal how English language teachers approach teaching speaking cognitively and practically at the junction of the factors of schooling, professional coursework, teaching context and classroom practice.

1.3. Research Problem

Due to the current status of English as a lingua franca, using English as the medium of instruction has gained momentum at most universities in Turkey. Accordingly, a need for pre-departmental compulsory language education has arisen. Although Turkish students start to get foreign language education at very early ages, most of them enter university with little use of language. Akdoğan (2010) who gathered opinions of language teachers at public and private schools came up with a list of problems of foreign language teaching in Turkey as fundamental and serious ones: lack of appropriate learning environments, overcrowded classrooms, learners' low interest and motivation, learners' inadequacy in their mother tongue, lack of teaching materials, traditional teaching methods used in Turkey, inadequacy of weekly language teaching schedule, learners' insufficient background knowledge and overemphasis on grammar-based questions directed to learners in public examinations. Şahin (2013) also worked

with teachers who taught English at Grades 4-8 of public primary schools and he put the problems into the categories of teachers, students, textbooks, school principals, and students' parents. He also found that undeveloped regions in Turkey had more problems with foreign language teaching. This situation necessitates compulsory education at universities; however, it creates new problems since one-year intensive education is expected to solve students' all language learning problems which have not been handled for years till that time.

Problems at preparatory programs of Turkish universities exist in a wide range of areas, but one problem which is frequently found in studies is related to "learning and/or teaching speaking" as the relevant studies were referenced before. Likewise, in the context of Foreign Languages Department of Eskişehir Osmangazi University where this research was conducted, the researcher also observed problems in her students' speaking while they tried to grasp all the grammatically and lexically loaded content in the curriculum. Moreover, teachers' approaches to teaching speaking may show differences which may be due to different factors. They are employed at the same institution, they are supposed to teach more or less similar level of students with the same teaching materials, that is, they are hypothesized to "do the same thing"; nevertheless, classroom procedures and interactions may turn out to be quite diverse.

Woods (1996) recounts his anecdotal experience of observing such kind of classes where "same things" were done on the surface, but clear differences lied beneath the tip of the iceberg:

> "I had the opportunity of observing a number of different classes, sometimes ones in which teachers were giving the same lessons using the same materials and textbooks, sometimes even the same pages and exercises. It struck me that although the students were ostensibly doing the same thing – i.e. the same activity or exercise – there seemed nonetheless to be basic differences in what was 'really' going on. There was somehow important difference in what they were *doing* these activities *for*, and therefore a difference in what they were *doing*." (Woods, 1996, p. 1).

One of the examples Woods provides to clarify this difference is related to vocabulary teaching. In one classroom which he observed, the teacher tried to give the message that dictionaries could be misleading; therefore, she encouraged students to guess words from the context of a reading text. In contrast, the teacher in another classroom used the same text, but s/he taught students techniques for using dictionary in the related exercise. The major factor contributing to this difference in teaching

practices is teacher cognition. Therefore, one point of departure of this study is the assumption that every teacher's cognition and practice are unique and worth examining even though they are supposed to teach the same content via the same textbook at the same institution. In order to provide explanation for unique teaching of every teacher, background factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice should be researched.

Firstly, schooling leaves unforgettable marks on teacher cognition. To illustrate the impact of schooling before professional training Bailey et al. (1996) resort to the analogy of "parenting" by reminding the truism that people raise their children as they were raised; likewise, when teachers encounter difficulties, they tend to revert to teaching in the way they were taught. Thus, Bailey et al. (1996) discovered by their research that the influence of good and bad teacher models was more evident in autobiographical accounts of language teachers than the influence of materials or methods. This result may highlight both the profound effect of teachers on future teachers and the need for investigating it further.

Whether professional coursework can create meaningful differences in their cognition is another concern of the study. Some studies indicate the ineffectiveness of teacher education programs in changing pre-service teachers' cognition originating from schooling (Almarza, 1996; Borg, 2003; Sanchez, 2013). In other words, language teacher trainees' earlier beliefs, thoughts and assumptions tend to resist the professional change that teacher education programs aim to create in their minds. Other studies like Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) and Mattheoudakis (2007), however, prove the effect of professional coursework changing teachers' cognition. Seeing that there are opposing findings in the literature, it becomes necessary to delve into the effect of teacher education on teachers' words and actions in this research.

Context is another factor which affects both teacher cognition and actions. Hayes (2009) argues that "investigation of socio-cultural and educational contexts in which classroom teaching is enacted is crucial to the understanding of local practices" (p. 9). Since every institution creates its own context with its physical conditions and social dynamics, looking into how these conditions lead language teachers to producing their local practices is integral to a better understanding of teaching speaking particularly in Turkish educational context where learning and teaching speaking have been a major problem to date.

Classroom practice also plays a role in forming teachers' thinking. The traces of its effects in the short run can be discovered through reflection-on-action following the teaching practice. In the long run, whether their experience takes part in their knowledge base is explained with the term "practical knowledge" which is generated from teachers' experiences and reflections (Fenstermacher, 1993; Meijer, Verloop and Beijaard, 1999). In this study, effects of both teachers' reflections on their immediate classroom experiences and their experiential background built in their cognition are explored.

To conclude, speaking is proven to be a challenging skill to learn and teach in Turkish educational context. Thus, how teachers deal with speaking and how background factors affect their cognition and actions are explored in this study. Without providing an answer to these questions, it may not be possible to recognize language teachers' inner worlds. Without recognizing language teachers, a significant dimension of the issue of teaching speaking may be overlooked. Consequently, it may become almost impossible to diagnose problems properly and offer solutions.

1.4. Aims of the Study

The aim of this study is to explore English language teachers' perceptions and actions related to teaching speaking, correspondence between the two and the effect of background factors on their cognition.

Within this aim, it is first put forward what language teachers think about teaching speaking. As Richards (1998) points out the metaphor emerging within the field of teacher education: "the teacher-as-thinker" which "captures the focus on how teachers conceptualize their work and the kinds of thinking and decision making that underlie their practice" (p. 65). Thus, in this study every language teacher is assumed as a thinker in his/her own right and it is aimed to understand his/her perceptions as a set affected by certain factors.

Secondly, language teachers' classroom practices of teaching speaking are investigated. Basically, "Actions speak louder than words" as the saying goes. Therefore, the one and only chance to see whether teachers' stated perceptions come to life is through exploring their acts in their natural habitats, viz., classrooms.

Thirdly, the match between language teachers' perceptions and actions is examined. Instead of replicating studies focusing on correspondence between teachers'

beliefs about their idealized teaching and their actions (Basturkmen, 2012) correspondence between teachers' perceptions of their practices and their actual practices are looked into in this research. In other words, whether they really do what they say they do is explored.

Lastly, the factors that may shape language teachers' cognition and actions are studied. At this point, Borg's (2003) framework offers a comprehensive insight into teacher cognition with its affecting and affected aspects. Investigating the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice may help in getting a better grasp of different teacher profiles.

In light of the aims above, research questions of the study are as follows:

1. What are English language teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking?
2. What are their actions in teaching speaking?
3. Do their perceptions and actions match?
4. How may the factors of schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice and context affect their perceptions and actions?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The commonsensically accepted fact that every teacher teaches in his/her own way makes researching a teacher's idiosyncrasies worthwhile, but more than that, such kind of idiosyncratic case studies can be "strong in reality and therefore likely to appeal to practitioners, who will be able to identify with the issues and concerns raised" (Nunan, 1992, p. 78). Therefore, as a consequence of studying a language teacher's mental world, the research may mirror many other teachers' worlds and it may provide reflections on how language teachers' perceptions are shaped. Hence, this research may have a say to not only teachers but also teacher educators: on the basis of the findings of this research, teachers can make comparisons and contrasts between themselves and the teachers' perceptions and actions presented here, which may lead to revisiting their teaching. Teacher educators can also assess the outcomes of teacher training programs in the detailed portraits of language teachers. Both teachers and teacher educators can go through self-assessment as a result of examining the teachers in this study. Additionally, the analysis of teaching grounded in teachers' cognitive worlds offers important pedagogical implications for second language teacher education (Richards, 1998). Burns (1996) also states:

> "By exploring and identifying how thinking and beliefs give meaning and shape to classroom work, we would also gain critical insights into the nature of professional growth and the forms of in-service and professional development support which would most appropriately enhance it." (p. 176).

It is also found in literature that there is a need for a study providing insight into not only teachers' perceptions and actions but also background factors. Studies are mainly concerned with teachers' perceptions only or teachers' perceptions, actions and correspondence between the two. When mismatches are found between teachers' perceptions and actions, they are generally attributed to contextual factors by teachers (Basturkmen, 2012). In addition to contextual conditions, teachers' background deserves exploration.

Another gap in the literature is that although speaking is found as a problematic skill in Turkish context, the studies do not go beyond repeating this reality. Teachers and students express their thoughts about learning and teaching speaking in studies, but what goes on in classrooms during teaching speaking has not been much investigated. In this research this need is addressed. Likewise, Borg (2009a, 2009b) points out the need for research on teaching speaking within teacher cognition paradigm because speaking remains as "a relatively under-researched strand in teacher cognition" (Baleghizadeh and Shahri, 2014, p. 738). Consequently, this research offers an in-depth view of language teachers' perceptions and actions in terms of teaching speaking in Turkish context.

In addition, the findings of this research can give ideas about further studies on language teachers' detailed accounts of learning and teaching experiences. The effect of teachers' language learning experiences from different regions of Turkey can be investigated. Examining strengths and weaknesses of several schools and their impact on language teachers can present a panoramic view of language teaching and teaching speaking in Turkish educational context. In light with this information, program and curriculum development studies can be conducted. The results about the impact of pre-service teacher education may direct researchers and teacher educators to delving into the quality of courses, instructors, materials and teaching practicum of teacher education programs at Turkish universities.

Teachers' problems emerging from the data of this study during teaching speaking can be addressed by means of action research studies. Furthermore, problems and solutions which teachers put forward in this study can be directed as questionnaire items

to different language teachers working in different contexts. Different perceptions of the same problem can give an idea about improving pre-service and in-service teacher education.

1.6. Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the perceptions and actions of English language instructors at Eskişehir Osmangazi University in Turkey, but particularly five teachers' detailed accounts and observed lessons constitute the cases. Each case is explored and described at length and each case is treated as unique in its own right. Since idiosyncratic realities rather than generalizable facts emerge from the data, the cases detailed in this study may contribute to the understanding of teacher cognition from the participating teachers' perceptions.

Even though rich and complex pictures emerge from description of individuals and identification of themes, there is always a probability of the researcher's bias and subjectivity for qualitative studies (Creswell, 2005). For this reason, necessary precautions, which are mentioned in Chapter three, are taken to minimize the possible effects of subjectivity.

The background factors of teacher cognition in this study is based on Borg's (2003) conceptualization of teacher cognition; consequently, the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice are considered and expounded.

As the research context is Foreign Languages Department of Eskişehir Osmangazi University, context-driven conditions delimit the results and implications of this study. The data obtained and the inferences made for the purposes of this research may not necessarily match different levels of teaching in different educational milieus.

The data are also restricted to the ones gathered by the data collection methods of the study. Data collection lasted for a month; thus a one-month representation of teachers' perspectives and actions is presented in this study.

Being one of the data collection instruments, observation of in-class teaching required videotaping of both teachers and students. Despite the explanation to students in observed classes that the central focus of the study was the teacher, the existence of a researcher and a video camera in the classroom environment might have created discomfort among students and might have prevented them from behaving naturally.

Keeping this possibility in mind, the camera was put at the back of the classroom in order to make it minimally disturbing.

1.7. Definition of the Terms

Teacher cognition: A term for depicting teachers' mental lives regarding what they know, believe and think. (Borg, 2003).

Schooling: The whole period before a teacher candidate starts university-level professional teacher training. During this period, the future teacher is just one of the learners who observe their teachers in classrooms (Borg, 2003).

Professional coursework: University-level teacher education of language teachers (Borg, 2003).

Context: It may cover a wide spectrum of factors, but for the research purposes of the study "school conditions" and "student conditions" (Nishino, 2012) are focused on as the immediate research context.

Classroom practice: A teacher's language teaching experience in classrooms (Borg, 2003).

Preparatory school: Before university students attend their majors at faculties, intensive foreign language education which lasts at least one year is given at this school. At most universities in Turkey this educational process is compulsory, and upon successful completion of this procedure, learners are expected to be prepared for departmental courses whose medium of instruction is the foreign language taught at this school.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, the aim is to present an overview of background to the concept of teacher cognition, research on its interaction with the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice, and teacher cognition studies on teaching language skills and areas.

2.1. Conceptualization of Teacher Cognition

The notion of teacher cognition is so complicatedly woven with various concepts and perspectives that Borg (2003) in his seminal review of teacher cognition research cautions that this terminological diversity "should not mask the considerable overlap which exists among them" (p. 83). Similarly, Woods and Çakır (2011) point out both overlap and divergence in the multiplicity of theories and terms:

> "Although there may be a difference in the sense that they are articulations of different theories, they may well be otherwise virtually identical. Conversely, just because two researchers use the same term does not mean that they have identical concepts in mind" (p. 382).

In fact, the terms used in teacher cognition research have one certain commonality: They were produced in the period between the early and the late 1990s, which was defined as "the decade of consolidation" (Freeman, 2002). It is reiterated in literature reviews of numerous studies that teacher cognition research dates back to the 1970s, and it took a considerable amount of time for teachers to be perceived with their real existence nurtured by their knowledge, perceptions, beliefs, decision-making processes and assumptions. Recognizing the 1970s as a "turning point" in how teachers' mental lives are conceived, Freeman (2002) hails the 1980s as "a full decade of change and reconceptualization":

> "Concepts that are now taken for granted – such as teaching as decision-making or the role of beliefs and assumptions in teaching, the notions of the 'hidden' pedagogy and curriculum or the 'apprenticeship of observation', of 'pedagogical content knowledge' – were all spawned and took root during this time" (p. 5).

When the 1990s came, the change in understanding teachers together with their mental worlds "consolidated and deepened":

> "Thus there seemed to be little disagreement about the central role that teachers must play in understanding teaching, whether for the purposes of research or of improvement and reform. The notion that teachers possess access to unique knowledge of teaching became

> increasingly widespread. In English and foreign language teaching, this idea of examining teaching in its own right came into its own in this decade from 1990 to 2000" (p. 8)

Without considering this improvement in recognition of teachers and their entities in classrooms and without deeming them as idiosyncratic sources of thinking, believing, knowing and doing, teachers can be constrained by a "technicist / transmission" approach. This approach prescribes rigidity in the role relationship between theorists and teachers, in which theorists theorize, teachers practice (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). In this role relationship, creation of new knowledge or a new theory is not the domain of teachers; their task is to execute what is prescribed for them. However, instead of being a mere consumer of theories and methods readily available, the richness of teachers' mental worlds can enable them to form their own knowledge base.

Along with this line of thought, many researchers approached the concept of teacher cognition from different perspectives and many terms are coined in the field. In fact, researchers study the same concept, but definitional nuances in their terms complicate the story. A group of researchers, for example, take an epistemological stance towards the notion of teacher cognition. Elbaz (1981), one of the leading researchers raising objections against viewing teachers as lacking in knowledge and passive transmitters of knowledge in 1980s, coins "practical knowledge" as she asserts that teachers' knowledge is broadly based on their teaching experiences. The structure of practical knowledge has situational, theoretical, personal, social, and experiential orientations. By situational orientation teachers relate their knowledge to a specific situation and its tasks. In terms of theoretical orientation, teachers may reject or accept a particular theory or formulate theories of practice; hence, "Whatever the teacher's position, his stance with respect to theory determines what kinds of theoretical knowledge he will draw upon and how he will use it in particular situations" (p. 59). Through personal orientation, teachers reflect their purpose and personal meaning in their relationships with students. Social orientation displays how teachers use their knowledge in organization of their social situations. Finally, experiential knowledge is defined as "The teacher's knowledge grows out of the world of teaching as he experiences it; it gives shape to that world, and allows him to function in it" (p. 58). Elbaz suggests that in teacher training these orientations can be focused on.

As another researcher focusing on a different term to describe teachers' knowledge, Golombek (1998) notes that teachers' "personal practical knowledge"

informs their practice and serves as an interpretative framework on the basis of which they make sense of their classrooms. Personal practice knowledge includes experiential, situational, dynamic, storied, emotional and moral dimensions, and it finds its expression in teachers' vivid narrations and stories (Golombek, 2009). Therefore, Golombek (2009) suggests connecting personal practical knowledge to empirical knowledge, fostering reflection that contextualizes teachers' knowledge, exploring the role of emotions and moral beliefs in teachers' sense-making processes and recognizing the power of stories in the development of teachers.

Gatbonton is another researcher (1999) who suggests the concept of teachers' "pedagogical knowledge" by explicating the term with six general domains: "Knowledge of handling language items, factoring in student contributions, determining the contents of teaching, facilitating the instructional flow, building rapport and monitoring student progress. Likewise, Meijer, Verloop and Beijaard (1999) bring forth the categories of teachers' "practical knowledge" as subject matter knowledge, student knowledge, knowledge of student learning and understanding, knowledge of purposes, knowledge of curriculum and knowledge of instructional techniques.

In short, the researchers highlighting the notion of "knowledge" in their studies do not only refer to knowledge which is acquired through professional training and development, they also underline personalized and malleable characteristic of teachers' knowledge that is shaped by teaching experience in several domains surrounded by contextual conditions.

Another group of researchers, on the other hand, approach teacher cognition as a set of knowledge and beliefs, assumptions, theories, etc. For instance, Woods (1996) proposes the network of "Beliefs – Assumptions – Knowledge" (BAK) to consider while looking into language teachers' decision-making processes. Instead of distinct terms, he takes them as points on a spectrum of meaning ranging from knowledge to belief. Knowledge is used to state conventionally accepted facts in terms of content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Assumptions about language, language learning and language teaching refer to temporary acceptance of a fact which is taken true for the time being. However, teachers' beliefs or "implicit theories" refer to accepting a proposition for which is neither based on conventional knowledge nor demonstrable. Woods situates the concepts on the spectrum as "I don't just believe it. I don't just assume it. I know it!" (p. 195) and signals the possibility of overlap among

the three. To illustrate, there is a big difficulty discerning whether teachers' knowledge they declare comes from theoretical knowledge indeed or their deep-seated beliefs. Likewise, their so-called beliefs may refer to changeable assumptions affected by specific conditions of their current teaching context. Similarly, Borg (1998) focuses on "personal pedagogical systems" of language teachers' beliefs, knowledge, theories, assumptions and attitudes which make up "a network of interacting and potentially conflicting beliefs about a wide variety of issues related not only to L2 teaching but also to teaching and learning in general" (p. 28)

From other angles, Crookes and Arakaki (1999) point out language teachers' "routines" which provide quick solutions for teaching problems in the short run. Teachers also have "images" emerging from imaginative processes (e.g.: seeing classroom as home) "by which meaningful and useful patterns are generated in minded practice" (Clandinin, 1985, p. 379). Furthermore, teachers can adopt "maxims" as principles guiding their teaching. These maxims may govern many issues such as relationships with students, discipline, planning lessons and use of methods (Richards, 1996). Moreover, teachers' "personal theories" help them think about, evaluate, classify and guide their classroom practice (Sendan and Roberts, 1998).

For this study, however, the word of "perspective" was initially intended to be used in order to verbalize language teachers' ways of thinking and knowing as suggested in Borg's (2003) framework which lay the foundation of this research. However, through negotiation with different researchers, "perception" was thought to better meet what we meant to do in this study because "perspective" may misleadingly imply one's thinking in the shadow of an *–ism* or *–ist* such as *"He writes from a Marxist perspective"* (Cambridge Dictionary, 2018).

Despite definitional nuances in the terms used to describe teacher cognition, these terms serve one point for sure: recognition of the status of teachers. Teachers' existence in classrooms is now appreciated beyond being carriers of curriculum. In addition to the diversity of terms to describe teacher cognition, Barnard and Burns (2012) count the factors which complicate their story in classrooms: learning experiences (i.e. school, college, university, pre-service and in-service training), teachers' efforts for professional development, teaching experiences in interaction with learners and other teachers, people in their personal lives and all sources of authority ranging from school principals to examination boards and ministries. Therefore, they call what teachers

believe and know about language teaching as “a complete nexus of interacting factors” (p. 2).

Despite being confronted with complexity, it is aimed to capture a meaningful frame of teacher cognition in this study. Hence, its relationship with the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice is examined. The studies dealing with this relationship are given in the following part.

2.2. Research on the Factors Interacting with Teacher Cognition

In this section, studies exploring the interaction of teacher cognition with the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice are discussed.

2.2.1. Research on schooling

The foundation of a teacher’s cognition can be traced back to when s/he starts school. Unlike students of other professional careers like law and medicine, student teachers begin their professional education with pre-existing ideas about teaching based on thousands of hours of merely observing their teachers (Borg, 2004). This phenomenon is called “apprenticeship of observation” (Lortie, 1975, cited in Borg, 2004) and it creates a default model for novice teachers by leading them to teaching in the way their schoolteachers taught despite receiving professional training (Borg, 2004). This argument has had repercussions in the literature, as well.

Bailey et al. (1996) looked into a teacher educator’s and seven MA candidates’ language learning experiences on the basis of their autobiographical accounts. The factors emerging from autobiographies were centered on their teachers’ beliefs and behaviors; namely, teacher expectations, respect, maintaining motivation, and the learning atmosphere. All the participants accepted the importance of “teacher factor” beyond methods and materials in their learning experience. A teacher who respected and cared about his/her students and set up high expectations for them was found successful. The researchers also underlined the significance of reflecting on language learning experiences in terms of providing insight into teacher cognition formed during apprenticeship of observation. By reexamining their personal histories, the participants brought their identities to the theoretical material and interpreted that material in light of their own experiences.

Numrich (1996) also found traces of early language learning experiences in novice teachers' practicum diaries. Their positive and negative learning experiences shaped the participating teachers' actions. They chose to replicate integrating elements of the target language culture into language teaching and giving students a need to communicate whereas they rejected error correction and grammar teaching. By the middle of the semester, however, some teachers who shunned error correction got amazed at their students' expectations to be corrected, and this was another result of the study as an unexpected discovery about effective teaching.

Arıoğul (2007) investigated the effect of prior language learning experiences on three EFL teachers' practical knowledge and found that their learning experiences partly shaped and developed their knowledge. When they encountered a contextual discrepancy or tried to understand learners, they revisited their learner identities to use it in decision-making and instruction. By sharing their experiences, the participants also noticed that they had never had a chance to reflect on their past and its effect on present. This point is critical for revealing the need for more reflective practices in both pre-service and in-service training.

Zeng and Murphy (2007) examined the tensions between beliefs and language learning experiences of six non-native speaking teachers of English in China. Although they came from different learning backgrounds, they witnessed strict and authoritarian teaching on varying scales; thus, three clear divergences between their beliefs and language learning experiences came out. Having experienced boredom and fear of losing face in their language learning, they attached importance to motivation and fun for better learning. In contrast to the authority of teachers they observed, they highlighted learner autonomy. They had participated in didactic learning activities as students; however, they appreciated authentic communication in their teaching. Hence, it can be said that the participants learned how not to teach from their teachers.

Erkmen (2014) studied with nine non-native and novice EFL teachers who had maximum one year of teaching at a preparatory school in Northern Cyprus. She examined their beliefs about teaching, learning and the relationship between their beliefs and classroom practices. The participants' prior language learning experiences were found to have impact on their cognition. Similar to Zeng and Murphy's (2007) abovementioned findings, they learned how they should not teach English from their negative learning experiences; therefore, none of the participants wanted their students

to go through such experiences, on one hand. On the other hand, they mentioned their personal ways of language learning as possible model behaviors for their students to learn English. Still, the researcher concluded that since the teachers were in their first year of teaching, their beliefs were "susceptible to change". Therefore, she highlighted the necessity of in-service training programs to give them a chance to reflect on their cognition and raise their awareness.

These studies demonstrate how former language teachers and their teaching affect future language teachers. When they are students, future teachers keep mental archives of various language teacher profiles and learning experiences. These archives shape teacher cognition in two ways as shown in the studies above: One is creating a resistance to the impact of professional training; that is, the effect of prior learning experiences is so strong and deep-rooted that it surpasses the effect of teacher training experiences. Another one is drawing lessons from learning experiences, particularly from negative ones. Teachers who become cautious of deficiencies in their own foreign language learning try to help their students not to encounter similar problems. Therefore, it can be concluded that a student's journey for becoming a teacher starts with encountering his/her first teacher and continues with the touch of professional coursework.

2.2.2. Research on professional coursework

Professional coursework denotes the process starting with pre-service training and ongoing with in-service training; therefore, one would not be mistaken by assuming that professional coursework is a never-ending process for teachers who pursue opportunities for their professional development. Whether this process has desired effects on teachers has been discussed in various studies.

Cabaroğlu and Roberts (2000) objected labelling teacher candidates' pre-existing beliefs as "inflexible" since this attitude invalidated efforts devoted to pre-service training. Thus, they investigated changes in beliefs about learning/teaching a foreign language of 20 student teachers attending a 36-week course in Modern Foreign Languages teaching. Apart from one student, 19 students' beliefs were detected to have a change, especially two of them had radical changes. The researchers categorized the changes into eleven categories ranging from awareness to no change. They also concluded that if self-regulated learning environment, as in the research setting, is

provided with student teachers, they can review, assess and test their pre-existing beliefs.

Similar to Cabaroğlu and Roberts' (2000) research aim, Mattheoudakis (2007) also conducted longitudinal research to study change in pre-service teachers' beliefs in a 3-year teacher education program. In order to identify their pre-existing beliefs, to track the development of their beliefs while they attended courses and to examine the impact of practicum, she used belief inventory and questionnaires. Data analysis results showed that the majority of the participants' beliefs changed during the program, and this change was slow and gradual. Strong beliefs (e.g. beliefs about error correction or the role of the teacher) at the onset of the program significantly weakened towards the end of the program. However, in contrast to the effect of the other theoretical and methodological courses, teaching practicum was not found to bring the expected impact on their beliefs. Instead, it offered the teacher candidates opportunities to test their knowledge and raise awareness of their beliefs about learning and teaching.

The effect of teaching practicum on teacher candidates' beliefs was also investigated by Ng, Nicholas and Williams (2010). They focused on the participants' evolving beliefs about being a good teacher and self-efficacy. The researchers tracked the evolution of the beliefs 37 pre-service teachers of various subjects (e.g. English, Maths, Physics, Drama, etc.) from the beginning of the course till its end. While certain beliefs about the characteristics of a good teacher remained the same, their emphasis on controlling and silencing students evolved into emphasis on knowing students and setting limits.

Seeing the scarcity of studies on the effect of in-service education, Borg (2011) investigated the impact of an eight-week teacher education program (Delta) on six language teachers' beliefs. As a result of the practices of the program, all the participants were found to be more aware and articulative in terms of their beliefs. Program components especially teaching practice, tutor feedback on teaching, coursework reading and reflective writing contributed to teachers' verbalization of their beliefs, developing links between beliefs and theory, and gaining new beliefs.

In contrast to the research in which the effect of training on pre-service teacher cognition was found, Kunt and Özdemir (2010) underlined the resistance of cognition prior to teacher training. They studied the influence of methodology courses on pre-service EFL teachers' beliefs by comparing beliefs of two groups of teacher candidates.

One group had taken only one course while the other group had completed all or most of the methodology courses, and the groups responded questions in a beliefs inventory. The researchers did not find a significant difference between the groups. The participants who had taken all/most of the methodology courses tended to depend on their pre-existing knowledge and their beliefs showed little change. The researchers concluded that the participants' beliefs and attitudes related to the target language was a "determinant factor" on their behavior. Since data collection is solely based on the participants' responses to a beliefs inventory, this conclusion should be supported with further data collection instruments directed to teacher behavior. Likewise, Warford and Reeves (2003) who studied nine novice teachers enrolling in a teacher education program also found that although teacher trainees favored communicative language teaching, they expressed the difficulty to teach in a way different from the grammar-based instruction they were taught with. In one of the participants' view, this formal grammar-centered instruction was so "ingrained".

In sum, when compared to the profound effect of schooling on teacher cognition, the effect of professional coursework remains controversial. A group of studies prove change in teacher trainees' cognition whereas another group of studies highlight the rigidity of trainees' cognition despite receiving training. For this reason, looking into the influence of professional coursework on teacher cognition again in our research may bring further food for thought and discussion in the field of teacher education.

2.2.3. Research on context

Contextual conditions encompass a wide range of factors. Firstly, global, regional and national settings shape educational policies. Following these educational policies, institutions such as schools and examination boards directly and indirectly prescribe expected teacher actions. Moreover, expectations coming from people who contact with teachers like administrators, parents and students delimit teachers' maneuvers in classrooms. In addition to human factors, physical conditions in learning environments may affect teachers' thinking and acting processes.

The crux of correspondence between teachers' cognition and actions lies in contextual conditions which may either function in a facilitative way for teachers or put a restrictive burden on their shoulders. Especially teachers who feel incongruence between their cognition and actions mostly refer to this restrictive feature of their local

contexts. Basturkmen (2012) reviewed teacher cognition studies about the correspondence between teachers' stated beliefs and practices, and found that most of the studies in her review displayed "limited correspondence". Contextual factors imposed a major constraint on teachers' capability to put their beliefs into practice.

Sengupta and Falvey (1998) examined how English language teachers perceived L2 writing in Hong Kong. They found two sets of teacher beliefs related to writing: focusing on lexical and grammatical accuracy more than discourse-related features, and teaching writing in accordance with public examinations. Particularly, the second set of beliefs were found to create "a climate in which most L2 writing in the secondary school is geared towards regular school or public examinations, resulting in mere practice of the product without the pedagogic support of learning how to construct the product" (p. 84). Not only was the relationship between general educational context of Hong Kong and these teachers' beliefs a top-down one, but also curricular practices were mentioned to discourage alternative ways of viewing writing.

Zhang and Liu (2014) looked into beliefs of Chinese junior high school teachers during implementation of constructivist curriculum innovation and contextual factors affecting teachers' beliefs. It was found that while teachers had a positive attitude toward constructivist teaching of English, they had reservations about them. They held both traditional and constructivist beliefs. They still found lecturing, memorization and drills effective and they put more emphasis on grammar and vocabulary because of the senior high school entrance examination assessing these language areas. Although curriculum reform demanded learner autonomy, teachers found it impractical. The researchers pointed out that conflicting beliefs existed in teachers' repertoire which they used for different purposes in different contexts. The researchers also mentioned "curriculum reform", "high-stakes testing", traditional cultural values" and "school types" as contextual factors creating teachers' belief systems which blended traditional and constructive viewpoints.

As another contextual condition, heavy workload may also lead teachers to clinging to their "routines" as put forth by Crookes and Arakaki (1999):

> "routines are not meant to solve problems in the long term, but, rather, to offer quick fixes or prevent the emergence of problems entirely. A successful routine, of course, eliminates the need to adapt or change, and presumably militates against seeking new ideas in a particular area of teaching" (p. 19).

In the study which they researched idea sources and working conditions of ESL teachers in the United States, the participants had approximately 50 hours of workload per week and this workload prevented them from doing some library research and seeking new ideas for teaching. Under these circumstances, they mostly benefitted from their own and their colleagues' teaching experience and pragmatically chose to stick to their routines.

Furthermore, students constitute another part of the context. Graden's (1996) case study about six secondary foreign language teachers is a typical example of showing the impact of students on teachers' less adherence to their beliefs. In the study it was indicated that teachers compromised their certain beliefs about teaching reading mostly because of poor student performance and demotivation. Although they firmly believed that they should make students read as much as possible, conduct reading lessons in target language and minimize oral reading, teachers limited their practices reflecting these beliefs due to student factors.

Hayes (2009) studied seven Thai teachers' experience of teaching English in Thailand where Thai teachers "are government officials with permanent, pensionable positions. It is this social context which centres their lives as teachers and impacts upon their classroom decision-making" (p. 2). Within this context, teachers had to stick to a mandated curriculum and to adjust their teaching in accordance with students' needs. Although teachers appreciated communicative methods, some of them combined them with traditional methods like grammar translation to meet students' needs which sometimes stemmed from examinations. Some teachers even switched to Thai when they had to teach grammar rules explicitly to ensure students' understanding because of the demands of the university entrance examination. Similarly, in Turkish context, students at different educational levels from primary school (Uysal and Bardakçı, 2014) to preparatory school of a university (Erkmen, 2014) expect traditional explicit grammar teaching.

Consequently, surrounded with curricular demands, students' expectations and even parental pressure (Farrell, 2005), language teachers may feel pushed to ignore their pre-service training background to cope with contextual conditions. Therefore, contextual conditions create the climate for language teaching which is generally proved to discourage teachers from putting their beliefs into practice as studies show. How

teachers overcome contextual constraints is understood through their classroom practice.

2.2.4. Research on classroom practice

Classroom practice provides one and only chance to see how teachers apply (or cannot apply) their beliefs, perceptions and knowledge. The relationship between classroom practice and teacher cognition may be different for teachers on the basis of teaching experience. Foss and Kleinsasser (1996) depicted the relationship between classroom practice and pre-service teacher cognition as "symbiotic" as their "pedagogical content knowledge influence, but do not benefit, their instructional actions" (p. 441). Unlike pre-service teachers' cognition, in-service teachers' cognition tends to get more support from experience. Basturkmen (2012) found that experienced teachers were more consistent in terms of the relationship between their beliefs and practice as their beliefs were more experientially informed. When novice teachers' beliefs underwent a process of formation, experienced teachers' principles and beliefs had already been established on the basis of their experiential knowledge over time. Therefore, their practices were found to be in harmony with their beliefs and they could articulate their reasoning behind their practices better than their novice colleagues. Likewise, Crookes and Arakaki (1999) who were mentioned in the previous section found in the same study that teachers cited accumulated teaching experience most as the source of their teaching ideas, The participating teachers stated that the more teaching practice they had, the better they knew what would work in classroom.

Classroom practice also serves as a source of knowledge for future teaching practices. With regard to the interrelationship between classroom practice and teacher cognition, one of the most influential terms is "personal practical knowledge" (Golombek, 1998) as mentioned before. Golombek examined personal practical knowledge of two ESL teachers and found that personal practical knowledge both shapes and is shaped by teachers' understandings of teaching and learning. It filters experience for reconstructing it for later use in teaching, and since teachers use personal practical knowledge in particular contexts, it is shaped by every context. Golombek suggests linking it with empirically grounded knowledge presented in teacher education.

Öztürk (2015) approached classroom practice with a broader perspective. He studied in-service teachers' cognition and actions under the influence of institutional

factors examined the interrelationship among teacher cognition, classroom practice and institutional context. Three instructors working at three different preparatory schools participated in the study. As main sources of their cognition, language learning experiences, pre-service education and teaching experience were put forward. Öztürk defined teachers' construction of cognition as a process in which past language learning experiences were causal conditions, pre-service education was the core phenomenon, previous institutional contexts made up the context, their novice years as a teacher were intervening conditions and their teaching experiences were strategies. As a product of this process, language teacher cognition formed the basis of classroom practice.

> "The results also show that language teachers' classroom practices are shaped by their language teacher cognition, the learner profile, institutional elements, improvisational teaching and the course book as the intervening factors. Teachers' cognition serves as the origin and the background of their classroom practices. During classroom teaching, they put their students at the centre of their practices and adapt them according to the proficiency, enthusiasm and attention of the learners. These practices are sometimes intervened by teachers' improvisational acts and the content of the course book they used. Taking all these elements into account, teachers make their decisions and implement their practices" (p. 197)

In Öztürk's study, the need for further research focusing on EFL teacher cognition with a broad perspective is mentioned; thus, he provided a framework for reexamining language teacher cognition and actions. Similarly, in our research, language teachers' cognition and actions about teaching speaking which has not been given much priority in teacher cognition research so far is investigated with a broad perspective covering teachers' language learning experiences, teaching practices, contextual conditions and professional training and development. The scarcity of research on teacher cognition about teaching speaking could be seen in the review of literature below.

2.3. Teacher Cognition Research on Teaching Language Skills and Areas

As stated before, research on teacher cognition has accelerated since 1970s especially on grammar teaching and literacy instruction in FL and L2 contexts at the expense of leaving language skills like speaking unstudied (Borg, 2003, 2009a, 2009b; Baleghizadeh and Shahri, 2014). Due to less attention paid to the relationship between teacher cognition and teaching speaking, the majority of the studies quoted in this chapter are related to teacher cognition in teaching the language skills and areas other

than speaking. First, teacher cognition studies on the speaking skill are examined, and then teacher cognition studies on the other language skills and areas are discussed.

2.3.1. Teacher cognition research on teaching speaking

This section covers the studies on teacher cognition related to teaching speaking. In the first study, beliefs and practices were compared whereas the remaining two studies merely focused on beliefs and conceptions.

Cohen and Fass (2001) investigated the match between teacher beliefs and practices and students' beliefs in terms of oral instruction, material use and oral assessment at a private university in Colombia. The study was conducted with 51 teachers and 63 students. Discrepancy was found between the teachers' and the students' beliefs about the amount of teacher talk and critical characteristics of good oral production. While the teachers felt that student talk should be much more than teacher talk, the students preferred the opposite. In practice, however, the students' preference of teacher-dominated lessons was demonstrated in classrooms. Similarly, the teachers emphasized accuracy and pronunciation to assess the students' oral production, whereas the students mentioned fluency as the most important feature. Another difference was found between the teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of communicative activities. Almost all the teachers approved using pair and group work, but very few class hours were allocated to these activities. Due to the mismatch between the teachers' beliefs and practices, the researchers underline the significance of training in how to apply teachers' beliefs to their classroom.

Baleghizadeh and Shahri (2014) analyzed three EFL teachers' conceptions – Nima, Iman and Benyamin- of speaking competence in English. They conducted interviews with the teachers with the aim of probing into teacher cognition on the nature of speaking in a second language. Three teachers were found to have three different images about speaking. Nima, who had seven years of teaching experience, viewed speaking as a "two-tiered system" based on teaching grammar and vocabulary respectively and underlined the significance of error correction. Similar to Nima, Iman had seven years of professional experience, but unlike Nima, he was passionate about aesthetic beauty of sentences and visualized speaking as "a sentence-based system"; thus, his teaching was full of underlining, repeating and memorizing collocations and authentic sentences. As a novice teacher with one-year experience, Benyamin, on the

other hand, focused on "natural rhythm", and his teaching included giving students exposure to music, movies and arts for listening to the sounds and authentic sentences of English. The researchers also touched on the commonalities and differences among the cases, and they found that some practices of the three teachers were rooted in their experience of learning English, others extended far beyond English learning to teachers' lives. For instance, Benyamin had an inclination towards music, therefore, "his stated teaching beliefs became permeated with his life such that his teaching acted as a personal space where his individuality revealed itself" (p. 747). By making reference to Clandinin (1986, cited in Baleghizadeh and Shahri, 2014), the researchers also claim that the teachers' images made up the teachers' personal practical knowledge in which an image "embodies a person's experience; finds expression in practice; and is the perspective from which new experience is taken" (Clandinin, p. 166, cited in Baleghizadeh and Shahri, 2014, p. 747). Accordingly, the images presented by the teachers in this study appear to have both derived from their experiences and to inform their future practices. Another point that was discussed by the researchers was about the difference between the two experienced teachers and the novice teacher. Despite their lack of formal training in applied linguistics and SLA, the experienced teachers were claimed to have more elaborate theories of their own practice than the novice teacher (also in Basturkmen, 2012; Crookes and Arakaki, 1999). All in all, in spite of its methodological ambiguity, this study displays three EFL teachers' images about learning and teaching speaking in an Iranian context. It also reminds the uniqueness of every teacher whose learning and teaching experiences shape vis-à-vis their cognition and actions.

