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The teaching of speaking:
An investigation into the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices in Kazakhstani state secondary school EFL classrooms.

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Declaration of authenticity for doctoral theses

I hereby declare that this thesis, submitted in fulfilment of requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education, contains no material previously published or written in any medium by another person, except where appropriate reference has been made.

Ғалым болмай немене,

Балалықты қисаңыз?

Болмасаң да ұқсап бақ,

Бір ғалымды көрсеңіз.

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Айтпа ғылым сүйсеңіз,

Сізге ғылым кім берер,

Жанбай жатып сөнсеңіз?

Дүние де өзі, мал да өзі,

Ғылымға көңіл берсеңіз.

Білгендердің сөзіне

Махаббатпен ерсеңіз.

- Абай Құнанбайұлы -

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Abbreviations

The following abbreviations feature throughout the thesis:

- **BAAL** - British Association for Applied Linguistics

- **BERA** – British Educational Research Association

- **CEFR** - Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

- **CIP** – Centre for International Programs

- **CL** – Consistency Level

- **CLT** - Communicative Language Teaching

- **CoE** – Centres of Excellence

- **CPBR** – Core-Peripheral Belief Relationship

- **EFL** – English as a Foreign Language

- **ELT** – English Language Teaching

- **ESL** – English as a Second Language

- **ESOL** – English for Speakers of Other Languages

- **L1** – First Language or Mother Tongue

- **L2** – Second/Foreign Language

- **NS** – Native Speaker

- **NNS** – Non-Native Speaker

- **MoES** – Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan

- **PhD** – Doctor of Philosophy

- **TCC** – Teacher Constructed Context

- **TEFL** – Teaching English as a Foreign Language

- **TESOL** – Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

- **TKT** – Teaching Knowledge Test

- **TPC** – Teacher Perceived Context

- **UNT** – Unified National Test

Abstract

The current study is an attempt to provide insights into the nature of tensions and consistencies between teachers' belief-practice relationships and how these impact on teaching practices.

The study aims to address three main research gaps. Firstly, it explores EFL teachers' belief-practice consistency level in relation to the teaching of speaking, an understudied curricular domain. Secondly, the phenomenon is examined from two major perspectives: teachers' perceptions of their own pedagogical contexts and their core-peripheral belief systems, thus using a multi-perspective approach which is usually not the case with other studies in the field. Finally, the study took place in Kazakhstani secondary school EFL classrooms, a geographical context which has not featured at all in the language teacher cognition literature to date.

Using a multiple-case design and multiple methods of data collection, the research project explored the relationship between four EFL teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices in relation to the teaching of speaking. The teachers were interviewed and observed over a period of nine months.

The findings provide evidence of how speaking instruction unfolded in the classroom and the multiplicity of factors which shaped teacher decision-making and behavior. Specifically, the insights from my study highlight the impact of: a) teachers' perceptions of their pedagogical contexts, b) their core and peripheral beliefs, and c) the interaction of all these factors on the enactment of their speaking instruction beliefs. These findings carry important implications for the field of language teacher cognition, and for teacher education and professional development.

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This research project is an investigation into in-service, non-native speaker (NNS), English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' beliefs and practices about the teaching of L2 speaking skills in the context of state secondary school in Kazakhstan. The purpose of this introductory chapter is three-fold: to explain the aims, rationale and significance of the study, including my personal motivation behind it; to outline the research aims and main research questions that guided the investigation; and to provide the overview of the whole thesis by briefly describing the contents and functions of its constituent chapters.

1.2 Background to the Study, Aims and Rationale

As an EFL instructor of a *Public Speaking* course at a university in Kazakhstan, I often found that many of the students were reluctant to speak out loud in class. They were unwilling to speak at all during class, let alone present a speech in front of their peers. On the occasions when they had to deliver a prepared speech, some of the students who had handed in an exemplary outline of their speeches prior to their presentation often did not manage to go through a single paragraph. While I acknowledge that the reasons for this could be vast and that any person could struggle with public speaking, I could not help but wonder if their secondary school EFL education had anything to do with this occurrence. This took me back to the years I went to the practicum as part of my pre-service teacher education programme.

During the practicum I had a chance to observe many EFL classes at state secondary schools and found most of the teachers adopting a more traditional grammar-translation approach. Students were rarely involved in any communicative tasks and you would only see a teacher-initiated, teacher-student type of interaction most of the time. This was the popular method implemented all around the former USSR

countries, of which Kazakhstan used to be a part. Memorization of grammar rules and of new active vocabulary, customary translation of long texts from one language to another, and regular use of L1 (Kazakh or Russian) in EFL classrooms were a norm. The point being assumed here is that EFL students at state secondary schools do not seem to be exposed to many communicative activities that would enable them to practise speaking in the classroom. This might be the reason why they struggled with speaking tasks in my university classroom.

Much to my surprise, the same teachers would stress the importance of implementing Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in EFL classrooms during their post-observation reflection on the lessons. They seemed to sound certain that the purpose of learning a foreign language was to be able to freely communicate in it. It may well be that while these teachers 'profess to be following a communicative approach, in practice they are following more traditional approaches' (Karavas-Doukas, 1996, p. 187). So, why do these teachers not demonstrate practices that are consistent with their stated beliefs? Are they aware of these tensions between what they do and what they believe in? These questions stemmed from my practicum experience and later reinforced my curiosity when I came across the types of students described above. The quest for answers led me to the field of language teacher cognition (a cognitive dimension of language teaching that is not observable) (Borg, 2003) – particularly, the consistency between language teachers' beliefs and actual classroom practices.

The study of teacher beliefs is particularly important because beliefs can be a basis for teachers' actions (Pajares, 1992), shape teachers' pedagogical decision making (Isikoglu et al., 2009) and guide teachers' classroom behaviour (Burns, 1992; Crawley & Salyer, 1995). Subsequently, examining the belief networks of in-service and pre-service teachers is fundamental in providing support for their professional development and education respectively.

However, teachers might not always be able to teach in the ways they would like to teach. The literature suggests that teachers' stated beliefs may not always serve as reliable predictors of actual classroom practices, hence tensions between teachers' professed beliefs and enacted practices (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Jorgensen et al., 2010). However, some teacher cognition experts argue that merely identifying divergences between teachers' professed beliefs and classroom practices is not sufficient and invite other researchers to divert their attention to investigating the reasons behind the emergence of such mismatches or, indeed, matches in teachers' belief enactment (Buehl & Beck, 2015; Fives & Buehl, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

I fully support such claims and suggest that understanding the dynamics behind the belief-practice consistency can increase practitioners' awareness of the content and quality of their cognitions. The teachers who are aware of the rationale underlying their actions are arguably in a better position to develop further and to avoid replicating behaviours which they reject. Consequently, any teacher education and development programme which is informed by studies exploring teachers' beliefs and practices and the underlying reasons behind any emerging tensions between them will potentially be more effective and efficient.

1.3 Research aims

Having reviewed the existing literature on language teacher cognition, I understood the importance of studying teacher beliefs, and identified some other aspects in relation to beliefs that need further investigation.

First of all, this study aims to explore language teachers' belief-practice consistency level specifically in relation to teaching speaking. This addresses a gap in the field of language teacher cognition where much more attention has so far been given to other domains such as grammar teaching and literacy instruction in foreign and second language contexts.

Secondly, the phenomenon is studied from two perspectives - teacher perceived context (TPC) and core-peripheral belief relationship (CPBR), thus using a multi-perspective approach which is usually not the case with other studies in the field exploring the degree of consistency in belief enactment. The adoption of these two dimensions is unique and coincides with Borg's (2006) framework of 'Language Teacher Cognition' (p. 283) where CPBR is a cognitive focus and TPC concerns the realisation of teacher cognitions. This is expected to facilitate theoretical triangulation of findings across different dimensions. In addition, these factors, individually or in combination, potentially account for the extent to which espoused beliefs are enacted in practice.

Moreover, the context of the study is a unique one, that is, the participants are experienced, non-native speaking, EFL teachers working at state secondary schools. To my knowledge, no previous studies have explored EFL teachers' beliefs and practices in Kazakhstan from a teacher cognition perspective. Much of the research in the field has focused on language learning environments which do not seem to represent, in its broadest sense, ordinary language classrooms (e.g., small-size classes with adult learners in private language schools or at universities). The context in which I conducted my research (EFL classrooms in state secondary schools) is perhaps more representative of language classrooms where speaking instruction is neither prioritized nor encouraged.

The ultimate purpose of my research is to explore teaching and learning processes in their natural settings in an attempt to understand and describe the nature of possible tensions and consistencies in the belief-practice relationship. An exploratory-interpretive paradigm was deemed suitable for this aim, and the data collection methods are aligned in a way that they provide an emic perspective of the aspects being explored (see Methodology Chapter).

1.4 Research questions

The two main research questions that guided the current study are as follows:

1. *To what extent do the teachers' stated beliefs about teaching oral English correspond to their actual classroom practices?*

2. *What factors impact on the consistency level between teachers' stated beliefs and actual classroom practices in relation to the teaching of oral English?*

Thus, the current study explores the variations in the relationship between the participants' professed beliefs and enacted practices as well as the different forces that affect these variations. Additional sub-questions to the above main questions emerged from the review of the literature (Chapter Three) and were also answered during the course of the study.

1.5 Organisation of the thesis

This doctoral dissertation consists of seven chapters in total. The current chapter serves as an introduction to the whole research project with reference to its overall aims, rationale, significance and foci. Short descriptions of the remaining chapters are presented below:

- *Chapter Two* outlines the background of the investigation and covers contextual issues which concern the Kazakhstani educational system in general and EFL education in Kazakhstani secondary schools in particular. Details about state curriculum, assessment practices, teacher education and professional development will be provided as well, with particular attention to the role of L2 speaking instruction in English language teaching in Kazakhstan.

- *Chapter Three* is a critical review of the relevant literature in the fields of teacher beliefs, i.e., belief-practice consistency, and the teaching of speaking.

In this part of the thesis I build the conceptual framework underpinning the study by identifying the gaps in the existing literature, and outline the full list of research questions to be answered during the course of the project.

- *Chapter Four* introduces the ontological, epistemological and methodological stances of the study, and discusses the use of multiple case-studies, the individual methods of data collection, data analysis process, and the participants of the investigation.

- *Chapter Five* presents the findings for each of the four cases in turn, and then provides a cross-case synthesis which highlights the recurrent and unique themes emerging from the study. Each case involves a thorough discussion of three examples of tensions and consistencies which are accompanied by interview extracts and illustrative graphs that summarise the selected instances.

- *Chapter Six* discusses the findings of the study in the context of the existing literature, and highlights the main contributions of the investigation.

- *Chapter Seven* summarises the main contributions of the study and ponders its implications for the field of language teacher cognition and teacher professional development in Kazakhstan. This concluding chapter also includes the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and my final reflections on the experience of undertaking this research project.

Chapter Two: The Context

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter I describe the research context of the present study. This will entail providing information about the educational system of Kazakhstan (2.2) with particular attention to EFL education (2.3). Background information about the institution where data for this research project were collected is provided in Chapter Four, section 4.4.1.

2.2 Main features of the school system in Kazakhstan

School education in Kazakhstan takes 11 years to complete (though 12-year schooling is being piloted and gradually incorporated into the system) and consists of *primary*, *lower secondary* and *upper* (general or vocational) *secondary* education. These are all obligatory and are provided free of charge in accordance with Clause 30 of the Constitution of the Republic of Kazakhstan (1995) and the Law on Education (1999).

Primary education commences at the age of six or seven and takes four years to complete (grades 1-4). The duration of the lower secondary education is five years (grades 5-9). At the end of grade 9 students go through *External Assessment of Academic Achievement* and receive their *Diploma of Secondary School* (Winter et al., 2014). Lower secondary education can be complemented by either two years (grades 10 and 11) of upper secondary education (in the same school) or three to four years of technical or vocational education (in colleges, professional lyceums or higher technical schools). It is reported that approximately two thirds of 9th graders in Kazakhstan prefer to progress to general upper secondary education than go into technical or vocational education (IAC, 2012).

The school system in Kazakhstan is a mixture of different types and forms of schools that carry various titles because the terminology is not standardised: *comprehensive state schools*; *ungraded schools* ('small [state] schools, mostly in rural areas, which do

not have enough pupils to give each year group its own class and so teach students of different age groups together in one class') (OECD, 2014); *gymnasiums*, *lyceums* and *specialisation schools* for the gifted children that offer extensive study in certain groups of curriculum subjects (mathematics and natural sciences or social sciences and humanities); *correctional schools* (schools for children with special needs); and *private schools*. There were a total number of 7,648 schools in Kazakhstan that catered for 2,571,989 students in the 2013-14 academic year, of which 95,5% were state schools operating under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan (MoES) (IAC, 2014) (Table 3 in 4.4.1 details the types of secondary schools in Kazakhstan).

Kazakhstan is a culturally and ethnically diverse country. Approximately 120 nationalities reside in present day Kazakhstan, each with their own languages and cultural values (Bridges, 2014). Although Kazakh is the official state language, 94% of the population speak Russian (second official language in the country) (Yakavets, 2014). This is because 'Kazakhstan was the most Russified of all the Central Asian republics' in the Soviet Union (ibid., p. 14) due to the Russian language being supported by the Communist party as a *language of inter-ethnic communication* and a key factor in rapprochement of the many nationalities in the former USSR (Kreindler, 1991). Most of the state schools provide education in Kazakh (3,819 schools) and Russian (1,394); however, some other ethnic minorities receive education in their own languages as well: Uzbek (60 schools), Uighur (14) and Tajik (2) (IAC, 2014). English is very much a foreign language with only about 10,2% of the total population (17 million) being fluent in English (OECD, 2014). Only a small section of private schools and selected number of state-run schools for gifted children (e.g., Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools) provide multilingual education. This means that they teach certain subjects such as Physics, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry and Computer Science through the medium of English and other subjects in Kazakh, Russian or Turkish (e.g., Kazakh-Turkish Lyceums). They also offer

additional languages (e.g., German, French and Turkish) in Language Arts classes (Mehisto, 2015).

State Compulsory Educational Standard of the Republic of Kazakhstan (GOSO, 2012) outlines the main goals and the content of state school curriculum. For instance, paragraph 2.8 of the said document states that '*primary education* provides the formation of the moral qualities of the child, his[/her] emotional and normative relationship with the world, positive motivation towards learning [and] the development of his[/her] individual abilities and skills in cognitive activity' (Nazarbayev University Graduate School of Education, 2014, p. 25; my italics). Likewise, GOSO (2012) stipulates that *lower secondary education* should aim at familiarizing students with the fundamentals of science subjects; cultivating interpersonal and inter-ethnic communication skills; and supporting students in self-identification and career choice (ibid., paragraph 2.10; my translation). *General upper secondary education*, in turn, aims to a) support students in acquiring comprehensive knowledge about nature, society and human being; b) develop learners' functional literacy; c) further facilitate students' intellectual, moral and physical development; and d) provide career guidance on the basis of differentiation, integration and professional orientation of the subjects (ibid., paragraph 2.14; my translation). The official national standards and the curriculum goals have been criticized, however, for failing to identify and promote any sets of intellectual capacities (e.g., analysing, synthesizing, critiquing, comparing and contrasting, evaluating and interpreting information) that would foster skills beyond memorizing and retrieving factual information (see, for example, Fimyar, Yakavets, & Bridges, 2014; Nazarbayev University Graduate School of Education, 2014).

The content of the lower secondary state school curriculum includes primary educational domains such as Language and Literature, Mathematics and Informatics, Natural Science, Social Studies, Arts, Handicraft and Physical Education. Apart from Arts, all the other domains are retained in the curriculum for

general upper secondary education. However, the latter entails relatively more extensive study of the aforementioned domains and requires majoring in academic orientations of either *Natural Sciences and Mathematics* or *Humanities and Social Sciences*. According to *State Compulsory Educational Standard of the Republic of Kazakhstan*, each educational domain involves the instruction of the following mandatory subjects:

- *Language and Literature*: Literacy (reading and writing), Literature reading, Kazakh language, Kazakh literature, Russian language, Russian literature, Foreign language and, additionally, Mother tongue and Literature for ethnic minority schools (e.g., Uighur language, Uighur literature, Uzbek language, Uzbek literature, Tajik language, Tajik literature).

- *Mathematics and Informatics*: Mathematics, Algebra, Algebra and Pre-calculus, Geometry, Informatics.

- *Natural Science*: Understanding the World, Natural Science, Geography, Biology, Physics, Chemistry.

- *Social Studies*: History of Kazakhstan, World History, Human Being. Society. Law, Self-Knowledge.

- *Arts*: Music, Fine Art.

- *Handicraft*: Career Education, Draftsmanship, Handicraft.

- *Physical Education*: Physical Education, Basic Military Training.

2.3 Main features of EFL education in Kazakhstani state schools

Kazakhstan is going through substantial educational reforms (Fimyar et al., 2014). One of them is the introduction of trilingual education into state school system (Mehisto et al., 2014). According to the *Development and Functioning of Languages in the Republic of Kazakhstan for 2011-2020,* by 2025 95% of the population should speak Kazakh, 90% Russian and 20% English. Kazakh and Russian are two official

languages in the country and have always been present in schools as languages of instruction. As far as the English language is concerned, it used to be one of the three optional foreign languages (English, French and German) offered at state schools starting from lower secondary school. However, its recently recognized status as a language which should facilitate the integration of the nation into the global community (Mazhitaeva et al., 2012) has earned it a position of mandatory school subject and medium of instruction through which Natural Science subjects and Mathematics shall be taught starting from grade 7.