Raman (2017) aimed to explore in-service teachers' beliefs regarding teaching speaking skills to young learners at state secondary schools of Northern Cyprus. She collected data from 35 English language teachers via a questionnaire on their beliefs, stated practices and suggestions about teaching speaking to young learners. Raman found that teachers stressed the significance of teaching speaking, whereas they identified their educational context (crowded classrooms and limited time) and learner profile (lack of confidence and motivation and low level of English proficiency) as barriers to their teaching practice. Secondly, teachers stated that they used flashcards, real pictures, videos and CDs as materials and they designed role plays, games, group and pair work activities, but some of the participants stated that they focused on

grammar more than speaking activities because of the grammar-centered curriculum. Finally, they suggested changes in syllabus and educational system, extra hours for teaching speaking and raising student teachers' awareness on classroom realities during pre-service education. Although this study sheds light on Turkish English language teachers' beliefs regarding teaching speaking in a context different from Turkey, its handicap lies in lack of observational data about teachers' actual practices of teaching speaking to check their statements concerning their practices.

In short, the studies above display the need for further studies on teaching speaking within teacher cognition framework. Specifically, in order to propose an explanation for teachers' perceptions and practices, background factors should be investigated.

2.3.2. Teacher cognition research on teaching language skills and areas

In this section, research on teacher cognition related to teaching reading, writing and listening as language skills and teaching grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation as language areas is put forward.

Yurdaışık (2007) examined teachers' views about and approaches to reading instruction at three preparatory schools in Turkey. The majority of the teachers (88%) viewed themselves good or very good readers and they reported using reading strategies like skimming, scanning, guessing the meanings of unknown words, but only a limited number of them expressed clear awareness of using reading strategies in their own readings. The teachers who expressed their use of reading strategies in their daily lives seemed to make more use of strategy use in their instructions too. They also used more pre-reading strategies than post-reading strategies, and while they found the text important about deciding on the strategy, they generally used the strategies suggested by the books. For these teachers, it can be argued that textbooks in their context constitute the overriding factor affecting their cognition and actions.

Kuzborska (2011) investigated the relationship between eight EAP teachers' beliefs and practices of teaching reading in a Lithuanian university context. The teachers' beliefs and practices were consistent in terms of adopting a traditional approach to reading. They viewed reading as decoding the surface meaning of the text rather than exhibiting higher-level reading skills. Their practices were comprised of focus on vocabulary, translation, reading aloud and whole class discussion instead of

group work. The researcher explained this situation as the gap between practice and theory due to the lack of professional support for teachers to reflect on their practices. Despite their claim of attending in-service training programs like seminars and conferences, the teachers' deficit in their professional development might be related to the gap between what they needed and what trainers taught them. The researcher also underlined the possibility of the teachers' practices being dominated by beliefs going back to their school years, which might not have been altered during teacher education process.

Diab (2005) examined a university-level instructor's and two of her students' beliefs and perspectives about feedback in writing. Both the teacher and the students viewed feedback as the "security blanket" by which students' expectations about correction were fulfilled rather than as an opportunity to improve writing. Therefore they tended to focus on surface-level error correction more than on other elements of writing. The participating students' beliefs were also worth considering: They did not credit talent for successful writing; rather they believed in the importance of effort and practice, they were aware of L1 interference, and they found error correction necessary. Apparently, the teacher and the two students' views mostly corresponded apart from the aspect of feedback on final drafts. While the teacher was on the side of minimizing feedback on final drafts as she believed that students paid more attention to the feedback on their earlier drafts, one student emphasized the importance of receiving feedback on final drafts. The researcher viewed such kinds of discrepancies as a direction for future research to explore both teachers' and students' beliefs about writing, feedback and error correction to bridge the gap between their expectations and to establish an area of common ground.

Yiğitoğlu and Belcher (2014) studied the connections between two ESL teachers' beliefs about and practices of teaching second language writing and their experiences in writing in their first and second languages. One of the participants (Allyson) was a bilingual native speaker of English and Spanish, and the other (Xiao Yu) was a native speaker of Mandarin. It was aimed to investigate "ESL writing teachers' perceptions of themselves as writers and learners of writing, and the extent to which their beliefs about and practice of teaching L2 writing are influenced by their experiences in writing in their L1 and L2" (p. 117). Allyson's extensive writing experiences in her L1 did not include training and feedback; therefore empathy played an important role in her

instructional decision-making. By drawing lessons from the challenges she encountered in her writing, she tried to give enough guidance to her students and provided feedback on the basis of a graded rubric. Allyson also thought that lack of explicit literacy training in her L2 influenced her teaching; thus in one of her lessons she was observed to model her students about how to find relevant sources in a library, and she gave detailed feedback to her students. For Xiao Yu, L1 writing instruction was like bits and pieces; thus, she found it difficult to remember. Her L2 writing instruction in her home country was limited, and her writing experience in the US for her graduate studies was mostly academic. Therefore, it became harder for Xiao Yu than for Allyson to apply her learning experiences to teaching different genres, but her reactions to her L2 literacy instruction affected her classroom practices (e.g.: developing a discourse-level, whole-text comparison activity scaffolded by a graphic organizer to facilitate her students' comprehension). Despite the differences in terms of linguistic and educational background between the two cases, it was found in this study that both participants taught their students in a way filling what was missing in their L2 education. Therefore, personal language learning experiences deeply affected teachers' instructional practices.

Graham, Santos and Francis-Brophy (2014) investigated stated beliefs and practices of 115 foreign language teachers of French, German and Spanish in England. The results of the questionnaire distributed to the participants displayed that there was a mismatch between the teachers' stated beliefs and stated practices. Although they put "effective listening" as the main purpose of teaching listening, their stated practices pointed out "task completion" as effective listening and focusing on local details and individual words instead of global details and chunks. Therefore, their emphasis tended to be on product rather than process. The findings also indicated that the teachers were not fully aware of the significance of metacognitive strategies, learner exploration, prediction and discussion of listening. In addition, the majority of both newly qualified and experienced teachers had had no in-service training in teaching listening before and they were found to have similar views about listening. For the researchers, this unanimity among teachers might be due to the curriculum and assessment framework.

Farrell (2005) worked on two experienced primary school teachers' beliefs and practices of teaching grammar in Singapore. While one teacher was in favor of traditional and deductive approach to teaching grammar, the other believed in the value of integrating grammar teaching into speaking, writing and reading. Although both

teachers revered communicative activities, neither of them could save their teaching from explicit instruction and decontextualized activities. They attributed this situation to time factors originating from syllabus demands, administration and even parents constraining their instructional decisions. Another reason for employing traditional grammar teaching was found to be strong attitudes attached to traditional teaching despite stated preference for communicative approach.

Phipps and Borg (2009) offered a different term for explaining the gap between teachers' cognition and practices: tension. Rather than labelling differences between beliefs and practices with negative terms like "incongruence", "mismatch", "inconsistency", they handled it as divergence. In addition to exploring divergences between what English language teachers say and do in teaching grammar, they looked into tensions among three experienced EFL teachers' competing beliefs at a private English-medium university in Turkey. The researchers spotted tensions related to three aspects of grammar teaching – presenting grammar, controlled grammar practice and group-work for grammar practice. Their findings indicated that although the teachers' practices did not reflect their stated beliefs about language learning, the practices were found consistent with deeper, more general beliefs about learning. The researchers named such beliefs as "core beliefs" which are experientially ingrained, and teachers' stated beliefs remained as "peripheral beliefs". Therefore, they suggest harmonious implementation of core and peripheral beliefs to experience fewer tensions between beliefs and practice.

Serdar (2012) explored the interplay between a non-native English language teacher's (Suna) pedagogical beliefs, classroom practices and her students' learning experiences regarding L2 grammar in a preparatory classroom of the Department of Foreign Languages of a private university in Istanbul. Her findings indicated the relationship between Suna's pedagogical beliefs, her classroom practices and her students' learning experiences regarding L2 grammar. Suna believed in the value of L2 grammar teaching and doing it with Present-Practice-Produce (P-P-P) format. She thought that making mistakes was a part of language learning process and she did not believe in the value of focusing overtly on grammatical terminology. In addition to providing students with clear, understandable and applicable examples for effective learning, she adhered to a humanistic approach to teaching and learning with an emphasis on positive learning environment. The sources of these beliefs came from her

foreign language learning experience, teacher education she had received at university, and her teaching experience. In addition, her classroom practices displayed congruence with her pedagogical beliefs in explicit instruction, humanistic education, metalanguage use, error correction and importance of examples. In contrast, incongruence between practices and beliefs was spotted during applying P-P-P format in its order and providing sufficient contextualized examples in teaching grammar. This incongruence was attributed to the external factors of time and the backwash effect of exams. Despite the incongruence, the researcher found that Suna's pedagogical beliefs were reflected in her classroom practices to a great extent. Her students' reflections noted that the use of visuals, being provided with examples, explicit instruction, contextualized introduction to the target structures and exam training seemed to be mediating their L2 grammar learning.

Uysal and Bardakçı (2014) investigated 108 Turkish primary-level English language teachers' beliefs, practice patterns of teaching grammar, and the reasons behind their beliefs and behavior patterns with specific reference to the instructional approaches of "focus-on-formS," "focus-on-meaning," and "focus-on-form". In terms of teaching practices, the teachers mostly preferred doing workbook or worksheet exercises on grammar, explaining grammar rules, giving quizzes on grammatical points, and repetition drills. Furthermore, 70% of the teachers were found to follow a deductive approach by first explicitly and directly explaining the grammar rules. Similarly, their beliefs reflected a traditional approach to teaching grammar as most of them stated that mechanical drills, exercises and repetitions were necessary, and that English could not be learned without explicit grammar instruction. The most significant reasons behind their beliefs and practices were listed by the teachers as the "Ministry of National Education curriculum", "student expectations", and "the textbook". Pre-service professional training was stated to have the least influence on their practices (3%). In interviews, the teachers also mentioned "time constraints", "central standardized examinations" and "classroom management issues" as the factors leading them to adopting focus-on-formS approach. The most striking point in this study is that the teachers complained about the textbooks designed with focus-on-meaning approach, thus they stuck to their traditional focus-on-formS approach. They described the textbooks as "having no explicit grammar teaching and expecting students to implicitly learn grammar while speaking and through repetitions" (p. 8). Their conservatism and

discomfort with communicative approach was attributed to the little effect of professional training on the teachers. The participants were also found unfamiliar with recent developments in the ELT field and the *focus-on-form* approach to keep a happy balance between the approaches of focus-on-meaning and focus-on-formS.

Gao and Ma (2011) dealt with 250 in-service and pre-service language teachers' beliefs about vocabulary learning and teaching in Hong Kong and Chinese mainland. According to the results of a Likert-type questionnaire distributed to the participants, a statistically significant difference was not found between in-service and pre-service teachers in terms of preferring contextualized vocabulary learning to memorization. However, a visible difference between the contexts of Hong Kong and China was found. While Hong Kong teachers stressed vocabulary learning through memorization, their Chinese colleagues highlighted vocabulary learning through use. This finding was attributed to availability and lack of linguistic resources and language use opportunities in their respective learning contexts by the participating teachers. The researchers also highlighted the need for the teachers to get aware of learning strategies for vocabulary and "to diversify their pedagogical activities in helping empower their students with better capacity and knowledge for the vocabulary learning task" (p. 340).

Macdonald (2002) investigated the reasons behind language teachers' reluctance to teach pronunciation and for the purposes of the investigation eight ESL teachers were interviewed in an Australian context. The participants reported that they "did not like", "did not feel good at" or "did not teach enough pronunciation" and during interviews four issues emerged: formal curricula, learner goals and assessment (including the teacher's role), teaching communicatively in an integrated way and teaching and learning materials. Firstly, the teachers did not find the curricula encouraging teaching of pronunciation as pronunciation did not have a central and integrated position within ESL curricula. Secondly, assessing and monitoring students' progress was defined with words of "audible" and "intelligible". However, the researcher draws attention to the ambiguity of the notion of intelligibility whose sense may change from teacher to teacher. There was also another ambiguity in terms of teachers' roles of giving feedback about students' pronunciation. The teachers were reluctant to correct students' pronunciation errors as they felt discomfort with interrupting students' flow of speech. Third, inconsistency among the teachers was detected in terms of integrating pronunciation into their teaching; while a teacher incidentally taught pronunciation,

another teacher reported that she was not trained to incorporate it into the syllabus. Lastly, the teachers reported lack of "hands-on" materials to teach pronunciation with minimal adaptation or preparation on the teacher's part. For all these matters of ambiguity and inconsistency among teachers, the researcher suggested changes in the curriculum, policies, learner goals, assessment frameworks, and redefinition of teacher role as "speech coach" who monitors students' speech and encourages their self-monitoring.

In another study, Sifakis and Sougari (2005) focused on 421 Greek EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching pronunciation. They examined teachers' beliefs about the importance of native speaker (NS) accents and their role in pronunciation norms. The researchers placed EIL (English as an international language) paradigm as the central phenomenon of their study and attached importance to pronunciation in an era giving priority to mutual intelligibility over native-like communication. The participants answered questions about accent-related issues, pronunciation and oral communication teaching practices, and the ownership of English. The findings show that the more exposure to English the teachers had, the more they felt proud of their accents. While primary-level teachers found native-like accent significant, upper secondary-level teachers considered it less important. A significant number of teachers believed in the value of promoting intelligibility, but only a very small number of participants saw an intelligible accent as an appropriate model. With regard to teaching practices, the majority of the teachers implemented role-playing activities assuming native speaker roles. Lastly, for ownership of English, most of the teachers identified native speakers as the rightful owners of English. As a whole, the researchers found the results paradoxical:

> "On the one hand, when asked about their current pronunciation practices, teachers seemed to hold a strongly norm-bound perspective and to focus on teaching standard NS pronunciation models. On the other hand, when asked about what they think normal communication between NNSs is like, they seemed to believe that none of the rules and standards counts as much as the need to create a discourse that is appropriate for the particular communicative situation and comprehensible for all interlocutors" (p. 481).

Therefore, the researchers underline the necessity of raising awareness of international spread of English and its implications for instruction rather than identifying English with its native speakers.

From the findings of the studies above, it can be inferred that teachers' beliefs, thoughts, perspectives and perceptions which they stated in questionnaires and interviews are mostly compatible with language teaching principles suggested in the literature. In other words, teachers are quite aware of "the right thing" to do in classrooms as they were taught in pre-service teacher education. However, when they are confronted with contextual constraints, their beliefs and practices display mismatches. In addition, the impact of schooling is generally found to be more influential than the impact of pre-service education (professional coursework), and teachers who have limited access to pedagogical knowledge derive their teaching approach from their learning experiences and classroom practice. Thus, the need for ongoing professional development arises.

In conclusion, the studies cited above (except Öztürk, 2015), illuminate the aspect of teacher cognition from one or two respects; however a more holistic approach is needed to see the picture from a wider angle encompassing perceptions, actions, correspondence between the two, and the background factors affecting teacher cognition. Moreover, as noted before, teacher cognition studies focusing on teaching speaking are limited, which indicates a need for further research on this complex and significant skill. Hence, teacher cognition regarding teaching speaking in interrelationship with schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice is explored in this research.

3. METHOD

This research was designed as a case study with the aim of exploring English language teachers' perceptions, actions, correspondence between the two and the background factors with regard to teaching speaking. In this chapter, research methodology, participants, setting, data collection instruments and procedures, data analysis, and measures taken for increasing reliability and validity are detailed.

3.1. Research Methodology

The research was conducted within the paradigm of case study. Yin (2003) defines case study as "an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 13). In other words, he underlines the necessity of case study when contextual conditions are closely relevant to central phenomenon of the research. Likewise, as the central phenomenon of this research (teacher cognition) is highly affected by contextual conditions, case study research design would be the most appropriate to investigate it. Multiple case study was carried out with five cases for in-depth analysis of language teachers' cognition in order to present multiple perspectives and to discover and portray different views (Stake, 2006). Qualitative data collection instruments of open-ended questionnaire, observation, reflection report and interview provided qualitative data for exploring language teachers' cognition in their context.

3.2. Participants

The participants of the study are 28 English language teachers working at Foreign Languages Department of Eskişehir Osmangazi University. All of the participants are native speakers of Turkish and they got their education in Turkish context. From 28 participants overall information about teachers' perceptions and practices was gathered and 5 participants were chosen as cases for in-depth analysis. Brief demographic information about the participants can be seen in Table 3.1.

Stake (2006) states that choosing a case nearly means choosing to study its situation; therefore, selection of the participants are based on "purposeful sampling" (Creswell, 2005). In purposeful sampling, cases should be "information-rich" so that

Table 3.1. *Demographic information about the participants*

T	Gender		Age			Job Experience					Type of BA			Degree			[1]P.G. Study		Teaching Level		
	M	F	20-30	31-40	41-50	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21+	ELT	[2]ELL	[3]ACL	BA	MA	PhD	MA	PhD	[4]B	[5]E	[6]PI
1 (Arven)		X	X			X					X			X			X		X		
2 (Deniz)		X	X			X					X			X			X		X		
3 (İnci)				X				X			X			X			X			X	
4 (Selin)		X	X			X					X			X					X		
5 (Umut)	X			X				X			X				X			X	X		
6	X				X					X	X			X					X		
7		X	X				X				X				X					X	
8		X		X				X			X			X			X		X		
9		X			X				X		X			X							X
10		X		X				X			X				X					X	
11		X	X			X						X		X			X		X		
12		X	X				X				X			X			X		X		
13		X			X					X	X			X			X			X	
14		X	X			X					X			X			X		X		
15		X			X				X		X				X					X	
16		X	X				X				X			X			X			X	
17		X		X			X				X			X			X		X		

[1] Postgraduate Study
[2] English Language and Literature
[3] American Culture and Literature
[4] Beginner
[5] Elementary
[6] Pre-Intermediate

[**Table 3.1. (Cont.)** *Demographic information about the participants*]

T	Gender		Age			Job Experience					Type of BA			Degree			[1]P.G. Study		Teaching Level		
	M	F	20-30	31-40	41-50	0-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	21+	ELT	[2]ELL	[3]ACL	BA	MA	PhD	MA	PhD	[4]B	[5]E	[6]PI
18	X			X				X			X				X			X			X
19		X		X					X		X				X			X		X	X
20		X	X				X				X					X			X		
21		X	X			X					X			X					X		
22	X			X			X				X				X				X		
23		X	X			X					X			X			X			X	
24		X	X			X					X			X			X		X		
25	X			X				X					X					X	X		
26		X	X				X					X		X			X			X	
27	X		X			X					X			X			X		X		
28	X			X					X		X				X			X		X	

research can present further expansion about the central phenomenon (Patton, 1990). In line with this principle, selection of the cases of this study was based on:

- Voluntary participation
- Teaching at Preparatory School division of Foreign Languages Department
- Being a graduate of an English Language Teaching Department
- Having at least one year of teaching experience in the research setting

The teachers who met these criteria and whose class hours to be observed were convenient for the researcher's schedule became the cases of the study. With the aim of confirming their voluntariness and ensuring them the right of withdrawing from the study whenever they wanted, they were requested to sign a consent form in Turkish (See Appendix II). None of the participants withdrew from participating in the study. In order to keep their identities confidential, pseudonyms adopted by the teachers (Arven, Deniz, İnci, Selin, Umut) are used in the research.

3.2.1. Arven

She started learning English when she was 10 years old in the 4th grade of primary school and graduated from an Anatolian high school[7]. She holds a BA degree in English language teaching and she is doing MA studies in the same field. She did research on teachers' and students' use of fillers as discourse markers, and students' perceptions of native and non-native speakers' accents of English. She stayed in Latvia for Erasmus student exchange program for 4 months, in Sweden for Comenius assistantship program for 8 months, and in Bosnia to make a presentation about use of literature in ELT for 4 days. She has been teaching English for 4 years. She is a member of Testing Office and teaches 22 hours per week to beginners. She speaks Swedish at B1 level and German at A2 level.

3.2.2. Deniz

She started learning English at the age of 11 in the 5th grade of primary school. She graduated from an Anatolian high school. She holds a BA degree in English language teaching and she is doing MA studies in the same field. She has not done research on language teaching. She stayed in Hungary for Erasmus student exchange program for 4 months and in Spain as a mentor of young students in a youth exchange

[7] Anatolian high schools provide students with intensive foreign language education.

program for 11 days. She has been teaching for 5 years. She teaches 25 hours per week to beginners and she does not have an additional duty. She does not speak another foreign language.

3.2.3. İnci

She started learning English at the age of 11 in the first grade of secondary school. She graduated from an Anatolian high school. She holds a BA degree in English language teaching and she is doing MA studies in Comparative Literature. As for conducting research, she remembers distributing a questionnaire to students about their reluctance in speaking English during her pre-service education. She has been teaching English for 15 years, which makes her the most experienced teacher of all the participants in this study. She teaches 22 hours in a week to elementary-level students and she does not have an additional duty. She has never been abroad. She speaks German at B1 level.

3.2.4. Selin

She started learning English when she was 10 years old in the 4th grade of primary school. She graduated from an Anatolian high school where English used to be taught 24 hours per week in the past. She holds a BA degree in English language teaching. She has not done research on language teaching. She has been abroad several times; apart from touristic purposes, she was in England for a month to obtain CELTA (Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and in Belgium for two weeks for a project funded by Ministry of Education. She has been teaching English for 4 years. In addition to teaching 25 hours to beginners weekly, she has an office duty at Audio-Visual and Printed Material Office. She speaks German at A1 level.

3.2.5. Umut

He started learning English when he was 11 years old at the preparatory class of an Anatolian high school. He holds BA and MA degrees in English language teaching and he is currently doing his doctoral studies in Curriculum Development and Instruction. He wrote his MA thesis on corrective feedback in grammar. He stayed in Estonia and Spain for Comenius projects and in Belgium for an academic meeting for

one week each. He has been teaching for 12 years. He teaches 20 hours to beginners per week and he does not have an additional duty. He speaks German at A1 level.

3.3. Setting

The study was administered in Foreign Languages Department of Eskişehir Osmangazi University in Turkey. This department is responsible for providing compulsory preparatory language teaching program in English with the students of Electrical and Electronics Engineering, Computer Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, International Relations and Architecture.

3.3.1. Organization

A chairperson with two vice chairpersons manages the department. Since the establishment of the department, chairpersons holding an academic title (either as a professor or as an associate professor) have come from engineering departments. Vice chairpersons, on the other hand, have always been English language teachers from Foreign Languages Department. While the chairperson is formally at the top of the organization, vice chairpersons are primarily responsible for running the teaching program smoothly, arranging teachers' schedules and carrying out other administrative duties. Vice chairpersons also get assistance from coordinators who direct teaching in three different teaching levels. 2 coordinators manage each teaching level (beginner-elementary-pre-intermediate); in total, 6 teachers work as coordinators. Coordinators cannot act independently; they have to collaborate with the coordinators of the remaining two teaching levels and they are responsible for reporting their management to the directorial board regularly.

For efficient organization among the teachers, there are four divisions serving at school. These divisions are: Testing Office, Distance Education Office, Audio-Visual and Printed Materials Office, and Social Affairs Office. Testing Office is responsible for organizing printed materials of midterms and finals, and announcing the results of examinations. In Distance Education Office, computerized courses are designed and online-based assignments are delivered to students. Audio-Visual and Printed Materials Office members prepare listening materials for quizzes and examinations, and keep archives of materials. The duty of Social Affairs Office is not directly related to language teaching purposes; office members organize elections of class representatives

and deal with students' private problems. Every teacher is required to work in an office for at least a year; consequently, they work in a system in which former members of offices are replaced by newer members.

3.3.2. Curriculum and the place of the speaking skill

Curriculum of the preparatory school is based on a coursebook; that is, teachers and students are required to stick to a coursebook (When this research was conducted, the coursebook was *Life* series designed by Cengage Learning and National Geographic Learning) instead of an institutional curriculum (See the sample syllabus and the sample table of contents of the coursebook in Appendices III and IV). The decision to select a coursebook is taken by teachers and administrators in year-end meetings. They examine various coursebooks and choose the one which they think addresses all language areas and skills, but there is not a pre-determined set of criteria (e.g. criteria based on needs analysis of the institution and students) to change a particular printed material or to go on with it. If the coursebook does not cover teaching points such as future perfect continuous tense or writing a compare-contrast essay, further materials like grammar packs and writing packs are prepared by coordinators to make up for it beforehand. In case of further need, handouts and worksheets for all kinds of skills and areas except speaking and phonology are copied and distributed to both teachers and students.

Since speaking is taught through the coursebook, it would be appropriate to briefly touch on speaking content of the coursebook. The coursebook consists of 12 thematic units (e.g. travel, wellbeing, science, etc.) and each unit includes teaching points of *grammar*, *vocabulary, real life (functions), pronunciation, listening, reading, critical thinking*, *speaking*, *writing* and *video*. Each unit opens with an "opener" part which is designed to activate learner schema about the upcoming content. Opener begins with picture elicitation and ends with pair/group discussion and/or whole-class discussion. Following the opener, the unit presents 7 subunits; e.g. *Unit 1a, 1b, 1c, 1d* for real life, *1e* for writing, *1f* for video and *Review*. One fourths of subunits a, b and c are entirely allocated to speaking activities in addition to the speaking activities as pre- and post-reading, listening and writing. Subunit d covers real-life functions like dealing with problems, ordering food, etc. In this subunit, students learn new vocabulary, get familiarized with phonological features and interact with their classmates in pair/group work. In the video section, half of the content pertains to speaking practice. Students are

expected to work in pairs/groups before and after they watch the thematic video of the coursebook. Finally, the unit is completed with a one-page review half of which is composed of real life and speaking sections. In short, each coursebook unit opens with a speaking activity and it closes with a speaking activity again. Between opening and closure, almost half of the activities are related to speaking. After students are presented new grammatical and lexical items, they are encouraged to practice them by speaking. Before and after they read and listen to a text, they are expected to speak. If coursebook activities do not suffice, teachers are suggested further speaking activities in Teacher's book. Hence, it can be indicated that speaking occupies an important place in the coursebook.

3.3.3. Teaching program

English as a foreign language is taught in three instructional levels: beginner, elementary and pre-intermediate. Beginner classes have 24 hours, elementary classes have 22 hours and pre-intermediate classes have 20 hours per week. Levels and classes remain the same during the whole year; that is, learners cannot go up or down their current levels. Instead, learners may only have the chance to be exempt from the preparatory school through passing the proficiency examination administered at the end of the first semester. Learners who cannot be successful in midterms, final or proficiency examinations have to repeat the preparatory classes in the following year.

Courses are not taught in a skill-based fashion; rather language teaching is conducted with an integrated approach. When a teacher completes his/her hours in a class, the succeeding teacher's starting point is where the preceding teacher has finished in the coursebook. This situation makes collaboration among teachers necessary because even a small amount of disharmony between paces of teachers directly affect keeping up with weekly content of the syllabus.

Teachers have to follow the same required teaching materials within the same period of time. Course management requirements such as course flow, task distribution, examinations, pop quizzes and supplementary handouts are all coordinated by two preselected coordinating teachers for each level. Chaired by the coordinators, meetings are held among all the teachers at the same teaching level to check the quizzes and midterms to give feedback and to discuss problems if any. Teachers, regardless of age, experience and academic degree, are required to actively participate in the meetings, but

in the ultimate analysis every teacher has to comply with the decisions taken in the meetings or the ones taken by coordinators only. A teacher's responsibilities can be summarized as adhering to coordinator's decisions and performing the assigned duties related to teaching and making assessment. The teacher has to teach what is expected till the end of each week, but his/her teaching manner and method are on his/her own initiative. Apart from preplanned quizzes implemented among all classes, a teacher can prepare pop quizzes specific to his/her class. Their numbers, contents, layouts and grading are totally up to the teacher. In addition, every class has to take two speaking quizzes in a term. There is not an institutional set of criteria or a scale for testing speaking; thus, testing content and criteria for measuring speaking skills are up to the teacher's decisions for each class.

Shortly, a teacher in this institution can decide on his/her teaching approach to a certain extent and can make suggestions in meetings, but syllabus design, testing types in midterm and final examinations, and institutional limitations such as time restrictions, routines and physical conditions are determined by administrators and coordinators.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

Since the aim of this study is to explore English language teachers' perceptions and actions about teaching speaking and the background factors behind the two, qualitative approach was adopted to discover the teachers in their exact words and actions. To this end, all the instruments were designed to obtain qualitative data. First, open-ended questionnaires laid bare 28 teachers' overall perceptions. Second, observation and reflection displayed how 5 teachers put their perceptions into action. Finally, interviews completed the teachers' portraits by providing information about their background. Table 3.2. summarizes which data collection instruments were used to answer each research question.

Three experts examined the data collection instruments and gave feedback on them in terms of content, wording and layout. These experts were:

- A professor of English Language Teaching
- An associate professor of English Language Teaching
- An associate professor of Curriculum Development and Instruction.

Table 3.2. *Data collection instruments and research questions*

	Questionnaire	Observation	Reflection	Interview
Main features	13 open-ended items	Non-participatory, video-recorded	Written report, guided by questions	Structured, audio-recorded
Numerical details	28 teachers' responses	36 hours observed	20 reports (Each wrote 4 reports)	5 interviews
Data collection period	2 weeks	4 weeks	4 weeks	5 days
RQ1: What are English language teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking?	28 participants' overall perceptions were collected.	-	During explaining their actions, teachers also provided further data on their perceptions.	-
RQ2: What are their actions in teaching speaking?	Questionnaire items 9, 10, 11, 12 especially focused on teachers' stated actions.	5 teachers were observed to see their actual practices.	They reflected on their actions with the help of guiding questions.	-
RQ3: Do their perceptions and actions match?	-	Observational data were compared to data coming from questionnaire responses.	On some occasions, teachers reflected on factors which led to a mismatch.	-
RQ4: How may the factors of schooling, professional coursework, classroom practice and context affect their perceptions and actions?	Some teachers wrote about the effect of context.	-	Teachers reflected on the factors of classroom practice and context.	Background information about teachers was gathered.

3.4.1. Open-ended questionnaires

In order to get a general view of teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking and problems pertaining to it, an open-ended questionnaire was prepared. On the basis of the feedback provided by the experts, the questionnaire was redesigned and distributed to the participants. Since all the participants at the department speak Turkish, the questions were directed in Turkish to prevent a possibility of misinterpretation. The questionnaire is made up of two parts: The first part provides demographic information about the participants. The participants are supposed to choose the items about their age, gender, educational background, professional experience and teaching level. The second part

includes 13 open-ended questions about the place and activities of the speaking skill in the syllabus, students' level of speaking, problems encountered during teaching speaking and teachers' personal ways of handling these problems (See Appendix V).

3.4.2. Observations

As merely focusing on teachers' stated beliefs would not suffice to fully grasp the research phenomenon, the participants were observed in classrooms. Phipps and Borg (2009) underline the probability that beliefs elicited through questionnaires may reflect theoretical or idealistic beliefs; in contrast "beliefs elicited discussion of classroom practices may be more rooted in reality (p. 382). Likewise, Borg (2003) points out the value of observation for teacher cognition research because understanding teachers' professional actions deserves more interest than their thoughts in isolation. For this reason, five volunteering teachers' classes were observed and video-recorded on a weekly basis for a month towards the end of the academic year. It is estimated that by the end of the year teachers can make better self-evaluation by observing end-product of their teaching, namely, students' year-end oral proficiency.

During observation, the researcher took descriptive and reflective fieldnotes (See Appendix VII for the template). Descriptive fieldnotes, as their name is self-explanatory, are used for describing who does what in research environment. Reflective fieldnotes serve the purpose of recording researchers' understandings during observation. (Creswell, 2005).

While taking notes about speaking activities, the researcher paid attention to the criteria of "activity type", "participant organization", "content", "student modality", "materials" and "use of target language" in a version of COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching) scheme (Nunan, 1992) as it provides a broader set of categories than other L2 observation systems (Smith, 1996).

3.4.3. Reflection reports

Richards and Lockhart (1996) emphasize the "triggering" role of critical reflection in deeper understanding of teaching: "It involves posing questions about how and why things are the way they are, what value systems they represent, what alternatives might be available, and what the limitations are of doing things one way as opposed to another" (p. 4). Thus, 18 guiding questions about teaching speaking and about students

were adapted from Richards and Lockhart (1996) and translated into Turkish by the researcher, evaluated by the experts mentioned before and delivered to the participating teachers to reflect on the speaking components of their lessons (See Appendix VI for the template).

There were two rationales behind using reflection reports as a data collection instrument: First, through teachers' reflection, it may get easier to catch hints of their cognition related to teaching speaking. For example, the frequency of teachers' references to methodology may imply the impact of professional coursework. In contrast, if teachers continuously complain about the institution, then the weight of contextual factors can be considered. Secondly, reflective reports may ensure the validation of the researcher's understanding of videotaped lessons. In other words, teachers' reflections on their classroom practices may prevent possible misinterpretations by the researcher.

3.4.4. Structured interviews

Structured interviews were conducted with the aims of directing the participants with "a list of set questions in a predetermined order" (Nunan, 1992, p. 149) and avoiding digression. Although this kind of interview is the most formal type, it allows the interviewer and the interviewee to stay controlled and focused on the research agenda (Nunan, 1992). Interview questions were prepared on the basis of the four factors affecting teacher cognition in Borg's (2003) framework. The questions related to "schooling" were adapted from Gülden (2013) and Serdar (2012), the questions under the category of "contextual factors" were based on Nishino (2012), the questions about "pre-service training" were adapted from Serdar (2012), and the questions about "in-service training" and "teaching practice" were written by the researcher. In total, 29 questions were prepared (See Appendix VIII for interview questions). The perspective behind the design of the interview questions was based on the idea of "eliciting stories" (Woods, 1996). The interview questions were not constructed to ask directly about teachers' perceptions like "Do you think…?"; instead, teachers' anecdotes and experiences relevant to their learning and teaching were investigated because

> "When a belief or assumption is articulated in the abstract as a response to an abstract question, there is a much greater chance that it will tend more towards what is expected in the interview situation than what is actually held in the teaching situation and actually influences teaching practices. A belief articulated in the context of a 'story' about concrete

> events, behaviours and plans, is more likely to be grounded in actual behavior." (Woods, 1996, p. 27).

Therefore, the data derived from the teachers' interviews in this research tend to be more anecdotal, but they are assumed to be in close contact with the teachers' perceptions and actual practices.

3.5. Data Collection Procedures

After getting formal permission from the university administration (See Appendix I for the formal letter of permission), data collection procedures began. These procedures involved distribution of the questionnaire, video recording of observed lessons, delivery of reflection reports and interviewing the participants.

3.5.1. Distribution of the questionnaire

The questionnaire was distributed as hard copy and via e-mail to 45 teachers, and 28 teachers responded to the questions. At the end of the questionnaire, teachers were asked whether they would like to contribute to the study further by allowing observation of their lessons and attending interviews. 14 teachers volunteered to take part in the study. Among these teachers who agreed to be observed and to be interviewed and who met the criteria for sampling, five participants' weekly schedules were found the most appropriate for the researcher to make in-class observation.

3.5.2. In-class observation and video recording

Each participating teacher was observed two hours consecutively per week in a month. During that period, the teachers were observed in different classes where the focus of their lesson was speaking component of the coursebook. On few occasions, unexpected situations arose as shown in Table 3.3. Therefore, instead of observing the participants for 40 hours in total as it had been planned, 36 hours of classes could be observed.

Before observation, teachers briefly introduced the researcher and her research aim to students, and they were assured that the researcher's focus would only be on the teacher, not the students in order to relieve a possible source of tension due to being observed and video-recorded.

The researcher was an unobtrusive, non-participant observer sitting at the back of the classrooms. The biggest difficulty experienced by the researcher during video-recording was thick concrete columns dividing classrooms into two which created a barrier to capture better images of teacher and students. Still, it was not preferred to sit in front seats since it would distract learners from concentrating on lessons.

During observed class hours, the researcher took descriptive and reflective fieldnotes. Following observation, notes were shared with observed teachers to confirm their validity and to ask about problematic situations in teaching that drew the researcher's attention during observation. All the participants corroborated the accuracy of the notes and they responded to the questions raised by the researcher in these notes. The data of the video-recordings of observed sessions were transcribed verbatim, as well.

Table 3.3. *Details of observation sessions*

Teacher's Pseudonym	Teaching Level	Date	Duration	Unexpected Issues
Arven	Beginner	May 15, 2015	1st hour: 42 min. 2nd hour: 38 min.	-
		May 22, 2015	1st hour: 42 min. 2nd hour: 38 min.	-
		May 26, 2015	1st hour: 39 min. 2nd hour: 42 min.	-
		May 29, 2015	1st hour: 38 min. 2nd hour: 33 min.	-
Deniz	Beginner	May 14, 2015	1st hour: 37 min. 2nd hour: 37 min.	-
		May 21, 2015	1st hour: 38 min. 2nd hour: unavailable	The teacher was ill.
		May 27, 2015	1st hour: 34 min. 2nd hour: 31min.	-
		June 1, 2015	1st hour: 41 min. 2nd hour: unavailable	Since the syllabus had been covered before, the teacher taught in one hour and let her students free.
İnci	Elementary	May 15, 2015	1st hour: 36 min. 2nd hour: 44 min.	-
		May 22, 2015	1st hour: 42 min. 2nd hour: 39 min.	-
		May 25, 2015	1st hour: 41 min. 2nd hour: 39 min.	-
		May 27, 2015	1st hour: 44 min. 2nd hour: 42 min.	-

[**Table 3.3. (Cont.)** *Details of observation sessions*]

Selin	Beginner	May 11, 2015	1st hour: 44 min. 2nd hour: 43 min.	-
		May 18, 2015	1st hour: 43 min. 2nd hour: unavailable	All the students but one had left the classroom before the teacher arrived.
		May 26, 2015	1st hour: 44 min 2nd hour: 42 min.	-
		June 2, 2015	1st hour: 35 min. 2nd hour: 24 min.	-
Umut	Beginner	May 13, 2015	1st hour: 44 min. 2nd hour: 42 min.	-
		May 20, 2015	1st hour: 40 min. 2nd hour: 41 min.	-
		May 28, 2015	1st hour: 42 min. 2nd hour: 33 min.	-
		June 2, 2015	1st hour: 49 min. 2nd hour: unavailable	Since the syllabus had been covered before, the teacher taught in one hour and let his students free.

3.5.3. Delivery of reflection reports

Following each observation session, observed teachers were given a template of reflection report including 12 questions about teaching speaking and 6 questions about students. Teachers were requested to complete the forms immediately after the session to prevent the possibility of failure to recall the exact details of the lessons. They were also suggested reflecting on their lessons from a critical perspective rather than recounting a story of happenings in class.

3.5.4. Interviewing

The teachers were interviewed in Turkish at their earliest convenience. They were addressed questions about their language learning experiences, educational background, teaching practice and contextual conditions. Their answers were audio-recorded and all the audio recordings were transcribed verbatim by the researcher.

Table 3.4. *Dates and durations of the interviews*

Participant	**Arven**	**Deniz**	**İnci**	**Selin**	**Umut**
Date	June 25, 2015	July 24, 2015	July 9, 2015	June 24, 2015	June 26, 2015
Duration	25 min.	33 min.	33 min.	27 min.	2 hours and 4 min.

A detail that might draw interest is the wide gap between Umut's and the remaining participants' interviews in terms of duration. This gap may be attributed to Umut's educational difference as he was the only one as a doctoral student of Curriculum Development and Instruction among the other participants. His education may have ensured him a broader academic perspective to evaluate issues in more detail by making analysis, synthesis and evaluation.

3.6. Data Analysis

As the study is an exploratory-qualitative one, all the data were analyzed within the interpretive paradigm of content analysis (Creswell, 2005). As Miles and Huberman (1994) put it, in interpretive approach to qualitative data analysis "Human activity was seen as "text" –as a collection of symbols expressing layers of meaning" (p. 8). Therefore, it was aimed to have a deep understanding of layers of meaning relevant to the concept of teacher cognition in this research which is full of textual accounts of five participants.

Six steps (Creswell, 2003) were followed in qualitative data analysis procedures:

1. The data were carefully organized and categorized under the names of each participant to avoid any disorder and confusion.
2. All the data collected from each participant were read thoroughly to acquire a general sense of the information.
3. Textual data were coded by chunks and labels such as "teacher roles", "student motivation", etc.
4. Clustering codes were reduced to a smaller number of themes which constituted the major findings of the study.
5. The themes were represented in detailed descriptive information about each case.
6. Each personal picture emerging from the interpretation of the data was discussed in light of the literature on teacher cognition, English language teaching and teaching speaking.