All state schools are required to support the implementation of trilingual policy. Starting from September 2013 all Kazakhstani schools were obliged to start teaching English one hour per week from grade 1. Table 1 shows the state standards in relation to EFL education in public schools outlining the minimum academic load and expected levels of proficiency for each of the 11 grades throughout primary, lower and upper secondary stages. In line with the *Standard Subject Plan for 2012-2013* schools are expected to provide 11 years of English language education starting from level A1 (Beginner) up to level B1 (Intermediate) in accordance with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). Interestingly, governmental guidelines (MoES, 2015) expect school graduates to reach the same level of B1 in the official state language as well, which seemingly implies that, oddly, the curricular goals do not appear to differentiate between studying Kazakh as a first language and learning English as a foreign language.

Table 1: State standards for EFL education in Kazakhstani state schools

School stage	Grade	Academic Load*		Proficiency Level**	
		Weekly	Yearly	Level	Sub-level
Primary Education	Grade 1	1	33	A (Basic User)	A1 (Breakthrough)
	Grade 2	1	34		
	Grade 3	1	34		
	Grade 4	1	34		
Lower Secondary	Grade 5	2	68	A (Basic User)	A1 (Breakthrough)
	Grade 6	2	68		

Education					
	Grade 7	2	68	A (Basic User)	A2 (Waystage)
	Grade 8	2	68		
	Grade 9	2	68		
General Upper Secondary Education	Grade 10	2	68	B (Independent User)	B1 (Threshold)
	Grade 11	2	68		

*One hour lesson amounts to 45-minute period
**Proficiency level descriptors are based on Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (de Europa & de Cooperación Cultural, 2002)

State Curriculum Maps for English Language Lessons (MoES, 2015) state that the primary aim of the course is the development of four language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. There are specifications in relation to the content of the curriculum for each grade. General curricular intentions for EFL education are as follows: 'students are expected in English class to develop intercultural communication skills, write essays using a chosen style, and have in-depth interdisciplinary knowledge about the cultural heritage of the target culture' (Nazarayev University Graduate School of Education, 2014, p. 33). However, the Unified National Test (UNT), which is both a school-leaving and a university entrance exam, does not assess the above curricular goals: it tests students' knowledge exclusively in English grammar and vocabulary and fails to assess learners' skills in L2 speaking and writing. This might adversely affect students' overall English language learning motivation 'with students putting little effort into these important skills' (Nazarayev University Graduate School of Education, 2014, p. 33).

Ministry guidelines do not favour any specific methodology for teaching English or do not impose any textbooks for ELT. The methodology is usually determined by the materials that schools choose to adopt themselves. The selected resources, in any case, would need to be first approved by the MoES.

2.4 Pre-service and in-service teacher education in Kazakhstan

Department of Higher and Graduate Education within MoES regulates all higher education institutions (universities, academies or institutes) in Kazakhstan. This includes the training of school teachers which is realized through four-year bachelor degree programs (OECD, 2007). The curricula (of both public and private higher education institutions) offer core elements prescribed by the ministry 'which account for approximately 60% of study time in the first two years and 40% in the third and fourth years of a Bachelor's degree' (ibid., p. 21).

The training of EFL teachers is carried out through four-year programme titled *Foreign language: two foreign languages* with the reference code of 5B011900. English language is the default first foreign language, while the second one is optional: students choose one language from a variety of foreign languages (e.g. Chinese, Arab, Turkish, Korean, Japanese, German, French, Spanish, and Italian) depending on the availability of instructors. EFL curriculum comprises four main directions: *phonetics* (teaching and learning pronunciation), *lexicology* (teaching and learning vocabulary), *grammar* (teaching and learning grammar) and *methods* (traditional and contemporary methods of teaching and learning English as a foreign language). These are complemented by mandatory courses such as *Evaluation and Assessment*, *Oral Communication Skills*, *Linguistics*, *Second Language Acquisition* and *Educational Technology*. Furthermore, student teachers are required to undertake four months long practicum in local secondary schools, which provides a platform for them to put theoretical knowledge about ELT into practice. As far as the curriculum of the second foreign language is concerned, the focus here lies in getting students to upper-intermediate level of proficiency; however, no pedagogy of teaching this language is covered. Despite this disparity in the depth of the curricula of EFL and the second foreign language, graduates of this program qualify as school teachers of both of these languages.

In regards to in-service teacher education in Kazakhstan, there are two main state organizations that organize and oversee professional development of practicing teachers: *Orleu* (National Center for Professional Development) and *Centres of Excellence* (CoE) of the Autonomous Educational Organization (AEO) Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS).

Orleu was created in 2012 and has branches in all 16 regions of Kazakhstan and the cities of Astana and Almaty. They claim to involve around 74,000 pedagogical staff from all levels (primary, secondary, higher and postgraduate education) in annual professional development activities (Orleu, 2012). Orleu, in collaboration with international educational organizations, aspires to develop in-service teachers' expertise through identification and dissemination of the best international and domestic pedagogical practices. However, no precise information about the scope, structure or content of any of the past professional development activities or about the international partners of Orleu is publicly available.

CoE, on the other hand, work together with Cambridge University Faculty of Education (FoE) and Cambridge International Examinations (CIE) to actualize the government plans for training and development of school teachers outlined in Kazakhstan's *State Programme of Education Development for 2011-2020* (MoES, 2010). By 2016 CoE plan to train 120,000 practicing school teachers of different subjects (including EFL teachers), which amounts to 40% of all in-service teachers.

The FoE team is entirely responsible for the development of the professional development programme including course books, syllabi, electronic materials, online portal, supplementary materials and the training and accreditation of local coaches. These coaches, through cascade model of professional development, then train other in-service teachers through three stages:

- Stage 1: face-to-face workshops with an emphasis on theory-oriented introduction of *best* international practices;

- Stage 2: school-based practice of and evaluation of these theories;

- Stage 3: reflection and discussion of Stage 2 and the assessment of the trainees (Turner et al., 2014).

The core topics covered in this large-scale professional development endeavour are outlined in Turner, Brownhill and Wilson (2016):

- New approaches to teaching and learning;
- Learning to think critically;
- Assessment of and for learning;
- The use of ICT and digital systems in support of learning;
- Teaching talented and gifted children;
- Responding to age-related differences in children in teaching and learning; and
- The management and leadership of learning. (p. 2)

At present, there are 17 centres of excellence in various regions of Kazakhstan (Astana, Karaganda, Semey, Oskemen, Taldykorgan, Almaty, Shymkent, Aktau, Atyrau, Aktobe, Pavlodar, Kokshetau, Taraz, Kyzylorda, Kostanai, Petropavlovsk and Uralsk). They employ fully trained team of local teacher trainers and one English speaking trainer as well.

Chapter Three: Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter I establish a conceptual basis for the present study by reviewing the relevant literature, noting gaps in the research and locating my own research project within the domain of language teacher cognition. I begin the chapter by discussing different definitions of *teacher beliefs* and propose a working definition for the study which I used to identify the participants' beliefs. In the same section (3.2), I analyse academic domains that have received the attention of teacher cognition experts and explain why I opted to investigate beliefs and practices about teaching speaking in particular. In section 3.3 I present the studies that have focused on the relationship between beliefs and practices and the different factors that influence it. In doing so, I justify the adoption of two particular dimensions for the exploration of the phenomenon: teachers' perceptions of contextual factors and the internal relationship between core and peripheral beliefs. Teaching speaking is the instructional context of the study; as such, the main concepts in that curricular domain are discussed in 3.4. Finally section 3.5 concludes this chapter by presenting three sub-questions that emerge from the review of the literature and which add further depth to the two main research questions mentioned earlier in section 1.3.

3.2 Teacher beliefs

3.2.1 Defining teacher beliefs

The study of teacher beliefs is positioned within the broader field of teacher cognition research (Woods, 1996). Teacher cognition is a construct which encompasses all aspects of 'covert mental processes' (Calderhead, 1987, p. 184) that inform teachers' instructional decisions, the 'unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think' (Borg, 2003, p. 81).

Studying teacher beliefs has proven to be a serious challenge to researchers, mostly because of the different conceptualizations and varying understandings of beliefs

that have led to the proliferation of definitions (Andrews, 2003). Beliefs have been referred to as a *messy construct* (Pajares, 1992) and are characterized by 'conceptual ambiguity' (Borg, 2003, p. 83) that is exacerbated by researchers defining the same terms in divergent ways and using different terms to refer to identical constructs (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987).

Moreover, the task of distinguishing (if they are at all distinguishable) between belief, belief systems and other similar constructs such as knowledge or knowledge structures has added further difficulty to an already complicated issue. Without going any deeper into the debate about the distinction between knowledge and beliefs, I will state that some researchers with an interest in psychology 'assume beliefs and knowledge to be the same' (Poulson et al., 2001, p. 273), while Pajares (1992) argues that the two are 'inextricably intertwined' (p. 325).

Having said that, it would clearly be difficult for researchers to explore teacher beliefs without first determining the meaning or meanings they wish to attribute to the term. It is also important to outline what is known about belief systems and the way they function. Since the current study is on teacher beliefs, there is a need for a clear definition of the concept that would inform the research through the course of the study. I attempt to operationalize the construct of teacher beliefs in this section while discussing different definitions proposed by other researchers.

Terminological profusion is well reflected in Pajares (1992) and Borg (2006), who allude to over 40 different terms between them that include numerous forms of theories, knowledge, images, perspectives and conceptions, all of which are, according to Pajares, beliefs in disguise.

Pajares' (1992) work is a considerable contribution to the matter of defining beliefs. He attempted to provide an extensive review of the literature on teacher beliefs. Referring to a number of works by cognitive psychologists (Abelson, 1979; Clark, 1988; Rokeach, 1968), he argues that the term teacher beliefs is too broad to designate

an exact definition to it. Having stated that, he puts forward his own definition of beliefs 'as an individual's judgement of the truth or falsity of a proposition, a judgment that can only be inferred from a collective understanding of what human beings say, intend, and do' (p. 316). He emphasizes that, firstly, it is crucial to try to make a distinction between teachers' educational beliefs and other general beliefs that they hold, which can also exert an influence on what teachers do in the classroom. Teachers can hold beliefs about every aspect of their lives that might relate to the general educational context, the institution where they work, teaching and learning process, their learners as well as the particular features of their personal lives such as their children, families and partners.

In this research my particular interest lay in teachers' educational beliefs. Pajares provided some specific examples of this type of belief which includes 'beliefs about confidence to affect students' performance (teacher efficacy), about the nature of knowledge (epistemological beliefs), about causes of teachers' or students' performance (attributions, locus of control, motivation, writing apprehension, math anxiety), about perceptions of self and feelings of self-worth (self-concept, self-esteem), about confidence to perform specific tasks (self-efficacy)' (Pajares, 1992, p. 316). He goes on to say that there could also be educational beliefs about specific subjects or disciplines (reading instruction, oral instruction, grammar teaching). Similarly, Calderhead (1996) in his review of research on teachers' beliefs and knowledge talks about teachers' beliefs under several headings. Namely, he discusses beliefs about learners and learning, beliefs about teaching, beliefs about the subject matter, beliefs about learning to teach and beliefs about self and teacher's role.

Moreover, Borg (2006, pp. 36 and 47) provides a long list of different definitions of beliefs. For instance, Tobin & LaMaster (1995) propose that '*belief* is knowledge that is viable in that it enables an individual to meet goals in specific circumstances' (p. 226). Crawley & Salyer (1995), on the other hand, drawing on Clark's (1988) work,

claim that beliefs are 'preconceptions and implicit theories; an eclectic aggregation of cause-effect propositions from many sources, rules of thumb and generalizations drawn from personal experience' (p. 613). Alternatively, Ford (1994) suggests that 'beliefs are convictions or opinions that are formed either by experience or by the intervention of ideas through the learning process' (p. 315). And finally, Basturkmen et al. (2004) define beliefs as the 'statements teachers make about their ideas, thoughts and knowledge that are expressed as evaluations of what should be done, should be the case and is preferable' (p. 244).

The diversity of definitions proposed reflects the complex nature of the phenomenon under study. However, it is difficult to say here that one particular definition is accurate and the others are not, mainly because these definitions come from different agendas of researchers and studies and should not be critiqued out of context. The various conceptualisations of teacher beliefs that come out of diverse contexts throw light on different facets of the construct. This means that a particular study on a certain issue in a context with unique characteristics would require an individual operationalization of beliefs. From here we understand that, before we attempt to give a definition to the term *beliefs*, we should carefully consider the agenda and the context of the study, including the participants, place, the specific subject matter and the methods of data collection. Having done that, it might be possible to arrive at a conceptualization of beliefs that would make the concept distinguishable and researchable within the pertinent research project. The aim of the present research was to compare language teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices about oral instruction in secondary schools in Kazakhstan. Thus, it was appropriate to look at definitions of beliefs adopted by studies that had similar purposes since Pajares (1992) suggests that 'a community of scholars engaged in the research of common areas with common themes has a responsibility to communicate ideas and results as clearly as possible using common terms' (p. 315).

There are several studies that aimed at comparing language teachers' professed beliefs and enacted practices in an attempt to understand the relationship between them (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Farrell & Kun, 2007; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Among these three studies, Basturkmen et al.'s study has a lot in common with my research project, i.e., the area of the study (language teacher cognition), the research purpose (investigating the belief-practice relationship), and the data collection methods employed (direct observations, semi-structured interviews, stimulated recall interviews) are similar. Along with the aforementioned tools, the researchers utilized a self-report data collection method called cued response scenarios where teachers were presented with a set of scenarios of typical classroom situations and asked to comment on what they felt they should do in these situations. The aim was to find out what teachers believed to be as desirable behaviours in accordance with the definition. Basturkmen et al. (2004) claim that the purpose was to assess teachers' beliefs by instantiating the context they work in. In a similar way, I employed a technique called scenario-based interviews in order to elicit teachers' stated beliefs about teaching speaking in particular. My study, however, differs from that reported in Basturkmen et al. (2004) in terms of focus (exploring the reasons behind *tensions* and *consistencies* between belief-practice relationships), the dimensions (TPC and CPBR) from which I planned to investigate the phenomenon, and the implementation of data collection tools (beliefs elicited both before and after observations) and in that I aimed to study beliefs and practices in relation to teaching speaking in general as opposed to a particular feature (focus on form) of Communicative Language Teaching.

In light of the abovementioned similarities between the two studies, I operationalized the construct of beliefs in a similar manner to Basturkmen et al. (2004). The participants' statements made about their ideas, thoughts, knowledge and rationale for their real classroom practices in relation to the instruction of oral skills that were expressed as both evaluations of how things should be and

descriptions of how things are were considered beliefs. In other words, what the participants of the study said during interviews (i.e. background, scenario-based and stimulated recall interviews) was regarded as their *stated beliefs* and I used terms such as *professed beliefs, reported beliefs* and *espoused beliefs* interchangeably to refer to teachers' stated beliefs as well.

Such operationalization of teacher beliefs is in line with some other studies (M. Borg, 2001; Fives & Buehl, 2008). Although it may seem that I am oversimplifying the construct by conceptualising it as a statement or a proposition (a certain degree of reductionism in collecting, interpreting and representing beliefs does not appear avoidable anyway), I acknowledge that beliefs can be *tacit* (Braithwaite, 1999), 'unconsciously held' (Kagan, 1990, p. 424) and difficult to verbalize (Calderhead, 1996; Sahin, Bullock, & Stables, 2002); thus they may be inferred from classroom observation. For this reason, I made use of classroom observations in combination with pre- and post-observation interviews in order to document and examine both *espoused theories* and *theories-in-use* (Argyris, Putnam, & Smith, 1985).

The way that I operationalized beliefs is consistent with a conventional cognitivist understanding of teacher cognitions as reified mental constructs. Recent publication in the field, however, invites language teacher cognition researchers to study teacher beliefs through professional practices (Borg, 2016; Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). This is a fresh, 'participation-oriented epistemological perspective' of treating teacher cognitions as 'emergent sense making in action' (Kubanyiova & Feryok, p. 438). However, since the abovementioned works were published when this study was nearing completion, they did not inform the manner in which I operationalized beliefs.

3.2.2 Studying teacher beliefs

Inquiry into teachers' beliefs has increased with the break away from the simplistic view of teachers as implementers of theoretical and practical instructional principles

generated by experts in the direction of viewing teaching as a complex thinking activity and teachers as individuals who build their own personal conceptualisations of teaching (Fang, 1996; Richards, 1998) and resort to their intricate 'networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs' when making pedagogical decisions (Borg, 2003, p. 81).

The significance of studying teacher beliefs has been enunciated by many researchers before. There were suggestions as early as 1978 that the study of beliefs would become the 'initiating focus' for research in the field of teacher effectiveness (Fenstermacher, 1978, p. 169). In a similar vein, Pintrich (1990) argued that the examination of beliefs can produce important implications for teacher education. The extensive research on teacher beliefs both in education generally (Calderhead, 1996; Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996) and in language education (Borg, 2006; Freeman, 2002) that followed since then seem to confirm those early predictions.

In particular, the literature suggests that teachers' beliefs can be emotionally laden and serve as ontological and epistemological lenses through which teachers access reality and interpret it (Nespor, 1987); can function as 'intuitive screens' that filter new information (Pajares, 1992, p. 310); are informed by teachers' own previous language learning experiences and can be ingrained prior to teacher training at universities (Holt-Reynolds, 1992); can profoundly shape the teacher learning in language teaching (Freeman & Richards, 1996); may exert more powerful influence on teachers' classroom behaviour than their pre-service education (Kagan, 1990; Richardson, 1996); are context-specific (M. Pajares, 1992); guide pedagogical decisions and practices (Burns, 1992; Crawley & Salyer, 1995; K. E. Johnson, 1994); have 'mutually informing' (Basturkmen et al., 2004, p. 245), 'symbiotic relationships' (Foss, Donna & Kleinsasser, 1996, p. 429) with practices, in that beliefs can stimulate teacher actions and actions, in turn, can bring about changes in beliefs (Bandura, 1997; Lumpe et al., 2012; Richardson, 1996); are 'entrenched with increasing experience' (Breen et al., 2001, p. 473) and thus may become resistant to change

(Phipps & Borg, 2009; Pickering, 2005); or, alternatively, may be transient in nature (Clandinin, 1985).

All of the above studies have generated empirical evidence to cast light on the multifaceted nature of teacher beliefs that seemingly includes, among many others, cognitive, affective, evaluative and executive attributes. Above all, these insights highlight the importance of studying beliefs as a force that underpins teacher thinking and behaviour.

There is an extensive body of research that has focused on the exploration of teacher cognitions in relation to various academic domains. These include the instruction of mathematics (Francis et al., 2015; Stipek et al., 2001); the use of technology in the classroom (Ertmer et al., 2015; Levin & Wadmany, 2006; Palak & Walls, 2009); beliefs about social studies (Doppen, 2007; Peck et al., 2015); and beliefs about teaching science (J. A. Chen, Morris, & Mansour, 2015; Tsai, 2002).

As far as language teaching is concerned, the review of the literature revealed that curricular domains such as grammar teaching and literacy instruction in English as a first, second and foreign language have been and still continue to be the areas of large concentration of teacher cognition investigations. Borg (2006) performed a comprehensive analysis of studies that have examined language teachers' inner lives (including teacher beliefs) with respect to *Grammar Teaching* (ibid., Chapter 4, pp. 109-134) and *Literacy Instruction* (ibid., Chapter 5, pp. 135-165). These research projects have provided insights about teachers' content and pedagogical or declarative knowledge about grammar (Andrews, 2003; Breen et al., 2001; Johnston & Goettsch, 2000); teachers' language awareness of both grammar and vocabulary (Andrews & McNeill, 2005); and teachers' beliefs about grammar instruction (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Burgess & Etherington, 2002; Chia, 2003). More recent language teacher cognition studies on grammar teaching include Borg & Burns, 2008; Loewen et al., 2009; Sanchez & Borg, 2014; Sanchez, 2010; Underwood, 2012.

Studies that have researched teacher cognitions in respect of reading (Grisham, 2000; Maloch et al., 2003) and writing instruction (Mosenthal, 1995; Norman & Spencer, 2005) have also featured in Borg's (2006) work, although he acknowledges that the volume of investigations in this area are smaller in number, rather narrow in scope and lack 'consistent substantive focus' (p. 165). He identified this curricular domain as in need of further research.

However, despite its fundamental role in L2 teaching and learning (Bygate, 1998; Marianne & Olshtain, 2000), the area of language education that remains largely under-studied from the perspective of language teacher cognition is the teaching of speaking (Borg, 2006) and the few studies that are available appear to have limitations. Earlier works in the field that examined speaking instruction include Tumposky (1991) and Kern (1995). Although these studies succeeded in eliciting the participants' beliefs about certain aspects of speaking instruction such as the importance of risk-taking in oral practice, attitudes about error correction and pronunciation teaching, both studies were focused on examining and comparing learners' beliefs about L2 learning in general, not learning speaking in particular. In addition, they employed Horwitz' *Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory* (BALLI) (1985, 1987) as the data collection tool. The BALLI is a Likert-scale instrument which consists of 34 broadly-formulated items to which the respondents are expected to answer within the scale of options ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The limitations of administering self-report instruments like BALLI in teacher cognition research are well acknowledged in the literature. In particular, Kagan (1990) states that 'any researcher who uses a short-answer test of teacher belief (i.e., an instrument consisting of prefabricated statements) runs the risk of obtaining bogus data, because standardized statements may mask or misrepresent a particular teacher's highly personalized perceptions and definitions' (p. 427).

Cohen and Fass (2001) report on teacher-led action research that involved 40 instructors and 63 students at a Colombian University's English as a Foreign

Language program. The researchers set out to identify teachers' and students' beliefs through questionnaires in three areas - instruction of speaking in the classroom; materials used for oral instruction; strategies for the assessment of oral competence – and compared these to actual classroom practices. The methodological limitation of this research project is in the prominent role questionnaires played in identifying beliefs (interviews were conducted selectively only in specific circumstances). Borg (2006) provides a critical appraisal of questionnaires in that they are fashioned by the researcher and thus 'may not cover the full range of beliefs that respondents have or want to talk about' (p. 185). As a matter of fact, the questionnaires in Cohen and Fass (2001) were limited to four topics: '(1) the ideal percentage of class time for teacher and why, (2) the ideal percentage of class time for student talk and why, (3) the characteristics of successful oral production by students in a class, and (4) the types of oral activities appropriate for learning and practising English in class' (p. 49).

More recent investigations of teaching speaking related cognitions include Baleghizadeh & Shahri (2014), Dincer & Yesilyurt (2013) and Webster (2015). Dincer & Yesilyurt (2013) explored student teachers' beliefs about teaching speaking in Turkey in terms of the importance they attach to this very language skill and their evaluations of their own L2 speaking competence. Initially, a Likert-scale questionnaire (*Speaking Motivation Scale* adapted from Noels et al., 2000) comprising 31 statements was employed to categorize participants into groups of those with intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation. This was followed by semi-structured interviews consisting of just three questions. The research thus generated student teachers' perspectives on the general state of L2 speaking teaching in Turkish schools.

Baleghizadeh & Shahri (2014), on the other hand, recruited 10 in-service EFL teachers to elicit and examine their conceptions of speaking instruction in an L2 setting in Iran. Through semi-structured interviews teachers' individual accounts of their prior language learning experiences of learning speaking, their ideas about

how students should learn speaking and their profiles of stated practices about speaking teaching were obtained and juxtaposed to uncover the relationship between learning experiences and teaching conceptions. The limitations of the above two studies lie in their complete reliance on interview data for the representations of the participants' cognitions. The conversations revolved around *stated practices* as opposed to *observed practices*; as such, they may have failed to capture participants' 'practically-oriented cognitions which inform teachers' actual instructional practices' (Borg, 2006, p. 280).

Webster's (2015) work represents a relatively comprehensive investigation of its kind into practicing teachers' cognitions about teaching speaking that is grounded in actual classroom practices. Using both observational and interview data throughout the academic year, he conducted a longitudinal study in the United Kingdom (UK) into early career ESOL teachers' (English for Speakers of Other Languages) practical knowledge of speaking. Four practitioners' practical knowledge bases were examined for commonalities and differences and for identification of potential development in knowledge over a period of time.

Nevertheless, as extensive as the above study may be, it constitutes an isolated example in the domain of language teacher cognition that is otherwise characterised by the paucity of in-depth studies that explore different aspects of teachers' mental lives in relation to the teaching of speaking from substantive methodological and conceptual perspectives. Correspondingly, in light of the above-established disparity between the volume of investigations on grammar and literacy instruction and the teaching of oral language, I decided to examine in-service EFL teachers' beliefs and practices specifically about speaking instruction to address this gap in the field. The present study drew on both interview and classroom observation data to attempt to cover the multiplex nature of the phenomenon. Further details in relation to the specific conceptual aspects of the study are provided in the following section.

3.3 Relationship between beliefs and practices

The primary focus of this study was the relationship between teachers' beliefs and practices; specifically, I was interested in shedding light on the manner different factors, individually or/and collectively, influenced the extent to which the participants' professed beliefs about the instruction of oral skills corresponded to their actual pedagogical practices. This research agenda was based on the premise that teacher beliefs were the major determinants of their classroom actions; therefore, studying the supports and hindrances that facilitate or impede this relationship was expected to generate important implications for teacher education and teacher professional development.

The literature suggests that teacher beliefs are precursors to teacher instructional behaviour. Namely, Clark & Peterson (1984) state that 'teachers' actions are in a large part caused by teachers' thought processes [teachers' theories and beliefs]' (p. 18); Pajares (1993) opines that 'beliefs are the best predictors of individual behaviour' (p. 45). Teacher beliefs are also believed to *motivate* (Burns, 1992), *shape* (K. E. Johnson, 1994) and *guide* instructional practices (Borg, 2001). Subsequently, more recently, Skott (2009) has voiced a viewpoint that the general consensus in the field is that teacher beliefs 'are an explanatory principle for practice' (p. 44).

One strand of teacher cognition research, then, has focused on examining the relationship between teacher beliefs and practices for the purposes of discovering whether the two were positively or, on the contrary, negatively interrelated. The results of such investigations have been diverse.

Substantial empirical evidence has been generated by various studies to support the view that beliefs predict practices. The researchers concerned with such agenda usually first elicited the participants' stated/professed/espoused beliefs through interviews, questionnaires, surveys, journals and, in the event that these beliefs matched the audio- or video-recorded, observed or reported classroom practices,

they described the relationship to be positive. For instance, Olson & Singer (1994) report that teachers' theoretical orientations to reading were correlated to their actual practices; Ciani et al. (2008), Siwatu (2009) and Wilkins (2008) found strong links between the participants' stated/reported self-efficacy beliefs and their practices; and Tsangaridou (2008) generated empirical evidence to argue that trainee teachers' espoused beliefs 'play a significant role in designing and implementing meaningful teaching tasks that may affect student learning' (p. 148).

However, some researchers have reported contrasting findings about the topic under discussion and have resorted to words such as inconsistency, tension, discrepancy, mismatch, incongruence, disconnection and misalignment to describe a negative belief-practice relationship. Liu (2011), for instance, recruited 1,340 elementary school teachers working in 517 different schools in Taiwan and, with the help of questionnaires, compiled profiles of data of three categories: pedagogical beliefs, instructional practices with technology use and factors related to technology integration. These three variables were analysed against each other (chi-square test - ANOVA) for correlations. The researcher found that 'roughly 72% of teachers with learner-centred beliefs utilized lecture-based teaching' (p. 1019). Similar mismatches between reported constructivist, learner-centred attitudes towards technology use in the classrooms and reported transmissionist practices were identified in Norris et al. (2003) as well.

In the same area, Chen (2008) studied how 12 Taiwanese high school teachers' articulated pedagogical beliefs influenced the integration of technology inside their classrooms. Unlike the previous two studies, this investigation made use of various interviews to identify espoused beliefs and compare them to actual classroom practices recorded during classroom observations. The analysis indicated that the majority of teachers 'did not integrate technology in ways that aligned with the participants' reports' (p. 73).

Likewise, Jorgensen et al. (2010), in Australia, using a 7-point, Likert-scale survey consisting of 125 items elicited 25 mathematics teachers' pedagogical beliefs regarding 'planning for teaching mathematics; assessment as a practice; the students; task design and planning; lesson design and planning; and assessment, engagement, and learning' (p. 168). These were later assessed in the context of video-taped lessons of teachers; as a result, few links were established between the two sets of data. The researchers concluded that 'the translation of teacher beliefs into observable pedagogies and practices in the classroom is clearly problematic' (p. 172).

Finally, Lim & Chai (2008) first observed 18 computer-mediated lessons of six primary school teachers in Singapore and then interviewed them face-to-face to identify their pedagogical beliefs about the role of teachers, the role of students, and the role of computers in teaching and learning environments. In addition to this, during the interviews, they invited the participants to provide a rationale for the ways they planned and executed the observed lessons. The insights that emerged from the six case studies revealed that the teachers exhibited practices which were 'at odds with their pedagogical beliefs' (p. 823). Accordingly, the evidence produced by these five different investigations, using various methods of data collection and data analysis techniques, imply a negative relationship between what teachers say and do.

Many other studies, on the other hand, have arrived at relatively more complex conclusions than the two prescriptive outcomes discussed thus far. The strength of the relationship between stated beliefs and practices in their projects varied across participants; thus, mixed levels of consistencies were reported (e.g. Basturkmen et al., 2004; Basturkmen, 2012; Ertmer et al., 2012; Farrell & Kun, 2007; Farrell & Lim, 2005; Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Ng & Farrell, 2003; Sadaf, Newby, & Ertmer, 2012).

However, the leading experts in the field argue that in order to forward the research in this area, instead of merely searching for evidence that beliefs and practices are or

are not linked, researchers should aim to study the 'degree of congruence or incongruence' (Fives & Buehl, 2012, p. 481) and seek to 'explore, acknowledge and understand the underlying reasons' behind such representations of the relationship (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 388). Similar calls have been made by Buehl & Beck (2015) as well. Building on Fives & Buehl's (2012) above recommendation for research, they invited future researchers to 'understand the variations in the relations between beliefs and practices [i.e., the degrees of consistency] as well as the consequences of belief congruence and incongruence' (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p. 71). These directions for belief-practice research informed the objectives of the current study. I thus examined the extent of correspondence between the participants' stated beliefs and observed practices and explored the instances of consistencies and tensions in order to cast light on the forces that stimulated them. The proposal to investigate the potential consequences of the phenomenon under study (Buehl & Beck, 2015) has come forth recently after the data for this project had been collected and analysed; as such, this matter remained out of the scope of my study. However, I refer to potential effects of belief-practice match and mismatch next in this section to establish the significance of such investigations, and further in section 7.2 where I ponder the possible implications of my findings for research and practice.

Some researchers view tensions in a negative light. For instance, Bryan (2012) in Skott (2015) argues that 'the implementation of reform initiatives is compromised' when practitioners' beliefs are not aligned with the theoretical foundations of the reform (p. 17). Other experts such as Freeman (1993) see benefits in examining tensions:

> To develop their classroom practice, teachers need to recognize and redefine these tensions. In this process of renaming what they know through their experience, the teachers critically reflect on-and thus begin to renegotiate-their ideas about teaching and learning. (p. 488)

Studying the divergences between the conceptualisations of teaching and how these translate into classroom actions in a positive light has the potential to enhance our understandings of the nature of such tensions. In turn, this could help practitioners to better grasp the content and quality of the cognitions they have as well as the manner in which these cognitions function as a system. This might place them in a better position to develop further as experts.

Further support for studying the belief-practice relationship can be inferred from other literature. For example, Potari & Georgiadou–Kabouridis (2009) report that teachers' satisfaction with their jobs can be adversely affected if they are compelled to strictly follow a top-down, mandated curriculum which implies classroom practices that go against their ideas of good pedagogy. One of the participants of that study, for instance, articulated her interest in developing students' thinking. For that reason, she devoted a lot of class time to activities and games that facilitated mathematical notions like orientation at the expense of the prescribed curriculum. However, she was forced to cave in to pressure from parents, the school principal and the immediate-result-oriented school curriculum and began to engage in practices that she did not favour. During one of the interviews the teacher admitted that she was growing increasingly frustrated because 'she could not implement what she considered as important in her teaching' (ibid., p. 19). Similar cases like this have led to high quality teachers leaving the profession (Greene et al., 2008). Correspondingly, throwing light on the underlying reasons behind tensions can perhaps be the right step forward in providing support for practitioners working under identical circumstances.

Moreover, the consistency between beliefs and actions may not necessarily represent a state of content. Uzuntiryaki & Kirbulut (2010) provide accounts of teachers who explicitly expressed and consistently engaged in traditional, teacher-fronted, transmissionist approaches to teaching as opposed to more constructivist, learner-

centred approaches. Thus, there is a need to study the conceptions underpinning the instances of consistencies as well.

Consequently, studying and enhancing our awareness of the dynamics behind the degrees of congruence in the belief-practice relationship (i.e., instances of consistencies and tensions) appear to be important. Such endeavours could produce valuable implications for both in-service and pre-service teachers as well as teacher trainers and educators. The different factors that accounted for matches and mismatches in the cognition-action relationship are discussed in the next two sub-sections.

3.3.1 Impact of contextual factors on belief-practice relationship

Without context there can be no action; therefore, context is a prerequisite condition for the realisation of cognitions. This may be the reason why contextual factors seem to be the most cited causes of impediment or, in fact, facilitation of belief enactment. Borg (2003) offered a comprehensive definition for contextual factors - 'the social, psychological and environmental realities of the school and classroom' that include 'parents, principals' requirements, the school, society, curriculum mandates, classroom and school layout, school policies, colleagues, standardised tests and the availability of resources' (p. 94) - which is referred to by the majority of language teacher cognition researchers who study the impact of context on belief-practice consistency.

The specific examples listed in Borg's definition reside in various levels of the context. As an illustration, Andrews (2003) talks about two levels, that is *macro* (e.g. 'syllabus, the textbooks, the examination system, the expectations of parents, and student characteristics') and *micro* (e.g. the institutional environment) (p. 372). Buehl & Beck (2015), summarising the external influences on pedagogical practices, provide an extended and more inclusive list of contextual levels: *classroom-level*; *school-level*; *national-*, *state-*, and *district-level* factors.

Back in 1988, Kinzer put forth his view that contextual factors 'are thought to be so salient as to mitigate or preclude implementation of belief systems in decision making' (p. 359). Since then, teacher cognition research has produced a considerable amount of empirical evidence that illustrates how different environmental circumstances surrounding the process of teaching and learning affect the successful adoption of instructional practices that would reflect teachers' professed beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012; Borg, 2006; Fang, 1996; Fives & Gill, 2015). I have organized the presentation of these examples below according to the combined version of Andrews' (2003) and Buehl & Beck's (2015) models of contextual levels: micro context (classroom-level factors), meso context (institutional-level factors and other social influences such as parents, family etc.), and macro context (district-, state/region-, national-level factors).

Influences of micro-contextual factors:

- Phipps & Borg's (2009) study cite *student expectations*; *students' proficiency level*; *students' responsiveness and motivation*; and *classroom management* concerns as examples of classroom-level contextual factors that have precluded teachers' espoused beliefs from being put to practice. These factors have motivated English teachers to practice rule-based grammar presentation and teacher-centred oral practice instead of presenting grammar in context and conducting oral practice through group-work which they had stated they preferred.

- In Savasci & Berlin's (2012) work, for instance, the participant teachers reported 'student misbehaviour and student ability' as the biggest 'challenge' to enacting constructivist beliefs in the classroom (p. 80).