3.7. Validity and Reliability of Findings

Although qualitative research, by its very nature, is open to various interpretations depending on perspectives of researchers, three measures of minimizing subjectivity

and ensuring utmost accuracy of findings and interpretations suggested by Creswell (2005) were taken in this study.

3.7.1. Data triangulation

Four different data collection instruments were used for confirming interpretations: open-ended questionnaire, observation, reflective reports and interviews. Multiple sources of data are likely to increase the credibility of a qualitative research (Creswell, 2005).

3.7.2. Member checking

The fieldnotes taken by the researcher during observation were shared with each participant to check their accuracy. All the participants confirmed the accuracy of the notes and added their comments.

3.7.3. Check-coding and checking of observation notes

An independent researcher having a doctoral degree in English Language Teaching coded 10% of the data, which is an advisable percentage for subsample (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, Bracken, 2004; Neuendorf, 2002). Inter-coder reliability was calculated on the basis of the following formula (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 64): "reliability = number of agreements / total number of agreements + disagreements". The reliability was found as 0.87 (87%) which indicates a high level of agreement between coders.

Another independent researcher working as a teacher trainer with a doctoral degree in English Language Teaching watched 10% of the videotaped observation data and compared her observation with the researcher's observational notes in order to check their objectivity. The correspondence between the two was found as 0.89 (89%).

4. RESULTS

The research findings are presented in this chapter in two parts. In response to the first research question concerning English language teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking, data obtained from 28 instructors are analyzed. After that, in-depth analysis begins with each of 5 instructors' perceptions, actions, correspondence between the two, and background factors in detail.

4.1. Teachers' Perceptions of Teaching Speaking

In response to the first research question about teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking, 28 teachers' replies to 13 open-ended questions of the questionnaire were analyzed and the themes derived from the data are as follows:

I- Teacher's perceptions of

a) significance of the speaking skill in the research context

b) contextual concerns

c) their actual teaching practice

II-Teachers' suggestions about teaching speaking

4.1.1. Teachers' perceptions of

4.1.1.1. *Significance of the speaking skill in the research context*

Teacher's perceptions of this issue vary which can be seen below in Figure 4.1.

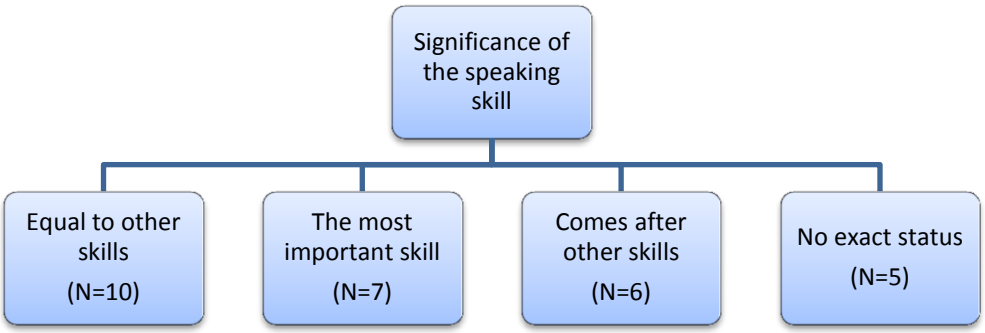

Figure 4.1. *Teachers' perceptions of significance of the speaking skill in the research context*

10 out of 28 teachers argue that teaching speaking is as important as teaching the other areas and skills. In other words, for these teachers, all language skills are of equal importance and none of them can be sacrificed for the sake of another. 3 teachers in this group suggest giving the same amount of time allocated to the other skills. 3 teachers

emphasize equality of the importance of skills, but they also add negative opinions about the current situation at school: One of them suggests speaking should be minded as much as writing and it should not be put in the background as it is now for development of both teachers and students. One teacher in the group complains about sacrificing speaking in the program and another teacher draws attention to written examinations which lead students to being outcome-oriented rather than process-oriented (i.e. giving importance to grades rather than the process of learning). In sum, among the teachers who attach equal importance to the language skills, a group of teachers give suggestions about and reasons for teaching speaking as much as the other skills, and another group underlines the disadvantaged status of speaking in the program.

On the other hand, 7 teachers give priority to teaching speaking in comparison to the other skills. In this group 4 teachers complain about the program focusing on grammar and vocabulary. One teacher notes that because of this program, students can express themselves neither orally nor in written form. 2 teachers stress the significance of speaking in communication and increasing students' chances of employment after graduation. One teacher thinks that speaking should be given more weight due to its "indisputable" necessity, but at the same time he emphasizes students' need for reading skills at their faculty departments.

However, 6 teachers think that speaking should be taught only after the other skills (specifically reading and writing) are properly taught. 3 teachers point out that faculty departments give weight to reading comprehension and writing much more than speaking fluently. In addition to highlighting the importance of reading and writing at faculties, one teacher expresses his/her disbelief at teaching all skills in a year. Another teacher lists primary objectives of the preparatory school as students' reading comprehension, note-taking, writing what they want to express in examinations and oral expression in lessons and making presentations when they begin to receive vocational education at faculty departments; therefore, in his opinion, speaking follows reading and writing.

The remaining teachers do not specify an exact place for speaking. 2 teachers emphasize the importance of students' mastering the basics of English first, which may be interpreted as basic grammatical structures of English. 2 teachers are unsure about the answer of the question, one of whom stated that speaking does not take place at

students' faculty departments. Another teacher reminds that its place should be arranged in line with the requirements of faculty departments.

4.1.1.2. *Contextual concerns*

Instructors touch upon contextual concerns affecting their teaching of speaking, which can be seen in Figure 4.2.

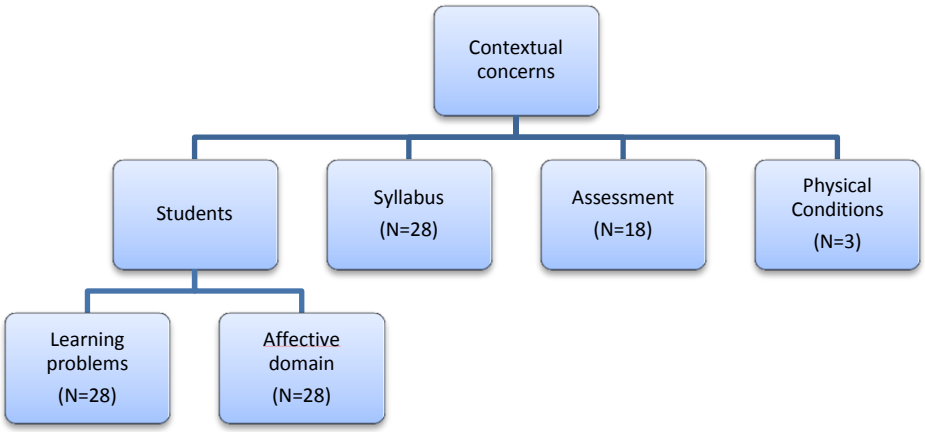

Figure 4.2. *Teachers' perceptions of contextual concerns*

4.1.1.2.1. *Students*

About the theme of students, teachers mention students' learning problems and affective domain.

Learning problems

Students' low oral proficiency emerges as the first and the foremost problem. 11 teachers describe their students' level by using negative words of "low", "poor", "insufficient" and "even lower than basic level", and 6 teachers find their level "mediocre" because these teachers observe students' having difficulty in forming simple sentences. A group of teachers attribute students' low level of speaking to the syllabus loaded with grammar and vocabulary teaching and teachers' haste to cover this syllabus leaving little time for speaking activities. Another group of teachers signify that students cannot speak fluently because they are poor in reading and have low levels of vocabulary knowledge.

5 teachers approach the issue by indicating a conflict between students' level and components of the program. They state that students' oral proficiency is low whereas

level of the coursebook and the proficiency exam is intermediate. They also note that students' grades in multiple-choice examinations are higher than their actual speaking performance. One teacher summarizes the situation in the questionnaire as follows: *"Students know the phrases at the level of "recognition" and they are able to mark the correct option in multiple-choice tests, but when it comes to "production", most of them are either at beginner level or worse, unfortunately"*.

4 teachers find their students' speaking "intelligible" despite their grammatical and lexical errors. They appreciate their effort to communicate and to overcome their anxiety and fears, but they note that they still have not fully acquired the year-end proficiency in spoken English.

Another group of teachers focus on students' linguistic problems. These teachers attribute their students' inadequacies in speaking to their deficiencies in vocabulary, pronunciation, reading, grammar, listening and writing. One teacher reports students' lack of comprehension of teachers' questions. Another teacher particularly draws attention to the conflict that students cannot articulate the lexical and grammatical items while they actually write them correctly in midterms. This comment justifies another teacher's abovementioned evaluation about the conflict between students' recognition and production levels. Students may easily recognize and even produce lexically and grammatically accurate sentences in written form, but as 2 teachers state that they cannot sustain a conversation. Likewise, 2 teachers underline "poor fluency" and another 2 teachers detail students' nonfluency with their excessive focus on accuracy. Consequently, the teachers state that students read aloud what they want to say in speaking activities for fear of making grammatical mistakes.

One teacher also criticizes students' trying to learn English by putting it into formulae and another teacher views students' overuse of fossilized structures without any attempt to restructure them as their weakness.

The impact of first language is visible, too. 3 teachers write students' tendency to think in Turkish and one teacher complains about their switching to Turkish during speaking English.

In addition to students' low oral and general proficiency level, teachers do not find their students knowledgeable enough to learn the speaking skill properly. They think that students lack background knowledge to be able to speak about the content of speaking activities.

Moreover, one teacher points out their deficiency in learner autonomy because of Turkish educational system. Another teacher exemplifies her students' misassumption that they believe speaking skill can only be developed in the United States. Teachers also report that students are not fully aware of the significance of speaking; that is, they observe that students do not know the necessity of speaking English fluently for better chances of employment. They note that students do not see speaking as a tool for communication because according to them there is a remote possibility of encountering an English-speaking person. As a result, students' ideas about the little chance of encountering with a foreigner and their misassumption about learning English abroad as the only possible way may lead them not to consider speaking as a need.

Furthermore, teachers think that students are unaware of the gradual and slow process of getting better at speaking; that is, they expect to speak fluently at the beginning of learning. One teacher also states students' need for speaking strategies, and another teacher expresses his/her discontent with their unfamiliarity with pair and group works.

As clearly seen above, teachers think that their students have problems of low oral and general proficiency and students' minds are blurred about "why" and "how" they learn to speak English. Although the two groups of problems may sound like different issues, they both display the same thing: In teachers' perception, the program pushes students to grasp grammatical rules quickly to pass exams without making them feel a genuine need for speaking and communicating. As a result of this vicious cycle, teachers report that students know neither functional exchanges used in colloquial language nor academic language integral to making presentations and debates. Therefore, teachers feel an urgent need for convincing them about the significance of speaking fluently and making necessary adjustments in teaching and testing policy for training students to use every opportunity to practice English in and out of class to be better speakers.

Affective domain

All the teachers put forth their students' affective problems about speaking, namely, demotivation, anxiety and fear for making mistakes and losing face, reluctance, lack of confidence, shyness, discomfort, low energy, boredom, stress related to passing / failing and prejudice against speaking. Teachers state two factors negatively affecting

their students' affective domain: Firstly, as a result of the absence of oral examination, students find speaking activities unnecessary, which decreases their motivation and willingness to speak. Secondly, teachers express their discontent with coursebook activities which do not appeal to students' interests.

4.1.1.2.2. *Syllabus*

The biggest problem with the syllabus is, in teachers' opinion, giving insufficient importance to speaking. The notion of insufficient importance becomes apparent in insufficient time allocated to speaking activities in the program. Teachers state that because of the syllabus loaded with grammatical structures and lists of lexical items, they cannot find enough time to do coursebook activities at ease, to check students' pair/group work performances, to give students chances to use orally the "hard" grammatical and lexical items they learned, to teach pronunciation, to bring extra speaking activities and even to feel enthusiasm for teaching. (Detailed information about speaking sections in the coursebook is given in Chapter two and sample syllabus and table of contents can be viewed in Appendices III and IV.)

21 teachers (75% of all) express their dissatisfaction with the activities in the syllabus. The activities are found "insufficient", "restricted to the coursebook", "ineffective for students", "unnecessary", "repetitive", "nonstandard", "artificial", "incompatible with our culture and school", "including consecutive exercises" (i.e. in a nonstop fashion, tiring students), "making students bored with discussion questions", "including a redundant grammar pack" (i.e. supplementary material for teaching grammatical structures that are not given in the coursebook) and "exceeding students' levels in a short period of time" which indicates the gap between pre-determined learning outcomes of the coursebook and students' actual performances. These comments of the teachers embrace not only speaking activities but also other exercises targeting all language areas and skills.

7 teachers (25%) approach the syllabus more positively, though. From the perspective of these teachers, as long as teachers adapt speaking activities to the realities of the country and the class, give these activities sufficient amount of time, and prompt inhibited students, the activities become beneficial. 2 of these teachers hear some of their colleagues skip speaking activities, but they report that they do not do so.

4.1.1.2.3. *Assessment*

Teachers state that speaking is not included in midterm assessments and final examinations; instead grammar and vocabulary items dominate assessment. Furthermore, one teacher finds speaking quizzes as "aimless" as the speaking activities at beginner-level classes and another teacher thinks that students' memorization skills instead of their oral performances are measured in tests.

4.1.1.2.4. *Physical conditions*

3 teachers note that lack of technical equipment (i.e. computers and internet connection) and big concrete pillars occupying space in narrow and crowded classrooms make the physical context an unfavorable environment for teaching speaking.

4.1.1.3. *Teachers' perceptions of their actual teaching practice of speaking*

Teachers detail what they do during teaching speaking and four subthemes (See Figure 4.3.) emerge from their accounts: Doing and adapting speaking activities, addressing students' affective domain, raising awareness, and doing assessment.

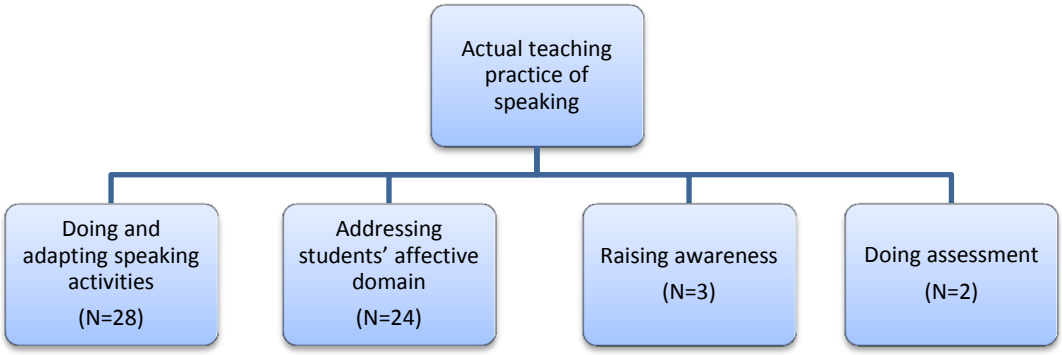

Figure 4.3. *Teachers' perceptions of their actual teaching practice of speaking*

4.1.1.3.1. *Doing and adapting speaking activities*

Teachers report which speaking activities they prefer and how they do them. All teachers state that they do coursebook activities, and some of them go into detail which parts they particularly pay attention to and some of them make adaptations in accordance with their students' profiles.

6 teachers attach special significance to lead-in parts at the beginning of units. They use visuals, headings and discussion questions given in these parts to stimulate

speaking. 2 teachers benefit from extra communicative activities and games provided at the back of Teacher's book.

8 teachers state that they do pair and group work activities. 2 of them express that they let students work in groups or pairs first, and then students share their ideas with class. One of them prefers group work for shy students to feel free to talk. The other teacher states her preference for spontaneous talk; as a result, she stresses that even though her students take notes within the group, she wants them to talk without referring to their notes.

As extra activities, teachers prefer games like taboo (n=11), presentations (n=6), role plays (n=4) and 2 teachers prefer question-and answer, especially asking questions about students' lives. Other activities written by different teachers are "situational dialogues", "chatting about current events", "story-telling", "communication-based activities", "dramas", "quiz shows", "discussion activities without a purpose of assessment", "giving pre-planned speech in the first term and impromptu speech in the second term" and "jigsaw activities". The teachers who do abovementioned activities as extras state their purposes as "to teach students speaking more fun and easily", "to make language teaching fun and to motivate them", "to grab attention for the lesson and the subject at the beginning of units" and "to enable them to express themselves at their faculty departments and job interviews". In other words, behind teachers' extra speaking activities lie their motives for motivating students and preparing them for professional life.

2 teachers also pay attention to other language areas and skills while doing speaking activities. One of them states that s/he gives importance to listening, and the other states that s/he wants his/her students to use the vocabulary in the coursebook during speaking.

2 teachers explain how they give instructions of activities. One writes steps of activities on the board. The other first reads the instruction, gives model sentences, and at the end of the speaking activity, she wants a summary or report.

7 teachers put forward their preconditions for doing speaking activities. 4 of them emphasize that they do speaking when the program and time allow for teaching speaking. One teacher thinks that students' appropriate proficiency level of students is necessary for doing activities. 2 teachers indicate that they do speaking activities as long as they catch students' interest.

4 teachers reveal their teacher roles during speaking activities, as well. One teacher hints at her "participant" role by saying that she chats with students about topics different from the lesson content. 2 teachers underline their role as "monitor" when students get into pairs and groups. One of these teachers adds roles of "guide" and "stimulator" to being a monitor in case students get stuck. Another teacher assumes himself/herself as a "helper" of weak students.

However, some teachers' responses do not have clear details: *"I do activities without disrupting the flow of the program"*, *"I bring speaking to class"*, and *"I give students the opportunity to speak a few hours per week"*. The statements imply that these teachers may assume teaching speaking like a supplement to the program rather than an inseparable part of it. Under the pressure of covering the grammatical and lexical items of the syllabus, the teachers in this group may not give equal importance to speaking.

In addition to doing the speaking activities in the way described in the coursebook, teachers modify the activities with respect to students' needs and their own reservations about activities.

Firstly, teachers state that they adapt components of activities to their students' world knowledge and interests. They change an unknown component with a familiar component, and they ask questions addressing students' culture in addition to discussion questions in the coursebook. One teacher exemplifies it with changing the question of *"Have you ever been to Malaysia?"* in the coursebook into *"Have you ever been to Malatya?"* regarding students' lack of knowledge of foreign countries. Similarly, another teacher writes how he adapts activities to the advantage of his students when the content of activities clashes with their world knowledge:

> *"The coursebook says "Describe a vacation spot abroad", but my students have never been abroad. Then I want them to describe their town. Or it says "Describe your room", but they do not have their own room. Then I tell them to describe the room of their dreams."*

Another teacher writes that s/he tries to find commonalities between students' experiences and speaking parts in order to attract their interest in warm-up. Likewise, one teacher states that s/he makes boring activities fun to catch students' attention and interest. For instance, in response to the question of: *"If you make any change in coursebook activities, can you give an example and explain it?"* one teacher details her answer as follows:

"When the task given in the coursebook was inappropriate like asking –wh questions to get information about each other in the middle of the term (because they had already known each other), I changed the writing and speaking activities into preparing questions for a quiz show like "Who wants to be a millionaire?". As they had mobile phones, I wanted them to prepare multiple-choice questions like the ones in the coursebook. They worked in groups. At the end of the lesson, for the ones who could not ask their questions I collected the questions and gave them feedback. It was much more fun and effective to act out a quiz show."

Teachers also adapt activities to classroom population, and simplify instructions, prompts and questions. Lastly, teachers change the grouping type (i.e. pair, group or whole-class) of speaking activities considering students' moods and classroom management.

Secondly, teachers make changes in the activities about which they have reservations. They choose to opt out of the activities which they find "repetitive" and "unnecessary". While a group of teachers cut some activities short in order to prolong speaking activities, another group of teachers limit speaking activities. One teacher adds vocabulary to pre-task parts if the vocabulary provided before the activity is insufficient. One teacher does not give weight to pronunciation parts as he thinks that merely giving input is sufficient for teaching pronunciation. Finally, another teacher explains activities in Turkish when s/he considers the requirements of activities.

4.1.1.3.2. *Addressing students' affective domain*

In order to handle affective problems which constitute a major obstacle to students' participation in speaking activities, teachers motivate their students. A group of teachers use general expressions of "*I motivate them to speak"* and *"I encourage them to participate"*. One teacher uses the expression *"forcing students to speak",* but s/he does not provide details about how s/he forcefully persuades students to participate in speaking activities. In contrast to this teacher, another teacher shows a gentler way; s/he states that s/he tries to make topics interesting; however, s/he does not give detail, either.

Alternatively, another group of teachers specify how they address students' affective needs. 2 teachers approach the issue in terms of students' confidence: *"I enhance students' confidence in speaking activities or during free time between activities"* and *"I tell them that 'exercises are for practicing a subject, so if you are able*

to do exercises, it means you have understood that subject'". Boosting students' confidence is also hand-in-hand with error correction; that is, one teacher reports that she recasts erroneous parts of students' utterances to bolster their confidence. 3 teachers try to alleviate the pressure of making errors on students; one enables them not to be afraid of making errors, another reminds students unimportance of making errors, and another teacher presents herself as a model who also makes errors, and she adds that making errors is normal and natural.

2 teachers' comments are related to feedback; in particular, one of them gives feedback and high class performance grades, and pay compliments to the pairs willing to speak. The other describes her acts through saying the reverse of what should not be done: She does not interfere in students' speech so that she will not disrupt their speech flow and not discourage and hurt her students.

A group of teachers address students' affective domain with the help of speaking activities. 2 of them explain the outcomes of extra speaking activities with "fun" and "motivation". Especially one teacher who asks her students to make presentations observes their creativity, increasing confidence, research skills, motivation and listening to their classmates actively during presentations. 3 teachers verbally encourage students to participate in speaking activities and 2 teachers especially nominate reluctant and silent students in activities. 2 teachers ask questions and do activities on the basis of the topics which may arouse students' interest. One teacher encourages students to get together with foreign students coming with Erasmus program.

In sum, teachers recognize and deal with their students' affective problems. Their ways of motivating are verbal encouragement, modelling, doing activities encouraging students to speak and treatment of errors by alleviating their pressure, ignoring and recast.

4.1.1.3.3. *Raising awareness*

3 teachers raise students' awareness of the points which they think may help students learn to speak better. One teacher gives them a list of useful websites and advises them to watch TV serials and to read books. In addition, s/he provides them with examples of paraphrasing so that her students can learn how to think, in her opinion. Another teacher draws their attention to how interlocutors say something.

Lastly, one teacher warns students not to use mother tongue in pair/group work activities.

4.1.1.3.4. *Doing assessment*

Two teachers mention two different ways of assessment. One teacher mentions that she prepares speaking quizzes which are actually [8]compulsory. Another teacher states that he assesses his students' group presentations even though making presentation does not exist in the program.

4.1.2. Teachers' suggestions about teaching speaking

In addition to what they do, teachers generate ideas about what should be done to improve learners' speaking skills. In this category, six subthemes (Figure 4.4.) emerged: Making changes in syllabus, teaching and assessment, using materials, taking administrative measures, addressing students' affective domain, raising awareness, and reminding students' their responsibilities.

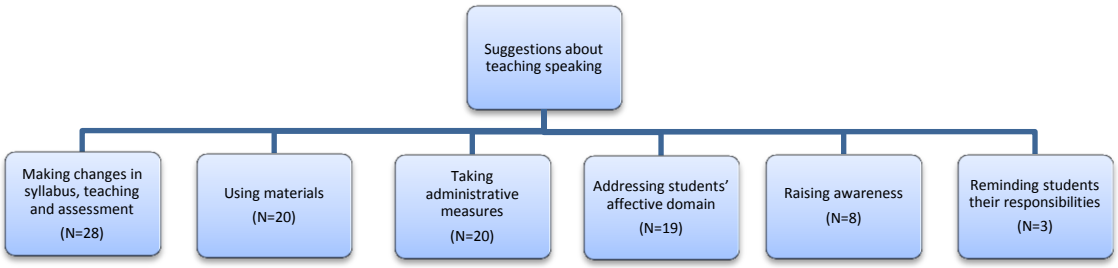

Figure 4.4. *Teachers' suggestions about teaching speaking*

4.1.2.1. *Making changes in syllabus, teaching and assessment*

Teachers do not find the current syllabus conducive to teaching speaking and suggest reducing the weight of grammar and vocabulary in it and giving priority to speaking or changing the syllabus. They want speaking to be treated as an inseparable part of language teaching and wish teaching to be planned in accordance with this perception. One teacher draws two paths in this respect: *"While we want to teach everything, do we want students to study all skills superficially or to speak without*

[8] Content and measuring scale of speaking quizzes are up to teachers' decisions.

inhibition?" This teacher also suggests decreasing total hours of teaching on the basis of his assumption that more class hours result in more grammar teaching.

One teacher finds syllabus anxiety-provoking because s/he states that a large amount of grammatical and lexical content has to be completely covered before exams. Correspondingly, another teacher wants exam preparation not to affect teaching speaking. (A brief explanation for this comment should be given here: Towards the exams, teachers and students focus on studying test items, which leads to overlooking the speaking skill. As speaking is not orally measured in midterms and finals, teachers who want to continue teaching speaking in these periods are strongly discouraged by students' reactions.)

2 teachers make suggestions about the speaking content of the syllabus. One of them suggests including tasks of speaking quizzes in the syllabus, and the other wants help from administration and colleagues to find speaking activities and topics.

In terms of teaching, teachers suggest adjustments in speaking activities and devoting time to speaking. They find creating a favorable learning environment for speaking necessary. 9 teachers concretize their suggestion by putting forward the need for a separate speaking course. Other teachers give activity-based suggestions: "situational role plays and dramas", "presentations", "topics and exercises appealing to students' daily lives", "games", "tasks", "discussions", "pair and group works to boost shy students' confidence before they speak individually", "telling grammar rules with the help of imaginary situations, pictures and videos" and "warm-up activities for students to make associations with their lives".

A group of teachers draw attention to developing other skills, namely, developing reading skills from the beginning till the end of the year, practicing listening, reading aloud and audio-recording to improve pronunciation.

Another group of teachers underline roles and responsibilities of the teacher: Teachers should maximize the use of target language and minimize the use of mother tongue. They should give prompts for dialogues. They should allocate time to pre- and post- activities. As a "facilitator", they should facilitate students' talking to each other, take notes about their speech and on the basis of these notes they should give students feedback in private. They should consider class dynamics while doing speaking activities. They should ask striking questions about topics. They should nominate silent students more.

As for assessment, teachers suggest increasing the frequency of speaking quizzes, rearranging the place of speaking in assessment, making oral examinations, evaluating students' speech seriously and meticulously and giving class performance grades fairly. 2 teachers find the system of proficiency levels (in which students proceed according to their proficiency test scores) more useful for teaching speaking.

4.1.2.2. *Using materials*

Teachers want extra speaking materials for teaching speaking, which may come in the form of a speaking pack full of activities, games and tasks ready to be used. One of the teachers indicates that photocopies of speaking activities from other sources would be better than the activities in the book. Another teacher suggests replacing the coursebook with a more suitable one. Teachers also point out the need for books for extensive reading to improve speaking. Model dialogues, audiovisual aids including TV shows and films, and resources which can provide students with exposure to English are other suggestions of teachers.

4.1.2.3. *Taking administrative measures*

Teachers expect the administration "to support them and pave the way for teaching speaking". One teacher wants "flexibility" to use alternatives and to be provided with alternatives, and another teacher makes this suggestion more tangible: Administration should distribute speaking activities to teachers. Furthermore, administration should organize workshops for teachers, give importance to the concept of continuous professional development of teachers in order to break down their prejudices against listening and speaking, reduce the number of classes, arrange regular meetings of teachers teaching at all levels, make institutional and curricular modifications and change the integrated approach into skill-based teaching. One teacher also attributes the responsibility for arousing students' interest in speaking to administration.

6 teachers think that a native-speaking teacher should be employed and one of the teachers suggests that inviting native speakers can make students feel that they can communicate with them. 6 teachers are in favor of opening a speaking club for students, whereas one teacher thinks sending students abroad for a short period of time can be appropriate. Rather than a foreign country, another teacher suggests local opportunities

in which students cannot escape speaking English, namely, performing a duty at international festivals.

4.1.2.4. *Addressing students' affective domain*

The ideas in this subtheme can be grouped in three: One group of teachers is in favor of "motivating" and "encouraging" students to speak (even if they utter short sentences) in and out of the classroom, one group of teachers suggests "making speaking activities fun" and another group finds teachers' approaches to "errors" (i.e. ignoring errors and helping students overcome their fear of making errors) critical to addressing students' affective needs.

4.1.2.5. *Raising awareness*

Teachers feel the need for raising awareness of learning to speak. They recommend that students should be convinced about the fact that mastering a language means speaking it, not memorizing grammar rules. Specifically, one teacher suggests reminding students that grammar is not necessary one hundred per cent and that students do not have to answer every question in the order of Subject+Verb+Object.

2 teachers want their students to be informed about the consequences of their misconceptions. One of these teachers suggests explaining students that they cannot complete their preparatory education without learning to speak. The other teacher suggests telling students they cannot improve their English only at school.

One teacher points out the need for change in general attitude to language teaching starting from primary school education, which in fact extends to policies of national education.

4.1.2.6. *Reminding students their responsibilities*

Teachers also make suggestions about reminding students their responsibilities. In other words, they want students to make extra effort to learn to speak apart from completing coursebook activities. They want students to read, listen and get exposed to English more out of class. In their view, students should take advantage of in-class and out-of-class opportunities to speak English, they should constantly use newly-learned structures and consult monolingual dictionaries.

4.2. Perceptions and Actions of Language Teachers and Background Factors

Following the perceptions collected from 28 teachers, it is going to be focused on the cases for in-depth analysis. In accordance with this purpose, 5 teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking, their actual practices, the correspondence between the two, and background factors are delved into. Data gathered from 5 teachers are analyzed in the alphabetical order of their pseudonyms.

4.2.1. Arven

4.2.1.1. *Perceptions of the speaking skill and teaching speaking*

Arven thinks that teaching speaking depends on the purpose of the school and its approach to language teaching. She also suggests that speaking should be focused on as the essential skill after students achieve a basic level of proficiency. However, she finds teaching speaking to all students utopian as she has reservations concerning students' interest in speaking because she describes interest as *"depending on the students, a personal thing"* and puts forth that not everyone can be interested in speaking skill. Her perception may be the result of her teaching experience because Arven states that her students have neither confidence nor willingness to practice speaking. Therefore, if 5 or 6 out of 20 students speak, this gives her a sense of "good level". Moreover, she views students' being irresponsive to her questions as a fundamental issue by stating that some students do not even bother to reply her questions.

In order to decrease students' motivational problems and to meet their needs, she suggests doing speaking activities "frequently" and informing students about the impossibility of completing preparatory school education without practicing speaking. Moreover, she stresses that teachers should be interested in teaching speaking and students should know their teachers' interest. As the most important step towards improving students' speaking skills, she suggests convincing students that speaking is necessary and that mastering a language is actually being able to speak it in a life-like classroom environment where speaking is done as much as possible. She additionally suggests giving importance to individual, pair or group tasks.

In Arven's opinion, students also need proper and systematic training in pronunciation, speaking strategies, a classroom environment conducive to practicing speaking. Moreover, she finds continuous assessment necessary; thus, she suggests

increasing the number of speaking quizzes to manage students and to make them approach speaking more seriously.

In addition to students' problems, Arven touches on an institutional problem. She does not feel that speaking is given importance at the preparatory school since content to be covered in syllabus overshadows speaking, and she expresses her dissatisfaction with speaking activities in the program. Nevertheless, she appreciates her colleagues who do speaking in their classes.

With regard to her actual teaching of speaking, she mentions preparing speaking quizzes making up 25% of her assessment each. She notes that she tries to draw students' attention to what interlocutors say and how they say it in listening texts. She describes her teaching as follows:

> *"Although I cannot say I do every speaking activity in the coursebook, I do not neglect to do speaking in part C of each unit. I ask students the questions given in the coursebook. Sometimes our talk digresses and we go on to talk about different topics. In addition to the activities of the coursebook, we do discussion-like activities without a purpose of assessment. I do not make changes in coursebook activities."*

4.2.1.2. *Actions in teaching speaking*

Arven's classes began with coursebook activities. She did not use a lead-in technique to give students further opportunity to speak and to activate their background information at the beginning of lessons. Arven pointed out that although she did not try hard to do lead-in activities every lesson, she stated that she did warm-up as in the form of social chat about exams and current affairs. However, she noted that absence of lead-in activities in her observed hours was because of low motivation of both hers and her students' in the last weeks of the term.

She followed the coursebook in speaking parts with some changes. She completed pre-listening activities, listening comprehension and vocabulary parts. She did pronunciation parts, but she skipped exercises about sentence stress as she thought that teaching stress was "up in the air" due to the lack of systematic training of pronunciation.

Arven did not use Teacher's book which gave guidance about speaking activities. Therefore, unexpected situations occurred during presenting coursebook content. To illustrate, while she was teaching apologies, she wanted students to put 11 expressions into two categories: "making" and "accepting" apologies in the coursebook. Out of 11

expressions, students could not handle 4 expressions, and when they asked Arven those expressions, Arven told students that she did not know where to put them, either. (In fact, there were two more categories in Teacher's book -*accepting your fault* and *refusing to accept it*-).

During students' interaction in pair/group work activities, she walked round the classroom and monitored pairs in Turkish. In role plays even though Arven warned students not to write down their role plays as scripts, students took notes. According to Arven's observation, except for a few students, speaking meant "writing a script" to be read out. Therefore, she found changing students' tendency to take notes "utopian".

As for students' acting out, she asked pairs to come to the front of the class. When a pair did not want to be on the stage, she did not insist on their doing so. She stated that she found being on the stage face-threatening for some students. While the pairs were performing (reading aloud their role plays), she interfered in Turkish for prompting and clarification. She made humorous remarks, but she did not provide feedback on conversations.

With regard to pair and group work activities, two situations caught the researcher's attention. First, in one of the observed lessons she turned a pair work activity into a chain activity. Due to the students' observed lack of motivation, this chain activity went on with Arven's urging each student to choose a classmate to ask the following question. Furthermore, despite the teacher's warnings, the students did not listen to each other since they were more concerned about the quiz in the next lesson.

Second, in a group work observed in the 3rd week, students did their talks in their groups, then Arven nominated one volunteering student from each group to speak and represent their groups' ideas. However, these students seemed to share their personal opinions instead of their groups' opinions in response to the teacher's questions; consequently, they did not work as "spokesperson" of their groups.

The two cases above indicate that Arven learning outcomes of speaking activities were not achieved. Arven stated that most of her students did not have interest in speaking. Parallel to her perception, she was not observed to arouse interest of uninterested students; instead she oversimplified activities. As a result, classroom interaction took place between Arven and few participating students.

Arven changed some pair/group work activities which were pre-reading or pre-listening activities into whole-class talks. In her reflection, she reported that whole-class

talks had superiority over pair work because she wrote that in whole-class talks she grabbed attention of her students by means of spontaneous questions as students did not have the opportunity to write down their speech. However, with regard to pair work she wrote that students who wanted to speak spontaneously had to wait for their partners who wanted to write down their speech. Arven also stated that she attracted more students by means of whole-class talks, but it was observed that in whole-class talks few students answered her questions and this low participation caused Arven's reaction: *"What's the matter with you? You're just a handful of people. We have no interaction. This is the last unit, and we should make the most of it. What didn't you understand?"* (Observation week 4, translated from Turkish). Lastly, her concern about covering the coursebook units on time also appeared to determine her choice to change pair/group work activities into whole-class talks as she indicated that pair work lasted longer than whole-class talk.

Arven used Turkish for giving instructions, motivating students when they did not give reaction, providing explanations for speaking activities and for unfamiliar vocabulary items, and managing her class. Furthermore, in her reflection she reported that casual Turkish chats in lessons were necessary because they made teacher-student relationship closer. Thus, Arven taught in Turkish and English by going back and forth between the two languages. When she switched to one language, the students switched to that language, as well. Thus, her frequent use of Turkish stimulated learners' use of Turkish. She also monitored students' pair/group work performances in Turkish; similarly students talked in Turkish during their in-group talks. Arven explained this situation with her trouble in controlling the whole class. She stated that warning students not to use Turkish had lost its effect gradually. She also noted that she did not know alternative ways to prevent learners' switching to their mother tongues in group works. Thus, she underlined the need for students' self-control in this respect.

An anecdotal example can be given pertaining to code-switching in one of her classes. At the beginning of a new unit as a pre-reading activity, Arven initiated a whole-class talk about the concept of "samurai". Apart from two students, the class did not respond; thus, Arven switched to Turkish. A student spoke in Turkish to talk about being a samurai. Arven reminded him he could use "If clause" (which was a recently taught structure) in his speech instead of speaking Turkish. The student said that he did

not want to bore his classmates by speaking English. In the student's eyes, English was less preferable option to answer his teacher's question.

In her reflection Arven wrote that she could not apply her teaching approach in lessons because she did not believe speaking could be taught in two hours. In her view, speaking should be taught in an independent course together with awareness-raising about pronunciation and use of "fillers" which serve holding the floor during thinking about what to say next like *I mean, you know* (Roberts, 2012). Since there is not an independent speaking course strengthened with phonological training as in Arven's mind, current circumstances like students' profile and loaded syllabus in Arven's cognition affected her teaching negatively. Thus, she listed "having lessons on Friday at the end of the day", "existence of the half of the classroom population", "three teaching partners' anxiety to cover coursebook syllabus at beginner level ", "absence of a specific area in the school building for teaching speaking", "upcoming end of the year which decreased teachers and students' motivation from the beginning of the term", "spring fest week" as the factors affecting her teaching and explaining her students' lack of participation.

In line with Arven's reflection, students' misbehaviors and reluctance to participate in speaking was observed in Arven's lessons. One or two students were sleeping in all of her lessons observed. In a lesson, two students sitting at the back were observed to play with their mobile phones and one student was isolated from the class. Mainly, four students dominated the whole lesson and the others were silent and seemed uninterested in the activities. Arven did not want to force students to participate because forcing might cause anxiety in her opinion. She indicated that in that way she respected her silent students' individual characteristics.

For handling such kind of misbehaviors she warned students in Turkish sometimes by hinting at grades. She made remarks of CPG (Class Performance Grade measuring in-class participation) humorously in all her observed lessons. In her opinion, she did it for making reference to her students' jokes about CPG and for using CPG as a motivating factor.

On the other hand, when grammar items were taught, students seemed much more attentive. The students who did not have on-task behavior in speaking sessions took careful notes about grammar items. Confirming this observation, Arven stated that students' attention to grammar was more apparent than their attention to other content.

Therefore, Arven called grammar learning "real learning" on behalf of her students because when they did speaking all day long, her students gave her the message that they did not learn anything.

There are also issues originating from Arven's actions. One thing that drew the researcher's attention was Arven's sitting most of the teaching time. She explained her staying at teacher's desk with her demotivation to walk around in that class. She expressed that since the class was silent and irresponsive, she was not likely to have problems in controlling them.

Furthermore, her instructions could be put forward. She directed her students to an activity then she changed her mind. To illustrate:

> *T: Let's have a look at part 8.*
>
> *Ss: XXXX*
>
> *T: Work in pairs. It's the style of İbrahim hoca.* (smiling, İbrahim hoca is her teaching partner). *Well, the questions I'd like to ask are actually in part 9. Here it says work in groups. And I guess everybody has something to say. Which product or possession could you not live without and why? You can do it as work in pairs if you want. Then do it, because you wanted, liked it so much.* (Observation week 1, translated from Turkish).

In fact, students did not show a sign of enthusiasm for pair work; therefore, Arven's last sentence toned sarcastic. The students did not give reaction to skipping the 8th activity, either.

Similarly, one of her instructions as *"Get ready in a few minutes, then I'll listen to some of you"* (translated from Turkish) might also have reduced students' interest because it might have sounded like there was little possibility for the teacher to check all pairs' conversations.