- In-service teachers in Southerland et al. (2011) identified *learners' negative attitudes* to studying science as the barriers to employing pedagogical approaches that they said they favoured.

- Teagueb et al. (2012) state that the participants who were not successful in implementing their stated beliefs in relation to 'developmentally responsive instructional practices and creating a student-centred classroom' in their lessons attributed tensions to contextual obstacles such as 'time for planning, the amount of time required on the teachers' part, student behaviour, and resistance from other teachers' (p. 17).

- Alice, one of the participant teachers in Spada & Massey's (1992) study, worked at a private school where students exhibited *exemplary behaviour* and was given flexibility as to what she could practice in the classrooms. The researchers report that these factors facilitated the implementation of the pedagogical principles that Alice had been taught during the teacher education programme without much distractions. Neil, on the other hand, taught in a public school that had significant discipline problems. As a result, he devoted a lot of his class time to managing *disruptive student behaviour* which precluded him from following his lesson plans.

Influences of meso-contextual factors:

- The practitioners in Rentzou & Sakellariou's (2011) investigation referred to the *lack of support by school administrators and colleagues* in helping them to carry their professed beliefs about developmentally appropriate principles into their classrooms.

- The practicing mathematics teachers in Jorgensen et al. (2010) complained that the school did not supply the necessary *resources* which would enable them to employ more inclusive classroom practices that they had reported in the questionnaires.

- Chen (2008) suggests that the 'lack of access to computers and software, insufficient time to plan instruction, and inadequate technical and

administrative support' (p. 70) prevented the participants from integrating technology into their classroom practices in the ways they desired.

- Teachers in Crookes & Arakaki (1999) taught 45-50 hours a week in two or sometimes three schools. Such heavy workloads had a considerable impact on teachers' instructional practices, which was reflected in one of the teacher's comments: 'I will often choose or create an exercise [even though] I know there could be a better one, but I just can't do it within the time that I have' (p. 18). This is evidence of how difficult working conditions may prevent preferred ideas about teaching from being enacted.

Influences of macro-contextual factors:

- Liu (2011) provides accounts of teachers who reportedly held constructivist learner-centred beliefs but implemented lecture-based teaching in response to encouragement by educational institutes and governmental guidelines.

- The participants in Ng & Farrell (2003) consistently engaged in explicit correction of student errors despite previously stating that it should be minimized. One of the factors that this inconsistency was attributed to was the need to prepare learners for a high-stakes national examination in Singapore.

- In Southerland et al. (2011) the major barriers that impeded the practice of equitable science education as reflected in teachers professed beliefs included 'the goals of the wider educational system, unequal and insufficient resources, teacher preparation and professional development, the structure of education (as embodied by statewide assessments, text books, and oft times state standards)' (p. 2195).

- On the basis of the analysis of both observational and interview data, Lim & Chai (2008) conclude that a national-level exam, namely the Primary School Leaving Examination in Singapore that evaluates students' abilities for

placement in a secondary school, was the often mentioned reason for misalignment of stated beliefs (constructivist approach to teaching) and observed practices (transmission of information).

However, it is important to acknowledge that there are also studies reporting little impact of contextual factors on teachers' practices (Borg, 1998; Basturkmen et al., 2004). Basturkmen et al. (2004), for example, claim that, when responding to stimulated recall interview questions, the participants did not refer to contextual constraints or factors when accounting for the practices which were not aligned with their stated beliefs. The researchers go on to suggest that this may be due to the manner the interview questions were posed, since the teachers were not directly asked to consider contextual factors influencing their instructional decisions. This reminds us once again that the findings of the studies reported in this section should be considered in the context of the data collection methods utilized.

On the other hand, even if some teachers attribute the tensions between their beliefs and practices to contextual factors, it may not mean that those explanations are valid. In an investigation into teachers' beliefs and practices of providing written feedback, Lee (2009) found that teachers often attributed the incongruity between their espoused beliefs and practices to different constraints such as formative and summative exams and a school policy that holds error feedback in high estimation. However, she questions whether these were 'real explanations for the mismatches or mere excuses' that the participants resorted to in order to justify their practices (ibid., p. 19). This represents an additional issue that a researcher should consider when eliciting, interpreting and analysing data.

The evidence from empirical studies provided above suggests, nevertheless, that context plays a crucial role in the enactment of teacher cognitions in the classroom. Yet, one may claim that the story is half complete. The representations of the impact of contextual factors presented thus far in this section seem to be informed by the

understanding of the notion of context as 'external frames of an event or activity' (Skott, 2009, p. 30). McDermott (1996) treated context as external as well and suggested that it could be a:

> …a container into which things are placed. It is the 'con' that contains the 'text', the bowl that contains the soup. As such, it shapes only the contours of its contents; it has its effects only at the borders of the phenomenon under analysis. […] The soup does not shape the bowl, and the bowl most certainly does not alter the substance of the soup (as cited in Skott, 2009, p. 30).

In the context of education, such interpretation does not seem to do justice to the intrinsic connection of context to teachers' cognitive sense-making process. That is, using the same metaphor, if the bowl does not change the substance of the soup, the soup (i.e., practice/method) that is cooked in a particular pot (e.g. the UK) should taste the same (i.e., effect) even if it is transferred to a different pot (e.g. Kazakhstan). Some experts concerned with context-appropriate pedagogy (Bax, 2003; Canagarajah, 2005; Holliday, 1994; Kuchah, 2013) might disapprove of this conception of context.

Borg (2006), summarising the role of contextual factors on the realization of cognitions, states that 'instruction is shaped through the interaction between cognition and context; in some cases, the latter may outweigh the former (this can cause a lack of consistency among beliefs and practices), while at other times, the former prevails or the two are aligned (and teaching is thus seen to be consistent with theoretical orientations)' (p. 141). I believe that there needs to be more emphasis on the process of *interaction* between individual's cognitions and context since it may open the door for a new perspective on the impact of context that may have been hitherto overlooked.

Sanchez (2010) examines the impact of contextual factors on classroom practices from a fresh angle. According to him, the application of teacher cognition in the classroom is not mediated by contextual agents themselves (e.g. students'

expectations) but by an internally and subjectively perceived context in teachers' cognitive dimension out of such agents (i.e., the teacher's perception and understanding of students' expectations). He introduced a new construct, Teacher Constructed Context, and defined it as a context 'instantiated by the interaction between language teacher cognition and the contextual factors around and inside the classroom' (ibid., pp. 239-240). In line with this perspective, Sanchez & Borg (2014) argue that 'even teachers who work in the same institutional context may interpret and react to it in diverse ways' (p. 52). This is a very interesting take on the issue as it means that what matters most are not the social, psychological and environmental realities of the society, school and the classroom per se, but how teachers perceive them to be and respond to them.

Further support for this perspective can be provided from other studies. For example, Cincotta-Segi (2011) conducted an ethnographic study of one teacher's language practices in an ethnic minority classroom in the highly multicultural and multilingual Lao People's Democratic Republic. The government's educational legislations stipulated that Lao ought to be used as the language of teaching at all levels. The researchers report that in the context of such severe constraints the teacher, based on his understanding of the students' immediate educational needs, developed his own, complex repertoire of instructional practices in order to support the learners who were not fluent speakers of Lao. Likewise, de Jong (2008) presents evidence of how eighteen elementary bilingual teachers interpreted the English-only law passed by Massachusetts voters in 2002 and what those interpretations meant for their classroom practices. The teachers did not abandon the bilingual discourse with the students and maintained that their practices were within the confines of their interpretations of the official language policies.

It can be inferred from these examples that when studying belief-practice consistency one should consider the individual teacher's personal interpretations and understandings of the context. In other words, 'whether constraints are 'real' or

'imagined' is immaterial. What are significant are a teacher's perceptions, and uncovering these perceptions is crucial to understanding teacher behaviour' (Bullock, 2010, p. 8; quotation marks in original). Consequently, building on Sanchez's (2010) work, I treated context as being internal to teachers rather than external and investigated the impact of teacher perceived context on the degree of consistency between the participants' stated beliefs and observed classroom practices about the teaching of speaking. Such an approach enabled me to escape simplistic interpretations of contextual factors as mere exterior causes of tensions or consistencies and, instead, allowed me to examine how 'cognition, context [or rather perceptions of context] and practice are mutually informing' (Borg, 2006, p. 276).

Nonetheless, I acknowledge that TPC could be seen as teachers' *beliefs* about the context and not as their *perceptions* of the context. That is why it is important to make the distinction between these two constructs. Unlike perceptions, beliefs can be deeply held (Bandura, 1997), experientially ingrained (Breen et al., 2001) and be resistant to change (Pickering, 2007). Perceptions of the context, on the other hand, directly depend on and change with the immediate environment where the act of teaching is being performed. I resorted to these conceptualizations of beliefs and perceptions when analysing the data.

3.3.2 Core and peripheral beliefs and their impact on belief-practice relationship

The range of beliefs that teachers may hold is vast (Woolfolk-Hoy et al., 2006) and there seems to be a consensus among researchers that beliefs exist within a complex, intricate, dynamic system in which some beliefs are considered core/central and others as peripheral (Green, 1971; Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoç, 2009; Pajares, 1992).

Breen et al. (2001) argue that teachers may structure their teaching according to a 'hierarchy of principles' in which core principles are described as 'superordinate' and 'more resilient' in relation to peripheral ones which are 'entailed' or 'context-adaptable' (p. 498). Similarly, Thompson (1992) reports that beliefs have two key

attributes in that they may be held with 'various degrees of conviction' and that they are 'non-consensual (i.e. they can be disputed) (p. 27). She goes on to explain that beliefs appear to operate in relation to each other in a manner that some beliefs may be *primary* (e.g. students learn better when there is a positive, supportive atmosphere in the classroom) and others *derivative* (e.g. explicit error correction should be minimized). The latter is derivative since the teacher may base it on the former, primary belief.

These belief substructures may not necessarily be logically arranged (Richardson, 2003), with *contradictory* (Cross, 2009) and possibly *incompatible* beliefs residing in the same cluster (Bryan, 2003). Calderhead (1996) also suggests that 'larger belief systems may contain inconsistencies and may be quite idiosyncratic' (p. 719). A prospective elementary teacher in Bryan's (2003) study, for instance, held two contrasting beliefs about the optimal ways students learn science: a) 'knowledge can be transferred from the teacher to the student by lecturing, telling, and showing the student the right answer'; and b) learning happens 'through sensory experiences and active engagement in an activity' (p. 851). The study reports that these incompatible views often led to conflict in the teacher's thinking about science teaching and learning. There are other studies that report lack of coherence among competing and conflicting beliefs (Basturkmen et al., 2004; Borg, 1999; Farrell & Kun, 2007; Phipps & Borg, 2007) which, arguably, could give rise to tensions between stated beliefs and observed practices.

Phipps & Borg (2009) represent one of the few studies in the field that explored the belief-practice relationship of language teachers from the perspective of belief systems. They provide evidence of core and peripheral beliefs of grammar teachers competing with each other for enactment. The findings illustrate how particular instructional situations in the classroom create dissonance between the application of core and peripheral beliefs, which, in turn, results in tensions between what teachers say and actually do. For instance, the teacher had stated that sentence-level grammar

practice was not beneficial but still employed that strategy later in her lessons because she believed her students expected that type of grammar teaching. Another participant had expressed a belief in the value of group-work for oral practice but was not observed utilizing it because of his concern for monitoring the proceedings closely and maintaining the discipline in the classroom. The researchers thus explain that 'while teachers' practices did often not reflect their stated beliefs [peripheral beliefs] about language learning, these practices were consistent with deeper, more general beliefs about learning [core beliefs]' (ibid., p. 387). As a result, they suggest a type of tension in the form of 'I believe in X but I also believe in Y' and hypothesize that teachers' instructional practices are likely to be motivated by 'whichever of these beliefs is more strongly held' (ibid., p. 388). Therefore, it could be assumed that 'aspects of a teacher's own belief system may either facilitate or impede the enactment of beliefs into practice' (Buehl & Beck, 2015, p. 75).

Despite the body of knowledge (albeit rather limited) about belief networks discussed above, there has been little to no research in the field that investigated language teachers' cognition-practice congruence in terms of such systematic framework of beliefs. The only work that I have come across in this respect is Phipps & Borg (2009) and again it is in relation to grammar teaching and has exclusively focused on tensions, whereas I aimed to explore the instances of consistencies as well. Having identified this gap, I aimed to investigate the content and the qualitative differences between EFL teachers' core and peripheral beliefs about speaking instruction; the interaction between them; and the way this interaction impacts on the enactment of beliefs in practice.

It should be noted, however, that the core-peripheral beliefs distinction might inadvertently encourage a dichotomous way of thinking about beliefs. That is to say, such a distinction might appear to over-simplify the nature of belief systems: the same beliefs can be considered core or peripheral depending on which other beliefs they are being related to; various degrees of belief strength exist (apart from core

and peripheral) depending on factors that influence them. Therefore, I believe that it is worth mentioning that in this study the core-peripheral beliefs distinction merely performs a function of helping us think about how some beliefs can be held with more conviction than others and does not imply that beliefs can only exist at these two levels.

3.4 Teaching speaking

3.4.1 Introduction

This section discusses major concepts in relation to the teaching of speaking skills. The primary focus of the study was the exploration of EFL teachers' belief-practice consistency and the instruction of L2 speaking provided the instructional context for the examination of this phenomenon. Correspondingly, the existing literature about teaching oral skills informed the collection and the analysis of the data and contextualized the presentation and the discussion of the findings of the study.

In this section I discuss the nature of speaking (3.4.2), present relevant pedagogy and different approaches involved in the teaching of speaking and allude to various issues related to learning speaking skills (3.4.3).

3.4.2 The nature of speaking

It had been assumed for a long time that fluency in speaking developed naturally following the mastery of writing skills and becoming proficient in grammar and vocabulary (Nation & Newton, 2009; Thornbury, 2005). However, it is now generally agreed that speaking is a separate domain of language acquisition with its own distinct features (Bygate, 1987) and that the process of speech production is complex and requires certain skills and knowledge (Thornbury, 2005).

For instance, reviewing Levelt's (1989) model of speech production, Goh & Burns (2012) point out that speaking in fact 'involves underlying processes that are remarkably complex and that express both form, or structure, and meaning, or content' (p. 36). This model consists of four stages:

a) *Conceptual preparation* – selecting topics/ideas/information for the speech;

b) *Formulation* – putting topics/ideas/information into specific words and grammatical forms;

c) *Articulation* – physically producing the message for the listener;

d) *Self-monitoring* – monitoring one's own speech, identifying errors and correcting them.

These stages underpinning the production of speech interact with one another and can even occur simultaneously (Bechtel & Abrahamsen, 1991).

As for the distinction between written and spoken languages, according to Bygate (1987), two sets of conditions, *processing* and *reciprocity*, can help distinguish spoken language from written language. *Processing* relates to time pressures that accompany real-time speech production. That is, unlike writers, who 'can generally take as much time as they need to produce their text' (Luoma, 2004, p. 20), speakers are often required to operate in real time with limited room for conceptualization, formulation and articulation of speech. Hughes (2010) further highlights this peculiarity of spoken language: 'whereas a text can be edited and retracted, reread, analysed and objectified from outside, spontaneous spoken discourse unites speaker and content at the time of production' (p. 208). *Reciprocity*, on the other hand, refers to constructive interaction between speakers, whereby interlocutors can alleviate the processing demands of speech by reacting and adjusting to each other's utterances, thus building their speech together. This also reflects the socially contextualised nature of spoken discourse.

Luoma (2004) identifies further distinctive features of spoken discourse:

- the use of idea units instead of complete sentences (phrases and clauses);

- the feature of being planned (e.g., conference presentation) or unplanned (e.g., conversation);

- the use of generic vocabulary rather than specific;

- the use of fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers;
- presence of fair amount of slips and errors.

In academic settings, the above distinctive characteristics of spoken language can present certain challenges to language teachers. That is to say, keeping record of students' oral performance during second language speaking lessons can prove to be relatively more difficult than it would be for literacy lessons. That is because 'the spoken language is transient, and there is little record of it once the activities have finished' (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 31). In other words, writing classes generate abundant evidence of students' written work (drafts, reviews, proposals, etc.) that teachers can assess and provide feedback on in their own time. However, this is not normally the case for speaking classes. Particularly when students are asked to work in pairs or groups during speaking activities, individual oral performances can go unnoticed.

The discussion about the nature of speaking can be further enhanced by mentioning its functions. For instance, Brown & Yule (1983) make a distinction between *talk as interaction* and *talk as transaction*. According to them, *talk as interaction* primarily serves a social function where the interlocutors converse 'to establish a comfortable zone of interaction' (Richards, 2006, p. 2). *Talk as transaction* places emphasis on the successful communication of the message rather than the social side of the encounter. The focus is on clarity and accuracy of the utterances. Examples of such interactions could include asking someone directions or purchasing goods in the market. Richards (2006) expands on this classification of speech functions by adding another one: *talk as performance*. It refers to 'talk which transmits information before an audience such as morning talks, public announcements, and speeches' (p. 4).

3.4.3 Teaching and learning second language speaking

Instructors make use of various techniques, activities and tasks when teaching speaking skills. These approaches to speaking instruction can be categorised into

two main types: direct/controlled approaches and indirect/transfer approaches (Burns, 1998; Richards, 1990). Richards (2008) conceptualizes direct speaking activities as being focused more on 'specific features of oral interaction (e.g., turn-taking, topic management, and questioning strategies)' (p. 19). Burns (1998) describes controlled approaches as 'skill-getting', 'pedagogic', 'pre-communicative' and 'part-skill' activities where the practice of language forms (e.g., pronunciation of specific sounds or words) is emphasized through drills, pattern practice or structure manipulation (p. 2). Direct approaches also involve the use of controlled tasks such as the reproduction of scripted dialogues (Fulcher, 2003), and the memorization and recitation of texts where oral language production is not spontaneous but predetermined (Willis, 2015). This approach seeks to stimulate in learners an awareness about 'the grammar of the target language, as well as discourse structures and routines' (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 134).

An indirect approach, on the other hand, focuses on the production of speech during oral skills activities and is concerned with the development of fluency. Teachers strive to 'create conditions for oral interaction' (Richards, 2008, p. 18) through a range of real-life, communicative activities such as discussions, information-gaps, role-plays, simulations and so on in order to expose students to 'authentic and functional language use' (Burns, 1998, p. 2) in the hope that oral competence will be acquired incidentally as a by-product of engaging in these tasks (Richards & Nunan, 1990).

However, pure forms of each of the above approaches have their limitations; therefore, 'neither of them effectively supports all the processes of second language speaking development' (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 135). For instance, exclusive reliance on direct activities, where the focus is on the practice of discrete elements of oral interaction and on language forms, may inhibit the development of oral skills necessary to interact and negotiate meaning in free, face-to-face communication (Bygate, 2009). Controlled language use during communicative tasks may also lead

to limited language complexity (Goh & Burns, 2012). Likewise, indirect approaches place such a heavy emphasis on *fluency* during speaking that 'a focus on language elements and discourse structures is often neglected' (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 135). This might subsequently result in *fossilisation* of students' *interlanguage* (Selinker, 1972; Thornbury & Slade, 2006).

Some experts have proposed to integrate the features of both direct and indirect approaches. For example, Littlewood (1992) put forward an idea of combining language work with language practice: a pre-communicative task oriented towards mastery of specific language items could serve as groundwork for subsequent communicative tasks where that knowledge can be practised through free interaction. Bygate (1987) offers an alternative way of combining controlled and transfer approaches. His method seems to resemble a continuum, involving elements of both direct and indirect approaches in different degrees during instruction. That is, one activity which includes work on language accuracy, discourse and meaning negotiation skills as well as free group interaction. Furthermore, Thornbury (2005) talks about a three-stage framework designed to foster second language speaking skills. The three stages, awareness raising, appropriation and autonomy, entail the utilization of both direct and indirect communicative tasks. The awareness-raising stage involves the processes of *attention*, *noticing* and *understanding* which are all geared towards supporting learners in identifying and addressing their knowledge and skill gaps in oral competence. Through appropriation activities, according to Thornbury, students should start to move from *other-regulated* to *self-regulated* through *practised control* rather than *controlled practice*. Practised control means 'progressive control of a skill where the possibility of making mistakes is ever-present, but where support is always at hand' (ibid, p. 63). Finally, the last stage, autonomy, encourages students to self-regulate their own oral performances as a result of gaining total control over skills.

Whether the approach to the teaching of speaking is direct, indirect or indeed a combination of both, the main objective is generally to develop students' oral skills in fluency, accuracy and complexity. These three aspects have been used as parameters of learners' speaking competence assessment and indicators of their oral skills proficiency (Bygate, 1998; Ellis, 2009; Housen & Kuiken, 2009; Skehan, 1996). Some experts argue that for L2 learners producing speech in the target language that is fluent, accurate and complex is extremely challenging (Ellis, 1994; Goh & Burns, 2012). These three dimensions of oral performance put enormous pressure on limited human capacity for retrieving and processing the required linguistic knowledge during real-time communication (Skehan, 1996). Therefore, the development of one may come at the expense of the others. For instance, under time pressure during interaction in the target language, a beginner student may sacrifice accuracy in order to get the core meaning across resorting to the knowledge that is available to him/her at that point in time. Interactional short turns may be the dominant feature of such a student's oral discourse until he/she acquires more grammar and vocabulary knowledge and can automatize the processes of retrieving and processing these knowledge bases. Subsequently, the student may be able to formulate longer utterances that are more morphologically and syntactically sophisticated (Goh & Burns, 2012; Nolasco & Arthur, 1987). Overall, teaching fluency, accuracy and complexity presents another challenge to instructors when teaching L2 speaking skills. Nassaji (2000) proposes his way of approaching the issue under discussion:

> If the goal of second language learning is to develop fluency, as well as accuracy and complexity [...] and if accuracy is not achieved unless learners pay attention to form, learning may be more effective if learners focus on form while using language for communication. (Nassaji, 2000, p. 244)

One other aspect of speaking instruction is concerned with the question of when and how to perform error correction during communicative activities. Providing corrective feedback is closely related to both the approach (direct, indirect or

combined) for teaching speaking and the focus of the oral tasks (fluency, accuracy and/or complexity). Lyster & Saito (2010) outline three main categories of corrective feedback:

- *recasts* (providing accurate reformulations of target language without indicating that what the student has produced is incorrect so that students can reproduce their initial inaccurate utterances);
- *explicit correction* (openly stating that what the student has said is incorrect and providing the correct form);
- *prompts* (proving clues to students, not accurate reformulations, in order to push them to self-correct).

This corrective feedback invites students to produce *comprehensible output* (or pushed output) (Swain, 1995) through the 'process of rephrasing or reformulating one's original utterance in response to feedback' (Mackey, 1999, p. 559).

There is evidence to suggest that corrective feedback is beneficial to students' language accuracy (Mackey, 2006), although its appropriateness to activities that focus on oral fluency has been questioned (Harmer, 1991). The effectiveness of prompts as opposed to recasts has been highlighted in Yang & Lyster's (2010) work as well. Nonetheless, the role of feedback is significant in ensuring the development of oral skills (Ellis, 2009; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) since feedback stimulates negotiation of meaning between students and instructor. Negotiation of meaning, in turn, pushes students to produce spoken output, which is suggested to be 'equally if not more important than language input in facilitating learning' (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 18).

Providing constructive, corrective feedback is important in facilitating learning as long as the instructors take account of affective factors (i.e., speech anxiety, motivation and confidence to speak) when deciding on the time, type, form and the intensiveness of error correction. Gardner & MacIntyre (1993) describe L2 anxiety as

'the apprehension experienced when a situation requires the use of a second language with which the individual is not fully proficient' (p. 5); L2 anxiety can manifest in the form of nervousness, feelings of tension and worry (Arnold & Brown, 1999). Goh & Burns (2012) suggest that the feeling of language anxiety 'can have a significant influence on the effectiveness of language learning' and is mostly triggered during speaking and listening activities because students 'often have to process and produce language spontaneously without any planning or rehearsals' (p. 26). For instance, Ohata (2005) and Young (1991) report that communicative activities such as oral presentations can provoke a great deal of language anxiety among learners as they fear to lose face in front of their peers if their mistakes are corrected explicitly in front of the whole class. Language anxiety can adversely affect students' participation in in-class communicative activities and result in reticence (Tsui, 1996); instructors should therefore be sensitive not to interpret such behaviours as lack of motivation to speak or lack of sufficient knowledge or ability. The value of creating a positive learning environment, a *safe place* (Nelson (2010) for the teaching and learning of oral skills in alignment with humanistic psychology in language teaching (Stevick, 1990), is then of paramount importance for language teachers.

3.5 Literature review summary

In this literature review I have established that, notwithstanding its importance in the teaching of English as a second/foreign language, there is a dearth of research on language teachers' beliefs and practices specifically in relation to the teaching of speaking. In section 3.4 I have presented the discussion of issues in the instruction of L2 speaking which subsequently a) informs the data collection and the data analysis processes, and b) contextualizes the presentation and the discussion of the findings of the study. In addition, in this chapter I have argued that, although there is substantial empirical evidence of the impact of contextual factors on belief enactment, there remains very limited research on the manner teachers' perceptions

of the contextual factors mediate the realisation of beliefs. Furthermore, as discussed in 3.3.2, the substance and the interaction of belief sub-systems and their impact on classroom practices have not been awarded much attention in the field either.

Taking account of all these research gaps, this study then explored a) the individual impact of teacher perceived context and core-peripheral belief relationship on the consistency level (CL) between teachers' espoused beliefs and observed practices in relation to speaking instruction; and b) the interaction between these two constructs and their collective impact on the phenomenon. Correspondingly, three sub-questions, in addition to the two principal research questions introduced above (see 1.3), emerge from the review of the literature. The complete list of research questions that guided this study are displayed below.

1. To what extent do the teachers' stated beliefs about teaching speaking correspond to their actual classroom practices?

2. What factors impact on the consistency level between teachers' stated beliefs and actual classroom practices in relation to the teaching of oral English?

    2.1 - How do teachers' perceptions of the context impact on the consistency level?

    2.2 - What constitutes language teachers' core and peripheral beliefs about teaching speaking and learning in general and how do they impact on the consistency level?

    2.3 - How do all these factors interact and impact on the consistency level?

It should be stated, however, that the collection and the analysis of the data were not predefined by and limited to the above two categories only (TPC and CPBR). The literature suggests that teachers' *capability* and *self-efficacy beliefs* (Nishino, 2012; Ogan-Bekiroglu & Akkoç, 2009; Tang et al., 2012), *experience level* (Basturkmen, 2012; Ertmer et al., 2012; Feryok, 2005; Mitchell, 2005; Roehrig et al, 2009) and their

pedagogical or content knowledge (Jorgensen et al., 2010; Kang, 2008; Teague et al., 2012) may impede or stimulate the extent to which teachers' stated beliefs are observed in practice. Accordingly, the data were analysed inductively so as to allow for other categories of factors influencing CL to come into consideration.

Chapter Four: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter I outlined the specific issues in relation to belief enactment which this study aimed to investigate, and presented the research questions (see 3.5). In this chapter then I aim to achieve the following targets: a) define the paradigmatic orientations in relation to the nature of knowledge and the process of knowledge production with which the proposed research is engaged; b) introduce the context and the participants where the study was conducted; and c) describe the research design that was employed to seek and analyse information to answer the research questions.

4.2 Research type and associated philosophical positions

4.2.1 Type: Qualitative research

In this study I set out to explore the participants' inner lives: their perceptions of the context; their networks of belief sub-structures; and how both of these components interact and impact on their belief-practice consistencies. Therefore, the adoption of a qualitative approach to research was deemed appropriate for this aim because 'qualitative research allows researchers to get at the inner experience of participants, to determine how meanings are formed through and in culture, and to discover rather than test variables' (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 12).

The all-embracing, constantly changing and developing nature of qualitative research lends itself to multiple interpretations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Of the many definitions that have been advanced for it I chose to adopt Creswell's (2013) characterization of qualitative research:

> Qualitative research begins with assumptions and the use of interpretive/theoretical frameworks that inform the study of research problems addressing the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. To study this problem, qualitative researchers use an emerging qualitative approach to inquiry, the collection of data in a natural setting sensitive to the

people and places under study, and data analysis that is both inductive and deductive and establishes patterns or themes. The final written report or presentation includes the voices of participants, the reflexivity of the researcher, a complex description and interpretation of the problem, and its contribution to the literature or a call for change (p. 44).

Unlike some other definitions (see Denzin & Lincoln, 2011), the above description of qualitative research accentuates the research process as moving from broader philosophical underpinnings to specific procedures such as the selection of the corresponding research tradition, the identification of research setting and participants, the design and execution of data collection and data analysis methods, and the presentation of findings.

Qualitative research appears suitable for gaining a profound understanding of the *messy* construct (Fives & Buehl, 2012; M. Pajares, 1992) that is teacher beliefs and their relation to teachers' classroom behaviour. Fang (1996) also point out that qualitative research has led to 'improved understanding of the complex and interrelated processes of personal experiences, beliefs, and practices' (p. 60). One of the reasons for this could be that qualitative research allows the study of the phenomenon through direct interaction with the research participants in their natural settings, i.e., by visiting their work place and 'allowing them to tell the stories unencumbered by what we expect to find or what we have read in the literature' (Creswell, 2013, p. 48).

The type of research questions that I addressed in the current study required the adoption of a qualitative approach as well. For instance, the first research question (To what extent do the teachers' stated beliefs about teaching oral English correspond to their actual classroom practices?) means that I investigated the variations in the degrees of belief-practice congruence within and across the participants. To some readers the phrase *to what extent* in the question might imply a process of measurement that is usually associated with a quantitative approach to

research. However, I would like to assert that the aim of my research project was not to *measure* but rather to *explore* and *examine*. This is consistent with the qualitative nature of the study in that this type of research is conducted when the phenomenon 'needs to be explored' (Creswell, 2013, p. 47). All of the research questions were answered on the basis of 'descriptive data that does not make use of statistical procedures' (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 162).

4.2.2 Interpretive framework

Before I provide an extensive description of the research design, it is important to make explicit the interpretative framework of the study and its embedded philosophical assumptions in connection with the nature of reality (ontology), knowledge production (epistemology), value-ladenness of the produced knowledge (axiology) and the implicated specific research procedures (methodology) (see Table 2).

The worldview that I abide by is *social constructivism* (Creswell, 2013) which is also referred to as *interpretive paradigm* (Cohen et al., 2011) or *interpretivism* (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Mertens, 2014). Social constructivism suggests that 'knowledge and truth are created rather than discovered and that reality is pluralistic' (Richards, 2003, p. 39). In this interpretive framework the focus is on exploring the complex, multiple subjective understandings or meanings that the participants of the study assign to their experiences of the world. These meanings often develop through negotiations with other members of the society and might be accessible to the researcher through direct interaction. Therefore, the researcher's objective is 'to get inside the person and to understand from within' (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 17) by relying 'on the participants' views of the situation' (Creswell, 2013, p. 25). These views are further analysed by the researcher inductively and the theory arises from the interpretations of the findings (Glaser & Strauss, 2009).

A. Ontological position

In terms of my ontological position, I adhere to 'relativism – local and specific co-constructed realities' (Lincoln, Lynham, & Guba, 2011, p. 100). This stance dismisses the idea of an external, objective single reality existing independently from our subjective conceptualizations of it (Richards, 2003). Thus, multiple realities exist. Consequently, I acknowledge that the information I obtained from my participants was socially constructed. The social reality then, in this study, was accessible through my subjective interpretations of the participants' personal understandings of their beliefs and practices about teaching speaking and their perceptions of the context.

B. Epistemological position

Epistemology is the question of 'how can we know about reality and what is the basis of our knowledge?' (Snape & Spencer, 2003, p. 13). The study was grounded on a *subjectivist* epistemological stance which recognizes 'multiple, holistic, competing, and often conflictual realities of multiple stakeholders and research participants' (Lincoln, 1990, p. 73). The emergent knowledge in the study, consequently, was co-constructed on the basis of intersubjective interactions between the teachers and me.

C. Axiological position

As a researcher, I attempted to report 'subjective meanings' (Pring, 2002, p. 98) in this thesis to the best of my understanding of them; however, I realize that inevitably 'all researchers bring values to a study' (Creswell, 2013, p. 20). In particular, I acknowledge that my own past experience as an instructor of speaking courses in Kazakhstan, and my close familiarity with one of the participants (Peter) were factors that could color the analysis of the data. In addition, the findings of the study went through a *double hermeneutic* process (Giddens, 1984) of analysis in that I, as a researcher, subjectively interpreted (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) the participants' subjective interpretations of the phenomenon. Accordingly, these findings are far from being value-free representations of a social reality. With this in mind, I

implemented a research diary in order to facilitate reflexive analysis (Nadin & Cassell, 2006) of potential personal biases and the influence of individual values towards the participants and the data collection procedures since it is suggested that 'through authentic reflection, we might become aware of many of our assumptions' (Byrne, 2001, p. 830).

D. *Methodological position*

As discussed above, social constructivism places importance on the personal, subjective, relativistic conceptualisation of the social world as opposed to an external, absolute reality; as such, this regard of the particular requires an 'explanation and understanding of the unique and the particular individual case rather than the general and the universal' (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 6). In methodological terms, this motivated my decision to embrace *case study* as the research approach (4.3). Furthermore, examination of the phenomenon was built on the participants' subjective points of view of it, which entails the adoption of *emic perspective* (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993).

As an interpretivist, I relied on multiple naturalistic methods of data collection (4.5.1) such as interviews and classroom observations (Angen, 2000). I approached the analysis of the data inductively without imposing pre-set categories of themes. In short, three categories of data (stated beliefs, observed practices and provided rationale) were compiled for each participant. These were further scanned to generate specific sub-categories and themes. The data then were cross-examined in order to identify tensions, consistencies and the reasons behind them (4.6).

Table 2: Interpretive framework adopted for the study

Interpretive Framework	Ontological Beliefs	Epistemological Beliefs	Axiological Beliefs	Methodological Beliefs
Social Constructivism	Multiple realities are constructed through our lived experiences and interactions with others.	Reality is co-constructed between the researcher and the researched and shaped by individual experiences.	Individual values are honoured, and are negotiated among individuals.	More of a literary style of writing used. Use of an inductive method of emergent ideas (through consensus) obtained through methods such as interviewing, observing, and analysis of texts.

Source: Reproduced from Table 2.3 in Creswell (2013, p. 36)

4.3 Research approach: Case study

4.3.1 Definition and rationale

Case study has been used across different disciplines for a variety of purposes; as a result, a wide range of definitions of case study exist, making it one of the most ambiguous terms in the domain of research. For instance, Merriam (1988) referred to case study as a method suggesting that it 'offers a means of investigating complex social units consisting of multiple variables of potential importance in understanding the phenomenon' (p. 41). Alternatively, Gerring (2004) conceptualised case study as a research design and defined it 'as an intensive study of a single unit (a relatively bounded phenomenon) where the scholar's aim is to elucidate features of a larger class of similar phenomena' (p. 341). On the other hand, Stake (2008, 2013) views case study as a choice of a specific object of the investigation (bounded system(s)) rather than a choice of methodology or research design.