Arven also deviated from what she said in her instruction; for example, she asked the students to summarize the listening text, but she turned the activity into a teacher-student talk guided by real-life questions like *"Do you use Twitter?".* When students' responses did not go beyond short responses, Arven detailed their answers herself, which increased teacher talking time. As she did not give students a purpose for listening to their classmates speaking, they were making noise while a student was speaking.

4.2.1.3. *Correspondence between perceptions and actions*

Arven's questionnaire responses and her observed practices were compared and mismatches were found between her perceptions and actions. While Arven suggested doing speaking activities frequently and giving importance to pair and group works, she was observed to change some pair/group work activities into whole-class talks. Moreover, some of these whole-class talks which Arven described as "discussion-like" were in the form of chats in Turkish and English between Arven and her students. She also underlined the importance of teachers' interest in teaching speaking, but her stated and observed demotivation created a conflict with her suggestion. Arven attributed the lack of correspondence between some of her perceptions and actions to contextual factors of learner profile and anxiety to cover the syllabus by emphasizing that "*I do not think I could apply my own teaching technique in the lesson because I do not believe speaking can be taught in two hours"* (1st reflection).

4.2.1.4. *Factors affecting perceptions and actions*

Upon data analysis of the interview with Arven, five factors (Figure 4.5.) affecting her perceptions and actions were found.

Figure 4.5. *Factors affecting Arven's perceptions and actions*

4.2.1.4.1. *Language learning experiences*

Arven pointed out that she could not receive much speaking education at secondary school because her teachers gave weight to grammar and reading. At high school, however, her teachers tried to provide more exposure to English by means of audiovisual aids (i.e. songs and movies). Especially at preparatory class, they did speaking, but in the following years as the hours of English and speaking dropped,

Arven made up for this decrease by speaking with her friends in a group of three. They were speaking English as they could not do so much at school. Arven also recalls hosting a Mexican student for a few days, which helped her practice speaking and feel confident about her oral skills at that time.

Two English teachers influenced her, one of whom was her sister. Since she found English teachers interesting in general, she inevitably liked her teacher and her affectionate attitude, but she does not remember methodological details about her teaching.

Arven was keen on speaking and desired to impress people when she spoke. Her priority was to learn to speak fluently, and the repercussions of her fondness can be seen in the details of her university education.

4.2.1.4.2. *Pre-service education*

Arven took great pleasure in making presentations and tried to better her pronunciation. Her pleasure increased when her teachers gave positive feedback and her classmates applauded at the end of her presentation.

She was influenced by two instructors as they were native speakers of English. Particularly her British instructor with her teaching experience and command of languages like French and Turkish fascinated her. By sitting at front desk, Arven attentively observed her teacher's pronunciation.

Although she finds university environment sufficient for speaking English as a language learner, she does not find it sufficient for training teacher candidates to teach speaking. She does not remember anything specific to teaching speaking apart from making several presentations.

During her teaching practicum she felt the power of controlling students:

> *"-How did you feel in your teaching practicum?*
> *-Well, a lot of people, you know, were looking at you and I was standing opposite the class… It was quite interesting. You also feel the power because you can control the whole class. I still feel that power in front of the class in general. Yet, I thought seriously for the first time that someone wants to learn something."* (interview)

4.2.1.4.3. *Teaching practice*

Since her teaching practicum, she has been interested in teaching listening and speaking most because how learners pronounce sounds, what kinds of fillers they use

and their manner in front of listeners catch her interest. Furthermore, she is fond of listening to her classmates' presentations in her MA studies.

She does not see herself very good at teaching speaking due to the institutional context, and especially her students' demotivation has automatically demotivated her. She notes that she has tried to be a good model of a speaker for students and has given opportunities for practice. When she saw that her students needed phonological training, she gave them brief information about phonetics and phonetic alphabet for two years, but on seeing students' demotivation she gave up. She thinks that students can only improve their oral skills if they are interested in speaking. In her opinion, they also need to have an ear for listening and pronunciation. For her, listening provides useful input for speaking, and she finds listening very intriguing because *"Listening is a nice thing. Well, something unusual happens in your brain at that moment and you get it with your brain"* (interview).

4.2.1.4.4. *Professional development*

Arven stated that she did not participate in in-service training because programs directly related to teaching did not attract her interest at all. She participated in a TESOL program just for examining its content and getting closer to native speakers. Therefore, she indicated that she could not recall what she learned from it. She was also an MA candidate in ELT when the research was conducted. Upon a question about whether she benefitted from scientific research for her teaching, she said:

> *"There might have been a few things that I encountered in my MA courses and intended to do so, but I might not have transferred that information to my lessons much because our learning environment is always very different. I mean, there is a big difference between the learning context of an article I read and the context or learner profile of our school."*(interview)

She finds training in vocabulary and pronunciation necessary for teaching speaking. She also would like to receive in-service training for teaching speaking. She thinks that speaking is "a personal thing" to be developed by learners' personal interest and effort, but she does not want to "lose" others who do not show interest. Therefore, she would like to join a training program about improving students' oral skills.

4.2.1.4.5. *Context*

She does not find institutional context and student profile appropriate for applying new pedagogical knowledge she gains from articles as cited above. She does not think favorably about the physical context, either. Seating arrangement as rows, concrete columns in classrooms and lack of a special area for audiovisual aids make the physical context inadequate for her. However, she sees progress in terms of the policy of teaching speaking. When she began to work at this preparatory school, she did not find a chance to measure speaking, but now she expresses her pleasure of seeing that teachers can prepare speaking quizzes as many as they can.

She finds her workload excessive which comprises 22 teaching hours per week and an additional duty at testing office. Because of her responsibilities for examinations at testing office, she feels too exhausted to think about and to save energy for teaching.

The summary of the case of Arven can be seen in Table 4.1.

4.2.2. Deniz

4.2.2.1. *Perceptions of the speaking skill and teaching speaking*

In response to the question about significance of the speaking skill, Deniz asserts that speaking remains in the shadow of the other skills because of the integrated approach to teaching language skills at preparatory school. She thinks that due to the grammar-, vocabulary- and reading-focused nature of the program and assessment, instructors allocate less time to speaking. Therefore she suggests doing just the reverse of the current system and providing more time to speaking and more exposure of students to native-like English and practice. As another suggestion, she puts forward making adjustments in the institution and the program, but she does not detail these adjustments.

Deniz names students' level as "elementary" and she states that her students are inhibited during speaking, and she hears some of them express their fear of speaking. She underlines their considerable reluctance to speak in contrast to their serious approach to grammar. In order to improve students' speaking, she suggests keeping use of Turkish at minimum, guiding students towards sources exposing them to English and employing native speakers. She also suggests giving weight to learner-centered activities because she assumes they will be more motivated if the program includes the topics they want.

Table 4.1. *The case of Arven*

Themes	Importance of speaking	Contextual concerns	Actual teaching practice	Suggestions
Perceptions	-No exact status -Teaching speaking to all students is utopian.	Contextual problems related to students, syllabus, assessment and physical conditions	-Drawing students' attention to listening texts -Doing coursebook activities -Doing discussion-like activities	-Doing speaking activities frequently -Informing students about the fact that they cannot complete their language education without speaking -Giving importance to individual, pair and group tasks -Teachers' being interested in teaching speaking and students' knowing their teachers' interest -Increasing the number of speaking quizzes
Observed actions	Arven did speaking activities with participating students, but she did not try to address non-participating students.	-For the problems she mentioned, she was not observed to do something different from doing coursebook activities. -She resorted to ignorance, warning and reminding CPG for misbehaviors.	-She drew attention to pronunciation of new vocabulary. -She covered coursebook content. -Rather than a discussion, T-S chats were observed.	-She was not observed to do something different from doing coursebook activities. -She was not observed to give such information. -She gave more weight to T-S interaction than to S-S interaction (i.e. changing some pair/group work activities into whole-class talks) -Her interest in teaching speaking was not much visible considering her stated and observed demotivation. -The practice of the last suggestion is unobservable.
Background factors	**Language learning experiences:** No experience of speaking class + speaking English with her friends + two model teachers **Pre-service education:** Taking pleasure in presentations + two model instructors as native speakers + No significant effect on how to teach speaking **Teaching practice:** Feeling powerful in teaching practicum + interest in listening + giving up teaching phonetics **Professional development:** Unclear about what she has learned from in-service programs and her readings in MA program **Context:** Insufficient conditions for teaching speaking + heavy workload			

Deniz has changeable perceptions of speaking activities. In response to a questionnaire item, she labels coursebook activities as "very limited", "uninteresting" and "not useful". She thinks that teachers can find them fun, but in her opinion teachers cannot attract students' interest with these activities. However, she states in another questionnaire item that she does not make any changes in the coursebook activities as she finds them feasible and appropriate for students' levels. Furthermore, she points out that she tries to devote more time to speaking activities and talking about current events with students in English. In another account of her, she expresses that she has to cover speaking parts of the coursebook as homework or writing, otherwise she cannot keep up with the program.

4.2.2.2. *Actions in teaching speaking*

Deniz started her lesson with coursebook content; as a result, her students were not given a chance for further speaking practice in a lead-in activity. She greeted students with expressions like "How was your day?", but only one student answered and she did not ask the others. When she entered the classroom, students were sitting here and there as if desks were scattered randomly. A few students sitting at the back were completely isolated and two or three students dominated her lessons till the end.

Deniz was not observed during teaching parts of units assigned to teaching speaking; therefore bits and pieces of speaking activities such as pre/post-reading activities could be observed. Deniz either turned these speaking activities into whole-class talk or kept them limited to few participating students. Moreover, because of students' low participation in pair work activities, Deniz had to participate herself. To illustrate, she took a role as a customer in a role play activity. After she distributed the roles to 3 students sitting at the front, she bargained with one of them in front of the class while the other 2 participating students watched them. As might be predicted, the role play became teacher-fronted. When Deniz quitted bargaining by saying *"It's too much. Please bargain a little bit. I'm so tired"*, she wanted another student to go on bargaining, but she still intervened in the role play by making comments about prices and features of items. Meanwhile, the remaining 9 students in the classroom did not participate at all and they were left alone. Consequently, the speaking activity embraced Deniz and 3 students.

Similar to the rarity of pair work activities, group work activity was observed only once. In fact, group discussions did not fulfil their purpose because they were like in-group checking of sentences and planning what to read aloud. Since students focused on accuracy rather than fluency, they showed their sentences to Deniz to check accuracy rather than talking and sharing spoken content in English.

As mentioned before, Deniz preferred whole class talk to pair/group work activities, but whole-class talks were like casual chats rather than a speaking activity with a learning outcome. Students' interest grew (even sleeping students woke up) when Deniz chatted with them by switching back and forth between Turkish and English about the topics they are interested in. Giving real-life examples seemed to draw students' attention more. When they talked about such topics as friends, relationships, social media which are directly related to their daily life, they got more interested. Deniz initiated and ended these talks, and her personal interests in the topics like social media shaped the content of the talks when the context of the unit permitted. However, these whole-class talks resulted in teacher domination. Although Deniz's encouragement to increase students' talking was observed, it turned out to be counterproductive as it increased teacher talking time.

In addition to changing grouping type of activities, she changed the questions provided in the coursebook. For instance, a pair work activity was about discussing the reasons for buying souvenirs listed in the coursebook. In other words, the primary wh-question of the activity was *"Why?"*, which required high-order thinking. However, Deniz changed the pair work activity into a whole-class talk based on a simpler, low-order question: *"How many of these items have you bought so far?"* Nonetheless, only three students dominated the talk, and the others did not respond to Deniz's question at all. Therefore, she sometimes answered her own questions when she could not get a response.

Deniz switched to Turkish in her lessons on the grounds that students could not understand when she spoke English. She was observed to use Turkish as a way of helping non-participating students in case her efforts to involve them by asking guiding questions did not work. On the other hand, Deniz's students displayed guilty conscience in terms of code-switching. When Deniz approached them to monitor their work in pairs/groups, they stopped speaking Turkish and switched to English. When Deniz switched to Turkish during monitoring, they switched to Turkish, too. At this point,

Deniz's code-switching prevented students from endeavoring more to speak English, but Deniz stated her willingness to accept their speaking in Turkish as long as they generated new ideas for the lesson.

In terms of students' non-participation in speaking activities, Deniz summarized her situation as follows:

> "*I was the one who asked most of the questions, but I could not get a response. I felt the lesson was stuck. I tried to grab attention by using humor and totally unrelated speaking activities. It partially worked"* (1st reflection).

However, in that lesson towards the end of the second hour, she lost participating students too as they got tired. Therefore, she completed her class time either by chatting or by changing the activities into low-level ones like asking a student to draw an item on the board and gathering students' guesses.

As for the problems related to participating students, students did not speak spontaneously in acting out, and Deniz allowed them to take notes and read out their ideas emerged from pair work. In Deniz's opinion, students lacked confidence; for this reason, she indicated that they needed to speak with the help of notes in their hands. Moreover, while a student was speaking, the others did not listen to him/her as Deniz did not give a purpose for them to listen. She resorted to warnings like *"We are listening, okay?"* in order to keep them quiet.

Deniz's instructions could also be drawn attention. For instance, Deniz did not clarify a pair work activity about trade and did not monitor students. She said:

> *"Do it with your partner or on your own. And then let's talk about it, okay? I'll give you the time to think about, okay? Choose four of them."* After students remained silent for a while, she tried to arouse their interest: *"Shall we start together? Hm? Maybe it will be more fun. Hm?* (waiting for a response) *Who is ready?* (waiting for a response) *The rest of the class isn't interested* (waiting for a response). *Okay. Let's, let's, let's think, let's hear the items that you choose."* (Observation, week 1)

Seeing that the activity was limited to three students sitting at the front, she changed it into a teacher-student interaction. Therefore, she distributed roles as *"You are the seller and I am the customer"*.

Student nomination is another issue that deserves mentioning. For instance, in one of the lessons about the function of promising, two students in the same pair talked in detail about promises together with a few students' participation, whereas the remaining pairs' opinions were not asked at all. Furthermore, following a pair work, the students

nominated by Deniz expressed their own opinions, but they did not touch on their partners' ideas. Deniz did not want the silent partners to speak, either.

Confronted with these issues, Deniz expressed that she fulfilled her teaching aims with participating students which made up 20% of the class in her view. The remaining 80% was either sleeping or playing with their mobile phones. She described their interest in speaking as "zero" by adding that she was not surprised or affected by their non-participation. She expressed her satisfaction with the way she taught speaking, but she was unhappy about students' level: *"If I am exposed to these students more, I can forget how to speak English"* (1st reflection). She also touched on her students' sense of responsibility by emphasizing that they did not bring their coursebooks and "even pencils".

Deniz criticized herself once for her actions: She wrote that she could have asked students to bring different activities to be used instead of coursebook activities. She stated that the activities chosen by students could have been better. However, she was not observed to do so in another lesson.

4.2.2.3. *Correspondence between perceptions and actions*

Deniz's perceptions and actions displayed mismatches. Although in her accounts she gives more importance to speaking than the other skills, and criticizes the syllabus, she does not bring alternative speaking activities. She suggests giving weight to learner-centered activities, she was observed to favor T-S interaction; thus, she changed some pair/group work activities into whole-class talks. She also suggested keeping Turkish at minimum during teaching speaking, but she was observed to switch to Turkish. Moreover, similar to Arven, she stated that physical conditions and learner profile did not allow her to apply her actual teaching technique, which can be taken as her explanation for mismatches.

4.2.2.4. *Factors affecting perceptions and actions*

Upon data analysis of the interview with Deniz, five factors affecting her perceptions and actions were found, which can be seen in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6. *Factors affecting Deniz's perceptions and actions*

4.2.2.4.1. *Language learning experiences*

Deniz states that English language teaching was mechanical at primary school and her teachers frequently used mother tongue. In contrast, she hails her high school as "very successful" thanks to its qualified teachers, good materials, favorable physical conditions (i.e. less populated classrooms) and university entrance exam results. Even though she calls her teachers' expectations "demanding", she remembers enjoying learning English and in-class dynamism at high school. For her, it was like a "miracle" to learn a new language and she looked forward to participating in lessons and doing assignments.

All language skills and areas were separately and equally focused, but her grammatical knowledge improved most. In addition to preparing students for university entrance exam, her teachers organized extensive reading activities in reading club and discussions. Her teachers spoke English most and advised their students to minimize mother tongue use in their future teaching.

She admired her English teacher and took her as an idol due to her diligence, pronunciation, outlook and outfit. Her teacher also spent some time in England and the United States; therefore, in Deniz's opinion, she was very cultured. As a "wonderful person" in Deniz's eyes, she had the profile of a teacher that Deniz wanted to be in the future; thus, she chose to be an English teacher.

4.2.2.4.2. *Pre-service education*

Deniz was keen on undergraduate courses with literary and cultural content; thereby English became the medium of learning new things for her at university.

However, she objects to professional courses about which she thinks that unnecessary details confuse students. For instance, she calls syntax lesson and its requirement of drawing trees as "torture". She is also doubtful about the use of approaches and methods taught in methodology lessons.

Deniz attached importance to instructors' knowledge and doctoral research in their field because knowing what an instructor knows and how s/he can contribute to Deniz's pre-service training was a motivator for her to study. Nevertheless, she was disappointed at encountering instructors who supported rote-learning in pre-service courses, and their lessons were like a "nightmare" for her.

Deniz does not think that pre-service education prepared her for teaching speaking as most of the instructors did not speak English in classes. In her opinion, it is irrational for teacher educators who do not speak English in their lessons to train student teachers in terms of teaching speaking.

During teaching practicum, she witnessed the problems of state schools governed by the Ministry of National Education and the school teacher's approach turned her off; consequently, she made up her mind that she would not work at state schools because she began to hold the belief that "nothing will change there".

4.2.2.4.3. *Teaching practice*

In Deniz's view, students like reading and speaking; accordingly, she likes teaching these skills because she feels herself closer to the skills which her students like. Nevertheless, she voices her disbelief at teaching speaking at preparatory school:

> *"As our skill lessons are integrated, doing speaking in warm-up of a lesson is not teaching the speaking skill at all, I think, but it is the best we can do. Getting students engaged in some speaking activities and encouraging pair and group work do not work much. I mean, students cannot do it, I think. That's why I do not believe I do speaking much. I might not have improved my teaching, either because it is impossible to improve it without practice".* (interview).

Deniz loves teaching reading most because she feels that she can establish a better relationship with her students and make them speak more through the "atmosphere" created by reading. She thinks that her students also find reading "smoother, softer and less anxiety-provoking", and giving information about unfamiliar vocabulary in the text and speaking in pre-reading activities lower their affective filter. Furthermore, she loves learning and teaching new content by reading, and she feels safe with finding several

resources for reading. Thus, she prefers to use pre-reading and post-reading activities as speaking activities because she observes that when a student reads something, s/he acquires new knowledge to speak about. However, in her opinion, too many unfamiliar words and difficult comprehension questions cause problems for students; therefore, Deniz indicates that she has to do spoon-feeding of her students to continue the lesson when they could not do reading activities.

Deniz compares her current students at preparatory school and her previous students at her previous workplace. She had higher job satisfaction at that school because her previous students exhibited enthusiasm for speaking and their proficiency level was high. Therefore, she spoke fluently and taught English without switching to Turkish. In contrast, at her current workplace she feels that she "is becoming blunt" in terms of teaching speaking.

4.2.2.4.4. *Professional development*

Deniz participated in a few symposiums and seminars about language teaching, but she did not participate in an in-service training session about teaching speaking. During the sessions she participated in, she felt happy, but when she turned back to classroom reality, she got disappointed:

> *"My idealism reaches peak, I want to do a plenty of things, but I feel the pressure of being unable to actualize myself and I enter classroom with this state of mind. The student profile is …* [inaudible], *they neither want to speak nor want to write, they do not want to do anything. In the end, my disappointment and demotivation come back again."* (interview)

The in-service training sessions in which she participated gave her new ideas about doing group activities without departing from the syllabus, but in her view, such factors as contextual conditions of Turkey, student profile, syllabus and lack of resources limit teaching speaking. Still, she longs for an opportunity to participate in an in-service training activity. She also expresses that she has not benefitted from research articles for her teaching.

4.2.2.4.5. *Context*

She finds physical context insufficient for teaching speaking due to the lack of technological facilities and the unfavorable architecture of the school building where her voice echoes in classrooms. She calls the learning environment "empty" for teaching all language skills; that is, she thinks that "there is nothing in classrooms" to be

used as teaching materials. She highlights that despite having good audiovisual materials provided within coursebook package, teachers cannot use them because of the unfavorable physical conditions.

Deniz views an absence of policy about teaching speaking. She expresses her anger about the institutional emphasis on grammar and vocabulary teaching and haste to cover the syllabus. She also voices her pessimism about a possible change at school because she thinks that administrators do not pay attention to teachers' wishes. She also finds her workload heavy because of her MA studies, but she states that she fulfils her duties as a teacher.

The summary of the case of Deniz can be seen in Table 4.2.

4.2.3. İnci

4.2.3.1. *Perceptions of the speaking skill and teaching speaking*

With regard to significance of speaking among the other language skills, İnci thinks that all skills are of equal importance. However, she stresses that students focus on preparing for multiple-choice exams rather than learning to speak; thus, she suggests there should be a speaking exam because she describes students as "exam-oriented". She also divides her students into two: Students who like sharing their ideas and volunteer to speak, and the ones who do not read and turn out to be incapable to speak.

As for problems encountered in teaching speaking, İnci lists contextual restrictions of limited time and the syllabus to be covered, and students' reluctance to speak. According to her observation, students need to do more pair work. In her view, as long as a student finds his/her place in a suitable pair, s/he joins activities. In order to improve students' speaking in pair works, İnci emphasizes that students should be given "dialog drafts" (prompts) instead of long instructions to increase the efficiency of the activities and to make them more motivating. Moreover, she suggests "games and activities" as the things to be added to the program on condition that exam-oriented studies (i.e. doing multiple-choice tests for final examinations) should not overshadow such activities. She notes the need for an hour allocated to speaking skill, as well.

Table 4.2. *The case of Deniz*

Themes	Importance of speaking	Contextual concerns	Actual teaching practice	Suggestions
Perceptions	Speaking remains behind the other skills because of the integrated approach; it should not be so.	Contextual problems related to students, syllabus and assessment	-Devoting more time to speaking activities and talking about current events -Covering some speaking activities as writing or homework	-Keeping use of Turkish at minimum -Guiding students towards native-like sources -Employing native speakers -Giving weight to learner-centered activities
Observed actions	-She was not observed to make extra effort to bring speaking to the forefront. -She gave more weight to T-S interaction than to S-S interaction ((i.e. changing some pair/group work activities into whole-class talks)	-For the problems she mentioned, she was not observed to do something different from doing coursebook activities. -For non-participation, she simplified activities and chatted with students.	-Speaking was more like a casual T-S chat in Turkish and English. -She did not give homework or a writing task.	-She spoke Turkish in her lessons. -Her guidance was not observed. -The practice of the suggestion about employing native speakers is unobservable. -She gave more weight to T-S interaction than to S-S interaction (i.e. changing some pair/group work activities into whole-class talks)
Background factors	**Language learning experiences:** Successful high school education + model teachers **Pre-service education:** Dissatisfaction with courses, instructors and teaching practicum **Teaching practice:** Teaching reading and speaking + previous job experience + disbelief at teaching speaking at current school **Professional development:** Tension between feelings after in-service training and classroom realities **Context:** Dissatisfaction with physical context, policy of teaching speaking and workload			

About how she deals with speaking parts of coursebook units she indicates that she first reads the instructions and makes exemplary sentences in case of any lack of comprehension; then, she helps weak partners or the ones who cannot understand the activity. At the end of the speaking activity, she states that she sometimes wants students to prepare a report or summary. In addition to these speaking activities, she points out that she does communicative activities at the end of the Teacher's book if time permits.

İnci states that she does speaking activities "without disrupting the flow of the program". She also notes that she changes grouping types of activities (pair/group/whole-class) considering students' moods and the hour of the class especially towards the end of the day when students get tired. In her relationship with her students, İnci finds two concepts of important: "control" for classroom management and "vivacity" of the teacher to keep the lesson lively and to awaken students when the pace of the lesson falls. For a better control of students, she states that she interrupts students when they talk too much because she thinks that students switch to chatting in Turkish during pair work activities. For vivacity, she expresses her preference for whole-class talks when she observes that students get too tired or reluctant to speak in pairs/groups.

According to İnci, students' speech follows teacher's speech; that is, students can speak by means of imitating the teacher. She also thinks that students get motivated by hearing their voices in English and by knowing that their answers are correct. She explains the key to students' motivation to speak as follows:

> *"If students understand what to do and if they have done it before in their daily life, they participate in speaking activities. In order to overcome their fear of making errors, I exhibit my errors and note that they are normal and natural. I make less correction or I rephrase their utterances when they finish speaking. I express my comprehension with words or mimes"* (questionnaire response).

4.2.3.2. *Actions in teaching speaking*

İnci's classes began with coursebook activities. She did not do a warm-up activity like social chat to provide further opportunities with students to speak. For İnci, doing "too many" lead-in activities disrupted the teaching program and made it difficult to manage students. Therefore, she said that she just preferred the activities given at the beginning of the units in the coursebook.

İnci was observed to do what was suggested in the coursebook. If pictures were provided in lead-in part of a unit, she elicited students' answers about pictures given. She completed listening comprehension exercises, examined vocabulary items with students and completed speaking tasks.

İnci stated that she gave importance to asking questions as a teacher. In her reflections, she wrote the functions of asking questions as checking comprehension, increasing students' participation and guiding students during activities. She also stated that if students could not understand her questions and instructions, she simplified them or rephrased them together with short Turkish explanations if necessary. In line with these reflections, when students could not understand her questions, instructions, a lexical item or a grammatical rule, she switched to Turkish in order to give a brief explanation in Turkish, but she mostly spoke English in her lessons to ask questions and to give examples.

Regarding pair work activities, İnci noted in her reflection that she assigned partners herself so that better partners could determine the pace and the route of the pair work activity. She was also observed to try to make almost all students participate in pair work activities. She invited isolated students to the activity and wanted them to sit in the place she pointed in order to get into pairs. Nevertheless, at least one student was completely isolated in her lessons. About isolated students, İnci stated that forcing them to join lessons was unnecessary as they came to school just for the sake of mandatory attendance. Thus, if they did not disturb the flow of the courses, she was observed to ignore their isolation.

Considering students' acting out in front of the class, she tried to persuade pairs to perform their roles once, but they did not want to act out in front of the class. She gave them sufficient time to talk in pairs but she did not ask them questions for checking. She did not give positive or negative feedback for students' pair work interactions, either. She asked the whole-class a few follow-up questions such as *"... and the customers what do you think? Are you happy with the price?"* in a role play about bargaining, and then she wanted them to swap roles.

İnci's approach to speaking activities gives priority to whole-class discussion as she detailed it in her 3rd reflection:

"I want students to participate in the lesson. That's why I first make them talk as whole class; after that, I initiate pair/group work activities. In this way, I catch their dynamism in whole-class talk, and then I divide and augment it through pair/group work."

Although İnci stated that she caught students' dynamism by whole-class talk, she expressed her preference for changing her pair/group work activities into whole-class talks when she observed that students' bad mood, low energy or limited world knowledge would not allow for a pair work. Therefore her perception of "catching dynamism in whole-class talk" contradicted her observation of students' low energy which led her to choosing whole-class talk. Moreover, in İnci's opinion, motivated students practiced speaking during whole-class talks; meanwhile, listeners who were reluctant to speak learned something from those speakers. However, certain students were observed to dominate whole-class talks, and whether the listeners learned something was not checked with comprehension questions. Another observed disadvantage of whole-class talks was the increase in teacher talking time since İnci directed the questions to the students. As a result, whole-class talks turned into teacher-centered question-and-answer sessions and some students lost interest.

In addition to learner reluctance to participate in pair/group work, the other factor affecting İnci's actions related to pair/group/whole-class talk was time (*"We have little time and we have to cover the syllabus"*, questionnaire response). It was observed that under the pressure of time restriction, she did not allocate time to checking and giving feedback on student-student interactions.

Nevertheless, an anecdotal event displaying the merit of student-student interaction was observed in one of İnci's lessons. In a role play activity about bargaining, pairs seemed very energetic and they acted out their roles boisterously. In contrast to other lessons, there was no isolated student in the classroom. When İnci asked the students the reason behind their enthusiasm, the following conversation took place:

T: Okay, have you finished all? You did this activity better than the others. Can you give me the reasons why? Why do you think you did it very ener… in an energetic way and very loudly?

Ss: Because…

T: Because…

Ss: Because we do it in our daily life.

T: You did it in your daily life. Okay, that's great, what else?

Ss: XXXXX

T: And you like shopping?

Ss: Yes.

Ss: No.

S22: XXXXX some topics are really bad. This topic is very good.

This dialogue displays the advantage of student-student interaction over teacher-student interaction in terms of ensuring participation of the majority of students on condition that activities are carefully designed. In this respect, one of the students' frank comment on "good" (i.e. more real-life) and "bad" topics in the coursebook may provide a signpost on the road to adjusting speaking activities to students' needs.

Physical conditions also limited İnci's mobility and monitoring in classroom. Especially in video classrooms where physical conditions did not leave enough room to move, students had to sit almost adjacent to each other; thus, İnci could not walk around, and she had to monitor them at her desk. Parallel to this observation, İnci stated that classroom environment did not allow her to walk around students' seats; therefore she controlled students at her desk. Her sitting position, in her view, influenced students' "tempo", as well. She exemplified it as follows:

> *"My sitting in a place which they could see kept participation dynamic in the first hour, whereas in the second hour my sitting at teacher's desk caused some students to cut loose from the lesson. As a result, physical conditions and possibilities of the classroom affected the flow of the lesson."* (1st reflection).

Likewise, the distance between İnci's sitting position and students was observed to make monitoring and hearing students' talks difficult because of the loud noise of student-student interaction.

4.2.3.3. *Correspondence between perceptions and actions*

Two mismatches were found between İnci's perceptions of her teaching and her observed actions pertaining to assigning follow-up tasks after speaking activities and bringing extra communicative activities. Although she stated that she gave follow-up tasks and brought communicative activities, she was not observed to do so.

4.2.3.4. *Factors affecting perceptions and actions*

Upon data analysis of the interview with İnci, five factors affecting her perceptions and actions were found, which can be seen in Figure 4.7.

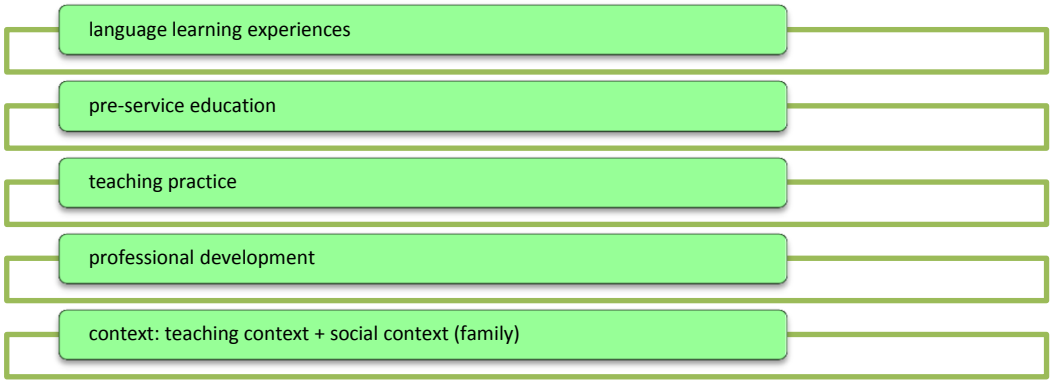

Figure 4.7. *Factors affecting İnci's perceptions and actions*

4.2.3.4.1. *Language learning experiences*

İnci began to learn English as a foreign language at secondary school and liked her teacher and the lessons very much, but when she and her family had to move to a village, she had to learn German due to absence of an English teacher there. She got very upset and cried for learning English again instead of learning German from scratch. Then, İnci's depression evolved into ambition; she studied hard, passed her exams and went on learning German. When she went to a boarding high school of teaching, she had to start learning English this time while her classmates had learned English before. History repeated itself; she displayed resilience, got more motivated and studied harder than others. She thinks that this seemingly negative event much contributed to her knowledge of English.

About secondary school she remembers receiving "well done!" when she correctly wrote what her teacher dictated. She is also influenced by her secondary school teacher's approach to teaching speaking. Her teacher gave model dialogues for speaking and İnci used these models to practice speaking. On the other hand, she had a traumatic learning experience at secondary school; her German teacher hit her. Her teacher's ill-temperedness was the major turnoff for learning German.

Similar to her English teacher at secondary school, her high school teachers gave students English dialogues to practice, and İnci derived great pleasure from reading these dialogues aloud for exams: *"I remember sitting at the balcony of our house and doing oral reading for my exam at the top of my voice, which gave me pleasure. Hearing my voice in English was pleasurable."* (interview)

Her teachers tried to focus on all skills equally. Despite technological insufficiencies, they did listening with the help of cassette players. They did not teach grammar explicitly; İnci learned grammar rules inferentially. She states that she learned grammar rules after becoming a teacher. She did not have an idol teacher at school, but she remembers their approach to language teaching. Teachers made students write dialogues and compositions; therefore, when she pondered on writing those dialogues and compositions, İnci noticed that they had done good writing. Her teachers also insisted on speaking English and they wanted their students to do so. She does not remember anything written in Turkish on the board. All in all, İnci thinks that her teachers loved their jobs and worked hard to teach English for its own sake not for enabling students to pass school exams or the university entrance exam. At the end of her high school education, İnci chose to be an English teacher as she was better at learning English than mathematics or science, and she is quite satisfied with her choice.

İnci stated that at the preparatory school of university, she was the only person who participated in lessons, did assignments and passed final achievement exam. However, she was a shy student who felt incompetent in comparison to other students at preparatory class, and she did not have confidence to speak frequently in spite of her teachers' compelling her to speak.

At preparatory school she got angry with a teacher and she was affected by it: *"S/he gave homework, but s/he did not tell us what s/he wanted. I mean, s/he did not give instructions clearly. That ambiguity disturbed me terribly. His/her inconsistent behaviors added fuel to the fire, so I became tough with him/her."* İnci states that she is still under the effect of her teacher and whenever she feels that she cannot express herself clearly as a teacher, her teacher comes into her mind and she compares herself to him/her. In contrast, she liked another teacher's kindness and friendliness, who, on the other hand, maintained a mild professional distance from students. For this reason, İnci thinks that her teacher was "a real teacher". Furthermore, she takes her teachers' perceptions as motto for her teaching: *"Do your job, and leave the rest. If students want to learn something, they do."* (interview)

4.2.3.4.2. *Pre-service education*

When she began to receive her professional education, she still lacked confidence and she spoke minimally. Her motto was *"Listen more, speak less"*. Upon taking

speaking from a foreign teacher in the 1st year, she felt that she could not speak. Despite being able to communicate, she thought she had to speak flawlessly like a native speaker, which does not make any sense for her now. An instructor whose research area was speaking taught her intonation in the 4th year and helped her overcome her inhibition to speak. Therefore, her oral skills developed much later in her view, and she still feels that she can speak more easily in class (i.e. transactional talk) than outside it (i.e. interactional talk). İnci also notes that at university there was no out-of-class opportunity for practicing speaking like student exchange programs. Since speaking English was restricted to in-class activities, she could not find opportunity to test her skills.

İnci does not remember an instructor or content of a course from ELT department. She assumes that her memory has deleted them, but she thinks that pre-service education shed some light on certain methods by teaching activity design (i.e. dialogues, role cards, group works), material use as a speaking or writing activity, and adaptation of a coursebook activity. In İnci's opinion, improving and varying them is up to the teacher.

Pre-service teaching experience during teaching practicum deeply affected İnci. Spoiled students who were brought up in wealthy families treated her in a disrespectful and provocative manner. Although teaching gave her a sense of satisfaction, the feeling of being unable to control those students overcame that sense. She learned from her practicum experience that controlling classroom is more important than knowledge. She asserts that students should know their place and they have to keep silent even if the teacher does not know anything. Therefore, she states that since her teaching practicum, she has never tolerated students' disrespect and has given immediate reaction against misbehaviors.

4.2.3.4.3. *Teaching practice*

İnci enjoys teaching speaking and pronunciation most because in her view, while students speak, they get energized, and seeing her students speak makes her happy. Especially when students are able to sustain their speech by going beyond giving short answers to her questions, İnci's happiness increases. She does not like writing as much as speaking because of its workload, and she states that she feels vacant during students' writing. Teaching grammar, in her opinion, makes students passive because of continual

mechanic exercises. Thus, she finds a lesson filled with teaching vocabulary, listening, speaking and pronunciation more energetic and fun.

4.2.3.4.4. *Professional development*

İnci points out that she tries to read articles on the internet and to follow websites about teaching English. She also states that she photocopies speaking materials and archives pdf files for remedial speaking activities, but she does not remember what she has read last.

She criticizes in-service training activities because the ones she has participated in so far has been limited to mere presentations; that is, in her view, presenters have not shared anything practical about teaching. Only once she liked a presentation about knowing oneself as a teacher.

She wants to have in-service education in speaking. Especially, she wants to learn to teach speaking fast and effectively because of limited time in the program. As she feels the need to learn more about teaching, she summarizes the necessity of professional development as *"I'm done means I'm dead"*.

4.2.3.4.5. *Context*

Teaching context

She finds physical conditions of the preparatory school insufficient for teaching speaking. Firstly, in her opinion, seating arrangement as rows makes conversations difficult as she stresses that in classrooms students all look at the teacher's face and they cannot see their classmates comfortably. She does not find their sitting side by side sufficient for interacting because she believes that students need to sit face-to-face for better communication. Secondly, she wants to support her teaching of speaking with online videos.

In terms of the syllabus, she expresses her discontent with doing coursebook activities non-stop; and she indicates that time limitation does not allow for smooth transition among activities.

Regarding assessment, she observes that due to the multiple-choice feature of the final exam, students entirely concentrate on studying for multiple-choice test items; consequently, they speak to a limited extent. She suggests inserting a memorizable speaking part into the final exam which includes a dialogue or a drama rather than

question and answer. In her view, even if students memorize a given dialogue, they memorize it by understanding and interpreting it.

Social context: Family

In İnci's opinion, her personal life has affected her teaching and professional development. On the one hand, she expresses her wish to allocate more time to improving her teaching. On the other hand, she underlines her responsibility for devoting time to her children. She states that her children take her time which she wants to devote to her students. Once she could not participate in a professional development activity which she enrolled in, but she had to look after her children and relatives:

> *I attentively participated in the ones at school, but I could not do it for the ones out of school because of familial matters. The last time I planned to go to Antalya my father-in-law got sick, so I could not make it. Even my father-in-law's illness affects it; not only nuclear family with kids but also outsiders affect it.* (interview)

The summary of the case of İnci is given in Table 4.3.

4.2.4. Selin

4.2.4.1. *Perceptions of the speaking skill and teaching speaking*

Selin states that speaking is of utmost importance in English language teaching; thus, she criticizes the amount of grammar and vocabulary taught at the institution. She assumes that speaking can be taught more efficiently by giving priority to teaching speaking over teaching grammar if the main aim of language teaching is teaching the skill of communication.