Van Wynsberghe & Khan (2007), however, propose a definition that does not confine case study to any one description provided above. They state that case study cannot be a method ('because case study researchers cannot actually collect data prescriptively using case study') (p. 82); a research design (because it does not provide researchers with a concrete action plan of conducting a research); a methodology (since case study 'does not appear to provide a theory or analysis of how research should proceed') (p. 83); nor should it be imputed to a particular

research orientation because case study can be compatible with many paradigms (i.e., interpretivism, critical theory, positivism). Instead, they put forward a definition that captures various attributes of case study referred to in other definitions: 'case study is a transparadigmatic and transdisciplinary heuristic that involves the careful delineation of the phenomena for which evidence is being collected' (p. 80).

It could be that all these different definitions come from diverse research agendas and from the ways researchers employed and benefited from the case study research tradition in their respective studies.

The definition of case study I chose to adopt for my study is a more operational definition which emphasizes precisely the methodological attributes of case study research and views it as an approach to the investigation of a phenomenon: 'case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a real-life, contemporary bounded system (a *case*) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving **multiple sources of information** (e.g., observations, interviews, audio-visual material, and documents and reports), and reports a *case description* and *case themes*' (Creswell, 2007, p. 97; boldface and italics in original).

Olafson et al. (2015), with an aim to identify 'exemplary qualitative studies of teachers' beliefs' (p. 128), reviewed 112 studies that employed different qualitative approaches to examine teachers' beliefs and practices (which is also the focus of the current study). The researchers concluded that 'case study methodology is well-suited to the study of teachers' beliefs and practices as they occur in the natural setting of the classroom' (p. 134). I chose to employ case study research in the present study for the following reasons. I intended to understand a particular phenomenon *in depth* (belief-practice consistency level) within its *natural environment of manifestation* (EFL classrooms in state secondary schools) without any *intervention*

in or *manipulation* of *relevant behaviour* on my part. To this end, *specific units of analysis* (four non-native speaking EFL teachers with various levels of experience) were adopted and analysed. One of the other reasons for using case study is that it permits the implementation of *multiple sources of data* (Yin, 2009), which in my study consisted of semi-structured interviews with the persons involved in the events, direct observations of the events and stimulated-recall interviews. Such multi-method approach allowed me to first build profiles of teachers' stated beliefs, compare them to observed practices (thus identify tensions and consistencies), and then explore the underlying reasons behind the different variations in the degree of consistency.

4.3.2 Type of case study

Creswell (2013) explains that the type of qualitative case study is determined by the *number* of cases involved in the study and the *intent* of the case analysis. As this study contains four cases, it falls into the category of *multiple-case design*. Although four is not a big number, it offered an 'opportunity to deeply probe the research questions being studied' (Scharlach, 2008, p. 208), and thus generated rich data. The main rationale behind adopting multiple-case design in my project was that the emergent insights from several cases are usually viewed as compelling, and the whole project, therefore, is regarded as strong (Herriott & Firestone, 1983). The selection of multiple cases for investigation, in turn, enabled the use of cross-case analysis technique, which is another powerful characteristic of case study research (Yin, 2009). This analysis strategy allowed me to identify patterns across cases and see if the emergent findings were unique to a particular case or shared among several cases.

The present study followed an *embedded multiple-case design* model, as proposed by Yin (2009). The study involved the investigation of *four cases* or *primary units of analysis* (four non-native speaking EFL teachers with various levels of experience) working in the same state secondary school in Kazakhstan. The principal focus of the

study, however, was on three *embedded units of analysis* within each case: teacher perceived context (TPC); core-peripheral belief relationship (CPBR); and teachers' belief-practice consistency level (CL) and are referred to as *phenomena*. The four EFL teachers and the phenomena were investigated in their particular *micro context*: oral instruction practices taking place in their respective EFL classes, which were, in turn, situated within a *meso context*: EFL education environment at the particular school under study, and a *macro context:* state secondary school EFL Education policy in Kazakhstan. The design of the case study is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: Embedded multiple-case design followed by the study
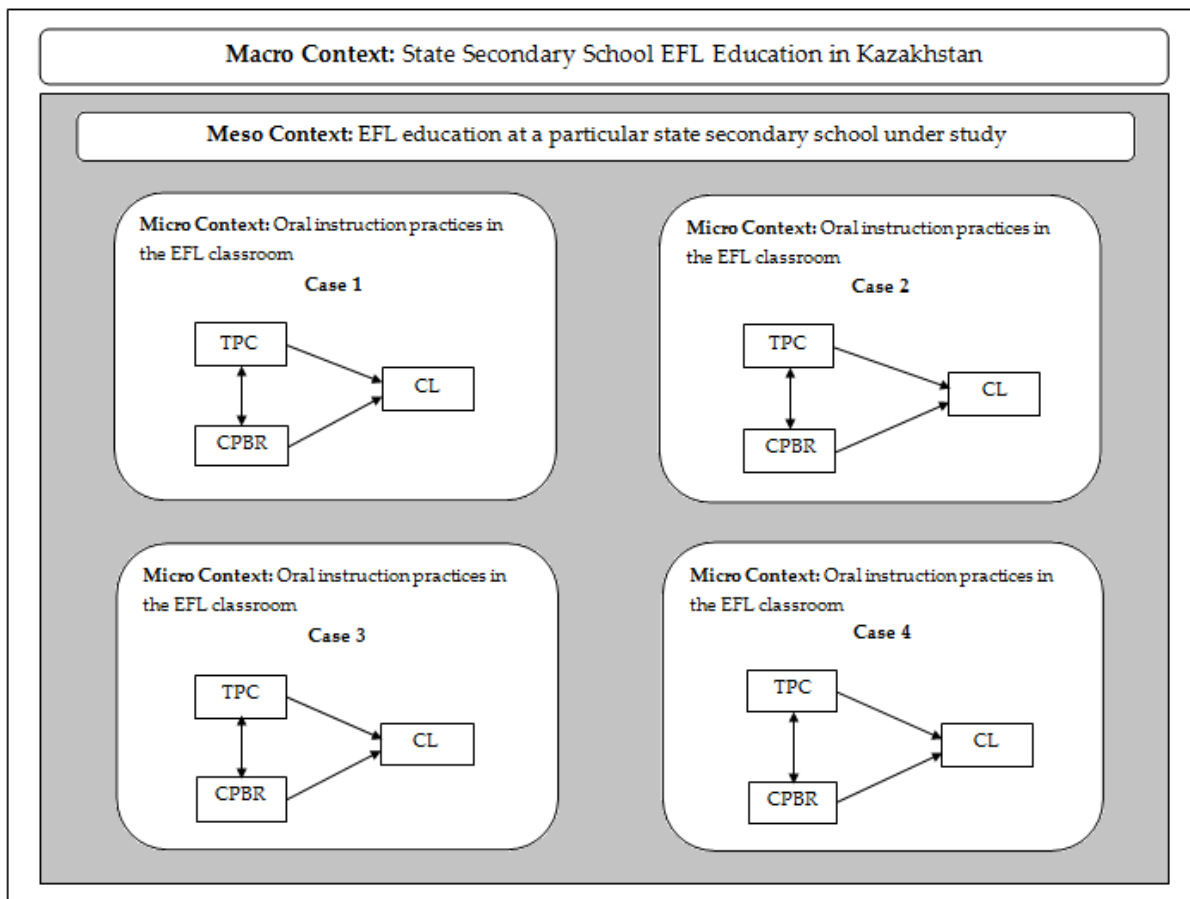
Three further types of case studies exist with reference to the intent of the case analysis: *intrinsic,* when the researcher's interest lies exclusively in understanding the case in hand (i.e., the primary unit of analysis); *instrumental,* when the researcher examines a case (e.g., a particular EFL teacher in Kazakhstan) and uses it as an

instrument to further explore a particular phenomenon (belief-practice relationship) which is related to the case; and collective, which is basically an instrumental case that is conducted with several cases (Stake, 2008). Subsequently, this research project could be characterized as *collective case study* given that the EFL teachers were not the primary foci of the study but were rather recruited to help explore the phenomena.

4.4 Research site and the participants

4.4.1 The site

As part of the confidentiality agreement between the researcher (me) and the researched (the four participants at the state school), the real names of the institution - where the research was conducted - and the teachers will not be referenced throughout the study. Instead, the institution shall be referred to as *the school*. With regard to the participants, their pseudonyms are revealed in 4.4.3.

I chose to base my research in an institution that belongs to the public (state) sector of secondary education segment in Kazakhstan for several reasons:

- This sector constitutes approximately 95,5% of the total number of secondary education organisations in the country (see Table 3); for that reason, the EFL education there is more representative of the whole segment than the one in the private sector.
- The public sector caters for 97% of the whole student population, which means state educational standards - EFL curriculum in particular - exert their full impact on student learning (and on ELT teaching as well).
- Public schools are under-researched in Kazakhstan.

Table 3: Types of secondary schools and students enrolled in them, 2010 and 2011

General secondary education organisations	2010		2011	
	Number of schools	Number of students	Number of schools	Number of students
Day-time secondary education organisations	7 516	2 486 449	7 465	2 479 044
Ungraded schools	4 225	397 538	4 221	396 840
Private schools	115	17 346	112	17 604
Evening schools	78	20 644	84	14 656
Schools for children with special needs or disabilities	101	15 854	102	15 639
Schools with in-depth study of core subjects (specialisation schools)	1 897	697 846	2 008	773 134
– gymnasiums	129	92 704	147	108 010
– lyceums	66	34 433	76	36 778
Kazakh-language schools	3 821	1 057 087	3 830	1 070 090
Mixed schools with Kazakh language of instruction	2 089	508 843	2 087	512 150
Russian-language schools	1 524	373 441	1 460	348 686
Mixed schools with Russian language of instruction	2 027	449 902	2 039	451 789

Source: Reproduced from Table 1.3 in OECD (2014) – Reviews of National Policies for Education: Secondary Education in Kazakhstan.

In my case the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan (MoES) was the gatekeeper of the research sites (an organization that controls the researcher's access to whom he/she wants to target) (Cohen et al., 2011). As I was funded by the Centre for International Programs (CIP), which operates under the auspices of the ministry, the easiest way to gain access to schools would be by seeking official authorization from the MoES. However, I decided to pursue a bottom-up tactic of contacting schools directly as an independent researcher to ensure that the school administration and the participants did not see me as an *evaluator* or *inspector* sent from above. This was important in building mutual trust with the school and the participants.

However, this strategy did not come without price. Before the administration of the school agreed to grant me permission to talk to its EFL teachers about participating in this research project, I had visited and unsuccessfully negotiated with 11 other public schools in two different cities: Shymkent and Almaty. Of those 11 schools, two allowed me to talk directly to the EFL teachers; however, since the number of teachers who volunteered to participate in the project did not exceed two, I had no

choice but to move on to the next school on the list. One of the senior staff members at *the school* had recently completed a post-graduate research programme in the United Kingdom (UK), thus sympathized with the difficulties of gaining access to research sites that I was experiencing. Nevertheless, I insisted that the school administration should not obligate or even encourage the teachers to participate in the study because I wanted to involve only those practitioners who voluntarily agreed to take part in the project. Fortunately, four of the five EFL teachers in the school agreed to participate in the study.

It was a publically funded, urban, gender-segregated boarding school for *gifted* boys (with a capacity of 250 students) that operated under the auspices of the MoES. Children enter this school on the basis of a competitive entrance examination which takes place annually. Only students who have completed grade 6 of lower secondary education in other schools are allowed to make applications to sit this exam. The school provides five years of state secondary education: three years of lower secondary (grades 7-9) and two years of general upper secondary education (grades 10-11). The school curriculum meets the minimum requirements of the state educational standards; however, it is further enhanced with the provision of more in-depth study of Natural Science subjects and Mathematics. One of the most distinctive features of the school curricula is that it provides education in three languages: Kazakh, Russian and English. Subjects such as Physics, Mathematics, Algebra, Geometry, Biology, Chemistry and Computer Science are taught in English. History of Kazakhstan, Kazakh language, Kazakh Literature, World History, Geography, and Basic Military Training are delivered through Kazakh. Russian language and Russian Literature are conducted in Russian.

Since most of the subjects are delivered through the medium of English, the school places crucial importance on developing English language proficiency from grade 7. The ELT curricula of the school foresee that more hours of English lessons are offered to students on top of the minimum hours decreed by the MoES. For instance,

grade 7 students receive eight hours of English per week, which is six hours more than the minimum amount (two hours) required by the state standards. Students start with A1 (Beginner) level in grade 7 and, within five years, they are expected to reach C1 (Advanced) level by the end of grade 11. That is a considerable difference from many comprehensive secondary schools or ungraded secondary schools given that the latter are allowed 11 years to get students from A1 to B1 (MoES, 2015) (see 2.3).

I was introduced to the whole staff of teachers at the beginning of the project and was provided access to the school library and the teachers' room. Overall, both the administration of the school and the participants were supportive of my study throughout the research.

4.4.2 Sample

In this section I attempt to explain the rationale behind the choice of participants for my study. The decisions concerning the sample depended on factors such as the type of inquiry (qualitative), the aims and objectives of the research, research questions, methodology (including research approach: case study), context of the study as well as other factors such as expense, time and accessibility. The details of the sample are described below:

- Type – Purposive sampling was chosen for the current research, which is a type of non-probability sample, because the research targeted a particular group (four EFL teachers) of the whole population for precise reasons (explained below) and did not intend to generalize its findings beyond the sample itself (Cohen et al., 2011).

- Size – The number of participants in the study was four. Although there are no clear rules on the size of the sample for a qualitative research, I believe that the selection of four cases 'is not too large that it is difficult to extract thick, rich

data', and at the same time 'not too small that it is difficult to achieve data saturation' (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p. 242).

- Participants – The particular features that each primary unit of analysis needed to have were: qualification in ELT (BA or more), employment in a state secondary school in Kazakhstan as an EFL teacher for the duration of their participation in this study, and engagement in EFL professional development courses. I aimed to recruit participants with different levels of experience: a novice (0-3 years), experienced teacher (4-6 years) and a highly-experienced teacher (7+ years) (based on Tsui's (2003) classification). The rationale behind this was my desire to explore the impact of teacher experience level on the level of consistency. However, this factor was dropped. As the study progressed, I became more interested in exploring TPC and CPBR and decided to focus on these two.

4.4.3 Participants

After the school administration granted me permission to access the research site, I arranged face-to-face meetings with the EFL teachers. During these meetings, I explained the aims of the research and presented the teachers with consent forms in three different languages (Appendices 1, 2 and 3). These forms contained information about the broad focus of the study (understanding and describing the nature of EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching speaking skills), the data collection methods and procedures, the voluntary nature of the participation and the issues related to anonymity and confidentiality. However, in order to avoid the contamination of data, the teachers were not told that one of the aims of the study was to compare their stated beliefs about teaching speaking to their observed practices. Three of the teachers signed the form during the meetings and one of them took the form away to reflect on it. Eventually, the fourth teacher signed the form as well. Each participant signed two copies of the consent form; one was returned to me and the other one was kept by them for their own records.

Following hard and long negotiations with 12 schools and 21 EFL teachers in two different cities, I finally had four research participants. Although I had planned to recruit six participants in two different schools (purposive sample), in the end, considering a) the difficulties with gaining access to schools and recruiting participants; and b) the time constraints for fieldwork, I was happy to work with four in one school (convenience sample) (Punch & Oancea, 2014). The participants will be introduced in Chapter Five; here, I will provide brief introductory information about each of them.

- *Peter* had been involved in teaching English in state schools for seven years; thus, he was one of the two highly experienced participants in the study. He held a BA Diploma (Bachelor of Arts) in TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) from a local university in Kazakhstan. He was the head EFL teacher (responsible for EFL education at the school, the management of EFL teachers and the coordination of EFL lessons) and also performed the duties of an assistant principal at the school. He was committed to the profession and regularly attended different conferences, seminars, workshops in relation to TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) to support his professional development. For the 2013/14 academic year, Peter was assigned to teach 24 hours of English per week, which involved three 11th grade (11A/B/C, 3 h/w each), three 10th grade (10A/B/C, 3 h/w each), and one 8th grade (8B, 6 h/w) classes. Peter's beliefs and practices about speaking instruction are discussed in section 5.2.

- *David* was the only novice EFL teacher that participated in the research project. Although he had worked as an English language tutor at private language courses after obtaining his BA Diploma in TESOL from a local university, it was his first full academic year as an EFL teacher at a state secondary school. David was involved in teaching two 7th grade (7A/D, 8 h/w each) and one 8th grade (8D, 6 h/w) classes, which equaled to 22 hours per week in total. These

were lower level groups of students: elementary and pre-intermediate respectively. The instances of consistency and tension in David's belief enactment are presented in section 5.3.

- Adam was an experienced EFL teacher with five years of experience in TEFL at the time of his participation in the project. Adam received his BA Diploma in TESOL in 2009 from a Kazakhstani university. He claimed that he was committed to pursuing a career in ELT and regularly participated in teacher training programs. His teaching load added up to 25 hours a week with two 7th grade (7A/D, 8h/w each), one 8th grade (8C, 6h/w) and one 9th grade (9A, 3h/w) classes. Further information about Adam's belief-practice consistency and his speaking teaching practices is provided in section 5.4.

- *Mary* was the most experienced language instructor among the four participants involved in the study with eight years of experience at state secondary schools. She also had a BA Diploma in TESOL. Although she started studying English only as an undergraduate student at a local university in Kazakhstan, she began her teaching career relatively early when she was still a senior student. During the course of her career she worked at three different state schools. At the time of her participation in the research she was involved in teaching English to two 7th grade (7B, 7C), one 8th grade (8A) and one 9th grade (9C) classes which amounted to 26 hours per week. Mary's approach to teaching speaking and the degree of consistency in her belief-practice relationship are discussed in section 5.5.

All four participants were non-native speaking EFL teachers. The constructs such as *native* and *non-native* in relation to language teachers are a matter of dispute in academia (Holliday, 2006; Jenkins, 1996); that is why, I would like to state that I use the term *non-native* to convey the meaning that English was not participants' first language or mother tongue. All of the participants were bilingual, in that they used Kazakh and Russian interchangeably as their first language, and started learning

English as a foreign language either at secondary school (Peter, David and Adam) or at university (Mary). Table 4 below contains background information about the four participants.

Table 4: Summary of participant information

Pseudonyms	Citizenship	Qualifications	EFL teaching experience at Kazakhstani state schools
Peter	Kazakhstan	BA in TESOL	7 years
David	Kazakhstan	BA in TESOL	0,6 years
Adam	Kazakhstan	BA in TESOL	5 years
Mary	Kazakhstan	BA in TESOL	8 years

4.5 Data collection

4.5.1 A multi-method approach

The focus of this study was to explore tensions and consistencies in participants' stated beliefs and observed practices. It is argued that 'the utilization of dual measurements [data collection methods], which assesses cognitive processes concurrent with behavioural observations, provide the advantage of convergent validity evidence and the potential for more accurate measurement [exploration] of implicit beliefs' (Hoffman & Seidel, 2015, p. 121). To this end, a multi-method approach to data collection was deemed suitable. The data presented in this study comprise both *naturally occurring data* (non-participant observations) and *generated data* (pre- and post-observation interviews) (Ritchie, 2003). Overall, two methods of data collection were employed: interviews and observations, with interviews comprising four different types (i.e. background interviews, scenario-based interviews, stimulated-recall interviews and final interviews).

The combination of *background interviews* and *scenario-based interviews* was utilized before classroom observations to elicit teachers' *stated beliefs* about English language teaching and teaching speaking in particular. These espoused beliefs were referenced to participants' actual classroom practices during *classroom observations* in

order to identify matches and mismatches between them. Stimulated-recall interviews were then conducted following the observations, which enabled me to explore these *tensions* and *consistencies* further for the purposes of shedding light on the factors facilitating or hindering them. Accordingly, methodological triangulation was facilitated (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). As a concluding data generation point, final interviews with the teachers were conducted to wrap up the data collection procedure and to retrospectively explore issues that might have been overlooked in all the preceding interviews.

It can be inferred from the above that I heavily relied on interview data as the source of information with four different types of interviews conducted on either side of classroom observations. This is in line with my working definition of teacher beliefs as *propositions* and *statements* (see 3.2.1). This does not mean that I am not aware of the *tacit nature* of beliefs (Calderhead, 1996); it merely shows that I have chosen to study beliefs through the medium of verbal commentaries that are 'in close proximity to [observed] instruction' (Skott, 2015, p. 21). As discussed in 3.2.1, determining what counts as evidence of teacher beliefs is a strenuous endeavour and I acknowledge that 'no one approach to studying teacher cognition will be free of problems' (Borg, 2006, p. 279). However, I believe that combining interviews with direct observations, thus eliciting information about beliefs, practices and underpinning reasons for specific classroom behaviour (including TPC and CPBR) with reference to actual practices, if not resolved, then alleviated the challenges of identifying and studying teachers' beliefs and practices. In addition, the choices in relation to research design were 'made not just on methodological grounds but also with an awareness of what is practically feasible [interviews over reflective writing], acceptable [non-participant observations over participant observations] and permissible [audio recording lessons over video recording lessons] in the particular context under study' (Borg, 2006, p. 280). The data collection methods will be further discussed below in more detail.

4.5.2 Interviews

A. *Background interviews* were the first interviews conducted with the participants. The purpose of these interviews were to a) break the ice between the researcher and the researched; b) build comprehensive profiles of teachers' educational and professional background, of their broad beliefs about L2 teaching and teaching speaking in particular, of the environment they work in (e.g., EFL policy of the school; language syllabus; resources available; stakeholders such as school principals and parents), and of their experiences as language learners and language teachers. Although the interviews were based around the aforementioned topics, the interviewees were allowed freedom in directing the course of the conversation to let any other relevant topics to emerge. The idea here was to avoid imposing forced-choice responses by allowing 'prominence to be given to the voice of teachers rather than that of researchers' (Mangubhai et al., 2004, p. 4).

Research objectives were only revealed partially. Particularly, until after the data collection was completed, I was careful to refrain from mentioning that the focus of the investigation was on examining the consistency between stated beliefs and practices. This was done in order not to affect teachers' responses to the interview questions or influence the way they behaved in their respective classrooms.

The teachers were given freedom of choice when it comes to the language of the interviews. The participants thus mainly resorted to Kazakh and Russian languages when responding to interview questions with English being used only on rare occasions when particular terms associated with language teaching were mentioned. Given my familiarity with that specific context, I assumed that the teachers would not be able to express themselves in fluent English or would not feel comfortable in doing so as they would see the researcher as an *examiner* or *evaluator*. Thus, it was important that their choice of the interview language was respected. This was very important in building good rapport with the teachers and in enabling me to access the data I wanted. Last but not least, the use of any relevant technical terminology

was avoided as well unless the interviewees brought them up themselves. This is because teachers' theoretical knowledge on the subject may have been limited and constant articulation of different terms on the researcher's part may have resulted in misunderstandings between the interviewer and the interviewee, and in the interviewee feeling inferior to the interviewer. The background interview schedule is provided in Appendix 4.

B. *Scenario-based interviews* were conducted following the background interviews before observations at the teachers' convenience. They were used to elicit teachers' stated beliefs, specifically about oral instruction with reference to the context in which they worked. Mental constructs such as beliefs can be too abstract for teachers to discuss in detail. It has also been suggested that asking teachers about their beliefs directly might not be fruitful as teachers may not be aware of their own beliefs or may lack the language to express them. Kagan (1992) reports that:

> …teachers are often unaware of their own beliefs, they do not always possess language with which to describe and label their beliefs, and they may be reluctant to espouse them publicly. Thus a direct question such as 'What is your philosophy of teaching?' is usually an ineffective or counterproductive way to elicit beliefs (p. 66).

To ease the elicitation procedure, teachers were presented with a series of scenarios that described instructional situations in the classroom and were asked to comment on them. Teachers were invited to comment on what they felt they should do in these situations, because the aim was to find out what they considered as 'desirable behaviour' (Basturkmen et al., 2004). Teachers were also asked to make links (where possible) between the scenarios and their past experiences as language learners and language teachers. All the teachers were shown the same scenarios, which allowed me to compare their stated beliefs on the same situations. The scenarios derived from my personal experience of observing EFL classrooms in Kazakhstani state schools. However, it has to be noted that adjustments were made to the scenarios

following the pilot study that I conducted prior to the actual data collection and after the first interview sessions with the teachers. The scenarios used during these interviews are presented in Appendix 5.

C. Stimulated-recall interviews were deployed after the instances of tensions and consistencies had been identified following the classroom observations. These interviews revealed the reasons behind tensions and consistencies between teachers' stated beliefs and practices. This data collection instrument was implemented to give teachers opportunities to verbalize their thoughts about their decision making in relation to specific instructional episodes during the lesson.

Although using *videotapes* of previously exhibited instructional practices to retrospectively elicit participants' commentaries is a common procedure involved in this type of interview (Borg, 2006; Calderhead, 1981), in this study, audio recordings of the lessons were used instead as stimuli for the recall. I acknowledge that videotapes of the classes may have better aided the participants' recall of their instructional practices as they involve both vision and sound; however, I still decided not to video record the lessons. This is because video recording of the lessons is considered to be 'the most intrusive of recording devices and one therefore that may generate most reactivity amongst the individuals under observation' (Borg, 2006, p. 239). Therefore, I was worried that the presence of a video camera would jeopardise my plan to record naturally occurring EFL classes.

The audio stimuli served 'as the basis of concrete discussions of what the teachers were doing, their interpretations of the events represented in the stimuli and of their reasons for the instructional decisions they were taking' (Borg, 2006, p. 219). I selected concrete extracts from the audio-recorded lessons related to oral instruction and presented these to the participants as the specific points to talk about what they thought was happening there, whether the instructional approach under discussion was their preferred one and what were their rationales for implementing those

instructional practices. An alternative approach to this could be to play the complete tape and to give the respondents greater role in determining which instructional episodes to discuss (Clark & Peterson, 1986). However, this strategy would require more of the participants' time. One lesson lasts 50 minutes and I would often observe at least two classes of one participant on the same day. This means that I would have to replay 100-minute long audiotape to a teacher who has an already heavily congested schedule. Consequently, in order to be considerate of the participants' tight schedules and to prevent potential participant exhaustion I decided to play specific extracts from the audio recordings that related to the teaching of speaking, and elicited open-ended commentary from the teachers.

However, it is important to note that this data collection instrument has been the focus of methodological debate. That is to say the respondents may simply be providing 'post-hoc rationalizations – i.e. explanations made up at the time of the interview rather than accounts of the thinking underpinning the events they are asked to reflect on' (Borg, 2006, p. 211). Although it seemed impossible to determine for sure whether teachers were providing post-hoc rationalizations or not, I attempted to minimize the possibility of it happening with careful attention to certain issues such as:

- *Establishing good rapport* – I presented myself as an independent researcher with no official affiliations with MoES or the school administration. This was vital in ensuring that I was not seen as an evaluator or inspector by the participants. Furthermore, I recruited only those participants who volunteered themselves following our face-to-face meetings and signed consent forms that warranted anonymity and confidentiality. These were the main measures taken towards building mutual trust.

- *Participants' familiarity with the technique* – Prior to conducting stimulated-recall interviews, the aims of the technique, the mechanism of the whole procedure

and participants' roles were explained in detail. This was necessary to avoid any misunderstanding, confusion or anxiety on the teachers' part.

- *Quality of the stimuli* – The stimuli were based on the audio recordings of the lessons. However, relevant information documented on field notes added more details to the stimuli and increased their quality. It was important to build the context around the isolated stimuli so that teachers could revive the proceedings under discussion.

- *Focusing on decision-making rather than on interactive thinking during the lesson* – I used stimulated-recall interviews to explore teachers' 'thinking *on*' observed practices and not their 'thinking *in* (classroom) practice' (Skott, 2015, p. 21). The participants were not asked about their thinking during those recalled practices, but were invited to describe the proceedings and tell if those activities were their desired ones.

Furthermore, Gass & Mackey (2000) argue that minimizing the time between the specific instructional episodes under analysis and the stimulated-recall interview should result in more valid data. While it would be ideal for researchers to conduct stimulated-recall interviews immediately after the subsequent lesson has been completed, it may not always be possible in real life. Firstly, participant teachers had congested schedules and to squeeze in the interview right after the observed lesson was an extremely challenging task. It appeared more ethical for me to accommodate to teachers' schedules and not vice versa. Secondly, as I used audio recordings of the lessons as the stimuli for stimulated-recall interviews, conducting interviews straight after the observed lessons or later on the same day was problematic since the preparation of stimuli took time. However, the time between the observed lesson and the subsequent interview was never longer than two days.

D. Final interviews were conducted as the final data generation point. The interview schedules were informed by the cyclical analysis of data during the fieldwork. I

brought up issues that I thought I had overlooked in preceding interviews. However, generally the discussions revolved around teachers' reflections on their participation in the study and the wider contextual matters in EFL education in Kazakhstani state secondary schools.

4.5.3 Classroom observations

Since the principal objective of this study was to explore the reasons motivating tensions and consistencies between language teachers' espoused beliefs and classroom practices, it was inevitable that observations of teachers' classes become a major source of data. Below is a detailed description of the observations conducted in this study, derived from Borg's (2006) 9 dimensions of observational research.

- *Participation* - The type of observation in my study was a non-participant one where I sat on one of the desks at the back of the room, took notes and refrained from any intervention in the lesson. At no point during the fieldwork did the teachers or the students invite my input into the ongoing lesson. However, I was invited to be a judge in interclass debates among grade 9 students and accepted it so as not to compromise the relationship with the participants.

- *Awareness* - The degree of awareness was overt, i.e. the participants, the school administration and the students were informed about my intention to observe lessons for research purposes.

- *Authenticity* – I observed naturally occurring teaching and learning processes. The participants were not asked to teach a specific kind of lesson, to adopt any particular approaches to teaching speaking or to implement certain types of activities. The aim was to observe the instruction conducted in typical EFL classrooms with materials that were part of the curriculum or lesson plans that teachers usually followed themselves. Although I contacted teachers in advance to inquire about the exact time for lesson observations, the majority of

the decisions were taken in the teachers' room following a short conversation on the same day of the eventually observed lessons. This significantly reduced the possibility of observing specially designed demonstration lessons.

- *Disclosure* - A brief outline of the research was provided to all the participants with the consent forms that revealed the aims and the foci of the study only partially. The participants were provided with all the information they requested except for the focus of exploring belief enactment. As stated earlier, this information was not revealed so as to avoid contamination of data.

- *Recording* of the observations was made via manual (i.e. field notes) and technological means (i.e. audio-recording). The field notes included descriptive information about the speaking teaching activities; task structure and content; the people involved in the events; the materials used during the tasks, the interpretations of behaviours, feelings, attitudes and reactions of the people involved; and the time that tasks and events took. In addition, the field notes included my own reflections on the observed events, potential questions to be asked during the subsequent stimulated-recall sessions and issues for further exploration (Kawulich, 2005). It is difficult to audio-record the information above; that is why, field notes are a valuable instrument for complementing technology. The idea of video-recording the lessons was rejected due to the level of reactivity it might have caused in this specific context.

- *Structure* – The structure of my observations was *open*, in the sense that these had no preset categories and that the coding system was developed retrospectively (Evertson & Green, 1986). However, this does not mean that my observations lacked any concrete focus or that I was documenting everything that unfolded in the classrooms. This issue concerns the *scope* of my observations.

- *Coding* - The data from the observations fell under the category of observed practices which were later compared to the data in the category of stated beliefs.

- *Analysis* - The data were analysed qualitatively (see 4.6).

- *Scope* – Continuous observations can 'rule out many threats to validity' of the data in relation to the assessment of teachers' beliefs (Hoffman & Seidel, 2015, p. 121). Therefore, I planned to observe a minimum of 10 lessons per teacher to which all four participants agreed. However, depending on the teachers' availability and willingness, the number of observed classes varied across the four cases (see 4.5.4). The *scope* of the observations also relates to 'the specificity of the substantive issue the observation is concerned with' (Borg, 2006, p. 245). Concomitant with the aim of my study to explore teachers' beliefs and practices related to the teaching of oral skills, during the observations, I focused on the speaking instruction taking place in the classrooms. This focus was informed by 1) teachers' stated beliefs elicited during the pre-observation interviews and 2) the literature on the instruction of speaking in general (discussed in 3.4). The experience gained during pilot observations, which I conducted prior to data collection, and the discussion related to the utilization of this very method during my transfer seminar with the panel members and after the seminar with my supervisors, helped to reveal and address deficiencies in relation to the deployment of observations.

4.5.4 Data collection procedures

All in all, after the research setting and the participants of the study were confirmed, the data collection process extended to nine months and was conducted in three separate stages with periodic intervals between each stage (see Figure 2). This enabled me a) to reflect on the previous stage(s) of data collection; b) to carry out cyclical analysis of the data collected; and c) to prepare a course of action for the

subsequent stage(s) of data generation. In addition, the intervals served as breaks for the participants as well and allowed to prevent participant exhaustion.

Figure 2: The stages of data collection
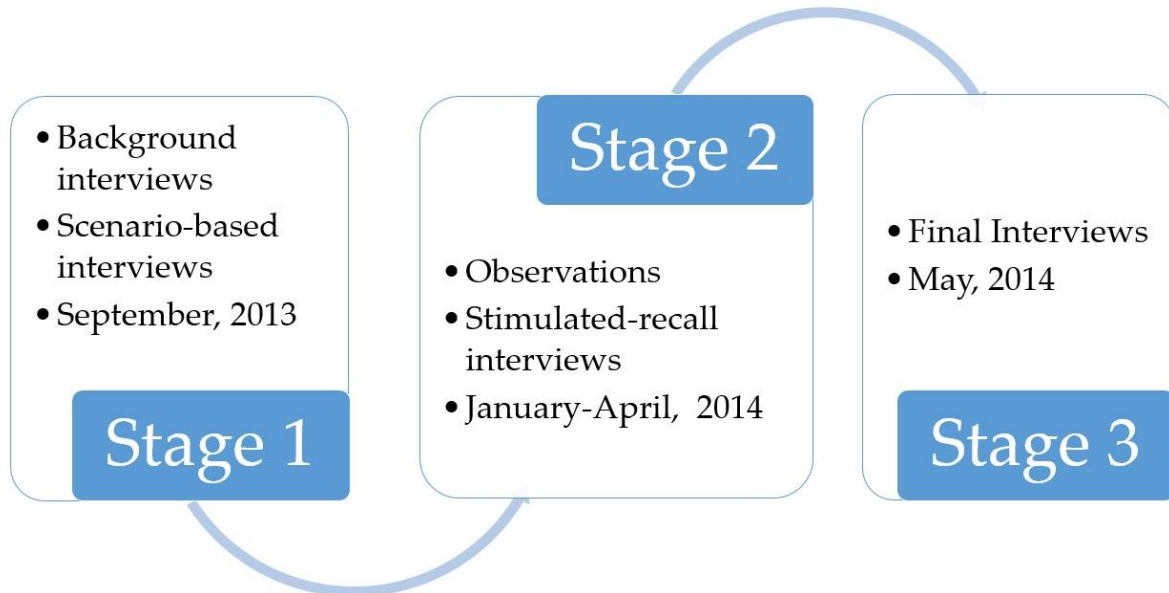
- *Stage 1* – During the first stage of data collection, I conducted two types of interviews (background interviews and scenario-based interviews) with all four participants, which amounted to eight interviews in total. First, the background interviews were carried out with all four teachers in one week. The second week was dedicated for transcription and analysis of the interview texts. This process informed my preparation for the upcoming scenario-based interviews and helped to fine-tune the questions for each participant. The scenario-based interviews were held during the third and the fourth week of data collection. Overall, the main aims of the first stage were a) to build friendly, working relationships with the participants; b) to establish detailed profiles of their educational and professional backgrounds; c) to elicit their general stated beliefs about EFL teaching; and d) to elicit their professed beliefs about teaching speaking in particular. Upon completion of the first stage, I returned to the UK to analyse the gathered data, prepare for the second stage and pass the confirmation panel for the degree of PhD.