Selin finds speaking activities and speaking parts of coursebook units useful because the activities correspond to daily life, in her opinion. She explains how she handles speaking parts of the coursebook in detail: In lead-in parts, she addresses questions relevant to the topic of the unit and elicits some words by showing pictures. On the basis of her "preliminary preparation" for the content, she does coursebook activities and skips the ones that she finds useless. When she finds some activities in the coursebook boring, she tries to add them fun elements. She exemplifies it with her variation in repetition drills: *"I create model situations: You've just met an attractive woman and you say this sentence in excitement: 'How can I get to the airport?' In this way, I attract students' attention and interest."* (questionnaire response). She also highlights that there is no speaking activity in the program in addition to the ones in the

Table 4.3. *The case of İnci*

Themes	Importance of speaking	Contextual concerns	Actual teaching practice	Suggestions
Perceptions	Skills are equally important.	Contextual problems related to students, limited time, syllabus and assessment	-Doing coursebook activities and extras in Teacher's book -Changing the grouping type of activities to change students' mood -Asking students to prepare a report or a summary -Helping students overcome their fear of making mistakes	-Giving "dialog drafts" to prompt students -Adding games and activities to the program -A teaching hour for speaking
Observed actions	She followed the coursebook content related to all skills.	For the problems she mentioned, she did not do something different from doing coursebook activities.	-She did coursebook activities, but she did not bring extras. -She changed some pair/group work activities into whole-class talks. -She did not give a follow-up task. -She invited non-participating students to activities.	The practice of these suggestions was unobservable.
Background factors	**Language learning experiences:** Mostly negative but sometimes positive experiences + teachers' approach + İnci's shyness -Prep school teachers' effect **Pre-service education:** Overcoming shyness in 4th year + not remembering instructors and courses + traumatic pre-service teaching experience **Teaching practice:** Teaching language skills and areas **Professional development:** Criticism of in-service training + personal efforts for reading and photocopying articles **Context:** Teaching context: Insufficient conditions for teaching speaking -Social context: Family life affecting her profession			

coursebook. Therefore, she notes that she organizes extra activities to draw students' interest.

Selin observes that most of her students can communicate with people in English, but they have two major problems in oral interaction: First, they try to form grammatically perfect sentences, which results in disruption of fluency. For this problem, Selin states that she does not interfere in her students' speech in order to build up their confidence. She also notes that she correctly rephrases her students' incorrect utterances after they finish their speech by giving the impression that she summarizes that student's speech in order not to make him/her notice her error correction; that is, she prefers recasts. As another solution, she suggests that teachers should encourage students to construct short sentences at the early stages of learning. They should also remind students that grammar is not necessary one hundred per cent for speaking and state that students do not have to answer all questions in the form of Subject + Verb + Object. As the second problem about her students' speech, she points out their L1 transfer in lexical items such as *"win money"*. Selin thinks that this problem can be overcome in time. She maintains that she does not discourage or hurt her students while dealing with this problem and she suggests advising students to use monolingual English dictionaries so that students will begin to think in the target language.

According to Selin, her learners need to learn lexical items used in daily life for ordering food, introducing oneself, asking the time, buying tickets, etc. She also highlights students' need for learning academic and vocational vocabulary to a delimited extent.

In order to improve students' speaking skill, Selin suggests starting a speaking club at preparatory school and holding discussion sessions centered on topics related to daily life. She also suggests increasing the frequency of speaking quizzes and playing videos during teaching speaking. She wishes native speakers could be invited to the institution so that students could feel their capability to communicate.

4.2.4.2. *Actions in teaching speaking*

Selin always started her lessons with social chat if the lesson was her first hour with the class. In the first week of observation, she gave a brief pep talk about the research *"We thought you're one of the best classes. … But she will be observing me so I am not putting down pressure, just don't worry, no worries"* (Observation, week 1) to

relieve the students' tension over being recorded. Selin attaches importance to social chats and this kind of pep talks for two reasons: She wants to communicate with students by addressing their affective domain (e.g. breaking down students' prejudice about learning English) and to provide opportunity to speak. Moreover, she was observed to use social chats as a means of raising students' awareness of current affairs like voting and citizenship. It may be for these reasons that Selin finds lead-in parts of her lessons as the most successful part as they are filled with lively and real-life interaction.

In addition to social chats, pair work activities were observed to give students opportunities to practice speaking. During students' interaction, Selin tried to increase participation by monitoring attentively, helping students one-on-one and partnering low-level students without a partner. If pair work was a role play, she encouraged students to act out with such expressions as *"Come on!"* and *"What else?"*. Similarly, she supported students' performances with repetitions, clarification requests, expressions like *"hm-hm"* and *"OK"*, but she did not give detailed feedback on students' acting out. Furthermore, during students' performances, she did not interfere with some students' reading their scripts aloud because she indicated that "encouraging students" was the most important aspect of teaching speaking; therefore, she might not want to discourage them from performing. She also found "intelligibility" the most important point in teaching speaking; therefore, she chose to ignore minor grammatical or lexical errors on condition that they did not harm intelligibility.

Selin also brought extra whole-class discussions which were shaped by Selin's open-ended questions that she prepared beforehand such as *"If you could ask God a question what would it be?"* Although students sometimes got engaged in chatting with their classmates, on the whole they seemed interested in questions and they gave answers. Selin also directed comprehension questions to students in order to ensure students' listening to each other's opinions. In this way, however, discussions rather turned into a teacher-fronted question-and-answer session. Moreover, Selin did not benefit from the board which could be used to make the students' interesting questions visible to their classmates for further discussion. Selin stated that she did not want to disrupt the flow and waste time by writing on the board.

Selin paid special attention to pronunciation as she emphasized *"so guys, as you know, I'm very crazy about this pronunciation thing"* (Observation, week 1). She

wanted students to repeat target words in the pronunciation section of the coursebook at least five times. She joyfully shouted: *"One more time!"* to continue choral repetition.

In addition to the coursebook content, Selin brought materials (i.e. flashcards and realia) to the class to introduce new topics and to elicit answers. In one of her reflections she wrote: *"If I had an opportunity to re-teach the lesson, I would use realia more. I would adorn the lesson with different pictures or computer"* (1st reflection). Because of the lack of audiovisual aids at school, she found using only the coursebook insufficient.

Throughout lessons Selin never switched to Turkish from the very beginning till the bell rang. She began lessons with a social chat in English and ended them by making announcements about an activity outside, the next lesson's content, etc. in English again. Since she continuously spoke English, she offered her students life-like exposure to it. She noted that she made announcements in English so that students could speak English not only about the course but also about extracurricular topics. In that way, she aimed to make her students feel that they were able to speak English. Moreover, Selin stated that her use of target language was effective in her learners' listening comprehension, finding courage to speak and having trust in her as a teacher.

An idiosyncratic feature of Selin's teaching was her use of slang. She added humor and slang to in-class talks. She pointed out that slang attracted students' interest and it was a kind of "informal teaching" for her. She noted that she often used informal and sometimes slangy expressions like "shut the hell up" and "fuck off". In a lesson a student tended to use a four-letter word in Turkish, but Selin reacted against his use of Turkish, not the slang itself: *"You can use slang word in English, but not in Turkish"* (Observation, week 3). Her use of slang seemed to serve her effort to create a friendly learning atmosphere and it was observed that her students enjoyed Selin's sudden use of slang during lessons.

Selin was highly affected by her students' motivational state: "*I have noticed something related to my teaching: When students' motivation and interest is low, this situation not only lowers my energy but also demoralizes me"* (4th reflection) Especially in classes at the end of the day she mentioned their low motivation and reluctance to speak because of tiredness and boredom. Conversely, when her students' were motivated, she got motivated by their participation and "finding courage to speak" (1st reflection). For instance, she was observed to become happy with her students' use of

previously taught grammatical structures and lexical items and she showed her happiness, which might be another way of motivating both herself and her students.

Since Selin paid attention to her students' motivation, she resorted to several ways to encourage them to speak: First, she addressed them questions relevant to the topic. Second, she either called for help by saying *"Come on, I did most of the talking, help me here!"* (Observation, week 3) or she motivated students with utterances like *"You can do it. You know you are good at it already"* (Observation, week 1). Moreover, she gave clues by playing hangman, using body language and telling anecdotal experiences. Such efforts to make students participate in speaking activities are compatible with her description of her teaching as "energetic". She indicated that she had an energetic way of teaching and her students were accustomed to her movements throughout her lessons. Selin also described her Teacher-Student relationship as "bittersweet interaction" which she explained as follows: *"I usually make my students in classroom feel that they interact with 'a teacher'. On the other hand, if they do not comprehend something, I think they can contact me without hesitation and fear"* (1st reflection). On the other hand, her energy increased the amount of her teacher talking time, which disturbed Selin. Thus, she felt the need for increasing student talking time, but she stated that low student profile was a hindrance to accomplishing this.

Despite her efforts to motivate her students, she could not save them from exhibiting misbehaviors. During whole-class discussions, some of the students switched to Turkish, played with their mobile phones and chatted. Particularly, students' frequent use of mobile phones constituted a major problem. She warned those students with exclamations like "*Sshh!"*, *"Hey!"* and warnings such as *"I think you should listen to your friends."* During pair work performances, just like whole-class discussions, students did not listen to each other since they were not given a purpose for listening to acting pairs. Considering students' misbehaviors during student-student interaction, Selin noted in her reflections that she discovered the need for changing partners in pairs as students began to chat. She also discovered that she could not devote the same attention to each group or pair because of the crowded classroom.

In addition, students' reluctance to speak (especially towards the end of the term), studying for final examination while Selin was teaching in class and some students' late-coming disturbed Selin; as a result, she had to repeat her warnings.

4.2.4.3. *Correspondence between perceptions and actions*

Selin's perceptions are consistent with her observed practices in classroom.

4.2.4.4. *Factors affecting perceptions and actions*

Upon data analysis of the interview with Selin, five factors (Figure 4.8.) affecting her perceptions and actions were found.

Figure 4.8. *Factors affecting Selin's perceptions and actions*

4.2.4.4.1. *Language learning experiences*

In Selin's language learning, YDS (Turkish abbreviation of national university entrance exam in a foreign language) deeply affected her experiences as a learner. When she was asked her memories related to her learning experiences before university education, she immediately went back to her preparation to YDS. Although she stated that she was not a bright student at primary school, she remembered getting 100 from a weekly practice exam at high school in the process of preparation for YDS. She underlined that nobody had that grade in her class. Moreover, as the content of YDS was limited to multiple-choice test items of grammar, vocabulary and reading, she admitted not doing writing assignments at high school because she did not find it important while getting prepared for YDS. In brief, she described herself as a good student on the basis of her focus on YDS.

Selin also remembers grammar-based language education before university in which teaching language skills were neglected, and she attributes this deficiency to lack of technological facilities. She emphasizes that teachers and students could only use blackboard and a cassette player and students did not have much chance to practice listening and speaking out of class. When she was a student, she could not practice

speaking and listening; for this reason, she did not find herself as a student good at these two skills.

In addition to contextual conditions of her language learning, Selin clearly remembers model behaviors and misbehaviors of her teachers. At primary school times, she was very disturbed by a teacher's excessively controlling manner. Her teacher's attitude was threatening during giving corrective feedback about assignments. In contrast to disliking her primary school teacher, Selin liked her teacher at high school very much and regarded him as a "father" figure. She told an anecdote about this teacher which the researcher took it as a negative experience by mistake because the event sounded more like a traumatic experience:

> *"-... there is a word, occur, meaning ...* [inaudible]. *Some people pronounce it as okyür* (/okjuɹ/)*, so did I. I used it as okyürt* (/okjuɹt/) *in a sentence. The teacher hit me on my head making me repeat occur, occur, occur* (/əkɚ/) *5 to 10 times in front of everybody in class, which has come to my mind.*
>
> *- So it was a negative experience?*
>
> *- It was not negative; it was in fact funny for me. I laughed at it, too, saying "OK, occur, occur, occur". My relationship with my teacher was very good. He was like a father for us indeed. Because he taught us for 20 or 10-15 hours roughly, it was not a negative experience for me. On the contrary, I remember it with a laugh."* (interview)

Selin states that she really learned English from the teacher mentioned in this anecdote adding that he influenced her teaching too. She finds him unorthodox because he did not switch to Turkish in lessons. He only used Turkish to attract students' attention with question tags like *"öyle mi?"* when they lost concentration or in order to explain items that were too complex for students to understand in English. Selin believes that conducting lessons in English in crowded classrooms is very difficult, but her teacher could manage it. She feels that thanks to his constant use of English, she got accustomed to phonological and lexical features of English. He was also careful about pronunciation. Selin remembers him giving a funny example of *lawmaker-lovemaker* in order to emphasize the significance of correct pronunciation. She also likes his use of current events and jokes as lead-in to lessons. As teaching techniques, he employed question-and-answer, pair /group works and whole-class discussion, and Selin conjectures that her teacher could not go beyond these techniques due to technological limitations.

Although Selin graduated from a high school of teaching, she had dreams of studying international relations and becoming a diplomat. However, she had to choose to become an English teacher as she was not so good at branches like mathematics and science which were necessary for getting a sufficient test score for entering the university department of international relations. Therefore, she was unsure about whether she would be happy with her job till she became a 4th-year student at university.

4.2.4.4.2. *Pre-service education*

Selin's uncertainty about her future career till the 4th year may also be ascribed to her university education because she did not like it much. Apart from student teachers' vibrant presentations equipped with colorful cardboard, pencils and balloons, Selin finds her professional education disappointing and inefficient. She states that instructors were gossiping about each other in lessons and they were not teaching the lesson content in English. According to Selin, most of the instructors did not teach seriously at all because their lessons were like vacant hours. Thus, she finds the current preparatory school program at her workplace much more efficient than some of those pre-service lessons. An associate professor who was well-organized, disciplined and taught his lesson content in English was the only exception for Selin.

> *"You gain the right to get education at (...) university with great expectations. It's a big deal, but we had to listen to teachers' conflict of interests rather than lessons. I don't remember any teachers who taught in English except one."* (interview, name of the university is kept confidential).

Furthermore, she did not like teaching practicum because of simple tasks and paperwork, either. In sum, she does not think that pre-service training prepared her for teaching speaking.

4.2.4.4.3. *Teaching practice*

Throughout her teaching Selin liked teaching vocabulary, pronunciation and speaking among the language skills and areas. She has loved teaching vocabulary most since she received training related to teaching vocabulary at university. She was interested in etymology in the past and observed that students were also interested when she explained sources of words. However, she does not like teaching grammar as she finds it very mechanic, but she finds her grammar teaching effective. She does not like teaching reading because she cannot check whether students really read a text or not and

she finds reading lessons too slow for her energy. She also finds the institutional approach to teaching writing of the preparatory school ineffective.

4.2.4.4.4. *Professional development*

Selin participated in in-service training activities like teaching young learners, teaching grammar and receiving CELTA (Certificate of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages). She finds in-service training much more effective than pre-service training because she thinks that the former contributed to her practical side of teaching background and increased her confidence as a teacher. She also expresses that through in-service training she has understood the significance of drills and repetition in teaching vocabulary and games in teaching speaking. It has raised her awareness of her phonological mistakes, decreasing teacher talking time, using different teaching and questioning techniques. She has also learned various speaking activities to use in spare time such as "find someone who" and dice games. Especially the motto she encountered in a training session became the teaching principle behind her constant use of target language in lessons: *"You cannot teach a language with another language"*.

Selin states that she read books like "How to teach English" and "How to teach speaking" in the past. She remembers learning effective use of body language to teach speaking and vocabulary from such resources, but she notes that she does not read ELT literature regularly.

Selin would like to improve her teaching of speaking and listening. In particular, she wants to learn about different techniques of measuring listening because she indicates that listening test items are restricted to multiple-choice and situational completion items at her institution.

4.2.4.4.5. *Context*

Selin does not find physical conditions conducive to teaching speaking and listening because she believes that speaking is taught together with listening. For teaching these skills, she finds audiovisual aids necessary. She gives silent video technique as an example in which students talk about the video with mute mode on, and she wants to apply it in her lessons, but the teaching environment does not allow for it. She also finds visuals effective in teaching vocabulary since she does vocabulary teaching during teaching speaking, but she cannot do it for the same reason.

Consequently, she states that in this physical context she can only organize discussion activities without audiovisual aids.

As another contextual problem, Selin observes that neither students nor teachers focus on speaking since it is not assessed in the final exam. She points out that there is a problem with teaching objective of the institution, which targets at recognition of grammatical and lexical items. She suggests that a final exam should measure all skills, not one or two skills, namely reading and listening.

She finds her workload heavy as it is filled with 25 hours of teaching per week and office duties. Particularly last-minute office duties for preparing listening items for examinations take her time which she actually wants to spend for designing activities for her classes instead of doing "boring" activities in the coursebook, as she says. She wants to design interesting speaking activities, but teaching hours and office duties sap her energy. Especially teaching 6 hours consecutively makes her very tired in a day.

The summary of the case of Selin is tabulated in Table 4.4.

4.2.5. Umut

4.2.5.1. *Perceptions of the speaking skill and teaching speaking*

With regard to significance of the speaking skill among the other language skills, speaking does not have a superior status as skills are of equal importance in Umut's opinion. Therefore, he suggests giving weight to teaching basic speaking skills without outweighing the teaching of other language skills because he states that students have communicative inadequacies due to the teaching techniques used in their previous educational environments. He does not think that they have fully acquired year-end language competences. They need to develop their colloquial and academic speaking skills. Furthermore, he observes "fossilization" and "reluctance to do restructuring" in some of his students who find their limited repertoire of structures sufficient and do not bother to variate them. Yet, Umut views his students' current level much better than their level at the beginning of the semester. He also expresses his happiness at their courage to speak and to make errors.

Umut expresses his satisfaction with the design and the number of the speaking activities in the coursebook. In contrast to some of his colleagues whom he heard to skip speaking activities in order to teach grammar, vocabulary and reading, he states that he tries to focus on speaking parts more and to reflect the value of the speaking

Table 4.4. *The case of Selin*

Themes	Importance of speaking	Contextual concerns	Actual teaching practice	Suggestions
Perceptions	Speaking is the most important skill.	Students' problems related to fluency and L1 transfer	-Doing coursebook activities -Elicitation in lead-in with visuals -Making boring activities fun or skipping them -Bringing extra activities	-Starting a speaking club -Increasing the frequency of speaking quizzes -Playing videos during teaching speaking -Inviting native speakers
Observed actions	She was observed to teach speaking enthusiastically and to motivate all students.	She adopted non-interfering approach and encouraged all students to speak.	-She did coursebook activities. -She brought pictures and realia for elicitation. -She skipped surveying activities. -She added fun to teaching pronunciation. -She brought extra topics for whole-class discussion.	The practice of these suggestions is unobservable.
Background factors	**Language learning experiences:** YDS + contextual conditions + teacher as a father figure **Pre-service education:** Disappointment because of instructors **Teaching practice:** Teaching language skills and areas **Professional development:** Participation in in-service training programs **Context:** Physical conditions + assessment + heavy workload			

skill. He also states that he tries to provide input and output at the beginning of lessons by making comments about the lesson content. He notes that particularly in speaking parts of units, he provides as much input as possible to help students produce output. At the onset of these speaking parts he thinks he draws students' interest by means of visuals in the coursebook and talking about personal experiences related to the topic. He says that he does not give weight to pronunciation sections and he even skips them on some occasions. He thinks that giving input is more important than explicit teaching of pronunciation.

Umut indicates that in addition to the coursebook content, he tries to find extra communicative activities and games from Teacher's book or different sources for filling spare time towards the end of lessons. He thinks his students enjoy such extra activities. He also wants students to prepare presentations as groups, and then he assesses their presentations. Although making presentations does not formally take place in the program, Umut mentions that he includes them as a speaking activity and as a form of assessment.

Umut suggests revising the program in terms of aim, content and assessment for improving teaching speaking. He also suggests increasing the portion of speaking in assessment and adding task-based materials to the program.

Before elucidating Umut's actions in teaching speaking on the basis of his observed classes, it would be appropriate to detail his teaching methodology in his words: *"I think I give priority to providing* ***input*** *and then I enable students to produce* ***output*** *as much as possible. I try to make them feel relaxed and not to fear making errors"* (1st reflection, emphases added). He also bases his teaching on Thornbury's (2005b) stepwise framework of teaching speaking: *Awareness, Appropriation, Autonomy*; thus he expresses his satisfaction with the content, visuals and design of the speaking parts of the coursebook as he finds them consistent with Thornbury's framework. Consequently, it can be assumed that methodological foundation of Umut's teaching of speaking is guided by the notions of input, output and developmental steps.

4.2.5.2. *Actions in teaching speaking*

Umut's observed class hours always started with certain lead-in techniques: a social chat and review of the previous lesson content in English, which provided students with further opportunities for speaking apart from the coursebook content.

Parallel to his abovementioned reference to input and output, he believes in the benefit of social chat with students about current events in their daily lives like spring fest, examinations, etc. to provide input and output and to warm students up for the lesson. He also finds reviewing beneficial as it helps students associate previous content with upcoming content. Moreover, Umut highlights students' familiarity with reviewing as a class routine and he thinks that students' remembering such routines is an important sign of their interest in his lessons. Reviewing sessions were observed to attract students' interest more than social chat which might be due to students' preference for revising their knowledge before quizzes and examinations.

As mentioned before, Umut matched the sections of speaking parts of the coursebook to the stages proposed by Thornbury (2005b) in his reflections. The section supported by audio-visual content before presentation of functional expressions is *Awareness-raising.* Umut conducted elicitation in this part and preferred to keep it longer than the next stage, namely, *Appropriation*. Then, he read out target expressions (e.g.: expressions used for leaving a phone message, giving advice, describing injuries, etc.) listed in the coursebook. He did not explain each expression at length and he did not add further expressions to the list, but if students could not understand an expression he clarified its meaning. He explained his approach as *"In my opinion, rather than getting lost in details, proceeding on the basis of general headings is useful. It reflects my learning style, I suppose."* (2nd reflection).

Umut either covered quickly or skipped pronunciation parts. He neither gave extra examples nor wanted choral repetition. As he stated in his questionnaire response and reflections, he thinks that pronunciation should be acquired naturally through input, and he finds providing input more useful than overtly focusing on a list of separate words to be pronounced. Umut also skipped the activities that required memorizing and reciting audio transcripts of listening text of the unit because he did not find them creative and sufficient for teaching speaking.

In the final section of *Autonomy*, as Umut referred to, he followed the coursebook and never skipped pair or group works or changed them into whole-class talks. Umut pointed out the necessity of doing pair and group works abundantly in his response to the questionnaire because in his opinion, his students lacked basic speaking skills in daily interactions. He carefully monitored pairs' or groups' preparations and provided guidance. In checking their works he wanted all students to act their role plays out, but

he did not force unwilling ones to speak. He thanked and complimented his students for their performances, but he did not give detailed feedback.

When Umut had extra time for teaching, he distributed cards and initiated a communicative game in which students described the words in their cards and wanted their groupmates to guess the word. Students were observed to enjoy the game, which was also reported by Umut. Likewise, in the final week of the semester Umut did another extra activity as coursebook content had already been covered. He brought two pieces of cardboard in red and yellow, and wanted all students in two groups to present a poster about how that educational year passed in terms of their expectations, difficulties and funny moments. Students were familiar with the process of poster presentation as there were posters on the walls of the classroom. What made that group work in the final lesson of the year different from previously observed pair and group work activities was that all the students in the groups spoke spontaneously in front of their classmates. Moreover, even though the bell for break time had already rung, students did not seem to lose interest and did not rush towards the door to go out, opposite of which was a frequently observed phenomenon at break time. Students' enthusiasm and effort to give spontaneous speech might be attributed to the real-life and fun nature of the topic in students' eyes. Umut was especially contented with participation of the students who rarely participated in speaking activities before.

Umut views making such presentations necessary and states that although such presentations did not take place in the program, he tried to put them into classroom practice. He also mentioned his feedback procedure (Students' self-assessment, peer feedback, Umut's feedback respectively) after presentations, but he could not accomplish it in the poster presentation because of time limitation. Umut was observed to give too much time to monitoring, and he explained this situation with giving high importance to monitoring and finding it influential in increasing students' participation in speaking activities. He also noted that he observed his students' pleasure in planning and preparation during monitoring them. In the abovementioned final activity of the year, he kept students' poster preparation for their presentations long at the expense of time management. Groups worked on details of drawing and presenting their posters too much; therefore, no time left for students to receive feedback.

Umut was never observed to correct students' errors during speaking in order not to disrupt the flow of interaction. He thinks his non-interfering approach to learner

errors result in alleviating learners' anxiety and increasing their participation. He states that he attaches more significance to students' interaction rather than their use of target grammatical structures. Even if he encounters students' successful use of such structures, he states that he takes more pride in students' genuine communication. Therefore, he did not focus on their grammatical errors and he ignored them.

Umut spoke English in his lessons. He switched to Turkish only when he felt that students could not understand the instructions of an activity. After giving brief Turkish explanations, he immediately switched to English again, which prevented students from taking the teacher's use of Turkish as an opportunity to escape speaking English.

Although Umut increased student-student interaction with the help of pair/group work activities, misbehaviors of some students were observed. Especially one or two students were observed to be completely isolated from class. They tended to sit at back seats, and towards the end of the year they chose to study for passing the final exam while other students were joining speaking activities. Umut thinks that he did his best to catch his students' interest, but they were all adults to choose between participating in lessons or not because in his opinion *"Freedom comes with responsibility"* (interview). For this reason, he ignored their misbehavior.

Except for a few students, most students attended Umut's lessons, but he observed students' lowering motivation for speaking and he attributed their low motivation to approaching end of the year and lack of speaking part in the final exam. However, in fun activities like games and poster presentation, their demotivation vanished and their giggles could be heard during in-group talks.

As another issue in terms of classroom management, students did not listen to their classmates while a pair or a group was performing because Umut did not give them a purpose to listen. Instead, he addressed questions to speakers from time to time to attract others' attention, or he asked questions to their classmates after each performance with the aim of checking if they listened to each other's plays.

Moreover, students' avoidance of speaking English spontaneously was observed in two ways: Reading aloud in pair/group performances and speaking Turkish during in-group talks. While preparing their conversations, students tended to write their conversations like a drama script, and during their performance in front of the class they read their scripts aloud. Although Umut asked students to repeat their performances for the second time without reading out, students did not give up their habits and read their

notes again. About this problem Umut stated that he allowed them to take a photo of their scripts, but he wanted them to speak spontaneously. According to Umut, when students wrote down their role plays, their anxiety lessened because they could take a look at their notes to remember what to say. No matter how frequently Umut encouraged them to speak spontaneously, students continued reading their scripts out in their performances. Secondly, students were observed to speak Turkish in pairs/groups, and Umut explained this situation with the content of the activity: If the activity was related to language areas other than speaking (i.e.: grammar and vocabulary), he found students' switching to Turkish acceptable, but when the aim of an activity was speaking itself, he said he did not allow them to speak in their mother tongue. In some moments, he thought he could not control code-switching of all students in all pairs/groups at the same time, but he assumed that he made them realize the importance of speaking English at least.

4.2.5.3. *Correspondence between perceptions and actions*

Umut's perceptions are in correspondence with his observed practices.

4.2.5.4. *Factors affecting perceptions and actions*

Upon data analysis of the interview with Umut, five factors (Figure 4.9.) affecting his perceptions and actions were found.

Figure 4.9. *Factors affecting Umut's perceptions and actions*

4.2.5.4.1. *Language learning experiences*

Umut's past experiences as a language learner go back to his high school preparatory class where English was intensively taught 24 hours per week. At first, his

teachers' continuous use of English came as a shock for him because he had never encountered English before. His teachers never gave up speaking English and they furnished classes with instructions, tables and duty rosters in English. Even advanced topics were explained in English. Students were on their own to understand topics whether by self-study or by consulting someone else. Apart from giving brief inspirational and motivational talks at the end of some tiring days, his teachers did not switch to Turkish in lessons.

His two teachers at preparatory class not only provided exposure to English plentifully but also prepared tasks and projects to offer cultural exposure. Students were encouraged to subscribe to magazines about British culture, their coursebooks had cartoons and adventure serials including cultural elements, year-end dramas were organized. There were posters and visuals on the walls of classrooms and cartoons reflected with overhead projector, which made Umut feel as if he went into a different cultural zone. Furthermore, his teacher found a school partnership abroad and they hosted guests coming from Germany. By recollecting all these details, Umut finds English lessons at preparatory class of high school communicative and fun.

In addition, he remembers skill-based examinations and assignments. He gives his entrance to TOEFL-like examination at the age of 11 as an example for positive learning experience. His teachers also gave students productive and non-mechanical assignments, which improved Umut's writing, reading and grammar considerably. Umut assumes that he learned the basics of English and autonomous study skills with the help of her preparatory class teachers' efforts to give them responsibilities by means of meaningful assignments.

Umut also underlines the quality of his teachers' attitudes towards students. They ensured relaxed classroom atmosphere where students did not fear of actively participating in lessons and making mistakes. Students could also enter teachers' room without hesitation and ask them questions. Therefore, Umut thinks that a teacher's interaction with students in terms of affective domain is more significant than his/her methods and techniques as his teachers addressed his affective domain.

> *"Individual differences are very influential, I mean when you cannot reach the student affectively, you cannot attain success. I mean, methods and techniques sort of fade into the background at that point. What I see in my classes is when you keep motivation high and when you attract students to the lesson, it goes on somehow"* (interview).

In the following years, he got English-medium courses of mathematics and science, which Umut found both useful and challenging. Unlike the preparatory class, Umut found difficult to cope with many lessons together with English at the same time. As another negative experience of those years, Umut remembers some teachers' favoring students who were brought up by prestigious families. Teachers gave those students priority in speaking and drama activities, and the teachers' biased attitude hurt Umut as another student of them.

Taking his English language teachers at preparatory class as idols, Umut chose the branch of foreign language at high school. In this class, because of the approaching university entrance exam, his teacher prepared more exam-oriented lessons. S/he showed genuine interest in students' development by giving detailed feedback about quizzes, preparing diagnostic tests and filing a portfolio peculiar to each student in that language class. Umut still keeps his portfolio in which his multiple-choice tests for university entrance exam are enclosed. Umut states that he was very impressed by this sense of control through his teacher's formative assessment.

Throughout his journey of language learning before university, his teachers provided a learning environment encouraging reading and speaking. Students read, analyzed, summarized and made presentations of lengthy reading passages. Umut liked reading in English continuously and he was also excited about speaking because the feeling of being able to speak English increased his enthusiasm:

> *"When we did pair or group work at high school, we always spoke English with the excitement about speaking English. Even if the teacher was absent, we tried to speak English. When someone didn't speak English, we warned them by saying "If we don't speak English here, where will do it?" I think it was about motivation."* (interview).

As a teacher, Umut observes the same situation for highly-motivated students in his classes, as well.

This learning environment full of motivated classmates helped Umut overcome his inhibition. Since he was from countryside, Umut was shy at the beginning of high school education, but he learned to learn from other students over time. He calls the group of students learning together as "learning community" in which students helped each other when they could not learn from teachers. Especially when his friends with low grades consulted Umut, he got pleasure from teaching and his confidence grew.

Teaching English to his schoolmates was Umut's pleasure as a student, and unsurprisingly he did not think another career path as an alternative to teaching English. He entered English language teaching department of a state university.

4.2.5.4.2. *Pre-service education*

In Umut's opinion, English language teaching department of the university he attended has a prestigious name. He finds his pre-service education very efficient in terms of both theory and practice. He particularly liked the course about "language acquisition" and its instructor. He thinks that language acquisition course made the major contribution to his teaching because he learned to observe his students and their learning on the basis of acquisitional theories. He states that he even uses the theories in his child-bearing; especially Vygotsky is his idol. Therefore, he is against the idea which does not give credit to theories as he asserts that theoretical background of a language teacher should be firm. Umut thinks that rather than despairing of theories that "it does not happen in the way books say", teachers should digest and analyze research findings because "it happens in the way books say".

As for practical side of learning to teach, Umut finds pre-service demo teaching sessions very beneficial in terms of understanding the failure of mechanical methods and techniques. Pop demo sessions of warm-up activities were organized in the course of *Methodology in the Area of Specialization*; and teacher trainees joined the course with their warm-up activities at hand. Every week a teacher trainee was nominated by surprise to start the lesson with his/her own activity. Umut wrote down his classmates' warm-up activities and made himself a collection for later use in his teaching. He also remembers demanding take-home exams and lesson plans written in the form of student-teacher dialogue, but feedback given on completion of those tiring assignments helped him comprehend know-how of teaching.

Both for theoretical and practical aspects of teaching, Umut had two different idols in his pre-service education. Firstly, for theoretical aspect of his teaching, the instructor of *"Language Acquisition"* became his idol. She presented scientific views in comparison to each other and gave her students chances to analyze and synthesize them. He also describes her as self-disciplined, respectful of her job and objective in assessment. Even after his graduation he kept in touch with her, and she responded to Umut's academic questions. Secondly, for his practical aspect of his teaching, he took

another instructor as an idol. Particularly in teaching practicum, when she examined teacher trainees' lesson plans, she could predict problematic situations during teaching English and offered practical solutions for problems:

> *"I prepared a lesson plan, but I didn't know whether it was suitable for students or not. When she examined my plan, she would say "The students at this level may have difficulty with this, so you had better do that". Besides, she provided me with alternatives instead of …* [inaudible]. *"You can do this or do that." She asked me which one I would do, and I stated my preference. And it made me happy seeing those solutions work. This shows the instructor's connection with practice"* (interview)

For Umut, teaching practicum was useful by means of making observation in the 2nd year and practicing microteaching in the 4th year. In contrast to other teacher trainees, he felt comfortable with being at school because his parents were teachers and he had already been accustomed to its environment. He found the observation scheme in the 2nd year very good as teacher trainees were supposed to observe a different aspect of language learning and teaching each week. For instance, they measured student talking time and teacher talking time in a session. In another session, they interviewed the least successful student of the class. Therefore, Umut recommends that observation should be compulsory every year throughout pre-service education so that teacher trainees can both learn about and contribute to education at schools.

His microteaching in the 4th year went smooth, as well. He planned his teaching activities carefully and revisited his plans on the basis of feedback he received from his teacher trainers. He also liked his teacher trainers' communication with school teachers. What he disliked about other teacher trainers was their "ego" that he heard from his friends. They looked down on teacher candidates and school teachers, but Umut considered himself lucky to be far from them.

Along with positive learning experiences, Umut had negative experiences. He mostly resented some instructors' favoring certain students, which happened in two ways. The first case of favoritism occurred during the 1st-year speaking lessons. Umut describes this lesson as "disaster" since the instructor only interacted with participating students. According to Umut's assumption, three or four students might have improved their oral and phonological skills by listening to songs or interacting with native speakers; for this reason, they dominated lessons, and the instructor did not care about non-participating students. Umut does not think that the instructor dealt with these silent students and taught them strategies to improve their speaking. There was also a

discrepancy between the students who received preparatory school education at university and the ones who were exempt from it. The former group had already got used to university environment; thus, they were more confident about speaking than the latter. Consequently, Umut observed that two groups of students existed in class and the teacher preferred the more talkative group. As a reaction to the teacher's behavior, Umut either remained silent or kept his answers to the teacher's questions short.

The second case of favoritism was some instructors' unfair assessment. In his opinion, the students who flattered those instructors had better relationships with them and such relationships improved their grades. Therefore, Umut gave sharp reactions against his friends who took advantage of their relationship with teachers. In Umut's view, instructors' offices should only be used for academic purposes, not for chatting and flattering. The effect of his teachers' subjective and unfair attitude at university can be seen in Umut's utterances:

> *"I think some teachers' assessment was not so fair. Especially in terms of subjective assessment, it was not so fair. I mean, when I think about it, it is still the same, well, I think my attitude is a bit, well, harsh about these issues. I think students who study should be better and the ones who do not should be deprived of certain things. Hard-working students should get their rightful grades"* (interview).

Moreover, Umut thinks pre-service education lacked practice for training pre-service teachers to teach speaking. Thus, when he started teaching, he went to the library of the university where he received his pre-service education, and he picked books offering speaking activities to photocopy. Although he remembered being taught the importance of different types of speaking activities (e.g. information-gap activities) for students, he stated that pre-service education did not present a wide range of role plays, games or pair/group work activities. Thus, Umut completed this gap with his efforts.

4.2.5.4.3. *Teaching practice*

In terms of motivating students for speaking, Umut thinks he has been effective. Especially when he arrives at classroom with his materials, especially games, he observes that students get very pleased and motivated. Therefore, he expresses his effort to bring challenging information-gap activities which require cognitive skills. Even the poorest students' uttering a few words about a picture or a pre-reading activity is significant to overcome his/her barriers in Umut's eyes. Nonetheless, he does not think

he makes excessive effort to motivate non-participating students and does not force them to speak because they are already adults responsible for their own learning.

In fact, Umut likes teaching reading most because in his view, a reading text with its pre-, during- and post-reading activities provides "an ideal model lesson". He has experienced through reading activities that he can teach all language areas and skills. In his opinion, students can learn new vocabulary items, get familiarized with cultural elements and get exposed to grammatical structures in the text. Activities which require students' thinking and analyzing at the beginning and at the end of the text can improve their speaking and writing. All in all, Umut is in favor of a reading-based language education. He likes both reading and teaching reading, and sees it necessary to teach students in Turkish context where people actually do not like reading.

4.2.5.4.4. *Professional development*

Umut participated in two kinds of in-service training. When he started teaching, he participated in compulsory in-service training sessions organized by the Directorate of National Education, but he was not satisfied with them because of favoritism again. Some teachers who did not even have basic computer skills were chosen by the Directorate to be language teacher trainers. He found those trainers and their presentations poor and not worth paying attention to. Similarly, when Umut personally applied to the Directorate of National Education for professional development activities, his applications were rejected without a good reason. Umut attributes this rejection to his lack of political network.

On the other hand, he actively and pleasurably participated in training sessions by British Council. Umut admired the trainer who was a talented presenter and prepared several activities ready to use in class. Umut liked the speaking activities and the trainer's well-organized preparation. The trainer put his materials in an order on a table and presented his activities to approximately one hundred teachers. Umut appreciates the practically informative aspect of that presentation because he thinks most teachers, particularly traditional-minded ones, need practical clues and model activities instead of theoretical information. Umut also notes that he gained a wonderful pack of activities from that training, and he adds that he still uses the activities in his teaching.

Umut's doctoral dissertation is about teacher education, and he wants to have in-service training about it. He draws attention to the lack of connection between teacher

trainers and teachers because he observes that teacher trainers do not know programs and practices at schools. He adds that his ambition is not to write research articles for their own sake; rather, he does qualitative research to deepen the understanding and interpretation of foreign language teaching context and its problems in Turkey. Thus, he disapproves researchers "sitting at ivory towers and chatting" and he promises himself to be a researcher close to language teachers and schools.

Umut finds his "theoretical schema" important; thus, he always revisits his "reference books" such as the ones written by Brown, the ones by Harmer, and the printed materials published by Oxford University Press. Especially for teaching speaking, he learned the stages of "awareness-appropriation-autonomy" (Thornbury, 2005b) and use of communicative games by himself through reading books. He underlines the fact that he did not learn these stages of teaching speaking and activities in his pre-service education.

Furthermore, he wants to improve his oral skills for daily interaction because he mentions his discomfort with grammatical rules in his mind blocking his fluency. He also wants to receive training about material design. He is interested in writing coursebooks and developing technological materials for teaching.

4.2.5.4.5. *Context*

Umut does not find physical conditions of preparatory school sufficient. Firstly, he cannot find a material which can be directly used for speaking apart from the extra activities in Teacher's book. Secondly, he points out absence of computers and projection devices necessary for watching videos and making presentations in classrooms.

Umut criticizes testing policy of the school, as well because he does not think speaking is measured in examinations. According to his analysis of test validity, examinations are loaded with grammar and vocabulary by 60%. Thus, students prefer to memorize lists of grammatical and lexical items in order to surpass minimum score of 65 in the final examination. In addition, he does not think that multiple-choice test items about colloquial chunks measure students' oral skills. In his opinion, administration hesitates to prepare oral exams for fear of subjective assessment, but Umut suggests doing oral exams instead of discarding them. As long as the conditions of interrater reliability, sound measurement devices and scoring criteria are met and as long as

teachers incorporate consistency and professional discipline into their assessment, Umut does not foresee a problem with making oral exams.

Umut is satisfied with his workload of 20 hours per week. However, teaching more than three different groups of students a week hampered his recognition of students. The more groups of students he taught, the less chance he had in order to know them and to assess their performances better.

Although working hours are flexible, Umut stays at his office longer because he believes in the necessity of office work as an academic staff. He states that he increases his workload himself for professional development.

Table 4.5. can be seen for the summary of the case of Umut.

Table 4.5. *The case of Umut*

Themes	Importance of speaking	Contextual concerns	Actual teaching practice	Suggestions
Perceptions	Skills are equally important.	Students' fossilization and their need to develop their colloquial and academic speaking skills	-Elicitation -Doing coursebook activities -Covering swiftly or skipping pronunciation sections -Assessing group presentations	-Revising the program and increasing the portion of speaking in it -Adding task-based materials to the program
Observed actions	He precisely followed the coursebook content related to all skills.	-He did coursebook activities for real-life skills and he asked students to prepare a presentation for academic speaking.	He was observed to carry out all the practices he wrote.	The practice of these suggestions is unobservable.
Background factors	**Language learning experiences:** Positive learning experiences at prep class + model teachers **Pre-service education:** Learning theoretical and practical aspects of teaching + model instructors + useful teaching practicum + reacting against favoritism **Teaching practice:** Reading-based teaching model + feeling successful in teaching speaking **Professional development:** Participation in several in-service training sessions + encountering favoritism + doctoral studies + "theoretical schema" based on reading books **Context:** Insufficient physical conditions + wrong testing policy + tolerable workload			

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The research purpose of this study is to explore English language teachers' perceptions, actions, correspondence between the two and background factors at the preparatory school of a Turkish university. In line with this aim, first of all, 28 teachers' perceptions which may outline the cognitive and contextual milieu of the research setting are identified, and then perceptions and actions of the five cases are examined. In the following section, teachers' perceptions gathered through questionnaire are discussed.

5.1. Discussion of the Teachers' Overall Perceptions

According to the results of the questionnaire, most of the participants accept significance of speaking; they see it either as the most important skill (n=7) to teach or as equal to the other language skills (n=10). Likewise, stressing the significance of the speaking skill, Hughes (2002) objects to treating it as a discrete skill because she maintains that speaking overlaps a number of areas and disciplines:

> When the spoken language is the focus of classroom activity there are often other aims which the teacher might have. For instance, a task may be carried out to help the student gain awareness of, or to practise, some aspect of linguistic knowledge (whether a grammatical rule, or application of a phonemic regularity to which they have been introduced), or to develop productive skills (for example rhythm, intonation or vowel-to-vowel linking), or to raise awareness of some socio-linguistic or pragmatic point (for instance how to interrupt politely, respond to a compliment appropriately, or show that one has understood) (p. 6)

Thus, the participating teachers' perception of speaking as an important skill together with the other skills and areas deserves attention. Moreover, due to the international use of English in a globalized world, the need for teaching sociopragmatic skills (e.g.: social status, distance, linguistic register, appropriacy, etc.) in coordination with the speaking skill has come to the fore. Therefore, Richards (2003a) highlights the significance of cross-cultural communication, cultural awareness, communicative syllabus and pair/group activities in teaching speaking.

Unlike the teachers who ascribe significance to speaking, a group of teachers (n=6) attach more importance to reading and writing because in their accounts they underline the possibility that engineering students who constitute the majority of the student population will need reading and writing skills in their departments much more

than speaking. This perception may be caused by two possibilities: First, the teachers' statements like *"because of the requirements of departmental courses"*, *"according to the instructors' wishes in the departments"* indicate that these teachers might have got feedback concerning the priority of reading and writing from students and instructors in engineering departments. Secondly, chairpersons of this preparatory school have come from engineering faculties so far; thus they might have directly or indirectly affected teachers' view of language teaching. Consequently, teachers may feel the need for putting more emphasis on reading and writing than speaking with the aim of preparing students for their future academic studies, which shows the impact of institutional context shaping teachers' perceptions. In this respect, Bayraktaroğlu's (2014) argument may shed light on similar institutional and administrative peculiarities of Turkish universities. He stresses the role of administrators who do not have sufficient knowledge of qualities and conditions of language teaching and who do not have administrative, financial and academic consciousness of language teaching. He also points out that universities in Turkey do not attach importance to language teaching by giving the example that while strategic planning of all faculties and departments is made, strategic planning of language teaching is not considered at all. As a result, it can be deduced that not only language teachers' cognition but also administrators' cognition gain importance in language teaching.

Regarding contextual concerns which teachers think affect their teaching, they firstly point out students' low oral proficiency. The findings pertaining to students' low oral proficiency are in line with previous studies conducted at Turkish universities which are full of students who study English but cannot speak it (Bayram, 2011; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; Esin, 2012; Gömleksiz and Özkaya, 2012; Güney, 2010; Kayrak, 2010; Özkanal, 2009; Zeytin, 2006). Research results confirming each other indicate the serious problem of teaching speaking in Turkish educational system, and especially in this research, teachers' perceptions display the gap between expected products of the program and learners' actual performances. Teachers report that students cannot speak fluently at the end of an academic year no matter how hard they study for passing proficiency exams. They depict students' oral performances with expressions like *"they cannot even form simple sentences"*. In addition to students' low oral proficiency, teachers note that students do not participate in speaking activities because of their

affective problems like demotivation and anxiety and they have limited consciousness about the speaking skill and world knowledge.

In teachers' view, these problems are the result of institutional factors. All the participants underline the impact of syllabus and assessment prioritizing grammar and vocabulary. Even though speaking components are equally distributed in all units of the coursebook, students and some teachers tend to give less importance to speaking because students just have to choose an alternative in a multiple-choice test of proficiency. As a result, students pragmatically concentrate on language skills and areas that are taught intensively and measured in proficiency exam. In a language learning environment where teachers are supposed to "teach the test", Harmer (2001) reminds the risk of compromising general English improvement at the expense of exam preparation. Nevertheless, it seems that both some teachers and students fall into this trap according to the results of this study.

Apart from syllabus and assessment, teachers highlight demotivating effect of restrictive physical conditions (i.e. lack of audiovisual aids and unfavorable classroom conditions) on students. In fact, it can be understood that teachers may feel more constrained by physical conditions than students do, since teachers indicate that they are trained to teach speaking with the help of audiovisual aids, but in reality, they confine their teaching materials to coursebook and board. Thus, teachers' demotivation may stem from their frustration with feeling unable to put their pedagogical knowledge into practice because Swanson (2008, 2012) reports that when teachers' professional interests, abilities and competences are in congruence with the dynamics and requirements of their workplaces, their self-efficacy in teaching a language increases. In return, teachers' high sense of efficacy yields setting higher goals, less fear of failure and longer perseverance in the face of obstacles (Swanson, 2012).

Although the teachers participating in this study mention contextual constraints demotivating students and teachers during teaching speaking, another point should also be considered. Since most of the language learners come from traditional learning environments mostly focusing on mechanical teaching of grammar by discarding speaking (Akdoğan, 2010; Paker, 2012), learners might have formed deep-seated educational habits which may discourage them from speaking. Ocaklı (2008) conducted a study about teaching speaking through communicative approach at the preparatory school of a Turkish university and found that 70% of language teachers complained

about their students' avoidance of speaking tasks and their preference for listening to the teacher passively. In other words, these learners had a tendency to prefer teacher talk more than student talk like the ones in Cohen and Fass (2001). Ocaklı also found a mismatch between teachers' expectations and students' behaviors because the students were reported to be unaware of bearing their responsibility to take part in student-student interactions. Similarly, the teachers in our study expect their students to speak, but the teachers are confronted with learner demotivation and reluctance which may not only be attributed to contextual concerns, but also stem from language learners' previous language learning experiences at primary and secondary levels. This finding shows that foreign language teaching at all educational levels are connected to each other like rings of a chain; if one part of the system is broken, the other parts cannot be exempt from this breakdown. Therefore, the responsibility for teaching speaking within a learner-centered paradigm should not fall on preparatory schools at universities; speaking should take place at all levels of education.

Teachers also mention what they actually did in class in terms of speaking. Almost all the teachers are found to be responsive to students' affective domain by motivating them in different forms. However, none of the teachers state that they train students to cope with their affective problems. Thus, training teachers about affective strategies and how to introduce them into classrooms can bring better results than verbally motivating students. Such strategies as identifying one's mood and anxiety level, talking about feelings, rewarding oneself for good performance, using deep breathing and positive self-talk (Oxford, 2003) could be appropriate to help students handle their problems more effectively. Furthermore, games can relieve learners' anxiety in lessons. In a study by Zeytin (2006), students expressed their comfort in playing games; for this reason, communicative games can be another option to overcome learner anxiety and to motivate them for speaking.

All the participants state that they do speaking activities of the coursebook adding that they either stick to the activities or make adaptations when they do not find the content appropriate for their students. While most of the participants (21 out of 28 teachers) express their discontent with coursebook activities, some teachers turn their negative feelings into an opportunity by adapting the activities to make them more challenging and fun. As Gabrielatos (2004) indicates, language teachers may take

coursebook as the Bible, a crutch, a necessary evil, or a burden, but it is in fact "a helpful tool that teachers can use flexibly, and combine with other resources" (p. 28)

The participants also make some suggestions related to addressing students' affective domain, raising awareness, making changes in syllabus, teaching and assessment, materials, other administrative measures and students' responsibilities. In some cases, however, participants place more responsibility on administration than on themselves for improving teaching speaking. For instance, the majority of the participants articulate their discontent with the syllabus, but none of them express their wish to be trained for syllabus design in order to contribute to improving the syllabus. Most of them want extra speaking materials; however, only two teachers state that they photocopy and distribute extra communicative activities and games located at the back of Teacher's book. There are six teachers who want the administration to employ a native speaker as a teacher at school, but only one teacher invited her friend as a native speaker for giving her students the sense of being able to communicate by speaking English only. Without doubt, teachers' first and foremost duty is to teach and they may not feel obliged to solve out-of-class issues; nevertheless, they can perceive themselves as a member of a team of teachers, administration and students. Rather than waiting for administration to close every gap of learning environment in distant future, creative and timesaving tactics can be sought and shared among colleagues as exemplified in inviting native speakers to classrooms. Offering teacher-based suggestions and discussing them with colleagues can be much more fruitful than laying responsibility on administration. As Richards (2013) asserts, being a creative teacher brings non-conformism. He points out that creative teaching lies in adapting and modifying lessons to match learner needs rather than simply presenting lessons from a textbook. In this respect, he shares several anecdotes of creative teachers reflecting their unique teaching styles while adapting routinized content of a pre-determined coursebook into fun elements. Hence, teachers can "turn lemon into lemonade" as Selin and Umut in our research can be considered as examples who display alternative thinking not through modelling or copying the practices of other creative teachers, as Richards stresses, but rather through understanding the principles that underlie creative teaching.

It becomes evident by this research that while some participating teachers display their creativity in solving problems, a larger group of teachers perceive contextual conditions, whether it be students or physical limitations, as a serious constraint on their

teaching of speaking. The difference between the two groups of teachers might be attributed to psychological factors like burnout (Friedman, 2000), educational factors like lack of sufficient pre-service and in-service training, and professional factors like insufficient teaching experience. Such factors should be carefully handled by policy makers, administrators and teachers in the long run. In the short run, teachers should be familiarized with the concept of teacher autonomy which may lead them to focusing on one's initiative as a teacher instead of placing the blame for contextual constraints on administration. Little (1995) defines teacher autonomy by describing successful teachers as autonomous ones having responsibility, reflection, control and freedom. In contrast to teachers who complain about contextual restrictions and who expect solutions from administration, autonomous teachers claim their own responsibility for and control of teaching speaking, critically reflect on their practices; as a result, they free their teaching from the illusion of being victimized by contextual conditions as shown in the cases of Selin and Umut of this study.

Two researchers also shed light on how to practice teacher autonomy by introducing the concept of "space". Lamb (2000) argues that "teachers need to understand the constraints upon their practice but, rather than feeling disempowered, they need to empower themselves by finding the **spaces and opportunities for manoeuvre**" (p. 127, emphasis added). Benson (2010) investigated such "spaces" in which teachers employ their autonomy through interpreting, manipulating or ignoring the tasks specified by the curriculum. Similarly, some of the participants of this research were found to create such spaces by adapting coursebook activities to the benefit of students like turning the topic of "asking wh- questions" into a quiz show.

In addition to creating spaces, keeping reflective journals to analyze one's teaching is proven to be another good starting point for exercising teacher autonomy (Genç, 2010). Most of the participants in this study focused on disadvantages of contextual constraints whereas they might be blindfolded by negative feelings like learned helplessness (Maier and Seligman, 1976). However, keeping reflection in a calm frame of mind can provide an analysis of threats and opportunities by drawing lessons from day-to-day teaching practices.

Finally, three teachers draw attention to students' in-class and out-of-class responsibilities for learning to speak as detailed in the previous chapter. These teachers do not clarify whether they help students take on responsibilities. For instance, one of

the teachers wants students to read, listen and get exposed to English out of class, but s/he does not write whether she guides students through out-of-class sources of language exposure. In this case, the teacher wants his/her students to display learner autonomy without training them to be autonomous. Another teacher points out the lack of learner autonomy due to the whole educational system of Turkey. Nevertheless, one does not necessarily have to alter the educational system totally since learner autonomy is a learnable attribute on condition that "appropriate conditions" and "preparation" are provided (Benson, 2001). Designing and adapting materials encouraging autonomy (Nunan, 1997), using resources beyond the classroom (Ryan, 1997), learner training, giving assignments, training to keep journals, introducing self-access centers and staying in touch with students after the course (Harmer, 2001) can be useful for developing learner autonomy. Especially for supporting autonomous out-of-class learning to speak, learners can be guided on pronunciation software, message exchanges, corpora, concordancing programs, the Internet, and language teaching web sites (Bailey, 2004).

5.2. Discussion of the Cases

After collecting 28 teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking, five teachers were observed and interviewed for making in-depth analysis. Although they covered the same coursebook and had to do the same speaking activities due to the pre-determined syllabus, they brought their idiosyncratic characteristics of their cognition to their classes. In this section, common and different points of the teachers' perceptions and are discussed. These points are perception of learning to speak/teaching speaking, use of coursebook and materials, student involvement, code-switching, feedback, student motivation, classroom management and correspondence between perceptions and actions. After discussing these points, the factors affecting their perceptions and actions are analyzed.

Firstly, all the cases have different perceptions of teaching speaking which are affected by different background factors. Arven draws an idealized image of teaching speaking. She envisions class hours specifically devoted to speaking which includes awareness-raising activities about pronunciation and pragmatic features such as "fillers". According to her, there should be a specific place at school to teach speaking in appropriate physical and technical conditions. Lastly, students should be interested in

learning to speak. Unless these conditions are met, teaching speaking is doomed to remain "utopian" in Arven's view. Furthermore, Arven admires native-like pronunciation and accent, and identifies native speakers "as the rightful owners of English" (Sifakis and Sougari, 2005). In highlighting pronunciation for the purposes of teaching speaking, Arven might have fallen into the illusion which the university-level teachers and the administrators fell in Karagedik's (2013) research: They thought that a teacher's pronunciation was the most important qualification for teaching speaking. Likewise, the teachers participating in a study by Cohen and Fass (2001) emphasized accuracy and pronunciation to assess their students' oral production. However, Thornbury (2005b) criticizes this thinking as dealing with teaching speaking "at the level of pronunciation" (p. 28). Hence, teaching speaking in Arven's perception might be at the level of pronunciation, which may limit teaching many other dimensions of speaking. Arven's concentration on pronunciation and native-like accent may be rooted in her language learning experiences of practicing speaking out of school, desiring to impress people by her speech and admiring native speakers. In addition, her negative teaching experience shaped her perceptions of teaching speaking. When she understood that she could not raise students' interest in phonetic alphabet, she gave up teaching it and held on to the difficulty of teaching speaking.

Similar to Arven, Deniz's perceptions of teaching speaking are rather based on criticism of the current context. Her perceptions are related to what should or should not be done instead of what s/he does in order to improve students' speaking. She backs her criticisms about the context with her previous teaching experience. In her opinion, her students at her former workplace were more fluent and enthusiastic learners, but her current learners "blunt" her teaching skills. As a result, she does not believe in teaching speaking to her learners at this preparatory school.

İnci gives equal importance to all language skills and her perception of learning to speak and teaching it is based on imitation and modelling. First, students learn to speak by imitating their teacher and her exemplary utterances, and they get motivated by hearing their voice in English and by getting positive feedback. The source of this perception can be found in İnci's language learning experiences. She experienced the joy of hearing her voice herself in English at high school where her teachers gave her dialogues for oral reading. Parallel to her language learning experience, as a teacher she suggests providing dialogues with students to practice speaking just like her high school

teachers did. She also suggests giving a dialogue or a drama script for students to memorize and act out in exams to measure students' oral skills at least since speaking is not assessed. Second, she believes in the benefit of being a model for students just like she took her teachers as models. Therefore, she states that she shares her speaking errors with her students and tries to convey the message that errors are normal and natural because the teacher makes them, as well. Hence, İnci's approach to language learning and teaching based on imitation and modelling mostly originates from her prior language learning experiences and it is reminiscent of some features of Audio-Lingual Method (i.e. her emphasis on controlling students, imitation and modelling, Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards and Rodgers, 2001) although she does not cite its name. When she was a student, she was too shy to speak in front of people till she was a senior at university, but she developed her oral skills by imitating her teachers. Similarly, she supposes that her students can develop their oral skills by imitating their teacher, getting positive feedback from her, hearing their own voice in English, practicing speaking by oral reading and overcoming their anxiety to speak by witnessing their teacher's errors.

Selin is the only teacher among the other cases in this study who perceives speaking as the most important skill to teach. She is not satisfied with the weight given to grammar and vocabulary to the expense of speaking in the syllabus and wishes to encourage students to talk and to make them feel that they can communicate indeed. She also draws attention to her students' effort to construct grammatically perfect sentences as a problem that she encountered during teaching speaking. This kind of learner profile reminds "monitor over-users" delineated in Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis: "(…) such performers may speak hesitantly, often self-correct in the middle of utterances, and are so concerned with correctness that they cannot speak with any real fluency" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 27). According to Krashen's hypothesis, formal language teaching provides rule isolation and feedback which develops the monitor; thus, rather than rule-learning, the focus of language teaching should be communication (McLaughlin, 1987). Therefore, Selin underlines the importance of appreciating students' short sentences and telling them they do not have to form grammatically perfect sentences when they open their mouth. Selin's giving importance to speaking and appreciating her students' efforts originate from her language learning experiences as she took her high school teacher as a model. She states that her teacher influenced her teaching speaking deeply.

Umut perceives speaking as important as the other language skills, and he states that he supports his students' learning on the basis of developmental steps. He also gives importance to the notions of input and output during teaching speaking. In this respect, Umut's striking difference among his colleagues comes out: references to pedagogical content knowledge. He bases his comments and reflections on *professional language* (Freeman, 1996b) used in the research field of language acquisition in ELT pedagogy like "fossilization", "restructuring", "input", "output" and he states that he takes Vygotsky as his idol. In contrast, other participants of this research tended to use *local language* (Freeman, 1996b). Local language is defined as "the vehicle through which teachers explain what goes on in their teaching on a daily basis; it is the means of expressing – to themselves and to colleagues – the conceptions of practice which they bring to teaching, as well as those into which they are socialized on the job. It provides the source of explanation for their teaching" (Freeman, 1996b, p. 227). The danger of local language lies within the possibility of creating a barrier to reconceptualizing teaching and changing classroom practices since it voices teachers' unanalyzed conceptions (Freeman, 1996b). For instance, İnci expressed her disturbance of the non-stop pace of the activities in the syllabus and complained about lack of smooth transition among activities without naming the problem as smooth transition:

> *"Looking at the coursebook material only and saying "now get in pairs and do the activity" is not an instruction actually. Yet, we need to say "now do the activity" to finish that activity immediately and move on to another on time"* (interview).

Unless the situation given above is known as "sequencing" or "smooth transition", seeking a solution for it in methodological resources gets difficult. To put it simply, one needs to diagnose the problem correctly to find a cure for it. In contrast, Umut's use of professional language may ensure him to identify sources of problems easily. This can be attributed to his firm theoretical background that he acquired in pre-service education and his continuous efforts devoted to professional development.

In sum, all the cases in this study expressed significance of speaking, but their perceptions of learning to speak/teaching speaking differ in terms of background factors. Language learning experiences and/or teaching experiences shape the perceptions of Arven, Deniz, İnci and Selin, whereas Umut's perceptions are affected by his professional background. In other words, the sources of the teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking except Umut's perceptions are experiential, but not theoretical.

This finding is also in line with the study by Borg and Burns (2008) who found that language teachers rarely referred to theory or methodological principles to explain their views about grammar teaching, and that their "sources of evidence cited were overwhelmingly practical and experiential in nature… There was a striking absence of evidence drawn from formal theory and received knowledge (e.g. SLA research)" (p. 478). In addition, similar to the finding related to Umut's use of professional language, Borg and Burns point out that lack of theoretical perspective emerges in "the absence of technical knowledge" (p. 479) in the participants' accounts. However, the researchers do not reach the conclusion that those teachers were unaware of theories, but the researchers question the reliability of teachers' judgments about the effectiveness of their experiential knowledge base. Thus, in this study, the reliability of Umut's perceptions can be said to be strengthened by theoretical and methodological knowledge base.

How these five teachers reflected their perceptions on their practices is another concern of this study. To begin with, their ways of handling coursebook content are discussed. Arven criticized the coursebook by stating that there was no standard speaking and phonological activity in the program; however, as detailed in the curriculum section of Chapter three, almost half of each coursebook unit covers speaking together with pronunciation sections. In practice, she did coursebook activities by changing some pair/group work activities into whole-class talk.

Deniz stated that she did not make a change in coursebook activities, but in practice she was observed to follow a different way. On the basis of her perception of the low proficiency level of her students, she tended to simplify coursebook activities by changing content of activities, turning pair/group work activities into whole-class talks and replacing high-order questions with low-order ones. Therefore, there may be a clash between the coursebook level (Intermediate) and Deniz's perception of her students and she compensates for the clash by offering students a diluted version of coursebook activities, questions and tasks.

İnci stated that she did speaking activities "without disrupting the flow of the program"; thus, her concern for covering the syllabus may have led her to treating the speaking skill as extra. For instance, she wrote that she brought extra communicative activities from Teacher's book, but she was not observed to do so. She also changed some coursebook activities of student-student interaction to teacher-student interaction.

Selin did coursebook activities; furthermore, as she stated that she gave importance to materials during teaching speaking, she brought flashcards, realia and extra speaking activities. However, without audiovisual aids, she felt that she had to teach in the way her teachers taught and she stated that she could only organize discussion activities "at most". Nevertheless, even in classrooms furnished with up-to-date technological equipment, conventional student-student interaction should take place through abovementioned activities. In other words, Selin would need to organize pair/group work activities again even under technologically ideal circumstances. In fact, as Thornbury (2005a) states, teacher-student and student-student interactivity is the direct route to learning whereas materials provide a scenic route.

Umut covered the coursebook content without any change because he found it useful and in accordance with developmental steps of learning to speak (*Awareness-Appropriation-Autonomy*, Thornbury, 2005b). For example, he never changed pair/group work activities into whole-class talks because he noted that these activities were designed for levelling students' oral proficiency with the level of *Autonomy*. Therefore, Umut did coursebook activities in order to fulfil their learning outcomes. He also brought extra communicative and fun activities from Teacher's book.

In a nutshell, all the cases covered coursebook content, but the cases who entirely complied with "student-student interaction" feature of the speaking activities were Selin and Umut. The other teachers either simplified activities and/or switched to teacher-student interaction. That is, they preferred traditional teaching as opposed to the coursebook content in spite of expressing significance of speaking. Similarly, in a study by Uysal and Bardakçı (2014), language teachers teaching the fourth and the fifth grades disapproved communicative and Focus-on-Form features of textbooks because the majority of them believed in mechanical and explicit teaching of grammar. Even though drawing a parallelism between the cases in this study and the participants in that research might be misleading, this finding is important in terms of showing the existence of traditional teaching at all educational levels. In addition, the teachers in Uysal and Bardakçı (2014) held BA degrees; however, in our study, Arven and Deniz preferred teacher-fronted teaching despite doing MA studies in ELT. This result may also indicate the incongruence between teachers' stated beliefs and practices which are actually consistent with experientially ingrained "core beliefs" (Phipps and Borg, 2009). Therefore, taking such core beliefs into consideration, giving teacher trainees

opportunities to reflect on them and helping trainees to replace teacher-centered beliefs with learner-centered ones seems necessary for BA and MA programs.

Ensuring student involvement is another point to discuss the cases' practices. In this respect, Arven, Deniz and İnci acted similarly. They changed some activities of student-student interaction to teacher-student interaction. Especially in Arven and Deniz's lessons whole-class talks functioned like informal chats between the teachers and a few students rather than a speaking activity involving all students. İnci also thinks that when students speak, their energy comes out, and her way of "catching this energy" is doing whole-class talks. Therefore, İnci was observed to change some pair/group work activities into whole-class talks on the grounds of students' mood, energy or last class hour when students' feel tired. However, during these talks, non-participating students were observed to get bored although İnci stated that students enjoyed whole-class talks. The reason why Arven, Deniz and İnci prefer teacher-centered whole-class talks can be sought in two factors. Firstly, they give contextual restrictions of time limitation and learner demotivation to get involved in pair/group work activities as reasons. With regard to learner demotivation to work in pairs/groups, a study by Peacock (1998) is noteworthy. He found a mismatch between EFL teachers' and learners' beliefs related to useful activities. While teachers rated pair/group work activities high, learners undervalued them and rated error correction and grammar exercises as much more useful. This finding is parallel to Arven and Deniz's emphasis of their students' overconcentration on grammatical topics in opposition to speaking activities. Peacock also found that the gap between teachers' and students' beliefs about activities negatively affected learners' satisfaction with the class and confidence in their teachers. Likewise, the students of Arven and Deniz were observed to get dissatisfied with speaking activities as they cared more about grammar and vocabulary-oriented ones preparing them for multiple-choice exams. Consequently, Arven and Deniz tended to prefer more teacher-fronted and less time-consuming activities in order to complete speaking parts of the coursebook. Secondly, their preference may be the result of their reservations concerning how to manage activities of student-student interaction. As detailed in Chapter four, issues of classroom management were observed during pair/group work activities. For example, since Arven and Deniz did not give students a purpose for listening during role play performances, students made noise while their classmates were acting out. Thus, they might have found whole-class talks more

manageable than pair/group work activities. Harmer (2001) lists advantages of whole-class grouping as giving a sense of belonging, security and the teacher's ease at controlling students by avoiding possible problems of classroom management such as students' noisy engagement in pair/group work activities, and understanding their progress. On the other hand, as one of its disadvantages, he asserts that whole-class teaching emphasizes transmission of knowledge from teacher to student instead of students' own discoveries and research. By means of group work, however, students find more opportunities to practice speaking, practice a wider range of language functions, receive more corrective feedback from their peers and engage in more negotiation of meaning than they do in whole-class teaching (Long and Porter, 1985). Despite disadvantages of whole-class talks, teachers' perception of them as more timesaving and motivating than pair/group work may stem from their experiential knowledge shaped by their classroom practice and contextual conditions as they did not justify it on methodological grounds. Furthermore, they may want to preserve their hierarchical image of the teacher on stage (Wubbels and Brekelmans, 2005). As Wubbels and Brekelmans (2005) report that whole-class teaching is important for establishing the teacher's image perceived by students, these teachers may find whole-class talks in conformity with their image as a teacher governing her students.

Moreover, Arven, Deniz and İnci did not provide students with further opportunities to speak as a lead-in at the beginning of lessons. İnci sees them time-consuming under the pressure of covering a syllabus and disruptive of the program and classroom management. Since Arven and Deniz express their disbelief at teaching speaking "in a few hours", they do not place value on lead-in activities. Deniz does not count warm-up activities as genuine speaking activities. Nonetheless, Hird (2013) notes that warmers, fillers and lead-in activities at the beginning of lessons are not a requirement, but they have several advantages like waking and energizing students, changing the pace, generating interest and activating learner schema. Thus, their role in motivating and preparing students for the lesson especially in classroom contexts where students display reticence like the ones in this research is undeniable.

In contrast, Selin's lessons were observed to be consistent with her perception of the status of the speaking skill. In addition to doing coursebook activities, she tried to create as many opportunities as possible from social chats to announcements for her students to get engaged in speaking. She also stated that she invited an English-speaking

friend to her class and her students asked him/her questions, which made her very happy. In other words, rather than waiting for a native speaker employed by the administration, she came up with a practical solution to give students a chance to have genuine communication with a guest. In contrast to the teachers who expressed their wish for employment of a native speaker at school, Selin approached the issue more feasibly as she wanted her students "to feel being able to communicate". Likewise, Umut also tried to involve all students by applying lead-in techniques, doing coursebook activities without changing their design of student-student interaction and by bringing further activities like group presentation.

Code-switching of the cases is also a significant point to discuss. İnci and Umut only switched to Turkish when students could not understand the instruction of an activity, but after they made brief explanations, they immediately switched back to English. Selin never did code-switching and never let her students do so. Particularly since she saw the motto of "*You cannot teach a language with another language"* in an in-service training session, she adhered to it as a teaching principle of using English under any circumstances. In contrast, in Arven's lessons, both the teacher and students were observed to do code-switching. The moments of code-switching deprived students of exposure to the target language. Arven stated that students should have self-control in order to avoid code-switching during pair and group works, but students seemed to follow the example of their teacher because she used Turkish for several teaching purposes. Furthermore, she found informal Turkish chats useful in terms of tying the teacher with students. Similarly, Deniz switched back and forth between Turkish and English during lessons in contrast to her suggestion about minimizing L1 use. Deniz wrote that she did codeswitching with the purpose of "students' better comprehension" in her reflection. Arven's and Deniz's reasons for code switching were also put forward by the teachers participating in a study by Samar and Moradkhani (2014) who looked into teacher cognition about code-switching. Among teachers' reasons for code-switching, "students' better comprehension" and "students' emotional well-being" took place. The teachers in that study used code-switching as a tool for reducing stress and strengthening solidarity in stressful situations of language learning. For instance, a teacher in that study used Persian to encourage an anxious student to try to answer a question. However, Arven's and her students' L1 use went beyond mere affective purposes. Use of L1 is particularly detrimental to the development of oral skills, and as

Carless (2008) notes that in spite of its use as a humanistic and learner-centered strategy, switching to mother tongue has the risk of failing to encourage target language practice and communication.

A commonality observed in all of the teachers' classes was lack of immediate and delayed feedback on students' acting out. Students performed in pair/group work activities either by speaking spontaneously or by reading aloud, but the teachers did not give them feedback on their performances. Only Umut reflected on why he could not give feedback, but the other teachers did not even mention giving feedback on students' performances. The chief reason for this situation may be the teachers' haste to cover activities in limited time. To illustrate, one-page video units for practicing speaking include a lengthy glossary, pre-watching discussion questions, comprehension and completion items during watching, finally, pair/group work and whole-class discussion as post-watching activities. The teachers are expected to cover all these components in an hour; therefore, they may sacrifice feedback sessions for the sake of keeping up with syllabus. Consequently, under the pressure of limited time, teachers may find thanking students for their participation and approving their performances with one word like "Good!" sufficient at the end of speaking activities. Secondly, as in the case of Selin, teachers avoid interrupting and correcting students' speech in order not to lower their confidence. However, without demotivating students, it is possible to give feedback on oral performance in the forms of "gentle correction", "recording mistakes" and writing errors anonymously "after the event" (Harmer, 2001). Such options are far from embarrassing students and they are unlikely to take long class hours.

Another point which created an important difference among cases was student motivation. In Arven's lessons, students were observed to be reluctant to participate in speaking activities. Arven expressed that approaching end of the year lowered both her and students' motivation and her students' demotivation inevitably demotivated her. In addition to her demotivation, she stated that her workload in testing office exhausted her and she did not want to spend much energy on getting prepared for speaking activities. Consequently, a demotivational vicious cycle was observed to disturb both Arven and her students. Her students were demotivated for speaking partly because of contextual reasons like lack of an oral exam, end of the year, etc. In return, students' demotivation affected Arven; thus she did not struggle for arousing enthusiasm for speaking activities. Lack of enthusiasm in the learning environment demotivated students again,

and the vicious cycle repeats itself every lesson. Likewise, Deniz had similar negative feelings about teaching demotivated students; for this reason, she was not observed to warm up, motivate and involve non-participating students in her lessons. Student demotivation leading to teacher demotivation corroborates Kızıltepe (2008) who found that students constitute the major source of university teachers' motivation and demotivation.

However, in the lessons of İnci, Selin and Umut student participation and motivation was higher. İnci encouraged students to participate in speaking activities. Particularly, Selin's teaching can mostly be portrayed by the concept of motivation. She tried to motivate her students by encouraging them to speak and by appreciating their efforts to speak. She used several ways to motivate students in an atmosphere filled with supportive expressions, humor, telling anecdotes, requesting help, body language and slang. She even considered her constant use of English effective in building a rapport with her students. Similarly, Umut found affective domain critical to language learning and teaching. When he remembered his preparatory class teachers at high school, he evaluated their teaching as giving importance to students' affective domain. Thus, he stated that he taught speaking by appealing to students' affective domain like his teachers. Parallel to his perception, Umut was observed to involve most of the students in his lessons.

The last point related to the cases' in-class practices is classroom management. Especially Arven sat at teacher's desk most of the time except the times she walked around the classroom to monitor students' work. In order to handle learner misbehaviors, Arven was observed to refer to grades and she humorously reminded her students that she had the power of lowering their grades. Arven's reference to her power and authority may be attributed to her perception that she first felt that power in her teaching practicum because she stated that she liked the idea of feeling powerful in front of students since then. İnci and Deniz sometimes sat at their desks to monitor their students, but Selin and Umut did not sit at all.

In all of the teachers' lessons, students' misbehaviors of chatting, using mobile phones and not listening to their classmates' speech were observed to variable extents. In the long run, most of the misbehaviors originating from students' reluctance and demotivation can be approached by making amendments in teaching and syllabus. In the short run, it was observed that when the teachers were confronted with off-task

behaviors, they leaned on two options: ignorance or warning as a "reactive" measure of classroom management on the basis of the perception that students are responsible for their own learning and motivation. However, teachers should have a wide repertoire of "proactive" strategies to lessen likelihood of student misbehaviors before they happen such as setting rules, providing nurturance and support, instructing students in coping skills, etc. because proactive strategies make classroom management much more efficient whereas reactive strategies increase teacher stress and off-task behavior (Clunies-Ross, Little and Kienhuis, 2008). At any rate, the best proactive strategy for handling student misbehavior can be engaging students with meaningful tasks (Ng, Nicholas and Williams, 2010).

After discussing perceptions and actions, correspondence between the teachers' perceptions and actions could be analyzed. Arven and Deniz articulated their negative perceptions and feelings (e.g. fatigue and disappointment) regarding teaching speaking by uttering expressions like *"utopian"*, *"If I am exposed to these students more, I can forget how to speak English"*. On one hand, these accounts may be interpreted as one of the early signs of burnout in which teachers experience exhaustion, depersonalization and unaccomplishment at work (Friedman, 2000). On the other hand, they attributed their negative perceptions and feelings of "being unable to teach in the way they wanted" to contextual restrictions like loaded syllabus, physical and educational context, and learner profile. İnci also expressed her concern over covering a loaded syllabus in a limited time and stated that speaking activities should not disrupt the flow of the program. In contrast, Selin and Umut did not hold negative opinions about teaching speaking although they worked in the same conditions. Selin and Umut expressed their satisfaction with coursebook activities and their students' effort to speak. They stated that they brought further activities to the class in case of need. Rather than focusing on restrictions, they made suggestions about improving teaching speaking. Thus, Selin's and Umut's perceptions weighing contextual advantages and disadvantages equally brought them a balance between their perceptions and actions. In other words, their perceptions and actions were found correspondent. However, mismatches were found between accounts and practices of Arven, Deniz and İnci who referred to contextual constraints for explaining their actions. Similarly, in Basturkmen (2012), the teachers who had limited correspondence between their beliefs and practices reported that constraints such as time and curriculum affected their practices. On the

other hand, Lee (2009) who studied mismatches between teachers' beliefs and practices in terms of written feedback expressed doubt over teachers' setting out contextual constraints as reasons for their practices:

> "While teachers in the study tend to attribute their practices to constraints imposed by institutional context and values, like exam pressure and a school policy that highly values error feedback, it is not certain whether these are real explanations for the mismatches or mere excuses that teachers use to justify their practices" (p. 19).

In this study, whether teachers make explanations or excuses can be understood by comparing the teachers who do pair/group work activities and the ones who change them into whole-class talks. The teachers in the latter group suggest student-student interaction, but in practice they prefer teacher-student interaction on the basis of increasing students' participation and saving time. This result is in conformity with the finding of a study by Xiang and Borg (2014) who investigated college English teachers' beliefs about effective language teaching. They found statistically significant differences between teachers' beliefs about their *ideal* and *actual* classroom behaviors of an effective teacher. Moreover, just like the finding of our research, one of the sources of mismatches between their ideal and actual behaviors was found to be related to "using communicative activities". The participants in Xiang and Borg's research attributed the mismatch between their ideal and actual teaching to "student factors", "institutional factors" and "teacher factors" (i.e. limitations in professional training). Likewise, the participants of our research suggest doing communicative activities, but they articulate learner profile and institutional factors as constraints on their teaching. Nonetheless, unlike the participants in Xiang and Borg's study, the cases in our study do not mention teacher factors as a constraint. In other words, the teachers whose perceptions and actions exhibited mismatches do not express a need for backing their professional knowledge for doing speaking activities.

If a teacher does not express a need for professional development, then his/her knowledge base can be based on experiential domain which starts with language learning experiences. Therefore, the factor of schooling has a deep effect on the teachers' perceptions. As indicated in Öztürk (2015), the impact of schooling can be seen by means of transferring positive teacher traits, or an avoidance of disliked ones (also in Yiğitoğlu and Belcher, 2014; Zeng and Murphy, 2007). Umut found his language teachers very successful in teaching, motivating and training students to be autonomous. İnci referred to her teacher's use of dialogues to memorize and

assignments about oral reading which shaped her approach to teach speaking; in contrast, she avoided being unclear and inconsistent like her teacher at preparatory school. For Selin, her high school teacher was like a father and she still models her teaching on her teacher's teaching of speaking and pronunciation. It was observed in her lessons that she wanted her students repeat target words chorally at least five times just like her teacher did. Deniz was very happy with the learning environment at her high school and the teachers. One of the teachers became her idol who influenced Deniz with her smartness, pronunciation, world knowledge, outlook and even outfit. Arven's influential teachers were one of her high school teachers whom Arven liked her personality. In short, all the participants refer to their high school teachers as models or idols. Apart from Umut, the cases remembered their teachers' behaviors more than their methods. This is also discovered by Bailey et al. (1996). In autobiographical accounts of the teachers, the influence of good and bad teacher models was more evident than the influence of materials or methods.

As the second effect of schooling, grammar-centered language learning environment before pre-service education might have shaped the teachers' perceptions of language learning and teaching to such an extent that they might feel uneasy about implementing communicative activities. According to the results of a decennial report compiled by pre-service teachers about language teaching at Turkish state schools governed by the Ministry of Education, 95% of teachers give priority to teaching grammar, they do not see foreign language as a medium of communication, do not enable their students to use it in class and they do not include speaking in examinations at all (Paker, 2012). The participating teachers' language learning experiences especially at primary and secondary schools verified this finding, as well. Under these circumstances, teachers can be said to turn back to their "default model" of language teaching based on thousands of hours of observing their teachers (Borg, 2004). Despite learning learner-centered and meaningful language teaching methods during pre-service education, they may tend to switch to the traditional approach that their previous teachers have instilled in them (Warford and Reeves, 2003). To put it simply, a language teacher who never got involved in pair work when s/he was a student may have difficulties in teaching and managing it in her classroom. Especially in the case of Arven, such a relationship between her schooling experiences and her teaching of speaking could be mentioned. She stated that she did not find herself good at teaching

speaking, which might be attributed to receiving grammar-centered language education. She might feel more comfortable with teaching grammar and vocabulary than teaching speaking.

As the third effect of schooling, the teachers might have reflected their personal language learning experiences on their perceptions and actions. For instance, one of the reasons behind Arven's giving up teaching phonetic alphabet might be her seeking and not finding a student like her who studied phonological features enthusiastically. Umut also saw resemblance between his motivated language learning experiences during communicative activities and his students' motivated acts. İnci perceived oral reading useful for her language learning and she still thinks that it is useful for her students, as well. Selin gave importance to students' choral repetition in teaching pronunciation as her high school taught her. Therefore, like the teachers in Erkmen's study (2014), they might think their personal ways of learning as possible model behaviors for their students to learn English. Likewise, Arıoğul (2007) also reported that when teachers encountered a contextual discrepancy or tried to understand learners, they revisited their learner identities to use it in decision-making and instruction. To sum up, the factor of schooling together with "ideal" and "evil" language teachers and personal language learning experiences make up a significant part of language teacher cognition.

After schooling, the influence of professional coursework which begins with pre-service education can be discussed. All the participants had pre-service education, but only Umut can be said to reflect its outcomes. İnci stated that her memory deleted the effects of pre-service education; she expressed remembering bits and pieces of pre-service education. Selin highlighted negative impact of pre-service education. Deniz graduated from the same department of the same university with Umut, but she expressed her disbelief at language learning theories and methods. Similar to these results, Uysal and Bardakçı (2014) found that pre-service education had the least influence on (3%) language teachers' practices. The reasons behind these findings may firstly be found out by analyzing the efficiency of pre-service education. Demir (2015) conducted a study with student teachers and teacher trainers at a state university about the strengths and weaknesses of the ELT program, and both parties found the program irrelevant and far from meeting pre-service teachers' needs concerning teaching performance and language proficiency. In another study, novice teachers in their first years of teaching pointed out that more emphasis was put on theories than practice in

teacher education and they reported their need for more explicit guidance about teaching skills and language proficiency (Akcan, 2016). In addition, pre-service education should take teacher trainees' pre-existing perceptions and beliefs into account because unless they are handled and replaced with pedagogically refined ones by means of reflection and professional support, they remain stable (Kunt and Özdemir, 2010).

On the other hand, intensive English program administrators working at several Turkish universities reported in Akcan et al. (2017) that they recruited English language teachers displaying four essential characteristics one of which is "openness for professional development and self-reflection" (the others are: appropriateness in language proficiency, character and pedagogical knowledge). Therefore, even if teachers do not find their pre-service teacher education adequate for some reason, it may be possible for them to make up for that inadequacy by means of professional development and self-reflection with "a strong desire for continuing professional development, motivation for professional learning, awareness of the need for collaborative work, willingness to do research, and intention to keep up-to-date with trends in the field" (Akcan et al., 2017, p. 688).

The component of teaching practicum of pre-service education should be discussed, as well. The findings indicate that the teachers' first teaching experience went parallel to their learning experiences in pre-service education. Selin did not find teaching practicum useful since she did not find her pre-service education useful. Conversely, Umut found it very useful because he got satisfied with practicing the knowledge he gained from pre-service education. İnci noted a dramatic impact of teaching practicum. She had to face students' disrespectful and provocative manners in her pre-service teaching experience whereby she arrived at the conclusion that classroom management was more important than content knowledge. Just like she liked instructors having mild authority in pre-service education, her perception of the importance of authority was reinforced with teaching practicum. Not as influential as İnci's experience though, teaching practicum also underlined the concept of controlling students in Arven's cognition. Deniz's perception of impossibility to change anything at schools also strengthened during teaching practicum. Hence, seeing that the participants' former perceptions strengthened after teaching practicum, it can be concluded that teaching practicum did not bring the expected impact on their perceptions (except Umut) as Mattheoudakis (2007) found in her research. Therefore,

Mattheoudakis suggests providing continuous support and opportunities for reflection with teacher trainees. When it is provided, for instance, teachers' authoritative perceptions may evolve into emphasis on knowing students and setting limits (Ng, Nicholas and Williams, 2010). However, apart from Umut who got continuous feedback on his lesson plans from his teacher trainers, none of the teachers expressed such kind of support from their teacher trainers.

In addition to pre-service education, professional development efforts of in-service training, postgraduate studies and personal reading on ELT created another difference among the teachers. With regard to in-service training, Arven, Deniz and İnci did not reflect on how they benefitted from in-service training programs they had participated in. Moreover, İnci voiced criticism against in-service training in terms of lacking practical suggestions on teaching. This finding may be due to teachers' hesitation to join in in-service training programs (Bümen et al., 2012; Özer, 2004). Teachers' opinions are generally negative concerning in-service training programs because they find them based on mere presentation without examples directly related to teaching practice (Bümen et al., 2012) and they question their usefulness, which may be due to incongruence between what teachers want to learn and what teacher trainees have on their agenda (Kuzborska, 2011).

Secondly, engagement in postgraduate studies is another component of professional development. Being the only participant who was conducting doctoral research on curriculum development and instruction, Umut can be said to blend being a teacher and a researcher harmoniously. At every phase of data collection, Umut provided the most comprehensive and reflective data. His questionnaire responses, reflection reports and interview responses were more detailed in terms of analysis, synthesis and evaluation than the accounts of the other participants. However, Arven, Deniz and İnci did not reflect their postgraduate studies as much as Umut despite being MA candidates. With respect to the differences between doctoral and MA students in educational field, Ion and Iucu (2016) found that doctoral students gave more importance to involving practitioners in university research than MA students. Doctoral students outnumbered MA students in terms of considering research publication as a priority, favoring use of the Internet to publish results, favoring networks between researchers and policy-makers. Doctoral students also found conferences/symposia and seminars, articles from educational journals, and books effective more than MA

students. In spite of these differences, both doctoral and MA students considered research important for their teaching practices and perceived its impact on their teaching. Nevertheless, in our study, Arven and Deniz had different perceptions as MA students. Arven stated that she did not attempt to apply pedagogical knowledge she gained from research articles she read in MA studies because of the inappropriateness of the institutional context and learner profile in her view. Deniz did not refer to her MA studies to explain her perceptions and actions, but she expressed her disbelief at theoretical and methodological knowledge. Both Arven and Deniz were doing their MA studies at the ELT department of the same university when this research was conducted. In the website of the postgraduate program of that university, the educational aims were declared as follows: "to help individuals in their academic careers by improving their research skills and know-how and to increase active teachers' awareness in language teaching and as well as providing them with skills to solve their own problems" (Profile of the programme, 2017, ¶ 1). Nonetheless, there is a divergence between Arven's and Deniz's cognition and the educational aims of the program. If teachers do not build a link between what they acquire from the postgraduate program of ELT with their teaching, the rationale behind attending such a program can be questioned. Kırmızı and Sarıçoban (2013) carried out research about the factors influencing individuals' decisions to begin their MA studies. MA students and graduates were found to pursue "personal intellectual enrichment" most. In the future, the participants would like to go on with being a PhD student. In their view, the most important component of the MA program in ELT was its "research component" and they chose the ELT program of a university because of its "reputation". Hence, rather than making connections between teaching and research, MA students may tend to attend MA programs for better career options and undertake research for its own sake. Likewise, Arven and Deniz may aim at getting an MA degree in the short run; therefore, they may not perceive research for teaching as significant as their counterparts did in Ion and Iucu's research (2016).

Thirdly, the teachers except Umut were found to be distant from regular reading of ELT literature. As one possibility, these teachers may question the usefulness of literature like the teachers participating in a study by Crookes and Arakaki (1999). The teachers stereotyped researchers as "living in an ivory tower", but they thought that working teachers had the most credible opinions about teaching. As the second possibility, they may accept the merit of SLA research, but they may avoid reading

research articles due to lack of time, difficulty of research articles, and lack of interest like the teachers in Nassaji's (2012) research. In this study, excessive workload mentioned by Selin (25 teaching hours per week and office duty) and Arven (22 teaching hours per week and office duty), and factors related to personal life mentioned by İnci can be considered as the factors limiting teachers' time to concentrate on reading for professional development. Thus, Nassaji suggests providing teachers with time and resources to consult professional and research literature and involving them in using research ideas in classrooms to assess their applicability. The suggestion of "assessing applicability" may particularly be useful for bridging the gap between research articles and teachers' cognition.

In this study, the teachers' use of professional language and pedagogical references demonstrated the difference in terms of reflecting components of their professional coursework and development. Umut and Selin (fewer than Umut) used professional language to describe their teaching and made references to printed resources and pre-service and/or in-service training programs. In contrast, Arven, Deniz and İnci hardly used professional language, did not make reference to books or articles, and did not elucidate what they learned from pre-service and in-service education as clearly as Umut and Selin did. Furthermore, the teachers' justifications for the pedagogical issues of giving instructions, teacher talking time, managing pair/group work activities and dealing with non-participating students differed with regard to the teachers' reflections. While Selin and Umut critically reflected on their actions on the basis of their professional knowledge, Arven, Deniz and İnci tended to attribute these issues to contextual factors like syllabus and learner profile. Therefore, lack of professional language and reflection in spoken and written accounts signify the importance of sound knowledge base for a teacher which was put into categories by Shulman (1987):

- "content knowledge;
- general pedagogical knowledge, with special reference to those broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organization that appear to transcend subject matter;
- curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programs that serve as "tools of the trade" for teachers;

- pedagogical content knowledge, that special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding; knowledge of learners and their characteristics;
- knowledge of educational contexts, ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures; and
- knowledge of educational ends, purposes, and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds" (p. 8)

The participants of this research may have a certain level of knowledge in all the categories, but there may be variations among the cases. In terms of content knowledge, the teachers may not have huge differences as they were observed to speak English fluently in their classes. However, their perceived efficacy in speaking may affect their teaching. Chacón (2005) reported that the teachers with higher self-efficacy in language skills engaged students and managed instructional strategies more confidently. Especially in terms of speaking and listening, the teachers felt less confident, but they rated themselves more proficient in reading and writing; therefore it became difficult for them to implement Communicative Language Teaching which required teachers' fluency and led them to focus on grammar. Similarly, the participants of our research may have different degrees of self-efficacy concerning content knowledge which may affect their teaching. Furthermore, in this research it was found that three teachers' little use of professional language and pedagogical references indicated a need for supporting their general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. On the other hand, in terms of curriculum knowledge, knowledge of educational contexts and knowledge of educational ends, the participating teachers might have knowledge to a certain extent. However, as detailed in Chapter three, their hierarchical position coming after administration and coordinators at this institution might not allow them to acquire full knowledge in these categories. Hence, in case teachers want to extend their knowledge related to curriculum, educational ends and context by means of carrying out research, administrative attitude becomes determinant since institutional research culture is a key factor influencing teachers' research engagement (Borg, 2007).

The third background factor affecting the teachers' perceptions and actions is context. In this study an inverse relationship was found between professional coursework and context. Tsui (2009) reviewed studies about expert (not necessarily

experienced) and novice teachers which were inspired by Shulman's theorization of the teacher's knowledge, and revealed one of the distinguishing characteristics of expert teachers as "capability to transcend contextual constraints, to perceive situated pedagogical possibilities and exploit them for student learning" (p. 194). In contrast, Arven's and Deniz's confrontation with contextual constraints resulted in losing their motivation instead of seeking new ways to teach speaking on the basis of professional knowledge base. The accounts of both teachers remind the researcher of Emrullah Efendi who was the Minister of Education of the Ottoman Empire in the early years of the 20th century. His humorous remark about governing schools has been one of the unforgettable aphorisms: *"If schools did not exist, how well I would govern the Ministry!"* (Bardakçı, 2005). By the same token, Deniz and Arven's accounts sound as if they could teach English very well if problems did not exist. In contrast, Selin and Umut did not perceive contextual conditions as restrictive as the other teachers did; on the contrary, they reflected on them to improve their teaching with the help of their professional knowledge. That is, the more teachers backed their teaching with professional coursework, the less they expressed the burden of contextual conditions. Since professional coursework offers a spectrum of ideas helpful for handling contextual restrictions, in this study it was found that professional coursework built teachers' resilience and strength for coping with contextual problems.

In addition to the educational context, the teachers' families in their social context constituted a factor affecting teacher cognition. Barnard and Burns (2012) mention "significant others" as one of the several factors affecting teacher cognition. Similarly, İnci noted that because of familial issues (i.e. looking after children and elders), she could not devote sufficient time to developing her teaching. Therefore, her busy personal life can be an additional element of wider context exceeding boundaries of school and affecting her teaching actions. Another married participant having a child in this study was Umut, but he did not mention his familial responsibilities as a hindrance to his efforts of professional development. Setting Umut's approach to professional development aside, this difference between Umut and İnci may be attributed to society's charging domestic duties with women more than men. In a study by İnandı et al. (2009), statistically significant differences were found between Turkish female and male primary school teachers in terms of career advancement. Female teachers were found to see familial responsibilities like child care and housework as barriers to their career

development and promotion. Likewise, in contrast to İnci, Umut, as a married teacher but as a male, may have a head start on his journey of professional development in Turkish social context.

Families were also found to affect language teachers' perceptions of their future careers before university education. Arven stated that her sister was one of the two teachers who affected her learning deeply before choosing to become a teacher. Umut also noted that because his parents were teachers, he had already felt acquainted with school environment and teachers' room; thus, he did not have any difficulty with going to schools for teaching practicum. Therefore, it can be said that family members can lay the groundwork of a future teacher's cognition. Akbayır (2002) underlines indirect parental impact on future teachers' choice of career. Although there is no direct relationship between having teacher parents and

deciding to become a teacher (Akbayır, 2002; Ok and Önkol, 2007), teacher parents set an example to their children by their guidance and suggestions (Akbayır, 2002). The results of our study similarly highlight the role of families in terms of forming language teachers' earlier cognition. The findings signal that teacher-parents may accelerate their children's warming up for their career beforehand.

Finally, another factor which affected the teachers' perceptions and actions is classroom practice. Relatively similar to the effect of context, classroom practice influenced the teachers' perceptions and actions negatively when they did not support it with their knowledge and reflection. Arven gave up teaching phonology to her students because of negative teaching experiences. She also perceived teaching speaking impossible due to her experiences like Deniz. Similarly, Arven, Deniz and İnci preferred teacher-student interaction to student-student interaction on the basis of their experiential knowledge of student participation in teacher-student interaction. In contrast, Selin and Umut did not quit involving and motivating students because their professional knowledge base informed them about the fruit of addressing students' affective domain during teaching speaking. When they encountered problems, they critically reflected on them for improving their teaching. As mentioned before, Borg and Burns (2008) draw attention to experiential nature of knowledge of language teachers who seldom referred to theory or methodology. Therefore, it can be concluded that Arven, Deniz and İnci's knowledge is highly experiential whereas Selin and Umut's knowledge can rather be named as "practical knowledge" which is inclusive of

situational, theoretical, personal, social, and experiential orientations (Elbaz, 1981). Selin and Umut reflected on specific situations that arose in their classroom practice, they stated their efforts towards theoretical orientation, they gave importance to their personal interaction with their students in classroom, they wanted to build rapport with students and their colleagues, and they tried to learn from their teaching experiences.

5.3. Reexamining Cognitive Framework

Although the model of this study is based on Borg's (2003) schematic representation of teacher cognition, the findings of the study have shown that it needs further elaboration. Öztürk (2015) who also studied language teacher cognition in Turkish context suggested a detailed model for analyzing the factors interacting with teacher cognition. Since it is the first comprehensive research on teacher cognition providing a model in Turkish context, it is worth comparing it with the results of this study.

Firstly, what Borg refers to "schooling" takes place as "prior language learning experiences" in Öztürk. While schooling is confined to teachers' observational experiences during language learning in Borg's model, Öztürk's model further includes "language aptitude" and "language learning habits". A finding similar to language learning habits also emerged in our study. The participants' personal ways of language learning were found to have an impact on how they perceived their students' learning. Arven's focus on phonology, Umut's emphasis on motivated interaction and İnci's recognition of oral reading as the best way to practice speaking were reflected on the teachers' in-class practices as they were rooted in their schooling period. Öztürk also extended the notion of schooling by adding the component of language aptitude. Since aptitude is seen as one of the principal learner variables (Dörnyei, 2005), it is likely to form an important part of one's language learning experiences influencing perceptions and action. Therefore, the components of observational experiences, language learning habits and language aptitude are significant, but schooling can further be extended with **family influence on the perception of teaching career**, as well. In this study, in addition to language learning experiences, a different factor emerged related to family influence during their schooling process. Arven's sister and Umut's parents influenced their perceptions of their future careers. Thus, in addition to examining the influence of

language learning experiences in classrooms, family influence during schooling period can be researched, analyzed and discussed in further studies.

Secondly, Borg and Öztürk mainly focused on "pre-service education" ("professional coursework" in Borg) as another important factor affecting teacher cognition. Öztürk delineated its components as "methodology courses", "teacher educators" and "the practicum", which is also justified in this research. However, a striking finding was found in the yawning gap between the perceptions and actions of Deniz and Umut. Both graduated from the same ELT department of the same university. They encountered nearly same instructors and they went through same instructional processes, but their perceptions and actions were almost opposite. Hence, the factor of **professional development** comes into play consisting of in-service training, postgraduate studies and personal ELT-based readings which remained unanalyzed in Borg and Öztürk. This study shows not only differences among the teachers' proximity to professional development but also the effect of in-service education, graduate studies and personal ELT-based readings on teachers' perceptions and actions. Consequently, the factor of professional coursework can be elaborated with the three components of professional development.

Another factor which is analyzed in this research is "context" shaped by "social, psychological and environmental realities of the school and classroom" (Borg, 2003, p. 94). Öztürk dealt with contextual factors separately as "institutional context" and "learner profile". In this study, similar data related to learner profile, syllabus, testing and teaching policy, workload and administrative issues were found to have a profound effect on teachers' perceptions and actions. These factors can be counted as the components of teachers' immediate context surrounding school and classroom. However, the data gathered from İnci unfolded a social factor extending the boundaries of school: **family life**. İnci pointed out that not only her maternal responsibilities prevented her from allocating time to her professional development but also other familial problems created a barrier to her participation in her in-service programs.

The last factor in Borg's framework is "classroom practice" which both affects and is affected by teacher cognition. Öztürk expanded it by showing the impact of "novice teacher experience" and "previous teaching experiences" on teachers' cognition which is also shaped by "teachers' decision-making" affecting their "current classroom implementations". In other words, Öztürk clarified "the affected" and "the affecting"

facets of classroom practice in terms of teacher cognition. In this research, teaching experience on a yearly basis was not observed to create meaningful differences among the teachers. When the research was conducted, Arven and Selin had been teaching English for 4 years, Deniz for 5 years, Umut for 12 years and İnci had been teaching for 15 years. Arven and Deniz were less experienced than Umut and İnci, but they expressed more demotivation and frustration in their written and spoken accounts about teaching speaking. By the same token, İnci's teaching experience might be expected to provide her with an advantage with respect to teaching speaking, but Umut and Selin created a more enthusiastic classroom atmosphere involving almost all of the students in speaking activities. In order to explain this situation, Umut put emphasis on the difference between the notions of "experience" and "being a veteran"; that is, being a veteran does not actually mean being experienced. The distinction between professional experience and the period of time spent in teaching that Umut touched upon actually lies within teachers' voluntary progression in professional development. Therefore, the factor of professional development gains significance again and creates the nuance between veterans and experienced teachers.

In conclusion, both frameworks discussed above can be elaborated by taking family factors and professional development into consideration. In that way, the notion of teacher cognition can be explored with a better grasp of background factors.

5.4. Summary

This study was conducted to provide an overview of what English language teachers perceive and do concerning teaching speaking and how the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice may affect their perceptions and actions at Foreign Languages Department of Eskişehir Osmangazi University. For this research purpose, 28 teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking and in-depth data obtained from 5 volunteering teachers were analyzed. The data analysis results are summarized in response to each research question.

RQ1: What are English language teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking?

In order to find out teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking, 28 teachers were distributed a questionnaire about the significance of the speaking skill, teaching it, problems they encounter during teaching and their suggestions. When teachers' responses to the questionnaire were analyzed, two main themes emerged:

I- Teacher's perceptions of:

a) significance of the speaking skill in the research context

b) contextual concerns in their institution

c) their actual teaching practice

II-Teachers' suggestions about teaching speaking

In terms of the significance of the speaking skill, teachers' perceptions vary. While a group of teachers regard it as important as the other language skills, another group deems it as the most important skill deserving priority to teach. Another group of teachers give priority to the skills of reading and writing as they think that students need these skills more in their future foreign language studies at university departments. Lastly, a smaller group does not specify an exact status.

The theme of contextual concerns has four subthemes as students, syllabus, assessment and physical conditions. With regard to students, the teachers focus on their proficiency level first. The majority of the teachers find their students' speaking level low. A group of teachers underline the conflict between their students' low level and the higher level of the coursebook. Only a few teachers describe students' level as intelligible, but they add students' grammatical and lexical errors to their comments. The teachers also point out their students' various learning needs. Students lack awareness of "why" and "how" they learn to speak, they have problems in the other language areas and skills, and they suffer from L1 transfer during speaking. Secondly, all of the teachers mention students' affective problems, namely, demotivation, anxiety and fear for making mistakes and losing face, reluctance, lack of confidence, shyness, discomfort, low energy, boredom, stress related to passing / failing and prejudice against speaking. The teachers attribute these problems to lack of an oral examination and the content of the coursebook. In terms of the syllabus, the majority of the teachers express their dissatisfaction with coursebook activities and the syllabus loaded with grammar and vocabulary items. One fourth of the teachers find the activities beneficial. Secondly, they touch upon the disadvantage of tests measuring grammar and vocabulary most. Lastly, the teachers criticize unfavorable physical conditions of their school.

The theme of the teachers' perceptions of their practice of teaching speaking is directly relevant to what they actually do during teaching speaking. Firstly, they do coursebook and further speaking activities. They detail how they do and adapt these activities, what kinds of activities they bring, their roles and preconditions for speaking

activities. Secondly, they address students' affective domain by verbal encouragement, modelling, doing activities that encourage students to speak and treatment of errors by alleviating their pressure, ignoring and recast. Thirdly, they raise students' awareness of the points which may help them to learn to speak better. Lastly, they do assessment.

The second major theme is teachers' suggestions about teaching speaking. The participants' suggestions are grouped in six categories. Firstly, the teachers suggest making changes in syllabus, teaching and assessment. In order to improve students' speaking, they suggest reducing the weight of grammar and vocabulary in it and giving priority to speaking or changing the syllabus. They also suggest adjustments in teaching and adding oral component to examinations. Secondly, the teachers want alternative printed and audiovisual teaching materials. Thirdly, they underline the need for further administrative measures like employing a native speaker, opening a speaking club, sending students' abroad and taking measures for better speaking education. Their fourth suggestion is addressing students' affective domain by motivating them, making activities fun and helping students overcome their fear of making errors. Fifth, they suggest raising students' awareness of learning to speak. Finally, the teachers highlight the importance of reminding students their responsibilities for learning to speak.

RQ2: What are their actions in teaching speaking?

- On the basis of the data collected via questionnaire, observation and reflection of Arven, Deniz, İnci, Selin and Umut, it was found that the teachers did coursebook activities with minor changes.
- At the beginning of classes, Umut and Selin did further lead-in activities of social chat and review to provide students with further opportunities to speak.
- Arven, Deniz and İnci had a tendency to change activities of student-student interaction to activities of teacher-student interaction.
- Although all of the teachers monitored students' pair/group preparation, none of them gave feedback on students' acting out.
- Arven and Deniz were observed to switch to mother tongue for affective reasons and for students' comprehension.
- With regard to pronunciation, Selin and Arven gave utmost importance to accuracy; therefore, they drew students' attention to pronunciation of new lexical items and made students repeat target words in the pronunciation part of the coursebook units.

In contrast, Umut found his speaking sufficient for providing input; thus, he either quickly did or skipped pronunciation parts in the coursebook.

- Umut brought games and group poster presentation and Selin brought whole-class discussion topics as extra speaking activities. Umut used poster presentation for assessing groups' oral and presentational skills. As extra materials, Selin brought flashcards and newspaper.
- All the teachers had at least one or two students reluctant to participate in speaking activities. In addition, the most common off-task behavior was students' engagement in their mobile phones. Against students' misbehaviors, teachers resorted to ignorance and warning. Students with off-task behaviors formed the majority in Arven's and Deniz's classes.

RQ3: Do their perceptions and actions match?

Selin and Umut's perceptions of their teaching were in conformity with their practices. Two mismatches were found between İnci's perceptions and practices regarding bringing extra communicative activities and giving further follow-up tasks. Arven and Deniz's perceptions and actions were in mismatch in terms of doing activities that require student-student interaction, conducting whole-class discussion activities and using mother tongue. Beyond these details, Arven and Deniz's statement of *"I cannot apply my teaching approach"* in their reflections divulged a deeper dissonance between perceptions and actions related to teaching speaking. They attributed this dissonance to contextual conditions related to syllabus, learner profile and physical inadequacies.

RQ4: How may the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice affect their perceptions and actions?

Schooling had a considerable impact on all the teachers' cognition. They modelled their language teachers' teaching approaches, bore influences of grammar-centered language learning and reflected their personal language learning experiences on their perceptions and actions. The effect of schooling can be seen in Figure 6.1. in which thicker arrows represent a deeper impact.

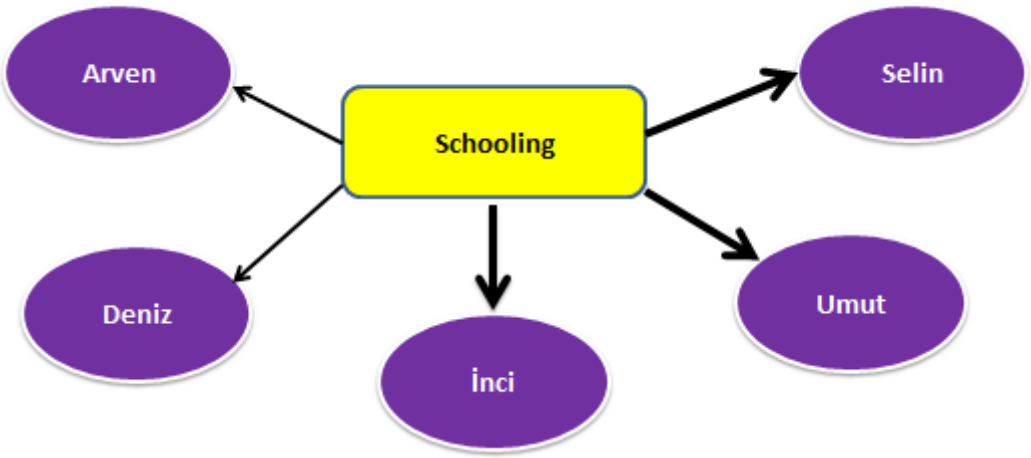

Figure 6.1. *The effect of schooling*

Pre-service education influenced the teachers more differently than schooling as it can be seen in Figure 6.2. Its effect on Arven, Deniz and İnci was limited, which is represented by dashed line of the arrows. Green and thicker arrow towards the diagram representing Umut shows its positive and deeper impact. Conversely, Selin was almost totally negative about her pre-service education, which is represented with red arrow.

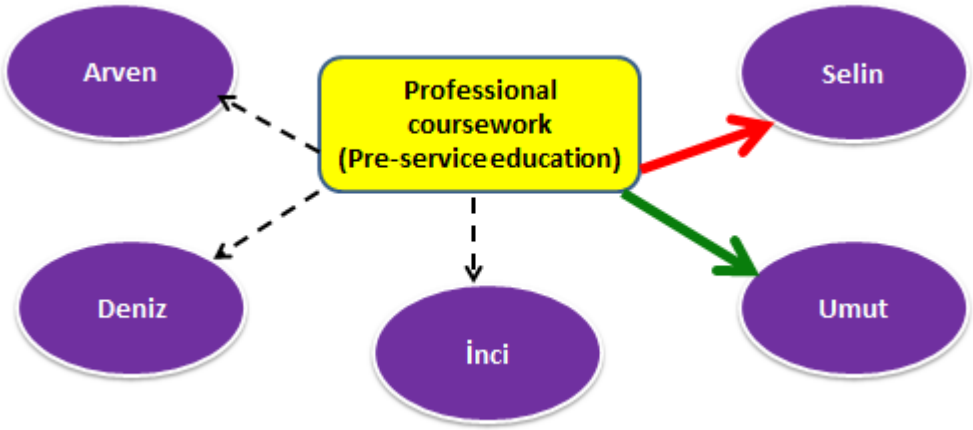

Figure 6.2. *The effect of professional coursework (pre-service education)*

Professional development composed of in-service education, postgraduate studies and ELT-based readings may be described as "the weakest ring" for the three participants of this study. These participants did not clearly detail their efforts of professional development, explain their teaching practices on methodological grounds, use professional language and make references to ELT resources. Therefore, dashed

lines represent limited effect of professional development; conversely, green and thicker arrows signify more positive and deeper impact as can be seen in Figure 6.3.

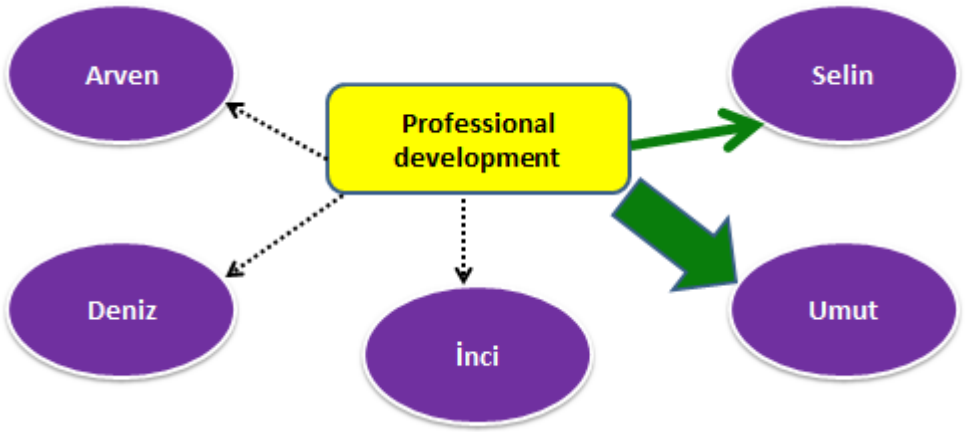

Figure 6.3. *The effect of professional development*

The impact of context was negative on all the teachers, but its severity changed, which can be seen in Figure 6.4. Arven and Deniz mentioned unfavorable contextual conditions more than the other participants. Although Selin and Umut mentioned negative aspects of the context, they reflected on them for improving their practices. It can also be concluded that there is an inverse relationship between the impact of professional knowledge and context. The more the teachers referred to context in order to provide justification for their perceptions and actions, the less they referred to professional knowledge base, or vice versa.

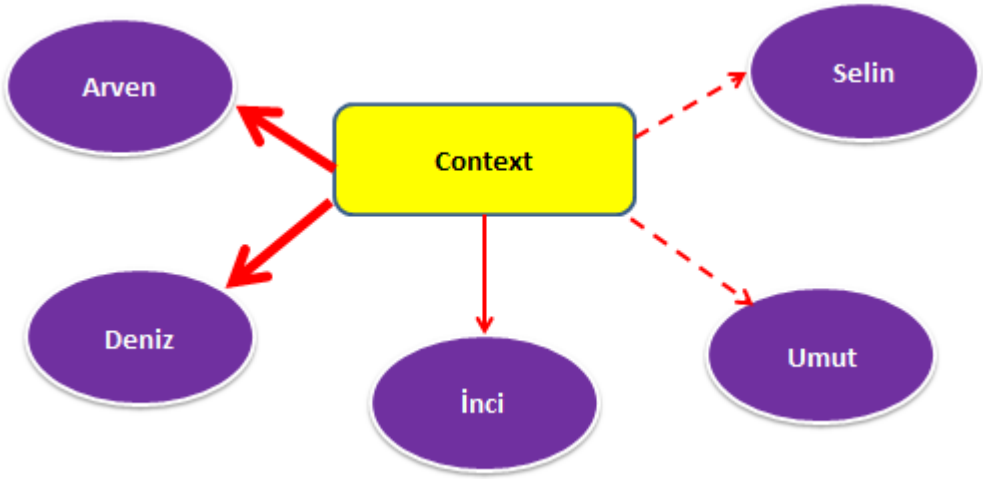

Figure 6.4. *The effect of context*

In addition to the immediate context of the teachers, the teachers' families in their social context influenced their career perceptions and professional development.

Arven's sister and Umut's parents affected their cognition related to their future career. İnci's familial responsibilities were found to place an additional burden on her workload preventing her professional development. The effect of family on Selin and Deniz was not found. Figure 6.5. shows the relationship between family factor and teacher cognition.

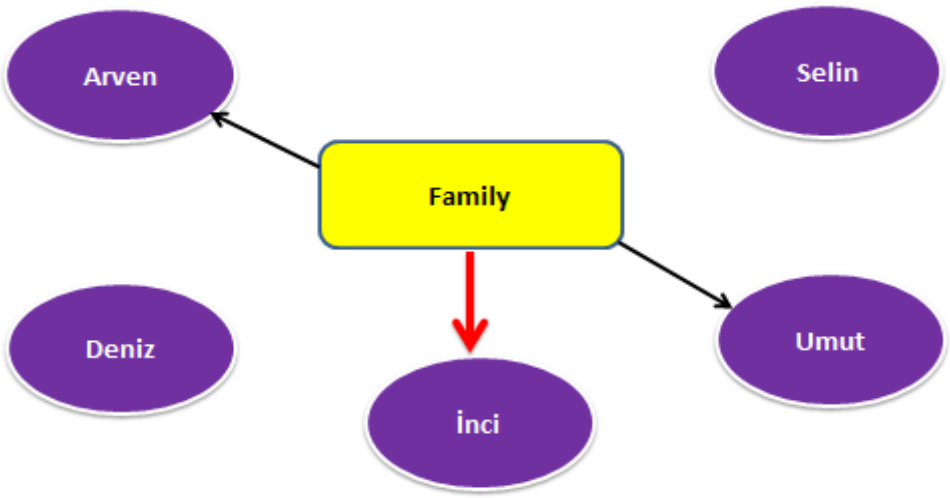

Figure 6.5. *The effect of family*

Classroom practice also informed the cognition of the teachers, which is visually summarized with Figure 6.6. Starting from teaching practicum, the teachers formed their teaching on their classroom experiences. The teachers for whom the effect of professional coursework was weaker tended to explain their teaching more experientially without referring to methodology. However, the teachers who were more attentive to their professional development harmoniously combined their professional knowledge with their experiential knowledge to act and to bring explanation for their actions. Negative classroom experiences, which are represented by thicker and red arrows, influenced Arven's and Deniz's perceptions and actions more than the remaining participants.

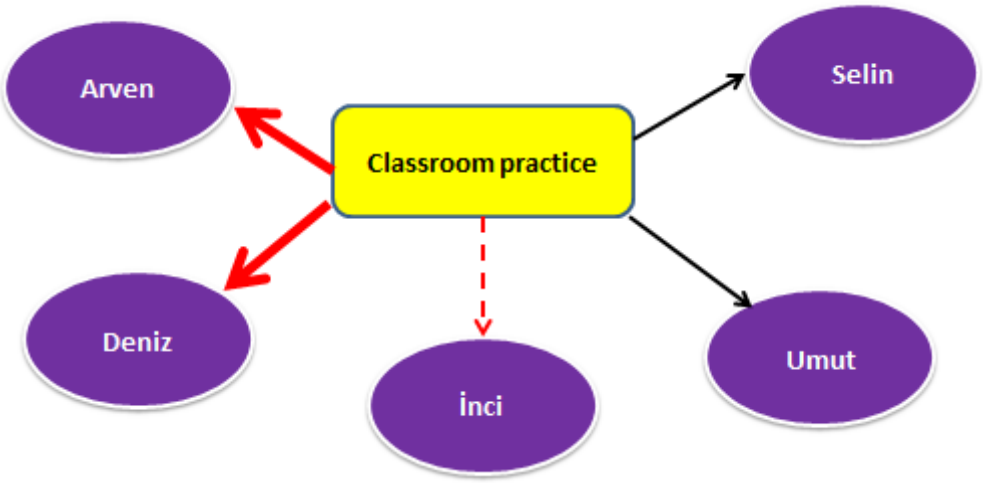

Figure 6.6. *The effect of classroom practice*

In conclusion, the factors of schooling, professional coursework, context and classroom practice are influential in terms of shaping teacher cognition. Furthermore, teacher cognition frameworks can be elaborated by paying attention to the factors of "professional development" composed of in-service training, graduate studies and personal readings on ELT, and "family" factors in teachers' wider social context.

5.5. Pedagogical Implications

As the research aim is not only looking into teacher cognition with its background factors in teaching speaking, but also revealing teachers' practices of teaching speaking, implications are going to be presented under the titles of teacher cognition and teaching speaking.

5.5.1. Implications for teacher cognition

- All the participants of this study were found to bear the traces of schooling. Since this long process firmly constituted their early cognition, the participants went back to their memories and benefitted from their teachers' approaches and their language learning experiences. Hence, the impact of this period should be handled with care in pre-service education. To begin with, autobiographical accounts of teacher trainees' previous learning environments and language teachers (Bailey et al., 1996) can be collected to overview the impact of their prior language learning experiences

on their perceptions of themselves, teaching English as a foreign language, and specifically teaching speaking before methodological training.

- After schooling, pre-service education impacts teacher cognition. Crandall (2000) outlines four major shifts in pre-service programs. One is shifting from transmission of product-oriented theories to constructivist and process-oriented theories of teacher learning. Another shift is focusing on situated teacher cognition and practice due to the growing sense of failure of language teacher education programs to prepare teacher candidates for classroom realities. Crandall adds recognition of teacher trainees' prior language learning experiences as another shift since it is assumed to powerfully shape teachers' cognition. Lastly, she underlines the teacher's role in theorization and pursuit of professional development through "collaborative observation, teacher research and inquiry, and sustained inservice programs, rather than the typical short-term workshop or training program" (p. 36). Therefore, she suggests moving from prescriptivist and top-down teaching of methods to exploratory and bottom-up teaching of methodology by acknowledging the importance of context. To this end, she underlines the roles of teacher cognition and beliefs, reflection, teacher narratives and case studies, practical experience and research. Seeing that most of the teachers participating in this research exhibited a limited impact of pre-service education on their thinking and acting, it is worth reexamining teacher training programs in accordance with these shifting paradigms.
- As a critical component of pre-service education, teaching practicum was not found to change some teachers' perceptions meaningfully in this study. Therefore, one of the participants of the study, Umut's suggestion about designing observation and practicum sessions for every year of pre-service education in order to establish a stronger connection between teacher trainees and schools can be taken into consideration. In addition to Umut's suggestion, teacher trainees can reflect upon their perceptions of language teaching before and after teaching observation and practicum sessions. This reflective data can provide valuable feedback with teacher educators for increasing effectiveness of pre-service teacher training programs. Rather than demanding teacher trainees to write about language teaching from scratch, a systematic training of reflective practice can be conducted in evolving phases of engaging with reflection, thinking reflectively, using reflection, sustaining reflection, and finally practicing reflection (Stanley, 1998). Video-based reflection

sessions can also provide opportunities with teacher trainees to see their strengths and weaknesses in teaching and the dynamics of their thinking and acting during learning to teach (Akcan, 2010). By means of reflectivity skills, teachers can articulate their experience and make sense of their work in light of external input of theory, prescriptions, and others' experiences (Freeman, 2002). In addition, traditional views of giving teachers the task of applying ready-made theories can evolve into recent views of teacher learning and theorization of teaching practices (Richards, 2008) through reflective thinking and practice during pre-service education. In this respect, Kuru Gönen's (2012) study shows a good example of stepwise training of pre-service language teachers for becoming reflective practitioners. In her study, 12 teacher candidates first received training on the phenomena of reflection and reflective thinking. Then, they were trained in terms of reflective reciprocal peer coaching as a strategy for professional development. They learned to reflect on their peers' teaching experience on the basis of certain criteria given in observation forms. They also kept reflective diaries to evaluate their reciprocal reflective experience. As a result, significant differences were found between the participants' pre-training reflectivity scores and levels and post-training scores and levels. The participants also experienced benefits of reflective practice and peer coaching in terms of "teaching aspect", "social/affective aspect" and "future teaching career aspect" (Kuru Gönen, 2012, p. 124).

- None of the participants found their pre-service education sufficient for training them to teach speaking. Güngör (2013) puts forth a few problem areas peculiar to training teacher candidates to teach speaking. Although he found that pre-service English teachers felt ready to teach speaking, some of them had concerns over designing speaking activities for English for Specific Purposes, designing out-class activities, developing self-assessment tool for speaking skills, teaching how to use suprasegmental phonemes of English (e.g. stress and intonation), teaching how to express oneself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. For this reason, teaching speaking components of language teacher education programs can be reviewed and revised by taking pre-service teachers' needs into consideration. Pre-service teachers can also be given chances to evaluate and adapt existing speaking activities. Most importantly, they can be trained to develop and design speaking activities and to put them into practice in their microteaching applications.

- In addition to pre-service education, striving for professional development is another determining factor behind effective teaching. Confronted with contextual conditions, the cases in the study were observed to follow two different paths. Two teachers worked on their teaching and tried to improve it by means of professional development. The others tended to refer to context for feeling unable to teach speaking. Teachers in the former group could be less likely to suffer from anxiety to cover the syllabus, demotivation and even burnout than the latter since Ur (1996) hails constant professional development and progress as forestalling or solving problems caused by burnout and contributing to success and satisfaction in professional work and future career. For teacher development, Ur suggests personal reflection, sharing with a colleague, in-house staff meetings, getting feedback from colleagues and students. Furthermore, classroom practice was found to have an important influence on teachers' perceptions of teaching speaking in this study and every individual feels its effect differently. Therefore, sharing practices among colleagues and searching their repercussions for students by getting feedback can open up new horizons.
- For advancing further, Ur (1996) lists reading, university study, conferences and in-service courses as "intake" and sharing personal teaching techniques and methods, materials writing and classroom research as "output". Evidently, there are several means of professional development for teachers helping them tackle problems. Even if they cannot remove problems, they still have chances to alleviate their demotivating effect on their cognition and actions. Thus, school administrators should constitute a learning environment for teachers to reflect on and share their practices and they should also encourage their participation in in-service training programs. Özer (2004) reports a study about pre-school, primary and secondary school teachers' participation in in-service training programs. The majority of the teachers by 72.8% quantified their need for professional development by "very much", but only 31.3% of them declared their willingness to participate for economical, motivational and other reasons. As one of the suggestions, Özer indicates that motivational factors can persuade teachers to attend training sessions. Therefore, ministry, university and school administrations could economically and affectively facilitate staff participation in professional development sessions.

- Even if teachers cannot participate in in-service training programs, regular staff meetings between experienced and novice teachers can contribute to teaching of both sides (Pedro, 2006) and getting them in a "study group" (Guskey, 2000) may provide a valuable opportunity to share in-class experiences and come up with practical solutions for problems. Guskey (2000) also presents alternative ways of in-service education as follows: peer observation/assessment, involvement in a development/improvement process (e.g.: developing a new curriculum), study groups, inquiry/action research, individually guided activities and mentoring. Rather than sticking to a single model, a combination of these models by taking advantage of the positive attribute of each model is recommended. Moreover, Guskey (2000, 2002) suggests evaluating professional development programs on the basis of participants' reactions, their learning, organization support and change, participants' use of new knowledge and skills, and student learning outcomes. As long as professional development programs are regularly organized and if their outcomes are objectively assessed, experienced teachers may feel obliged to keep abreast of pedagogical developments and novice teachers can find a platform to share their energy and new knowledge with their colleagues. Especially experienced teachers "have a mental lexicon of teaching strategies which can be called up as needed – skillfully, quickly, and with confidence" (Bailey, 1996, p. 37); therefore, they can help their colleagues by means of peer observation. In Bozak, Yıldırım and Demirtaş (2011) draw attention to benefits of peer coaching, peer consultation, peer supervision, and mentoring for professional development. Particularly through mentoring, novice teachers can reflect on their classroom practice in collaboration with an experienced colleague. Pedro (2006) notes that such kind of collaborative reflection has a positive impact on professional growth and development as it leads participants to a greater sense of self-awareness. Hence, collaborative reflective practice through peer observation and mentoring can help teachers codify their teaching experiences as building blocks of their experiential knowledge base towards more effective teaching rather than as a series of positive and negative classroom events.
- In addition to teacher-teacher collaboration for professional development, Johnston (2009) suggests collaboration between teachers and university-based researchers, subject teachers (i.e. teachers of mathematics, geography, etc.) students, and others

involved in language education (administrators, supervisors, parents, materials developers, etc.).

- Two cases of the study reflected limited impact of MA education in ELT on their perceptions and actions. Karaman and Bakırcı (2010) highlight the problem of postgraduate students' low participation in academic meetings like symposiums and conferences which prevent their professional development. Therefore, postgraduate programs could be revised in terms of encouraging or mandating students' participation in conferences and workshops both as listeners and as presenters. In addition, Freeman (1996b) underlines the importance of publishing teachers' research and entrance of their research interpretations into wider community to shape public policy and debate. Teachers' research practices could also be in touch with their teaching practices. Teachers who conduct MA and doctoral studies can be encouraged to carry out action research so as to avoid doing research for its own sake.
- Most of the teachers in this research were found to read little ELT literature as their accounts were distant from professional language and theoretical or methodological references. However, as Crandall puts (2000), teachers are responsible for "directing" their own professional development, and even if they feel that their pre-service education does not suffice, they can continue improving their perceptions and teaching actions via following ELT literature. Candlin and Widdowson (1994) maintain that

  > "If language teaching is to be a genuinely professional enterprise, it requires continual experimentation and evaluation on the part of practitioners whereby, in seeking to be more effective in their pedagogy, they provide at the same time—and as a corollary—for their own continuing education." (p. xi).

  Thus, even if teachers refrain from reading, administrations can institutionally subscribe to prestigious journals and periodicals and encourage their staff to keep up with recent developments in language teaching.
- Context is also influential in teachers' perceptions and actions. In this research, although all the participating teachers did the same coursebook activities on the surface, their perceptions and in-class actions related to teaching speaking differed. In terms of the significance of speaking, the teachers responding to the questionnaire tended to think that all language skills and areas are equal, but to put it in Orwellian

fashion, “some skills and areas are more equal than others” because of contextual conditions. On the basis of the teachers’ accounts, the primary contextual restriction was found to be grammatically and lexically loaded syllabus. Since students are responsible for learning almost all items in the coursebook by heart, the teachers feel pressed to teach the whole coursebook content in a limited time. For example, teachers teaching beginner levels have to complete four coursebook levels, Beginner-Elementary-Pre-Intermediate-Intermediate by the end of the year. A coursebook consists of 12 units, which amounts to 48 units before the final exams. In addition, advanced grammatical components that are not covered in the coursebook are presented. Nonetheless, Thornbury (2005b) draws attention to teaching of grammar without making a distinction between spoken and written syntax. He notes that while written grammatical elements which are less frequently used in speech (e.g. reported speech, subordination, etc.) are taught, spoken syntactic elements like ellipsis get little attention in many mainstream ELT courses. For this reason, while preparing the grammatical component of a language teaching program, both spoken and written language characteristics could be considered in program development.

- According to the results of a survey which was conducted in 12 countries, 85% of the people who selected coursebooks were administrators, 15% of them were teachers, and 0% of them were students (Tomlinson, 2008). Likewise, in the research setting, coursebook selection is up to teachers and administrators, but students are not involved in this process. Thus, instead of treating a coursebook like an unchangeable syllabus, a language teaching program peculiar to an institution can be designed. This process can embrace all people involved in foreign language education and it can be conducted in accordance with reference instruments (e.g. Common European Framework, Global Scale of English, etc.) and on the basis of careful assessment of students’ needs. For developing such a language teaching program for preparatory schools, Aydın (2017) provides an example in which administrators and teachers did not keep students distant from program development process. Sharing opinions with each other, putting them into practice and getting continuous feedback from students yielded motivating outcomes.
- Bailey (2006) points out the challenge for evaluating oral skills when the focus of instruction shifted from linguistic competence to communicative competence. She

puts forward that learners' grammatical and lexical proficiencies and their interpretation of written and spoken tests were assessed previously whereas the notion of communicative competence has complicated testing speaking skills. Thus, testing policy emphasizing grammar, vocabulary and reading at the expense of speaking should be changed into a policy which gives equal importance to each language area and skill. Moreover, speaking components of examinations should be modernized to replicate real-life interaction by activities like interview, information-gap, decision-making, comparing pictures and role-play (Harmer, 2001).

- As another contextual restriction that teachers frequently mentioned is learner profile. Almost all the teachers responding to the questionnaire touched upon students' reluctance to participate in speaking activities especially pair/group work activities. Students' reticence to speak is a frequently encountered phenomenon in Turkish language learning classes. In a study by Zeytin (2006) Turkish university students at preparatory schools responded to the interview question of "When do you speak English?" as "when my teacher asks a question" by 85%. 85% of the participants again stated their unwillingness to volunteer to speak in classes. Similarly, in East Asian educational contexts, students get accustomed to listening to their teacher in their previous learning environments, which results in reticence to speak (Liu and Littlewood, 1997). Liu and Littlewood note that the reasons for learner reticence are lack of experience in speaking English, lack of confidence in spoken English, anxiety from high performance expectations, and perception of passive learner role. As remedies for the problems, they suggest coping with anxiety and examining attitudes towards passive learner role, using buzz groups, designing speaking tasks for success, and using feedback as an integral part of learning. Moreover, when students are equipped with oral communication strategies to cope with speaking problems (Gökgöz, 2008) and are involved in deciding on the content and organization of speaking classes (Zhang and Head, 2009) the results are fruitful in terms of motivation and test scores. In addition, rather than using teacher-fronted strategies like teacher's initiating speech-getting response-teacher's follow-up (IRF), teachers can adopt facilitator-oriented strategies through which they can facilitate student-student interaction in classrooms by "personalizing a topic, use of referential questions, reformulation, elaboration, comment, repetition, and use of backchannels, giving content focused feedback and longer wait time" to treat

reticence (Lee and Ng, 2009, p. 305). Moreover, it was observed in one of the classes of İnci that students enjoyed talking about a real-life topic (i.e. bargaining) allowing for genuine communication; thus, teachers can conduct an analysis of needs and interests of students to bring thought-provoking and enjoyable topics and activities for speaking. Another participant of the research, Selin, occasionally used slangy expressions to spark fun moments in classroom; likewise, Dinçay (2012) suggests integrating slang into foreign language teaching via song lyrics, movies, simulations and role plays. Learner reticence in pair/group work activities can even be significantly reduced by creating a positive learning climate with the help of background music (Cunningham, 2014).

- Furthermore, teachers find physical conditions inappropriate for teaching speaking. Lack of audiovisual aids and echoing classrooms lowering the quality of audibility may not be solved on teachers' initiative, but changing seating arrangement, hanging visuals on walls and using mobile phones for audio resources can improve the atmosphere. At any rate, materials-mediated teaching offers "scenic" route to learning, but the "direct" route is located in teacher-student and student-student interactivity (Thornbury, 2005a). Therefore, teachers should focus on the quality of teacher-student and student-student interaction rather than dwelling on physical inadequacies.
- In addition to teachers' workload, their social context outside of school was found to debilitate their preparation for their lessons and professional development. Therefore, tolerable working hours and duties can better their concentration on their teaching.

5.5.2. Suggestions for teaching speaking

- As the participants of this study were found to be under the influence of their language experiences, the first and the foremost suggestion about teaching speaking is inclusion of the speaking skill in all levels of Turkish educational system in order to raise future teachers who are going to be better at teaching speaking. However, the overwhelming majority of the language teachers participating in a study by Akdoğan (2010) state that the most frequently used language teaching method in Turkey is Grammar-Translation. Ironically, these participants also expect their students to learn to communicate by means of four language skills. Pointing out a

similar dilemma in presenting the results of a 10-year report about language teaching in Turkey, Paker (2012) asserts that even if English is taught for 20 years in behaviorist and structuralist language teaching system based on the assumption of learning a language without making error, this process cannot yield students who are able to communicate. Therefore, language learning curriculum at primary, secondary and tertiary levels in Turkey should urgently be redesigned to include learner-centered, skill-based and communicative activities. Policy makers, administrators and teachers who are accustomed to traditional forms of language teaching should be trained to teach communicating in spoken and written forms.

- Speaking components of language teaching programs should be integrated with the other language skills and areas so as to encompass all elements of the speaking skill; namely, sociocultural knowledge, genre knowledge, discourse knowledge, pragmatics, grammar, vocabulary, phonology as well as production and interaction strategies and paralinguistics (non-verbal features) (Thornbury, 2005b).
- Under the circumstances of the current educational system, language teachers should at least seek ways to create their own "spaces" (Benson, 2010) to teach oral communication. For instance, even if their syllabus dictates whole-class teaching of grammar in a limited time, they can design mini think-pair-share activities to ensure student-student participation. Tsui (1996) reports that peer support and group work meaningfully reduce learner reticence and anxiety in language classrooms by increasing students' confidence and willingness to communicate. Moreover, having to teach English in crowded classrooms which is a common problem (Akdoğan, 2010) can even be turned into an advantage by pair and group work (Harmer, 1998).
- In this study it was also found that even though the coursebook provides several opportunities for student-student interaction saving teachers from spending effort on designing extra interactional activities, most of the teachers tended to prefer whole-class interaction during teaching speaking. Teachers' awareness should be raised about the abovementioned advantages of pair and group works and they should be trained to manage pair and group works effectively (e.g. by training teachers to give purposes for listeners). Furthermore, most of the students were observed to prefer reading aloud to spontaneous speech when they were required to do public speech like acting out their role plays. Thus, instead of pushing students to perform in such

an anxiety-provoking situation, pair and group work activities can again offer a solution.

- Learner psychology is significant for teaching speaking because in addition to "cognitive factors", there are "affective factors" (e.g. feelings towards the topic/participants and self-consciousness) and "performance factors" (e.g. speaking mode, time pressure, discourse control) affecting speech conditions (Thornbury, 2005b). For this reason, students may suffer affective problems like demotivation and anxiety. In order to help students handle their problems, teachers should be trained in terms of affective strategies (Oxford, 2003) so that they can train their students affectively.
- Most of the participants of this study were found to dismiss lead-in activities independent of the coursebook, such as warm-up, review or preview at the beginning of their lessons and they went on to give instructions for the upcoming coursebook activity. Nevertheless, lead-ins like social chats and reviews/previews provide valuable opportunity to practice speaking. Although the participating teachers complain about time limitation (e.g.: For İnci, doing "too many" lead-in activities disrupted the teaching program and made it difficult to manage students), lead-ins are in fact short and snappy to set students' mood for the course (Boas, 2015). Teachers' dismissal of lead-in may be because of teachers' professional knowledge of the length, functions and varieties of lead-in activities. Therefore, teachers should be encouraged to increase their knowledge in the use and usefulness of lead-in activities in language teaching.
- The findings of the study revealed teachers' skip of feedback on students' acting out. Teachers should never overlook its merit and they should never give up giving feedback because it contributes to both teaching and learning: While teachers can get informed about their students' performance and language problems, students can see the easiness of a particular kind of speaking and receive encouragement for further study (Harmer, 1998). On the other hand, teachers should avoid constant intervention in students' speech which may counter-productively inhibit fluency (Thornbury, 2005b).
- During teaching speaking teachers should desert casual code-switching whatever their reason is. They should minimize their students' use of mother tongue, as well. Instead of reprimanding students when they speak in their first language or putting

an unrealistic ban on its use, there are several ways like talking to them about it and making agreement, encouraging appropriate use of English, responding only in English, creating an English environment and keeping reminding them (Harmer, 1998). Another subtle strategy can be "buzz with a buddy" (Bailey, 2004) in which students gradually quit speaking in their mother tongue and get accustomed to having quick talks in English to check accuracy of their responses. All in all, language teachers could avoid code-switching by reminding themselves that "the user of the codeswitch should envisage that at some time in the longer term the codeswitch will not be necessary because the language store *will have increased*" (Macaro, 2006, p. 81).

- Teachers should focus on intelligibility rather than a native-like accent while teaching phonology and intonation. Hinkel (2006) outlines the criteria of current approach to teaching them, which can signpost the teaching of phonological and intonational components:

> "(a) Pronunciation and intonation are taught in context and in conjunction with speaking skills, (b) instruction in pronunciation serves broader communicative purposes, and (c) the teaching of pronunciation and intonation is based on realistic rather than idealistic language models" (p. 116).

- In this research, Arven is found to give up teaching phonetics and Umut considers explicit teaching of pronunciation unnecessary. However, language teachers' role in teaching phonology can be redefined as "speech coach" who monitors students' speech and encourages their self-monitoring; therefore, their skills in integrating pronunciation into teaching speaking should be developed (Macdonald, 2002).
- Teachers can guide students' out-of-class speaking via encouraging them to keep tape diaries[9], try audio and video conferencing and reflect on their experiences in their portfolios and diaries (Thornbury, 2005b). Bailey (2004) also suggests pronunciation software, message exchanges, corpora, concordancing programs, the Internet, and language teaching web sites.
- Beyond teaching speaking, all teachers should be educated with the awareness of the fact that they have a weighty responsibility of shaping learning, motivation and even the destiny of next generations. As shown in our study, previous teachers deeply affect future teachers, and future teachers have the potential of affecting their future

[9] An updated version of tapes can be mobile voice recording applications which students can practically use for self-assessment.

students. The participants of this research remember their teachers more than the names of their teaching methods, which justifies Richards (1994) who avers that "There is no such thing as good teaching. There are only good teachers" (p. 12). Therefore, there is no pre-packaged solution or a quick methodological panacea for the problems. Teachers perform their art through planning their lessons, examining teaching programs, choosing coursebooks, preparing materials, practicing teaching, communicating with students, managing classrooms, testing students and giving them feedback (Demirel, 2012). For performing this art better, teachers should support their cognition related to these elements with professional development.

5.6. Research Implications

- The focus of this study was centered on only teachers' perceptions and actions concerning teaching speaking; however, students' perceptions of the speaking skill, learning to speak and their teachers' teaching can be investigated. Whether there is a convergence or divergence between teachers' and students' perceptions of speaking education can also be researched as Cohen and Fass (2001) found a discrepancy between the two.
- Longitudinal case studies (e.g. from beginning till the end of an educational year) may unfold language teachers' evolving perceptions and actions concerning teaching speaking. In addition to cognitive sides of teachers, their emotions can be investigated (e.g. through metaphors) since it is seen in this study that some of their accounts are emotionally-laden.
- One of the findings of this research is the inverse relationship between professional coursework and contextual restrictions. Whether there is a negative correlation between professional knowledge base and perceptions of contextual restrictions can be investigated quantitatively.
- In this study, language teachers' perceptions were found to be influenced by administrators' cognition; therefore, administrators' perceptions and actions concerning language learning and teaching can present valuable information to all stakeholders involved in this educational process.
- In addition to the factors affecting teachers' perceptions and actions which were put forth in previous research, it was found in this study that teachers' professional

development efforts and their social contexts were the other decisive factors. Further studies on these factors can yield a deeper insight.

- This research was conducted at the preparatory school of a university context; however, teachers' actions and perceptions at primary and secondary schools should also be investigated. Unlike universities, parental factors may be another part of teacher cognition there (Farrell, 2005; Freeman and Johnson, 1998).
- Since oral proficiency level of the students in the research setting was low, further research on the cognition of language teachers who teach students having high-level oral proficiency can bring different results.

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APPENDIX I

FORMAL LETTER OF PERMISSION

T.C.
ESKİŞEHİR OSMANGAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
(Genel Sekreterlik)

Sayı : 86930425-604/1387 - 3132 14.05.2015

Konu :

Sayın Sevgi Gökçe BATURLAR
Yabancı Diller Bölümü Okutmanı

İlgi:06.05.2015 tarihli yazınız.

İlgide kayıtlı yazınız ile doktora programı tez çalışmanız kapsamında "Öğrencilerin Konuşma Sorunlarını Ele Alma Açısından İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Bilişi" konulu veri toplama işlemi yapmanız Rektörlüğümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Adnan KONUK
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

Adres: Meşelik Yerleşkesi
26480 Eskişehir
Tel : 0 222 239 37 50 Dahili:5049
Fax: 0 222 239 10 74

APPENDIX II

CONSENT FORM

ARAŞTIRMA GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu çalışma, *"English Language Teachers' Cognition in Handling Learners' Speaking Problems"* başlıklı bir araştırma çalışması olup İngilizce okutmanlarının konuşma öğretimine ilişkin görüş ve uygulamalarını ortaya koyma amacını taşımaktadır. Çalışma, Sevgi GÖKÇE BATURLAR tarafından yürütülmekte ve sonuçları ile öğrencilerin yaşadığı İngilizce konuşma sorunlarına okutmanların yaklaşımları ve çözüm önerileri ortaya konacaktır.

- Bu çalışmaya katılımınız gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır.
- Çalışmanın amacı doğrultusunda, örnek olay incelemesi yapılarak sizden veriler toplanacaktır.
- İsminizi yazmak ya da kimliğinizi açığa çıkaracak bir bilgi vermek zorunda değilsiniz/araştırmada katılımcıların isimleri gizli tutulacaktır.
- Araştırma kapsamında toplanan veriler, sadece bilimsel amaçlar doğrultusunda kullanılacak, araştırmanın amacı dışında ya da bir başka araştırmada kullanılmayacak ve gerekmesi halinde, sizin (yazılı) izniniz olmadan başkalarıyla paylaşılmayacaktır.
- İstemeniz halinde sizden toplanan verileri inceleme hakkınız bulunmaktadır.
- Sizden toplanan veriler korunacak ve araştırma bitiminde arşivlenecek veya imha edilecektir.
- Veri toplama sürecinde/süreçlerinde size rahatsızlık verebilecek herhangi bir soru/talep olmayacaktır. Yine de katılımınız sırasında herhangi bir sebepten rahatsızlık hissederseniz çalışmadan istediğiniz zamanda ayrılabileceksiniz. Çalışmadan ayrılmanız durumunda sizden toplanan veriler çalışmadan çıkarılacak ve imha edilecektir.

Gönüllü katılım formunu okumak ve değerlendirmek üzere ayırdığınız zaman için teşekkür ederim. Çalışma hakkındaki sorularınızı Sevgi GÖKÇE BATURLAR'a (sevgokce@gmail.com) yöneltebilirsiniz.

Araştırmacı Adı : Sevgi GÖKÇE BATURLAR
Adres : Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü
Tel :

Bu çalışmaya tamamen kendi rızamla, istediğim takdirde çalışmadan ayrılabileceğimi bilerek verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlarla kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.
(Lütfen bu formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra veri toplayan kişiye veriniz.)

Katılımcı Ad ve Soyadı:
İmza:
Tarih:

APPENDIX III

SAMPLE SYLLABUS

1ST TERM	HOLIDAYS	LIFE & GRAMMAR PACK & WORKBOOK	WRITING	VIDEO	CO-QUIZ	EXT HRS.
Week 1 22 - 26 Sept 2014		REVISION **(10 saat)** Unit 1 (10 hrs) Unit 2 (4 hrs)	-	-	-	-
Week 2 29 Sept - 3 Oct		Unit 2 (6 hrs) Unit 3 (10 hrs) Unit 4 (7 hrs)	-	1	-	-
Week 3 6 - 10 Oct **Co-Quiz 1**	Sacrifice Feast **(12 hrs)**	Unit 4 (3 hrs) Unit 5 (2 hrs)	-	1	**1**	5
Week 4 13 -17 Oct		Unit 5 (8 hrs) Unit 6 (10 hrs) Unit 7 (5 hrs)	-	1	-	-
Week 5 20 - 24 Oct **Co-Quiz 2**		Unit 7 (5 hrs) Unit 8 (10 hrs) Unit 9 (6 hrs)	-	1	**2 (1+1)**	-
Week 6 27 - 31 Oct	29th Oct. 2013 **(6 hrs)**	Unit 9 (4 hrs) Unit 10 (10 hrs) Unit 11 (3 hrs)	-	1	-	-
Week 7 3 - 7 Nov **Co-Quiz 3**		Unit 11 (7 hrs) Unit 12 (10 hrs) ~~ELEM Unit 1 (omit)~~ **ELEM Unit 2** (4 hrs)	-	1	**2 (1+1)**	-
Week 8 10 - 14 Nov	1st Midterm **(4 hrs)**	Unit 2 (7 hrs) ~~Unit 3 **(omit)**~~ Unit 4 (7hrs)	-	1	-	5
Week 9 17 - 21 Nov **Co-Quiz 4**	Midterm revision **(1 hr)**	Unit 4 (4hrs) Unit 5 (11 hrs) ***Only*** Unit **6b-p.72** and **6b, Workbook p.46**, **ex.3** (1 hrs) Unit 7 (1 hrs)	2 hrs (p. 1-7 Act. 9 included)	1	**2 (1+1)**	1
Week 10 24 - 28 Nov		Unit 7 (10 hrs) Unit 8 (11 hrs)	1 hr (p. 8-13 Act.1 included)	1	-	1
Week 11 1 - 5 Dec **Co-Quiz 5**		Unit 9 (11hrs) Unit 10 (7 hrs)	3 hrs (p. 13-20)	1	**2 (1+1)**	-
Week 12 8 - 12 Dec		Unit 10 (3 hrs) Unit 11 (11 hrs) Unit 12 (7 hrs)	2 hrs (p. 21-26 Act. 2 included)	1	-	-
Week 13 15 - 19 Dec **Co-Quiz 6**		Unit 12 (4 hrs) **PRE-INT** Unit 1 (3 hrs) (**Only C.B** Unit 1b - p.12, 1d-p.16, 1e - p.17**, WB Only** p9 - ex.1, p.10 - ex.5, p.11-ex.1**)** Unit 2 (12 hrs)	2 hrs (p. 26-31)	1	**2 (1+1)**	-
Week 14 22 - 26 Dec **Speaking Co-Quiz**		Unit 3 (13 hrs) Unit 4 (5 hrs)	3 hrs (p. 32-38)	1	**2 (Speaking Co-Q)**	-
Week 15 29 Dec 2014 - 2 Jan 2015 **Co-Quiz7**	1st Jan 2014 (6 hrs)	Unit 4 (8 hrs) Unit 5 (4 hrs)	3 hrs (p. 38-44 Act. 4 included)	1	**2 (1+1)**	
Week 16 5 - 9 Jan	2nd Midterm (4 hrs)	Unit 5 (9 hrs) Unit 6 (4 hrs)	2 hrs (p. 44-47)	1		4

2ND TERM	HOLIDAYS	LIFE & GRAMMAR PACK & WORKBOOK	WRITING	VIDEO	CO-QUIZ	EXT.
Week 1 9 - 13 Feb 2014		Unit 6 (10 hrs) Unit 7 (7 hrs)	**3 hrs** **Process Paragraph** (p. 47-53) **1 hr** **GUIDED WRITING**	2	-	1
Week 2 16 - 20 Feb		Unit 7 (7 hrs) Unit 8 (14 hrs)	1 hr **Process Paragraph GRADED WRITING**	2	-	-
Week 3 23 - 27 Feb **Co-Quiz 1**		Unit 9 (14 hrs) Unit 10 (4 hrs)		2	2	2
Week 4 2 - 6 Mar **Co-Quiz 2**		Unit 10 (10 hrs) Unit 11 (6 hrs)	3 hrs **Descriptive Paragraph** (p. 53-57) 1 hr **GUIDED WRITING**	2	2	-
Week 5 9 - 13 Mar		Unit 11 (8 hrs) Unit 12 (13 hrs)	1 hr **Descriptive Paragraph** **GRADED WRITING**	2	-	-
Week 6 16 - 20 Mar **Co-Quiz 3**	3rd Midterm (4 hrs)	Unit 12 (1 hrs) **INT Unit 1 – (11 hrs)**	-	2	2	4
Week 7 23 - 27 Mar	Midterm Revision (1 hr)	Unit 1 (5 hrs) Unit 2 (12 hrs)	3 hrs **Opinion Paragraph** (p. 58-62) 1 hr **GUIDED WRITING**	2	-	-
Week 8 30 Mar - 3 Apr **Co-Quiz 4**	-	Unit 2 (3 hrs) Unit 3 (16 hrs)	1 hr **Opinion Paragraph GRADED WRITING**	2	2	-
Week 9 6 - 10 Apr	-	Unit 4 (16 hrs) Unit 5 (4 hrs)	-	2	-	2
Week 10 13 - 17 Apr **Co-Quiz 5**	-	Unit 5 (12 hrs) Unit 6 (4 hrs)	**3 hrs** **Compare&Contrast Paragraph** (p. 62-69) 1 hr **GUIDED WRITING**	2	2	-
Week 11 20 - 24 Apr	23rd Apr. 2015 (6 hrs)	Unit 6 (12 hrs) Unit 7 (3 hrs)	1 hr **Compare&Contrast Paragraph** **GRADED WRITING**	2	-	-
Week 12 27 Apr - 1 May **Co-Quiz 6**	1st May 2015 (4 hrs)	Unit 7 (13 hrs) Unit 8 (3 hrs)	-	2	2	-
Week 13 4 – 8 May	4th Midterm (4 hrs)	Unit 8 (13 hrs)	-	2	-	5
Week 14 11 - 15 May **General Speaking Quiz (2 hrs)**	Midterm Revision (1 hr)	Unit 9 (14 hrs)	3 hrs **Cause&Effect Paragraph** (p.75-80) 1 hr **GUIDED WRITING**	**1**	-	1
Week 15 18 - 22 May **Co-Quiz 7**	19th May 2015 (6 hrs)	Unit 9 (2 hrs) Unit 10 (11 hrs)	1 hr **Cause&Effect Paragraph** **GRADED WRITING**	2	2	-
Week 16 25 - 29 May		Unit 10 (5 hrs) Unit 11 (16 hrs) Unit 12 (2 hrs)	-	-	-	1

APPENDIX IV

SAMPLE TABLE OF CONTENTS OF THE COURSEBOOK (INTERMEDIATE LEVEL)

Listening	Reading	Critical thinking	Speaking	Writing
a conversation about a family event in Brunei two people doing a quiz about colours and their meaning	an article about how we use colour an article about the colour red	conclusions	routines and leisure activities personal questions the roles we play	text type: a website profile writing skill: criteria for writing
three people talking about arts events a radio show about world fusion music	an article about why we dance an article about globalisation	sources	new releases performing changes	text type: a profile writing skill: linking ideas (1)
a radio clip about World Water Day two people talking about what happened next	an interview about underwater discoveries an article about an unforgettable experience	reading between the lines	the first time puzzles it happened to me	text type: a blog post writing skill: interesting language
three people talking about their childhood ambitions a radio programme about International Women's Day	an article about India's new superhighway an article about the economic boom in China	arguments	predictions planning your work pay and conditions	text type: a covering letter writing skill: formal style
three people talking about travel tips part of a radio programme about a wildlife conservationist three conversations about holiday activities	a profile of a wildlife conservationist an article about holiday destinations an article about tourism and conservation	close reading	travel experiences what makes a good holiday? green activities	text type: a postcard writing skill: informal style
part of a radio programme about healthy eating two people discussing the power of the mind	a news item about traditional dishes a news item about imaginary eating an article about modern lifestyles	language clues	your favourite dish a healthy lifestyle modern life	text type: a formal letter writing skill: explaining consequences

APPENDIX V

QUESTIONNAIRE

Değerli çalışma arkadaşlarım,
Bu anket Anadolu Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği doktora programı tez çalışması kapsamında KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNİN ÖĞRETİMİ İLE İLGİLİ SİZLERİN DÜŞÜNCELERİ hakkında bilgi toplamayı amaçlamaktadır. Vereceğiniz bilgiler yalnızca araştırma amacıyla kullanılacak ve saklı tutulacaktır.
KATKILARINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜR EDERİM.
Okt. Sevgi GÖKÇE BATURLAR

A. KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER- Kendinize uyan seçeneği yuvarlak içine alınız.

1.Cinsiyetiniz: a) Kadın b) Erkek

2.Yaşınız: a) 20-30 b) 31-40 c) 41-50 d) 51 ve üstü

3.Mesleki deneyiminiz: a) 0-5 yıl b) 6-10 yıl c) 11-15 yıl d) 16-20 yıl e) 21 yıl ve üstü

4.Mezun olduğunuz bölüm: a) İngilizce Öğretmenliği b) İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı
c) Dilbilim d) Mütercim-Tercümanlık e) Diğer (Lütfen belirtiniz):

5. Eğitim durumunuz: a) Lisans b) Yüksek Lisans c) Doktora

6. Devam eden lisansüstü çalışmanız: a) Yüksek Lisans b) Doktora c) yok

7. Ders verdiğiniz kur: a) Beginner b) Elementary c) Pre-Intermediate

B. KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNİN ÖĞRETİMİ hakkındaki düşünceleriniz

1. Sizce bizim programımız açısından, diğer becerilere göre konuşma becerisinin yeri ne olmalıdır?
2. Konuşma becerisini geliştirmek için neler yapılabilir?
3. Öğretim programımızda yer alan konuşma etkinlikleri hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Açıklayınız.
4. Yeterli değilse, neler eklenebilir?
5. Öğrencilerinizin konuşma becerisi düzeyini nasıl değerlendirirsiniz? Açıklayınız.
6. Sizce konuşma becerileri açısından öğrencilerinizin ihtiyaçları nelerdir?
7. Derslerinizde konuşma becerilerini geliştirme çalışmaları sırasında ne tür sorunlarla karşılaşıyorsunuz?
8. Bu sorunları gidermek için ne yapılmalıdır?
9. Bu sorunları gidermek için siz neler yapıyorsunuz?
10. Ders kitabımızın konuşma odaklı bölümlerini nasıl işliyorsunuz? Açıklayınız.
11. Ders kitabımızın içeriğine ek olarak öğrencilerinizin ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda etkinlik uyguluyor musunuz? Açıklayınız.
12. Ders kitabındaki konuşma etkinliklerinde değişiklik yapıyorsanız örnekleyip açıklar mısınız?
13. Bu konulara ilişkin başka eklemek istediğiniz görüşler varsa lütfen açıklayınız.

NOT: Bu araştırma kapsamında ders gözlemi ve görüşmeler de yapılacaktır. Bu çalışmalara da katkıda bulunmak isterseniz aşağıya isminizi yazar mısınız?

APPENDIX VI

REFLECTION REPORT

Değerli meslektaşım,
*Lütfen derslerinizde **KONUŞMA** becerisine yer verdiğiniz tüm zamanlara odaklanarak (örn: kitaptaki etkinliklerin yanı sıra ders girişinde yaptıklarınız) ve aşağıdaki soruları ele alacak şekilde yansıtma raporu yazınız. Bu raporu yazarken aşağıdaki konuları dikkate almaya çalışınız. Raporlarınızda sadece olaylar zincirini yansıtmayınız. Bu olay ve etkinliklere ilişkin analiz, sentez ve değerlendirmelerinizi de ekleyiniz.*

KONUŞMA ÖĞRETİMİNİZLE İLGİLİ KONULAR

1. Ders öncesi amacınız neydi?
2. Amacınızı ne kadar gerçekleştirebildiniz?
3. Ne tür öğretim materyalleri kullandınız? Neden?
4. Hangi öğretim tekniklerinden yararlandınız?
5. Öğretmen-öğrenci iletişimi ve etkileşimi nasıldı?
6. Sizi şaşırtan / heyecanlandıran / hoşnut eden / alışılmıştan farklı herhangi bir durum/ olay oldu mu?
7. Herhangi bir sorun yaşadınız mı?
8. Planladığınız ders akışının dışına çıktınız mı?
9. Dersin en başarılı ve başarısız bulduğunuz yönleri neydi?
10. Bu dersi tekrar öğretseydiniz daha farklı şekilde öğretir miydiniz? Neleri değiştirirdiniz?
11. Bu derste kendi öğretim yaklaşımınızı yansıtabildiniz mi?
12. Öğretiminize ilişkin yeni bir şey keşfettiniz mi?

ÖĞRENCİLERİNİZLE İLGİLİ KONULAR

1. Dersinizde öğrenci katılımı nasıldı?
2. Öğrencilerin farklı ihtiyaçlarına nasıl karşılık verdiniz?
3. Sizce öğrenciler bu dersten ne öğrendiler?
4. Derste en çok neyi sevdiler?
5. Öğrencilerden karşılık alamadığınız bir durum oldu mu?
6. Sizce öğrencileriniz dersten nasıl etkilendiler?

Tarih:
Rumuz:

APPENDIX VII

TEMPLATE OF OBSERVATION FIELDNOTES

Date:

Teacher:

Coursebook unit:

Descriptive notes: Reflective notes:

APPENDIX VIII

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Ne zaman İngilizce öğrenmeye başladınız?
2. Bildiğiniz başka bir yabancı dil var mı?
3. Mezun olduğunuz lise türü nedir?
4. Herhangi bir becerinin eğitimi üzerine bilimsel bir araştırma yaptınız mı? Açıklayınız.
5. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğretiyorsunuz?
6. Kurumunuzda İngilizce öğretmenliği dışında bir göreviniz var mı? Varsa belirtiniz.
7. Haftada kaç saat derse giriyorsunuz?
8. Yurt dışında bulundunuz mu? Bulunduysanız ne amaçla bulundunuz? Ne kadar süre kaldınız?

A. Üniversite öncesi İngilizce derslerinize ilişkin…

1. Hatırladığınız olumlu anılar var mı? Neler?
2. Hatırladığınız olumsuz anılar var mı? Neler?
3. Okul hayatınızda hangi beceriler/alanlar üzerinde duruldu?
4. Sizi etkileyen öğretmen davranışları oldu mu? Açıklayınız.
5. Öğretmenleriniz genellikle hangi yöntem ve yaklaşımları kullandı?
6. Öğretmenlerinizin İngilizce derslerindeki İngilizce kullanım durumu/oranı nasıldı?
7. Öğretmenlerinizin İngilizce derslerindeki Türkçe kullanım durumu/oranı nasıldı?
8. İngilizce derslerinde nasıl bir öğrenciydiniz?
9. Nasıl/neden İngilizce öğretmeni olmaya karar verdiniz?

B. Üniversite Eğitimi

1. Üniversite eğitiminiz süresince derslere/öğretmenlere ilişkin hatırladığınız olumlu anılar var mı? Neler?
2. Olumsuz anılarınız var mı, onları örnekleyebilir misiniz?
3. Hangi becerinin/alanın eğitimi sizi çekti? Neden?
4. Sizi etkileyen öğretim elemanları oldu mu? Açıklayınız.
5. Stajda neler hissettiniz?
6. Üniversite eğitiminizin konuşma öğretimine sizi yeterince hazırladığını düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklayınız.

C. Hizmet içi Eğitim

1. Öğretmenliğiniz süresince seminer, çalıştay gibi mesleki gelişim etkinliklerine katıldınız mı? Katıldıysanız içeriğini belirtiniz.
2. Katıldığınız eğitim(ler)in sizde etkileri nasıl oldu?
3. Bu eğitim(ler)den öğrenip uyguladığınız etkinlik ya da teknikler var mıdır? Açıklayınız.
4. Konuşma becerilerinin öğretimi üzerine bir eğitime katıldınız mı? Açıklayınız.
5. Şimdi bir mesleki gelişim etkinliğine katılım fırsatınız olsaydı, neyle ilgili bir eğitime katılmak isterdiniz?

D. Öğretmenlik Yaşantıları

1. Bugüne dek öğretmenlik yaşamınızda size en yakın gelen beceri/alan eğitimi hangisi olmuştur? Neden?
2. Konuşma becerisinin öğretimi konusunda kendinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz? Açıklar mısınız?
3. Bölümünüzde beceriler ayrı öğretilseydi, siz hangisini öğretmeyi tercih ederdiniz? Neden?
4. Neden diğerlerini tercih etmezdiniz?
5. Bugüne dek konuşma becerileri öğretiminizde bilimsel araştırmalardan yararlandınız mı? Açıklayınız.

E. Bağlamsal Etmenler

1. Konuşma öğretimi açısından kurumunuzun fiziksel koşullarını nasıl buluyorsunuz?
2. Bölümünüzün konuşma becerilerinin eğitimiyle ilgili politikası hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
3. İş yükünüzü nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz?
4. İş yükünüzün derslerinize/öğretim etkinliğinize etkisi olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?