- *Stage 2* – The second stage of data collection started following a three-month break and lasted for four and a half months. In this stage the participants were investigated each in turn, and not simultaneously, with each participant being allocated approximately a month. During this stage, I observed teachers' classrooms and conducted stimulated-recall interviews. The minimum plan was to observe 10 classes per participant and follow them up with around three to five post-lesson interviews. Teachers were given time and freedom to design the observation schedules themselves based on their workload and convenience. However, constant amendments were made to these schedules during the course of the second stage to accommodate the emergent mitigating circumstances. Thus, as mentioned earlier, the arrangements for lesson observations were often made spontaneously following a brief conversation with the participants in the teachers' room.

   All classroom observations were audio recorded and documented into descriptive field notes. These were analysed and the observed practices were compared to the participants' relevant stated beliefs. In this way, instances of consistencies and tensions were identified and, accordingly, they formed the basis for post-lesson interviews. The extracts from audio-recorded lessons were used as stimuli for recall. Since this process takes a reasonable amount of time to accomplish, the post-lesson interviews were usually held in the next two days following the observed lessons.

   The principal objectives of stage 2 were a) to build profiles of the participants' observed practices in relation to speaking instruction; b) to compare this body of data with teachers' stated beliefs and identify instances of tensions and consistencies; and c) to explore these instances further in order to cast light on the reasons behind them.

- *Stage 3* – After the second stage was complete, I took a two-week pause to reflect on the accomplished work and interpret the data. I also scanned the

gathered data for any potential issues or questions that I might have overlooked. This prepared me well for the third stage. The concluding phase of data generation consisted of one final interview with each of the participants. The teachers provided their reflections on their participation in the research project and discussed broader contextual matters in EFL education in Kazakhstani state secondary context. The total amount of interviews and observations conducted during the fieldwork is illustrated in Table 5 below.

Table 5: The number of data generation activities throughout the study

Methods	Peter	David	Adam	Mary
Background interview	1	1	1	1
Scenario-based interview	1	1	1	1
Stimulated-recall interview	8	8	12	7
Final interview	1	1	1	1
Total amount of interviews for each participant	**11**	**11**	**15**	**10**
Classroom observations	11	11	21*	13
Total interviews	47			
Total observations	56			

*Additional observations were suggested by the participant

4.5.5 Pilot study

Before the main study commenced, I conducted a one-month pilot study. Mackey & Gass (2005) suggest that pilot study is 'an important means of assessing feasibility and usefulness of the data collection methods and making any necessary revisions before they are used with the research participants' (p. 36). In light of this, I approached the pilot study as an important opportunity to trial and refine my data collection instruments. I also regarded the pilot study as 'small scale version[s], or trial run[s], done in preparation for the major study' (Polit et al., 2001, p. 467). Therefore, I decided to test all five data collection methods in the same chronological order as in the main study.

The main goals that I pursued in piloting my study were:

a. To find out whether the methods were successful in eliciting the data they were designed to obtain;

b. To determine whether the instructions for the interviews were clear, especially the mechanics of carrying out stimulated-recall interviews;

c. To test the quality of the audio-recordings both in relation to interviews and observations;

d. To learn if the main goal of the study (belief-practice consistency) could easily be inferred from the data collection procedures;

e. To identify areas for improvement and make any necessary amendments.

A. Pilot study setting and participants

The pilot study was conducted in August, 2013 at the Language School of a private university in Almaty, Kazakhstan. The school offers English language programmes for current and prospective students. The three participants who volunteered to assist were all acquaintances. They were all highly qualified and experienced (more than 7 years of teaching experience) EFL teachers with both BA and Master Diplomas in TESOL; in fact, two of them had recently started their doctoral research degrees as well.

B. Data collection procedure

The collection of data followed the same format as the one described in 4.5.4 and lasted for four weeks: one week per teacher and the fourth week for final interviews. The participants were first interviewed twice (background and scenario-based interviews) to identify their stated beliefs. This was followed by lesson observations (five lessons each) and stimulated-recall sessions.

C. Reflections on pilot study and refinement of methods

The pilot study was instrumental in providing hands-on experience of the data collection dynamics and prepared me well for the main study that followed after a

week. Having analysed the feedback from the participants and the data that I managed to gather, I drew several conclusions from the pilot study. In general the validity and the adequacy of the data collection instruments seemed appropriate. During the analysis of pre- and post-observation interview data, I was able to identify teachers' stated beliefs about speaking instruction - based on my definition of teacher beliefs (see 3.2.1) - and information in relation to TPC and CPBR. The audio-recordings of interviews and classroom observations were of high quality and did not present any intelligibility issues. In addition, the feedback from the participants implied that the principal focus of the study (stated belief enactment) was not easily inferable, and was not something that the participants were paying close attention to in any case.

Additionally, the trialling of methods revealed several areas which could be improved:

- *Background interviews* centred on four main sections: teachers' education; entry into the profession and development as a teacher; reflections on teaching; and the context (see Appendix 4). The main emergent concern in relation to this tool was that it revolved around four broad topics; as such, at times during the interview it was challenging to navigate the course of the conversation and keep the focus on the topics at hand. For this reason, the average length of this interview during piloting was close to the two-hour mark. This made the transcription and the analysis of the audio recordings a demanding task. Additionally, this issue (if not addressed) could adversely affect the willingness and the motivation of prospective participants of the main study to continue with their participation in the project. This matter was detected after the second background interview of the pilot study. With experience I managed to moderate the interview discussions better and succeeded in reducing the conversation length to 80 minutes during the third background interview while still covering all of the topics on the agenda.

- *Scenario-based interviews* comprised eight different scenarios which were designed to elicit teachers' stated beliefs specifically in relation to teaching speaking (see Appendix 5). The instruction for the interview at the top of the page read '*Below are a number of possible situations that can occur in the classroom. For each situation, please state what you think you should do and why*'. Having read this directive, teachers commented on teacher/student behaviour in the scenarios and said what they would have done if facing those situations. However, unless I specifically asked them to discuss these situations in relation to their *own* current or former students/classrooms/contexts/teaching experiences, the nature of the information that they provided was that of 'ideal instructional practices (how things should be)', not 'in relation to instructional realities (how things are)' (Borg, 2006, p. 279). Consequently, I decided to change the above instructions to '*Below are a number of possible situations that can occur in the classroom. Please carefully study each scenario and provide your professional judgment on them by making links (if possible) to your own recent/past teaching experience*'. Furthermore, as the interview evolved scenario by scenario, I was mindful of reminding these instructions to the interviewees in various manners before each scenario.

- *Observations* allowed me to assess my abilities in identifying and describing speaking teaching practices. At first, I ended up taking note of everything that was happening inside the classroom: the chit-chat, the endless casual talks between the students, the grammar, reading, writing, listening tasks. This was because teachers had an instinctive understanding with their students and did not need to introduce specific types of activities in explicit ways. Again, continuous observations of classroom dynamics were crucial in developing an understanding of what exactly to focus on and how to describe it as accurately and efficiently as possible. Moreover, it was important to bear in mind that, as an observer, I was working in tandem with my audio recorder.

Thus, I needed to concentrate on things which were beyond the grasp of my gadget so that I complemented, not duplicated, the record of classroom proceedings (e.g. the form of speaking tasks, people involved in the events, the materials used during the tasks, the interpretations of behaviours, feelings, attitudes and reactions of people involved, etc.).

- *Stimulated-recall sessions* were the most challenging interviews to pilot. Teachers had many classes during the week; therefore, it was not an easy task to make the participants remember specific classroom activities that I had identified. Furthermore, unlike the previous two interviews, the stimulated-recall interview schedules had to be developed retrospectively following the observed lessons. In addition, the stimuli for recall needed to be clearly identified and accurately presented to the teacher with as many relevant details as possible. Also, I learned the hard way that during the discussion of tensions, it was vital to word the questions carefully so that the participants did not perceive them as judgements and started to justify themselves.

Having conducted several stimulated-recall interviews, I realized that the stimuli transcripts were never used for recall during the sessions even though they were prepared for and provided to the participants. The descriptions of the context around those specific classroom activities (extracted from field notes) and the audio recordings of the actual events seemed sufficient for teachers to remember the classroom proceedings in detail. Correspondingly, I decided to abandon the idea of preparing such transcripts.

4.6 Data analysis

A combination of various models informed my approach to data analysis: Cohen et al.'s (2011) open and axial coding; Brinkman & Kvale's (2009) steps and modes of interview analysis, and meaning condensation and meaning interpretation techniques; Boyatzis' (1998) code and theme development strategies using the

inductive method; Stake's (1995) categorical aggregation; Creswell's (2013) within-case and Yin's (2009) cross-case synthesis.

The research focus (the degree of consistency between stated beliefs and enacted practices in relation to teaching speaking) shaped the arrangement and the course of the data analysis. During within-case analysis I organized the data under three main categories: *stated beliefs*, *observed practices* and *provided rationale*.

Stated beliefs – In order to identify the participants' professed beliefs about teaching speaking, I first transcribed the pre-observational interviews and analysed them thematically. Thematic analysis was assisted by a *meaning condensation* technique where long and complex texts were analyzed for natural *meaning units* (Brinkman & Kvale, 2009). Although the research questions helped shape the initial, tentative themes (TPC & CPBR), the overall manner in which the data were analysed was open and inductive. That is, I allowed the data *to speak* (Simpson & Tuson, 2003) so that new themes and categories could emerge. Teachers' comments were coded if they were closely related to teaching or learning speaking skills and represented a) a proposition or statement (concomitant with the working definition of teacher beliefs) that denoted a belief (e.g. speaking skills are the most important among all language skills); b) past experience in relation to learning/teaching speaking (e.g. we used to memorize and recite authentic texts to learn speaking skills); c) a statement that conveyed personal conceptualisations of speaking instruction (e.g. teaching speaking is all about making students speak in the classroom no matter what); and d) the participants' interpretations of the pedagogical context (e.g. students come to lessons feeling exhausted) (see Appendix 8). New themes thus emerged (e.g. using first language, error correction, previous language learning experiences etc.) in addition to the already mentioned TPC & CPBR. All the pertinent participant comments - phrases, sentences and paragraphs - were gathered under these emergent themes.

The transcriptions of all the interviews were in the participants' first language: Kazakh or Russian. The analysis of the data was based on these transcriptions and only the extracts included in the thesis as supports for my interpretations of the data were translated into English. This was done to avoid the potential loss of meanings attached to the original texts in L1.

Observed practices – The themes that emerged from the analysis of the pre-observation interviews informed the focus of the classroom observations and aided in coding the collected data at this stage. The field notes and audio recordings of the lessons were examined in order to build the participants' profiles of observed speaking teaching practices. The two sets of data (stated beliefs & observed practices) were then cross-examined in order to identify specific instances (*categorical aggregation* - Stake, 1995) of tensions and consistencies between teachers' espoused beliefs and actual classroom behaviour. Conducting these two phases of data analysis enabled me to determine the variations in the degrees of belief-practice congruence within all four participants and, correspondingly, helped me to answer research question 1 (to what extent do the teachers' stated beliefs about teaching oral English correspond to their actual classroom practices?). However, it should be noted that, at this stage, the identified instances of tensions and consistencies were based only on my interpretation of the data. The next phase would confirm or refute these interpretations.

Provided rationale – Stimulated-recall interviews were the exclusive sources of data for the third category. As in the first stage of data analysis, the interviews were transcribed and analysed thematically (codification and theme development). The main purpose of post-lesson interviews was to explore the reasons behind the instances of tensions and consistencies, that is, answer research question 2 and its three sub-questions (see 3.5). Although sub-questions 2.1 (TPC) and 2.3 (CPBR) formed the template for the analysis of the data, again, I kept an open mind for other themes to emerge. The codification and categorisation of post-observation interview

transcripts was followed by a discussion of the relationships between three main sets of data (stated beliefs, observed practices and provided rationale). Accordingly, it allowed to piece together chunks of data in relation to a particular instance of tension or consistency from various stages of data analysis in order to build a whole picture. These are provided in the form of figures in Chapter Five.

Having conducted within-case analysis of data, I then performed cross-case synthesis to identify recurrent patterns across cases and see if the emergent findings were unique to a particular case or shared among several participants. During this analysis the codes and themes were constantly reconsidered, relabelled and redefined to achieve consistency across cases.

4.7 Trustworthiness

The appropriateness of terms such as validity and reliability to qualitative research and to the social constructivist paradigm in particular is contested (Anfara et al., 2002; Golafshani, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Maxwell, 1992; Morse et al., 2002; Stenbacka, 2001; Winter, 2000). This is because these terms come from a quantitative research tradition as well as the positivist paradigm and are 'premised on the assumption that methods of data generation can be conceptualized as tools, and can be standardized, neutral and non-biased' (Mason, 1996, p. 145). Alternatively, researchers (Anfara et al., 2002; Auerbach & Silverstein, 2003; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Morse et al., 2002) have put forward arguably more suitable criteria for qualitative studies such as *dependability, confirmability, transferability*, and *credibility* which, if met, can enhance the trustworthiness of research findings. Trustworthiness of a study is of central importance since it may determine whether the research conclusions are 'worth paying attention to, worth taking account of' (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, p. 290).

Throughout the study I implemented various measures to ensure that the final research outcomes could be considered trustworthy. For instance, I attempted to

address dependability through *prolonged engagement in the field* (Anfara et al., 2002; Creswell & Miller, 2000). In total the execution of all three stages of the data collection lasted for nine months during which I was fully immersed with the research site and the participants. Prolonged engagement in the field helped to develop an understanding of the meanings that the participants assigned to the phenomena (TPC, CPBR, CL and instructional practices). These meanings were situated in a particular context at a particular time; as such, exploring them holistically, that is taking account of contextual factors, seemed possible through prolonged engagement.

Persistent observations (see Table 5) can 'alleviate the situational influence of snapshot measurements, while potentially diffusing the immediate influence of researcher expectations on quasi-experimental outcomes' (Hoffman & Seidel, 2015, p. 121). As mentioned in 4.5.5, a certain amount of time is required for a researcher to study the meanings behind classroom dynamics of a particular teacher (style, approach, intuitive understanding with the students, habits). With each conducted observation, my capacity to identify, describe and interpret teachers' classroom behaviour improved. Moreover, I preferred to audio record the classes rather than video record them, in order to reduce the level of reactivity to my participation in the classroom (Cozby & Bates, 2012). The chances of gathering quality observational data instead of attending demonstration lessons further increased, because the decision to observe particular teachers' EFL lessons was mostly made during the same day in the teachers' room.

Forty seven interviews and 56 observations resulted in huge amounts of texts containing rich information on teachers' beliefs and practices. These texts were in the form of interview transcripts and descriptive field notes. Subsequently, the credibility of these texts had important consequences for the trustworthiness of emerging insights. *Member checking* (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was adopted to maximize the credibility of such texts. In practice it meant that research participants

were invited to provide their personal views on the transcribed interviews and on my interpretations of the speaking teaching practices recorded during observations. These lengthy texts were given to the participants to take home and study. Although, later, all of the teachers indicated that they examined the transcripts and that they agreed with the content, it is important to acknowledge that there was no way of checking whether the participants had actually read these lengthy documents.

Some experts (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007) are not convinced that member checking enhances trustworthiness. They claim that the participants should not have an authoritative opinion on research conclusions that trained researchers arrive at, though, such a stance might imply that member checking seeks *objectively correct* interpretations of data. According to Pring (2000), on the other hand, this technique is in fact consistent with the constructivist paradigm as long as the aim is to reach consensus on the interpretation of data.

Triangulation of data is another way of maximizing trustworthiness of studies on teachers' inner lives. Kagan (1990) advises the implementation of multiple methods of data collection 'not simply because they allow triangulation of data but because they are more likely to capture the complex, multifaceted aspects of teaching and learning.' (p. 459). As discussed in 3.2.2, cognitions might not always be readily accessible through self-report instruments or even interviews because of their often tacit nature. Therefore, it is important to approach the investigation of teachers' cognitive dimensions (CPBR, TPC) with research designs that, under the given circumstances, have a high chance of exploring the complexity of beliefs. I aimed to facilitate methodological triangulation by first eliciting the participants' beliefs through verbal commentaries, then observing teachers' pedagogical practices, and finally, following observations, inviting them to comment on these practices. I believe that this approach enabled me to shed light on different facets of the phenomena and to capture not only the stated cognitions, but also the 'practically-

oriented cognitions which inform teachers' actual instructional practices' (Borg, 2006, p. 280).

The trustworthiness of a study could also be improved by inviting researchers to 'demonstrate that findings emerge from the data and not their own dispositions' (Shenton, 2004, p. 263). During the presentation of the findings (Chapter Five) care was taken to differentiate between raw interview or observation data and my own subjective analysis. Participants' direct quotes from interviews were regularly provided as evidence to support my interpretations of the data. Prospective readers of this study can examine those quotes and assess the findings that emerged. However, experts in designing and analysing interviews (Brinkman & Kvale, 2009) might suggest that there are as many interpretations of interview data as there are researchers; hence, it would be ordinary for others to construe the teachers' comments in different ways than I did.

The selected interpretive framework for this qualitative study (social constructivism) places emphasis on particular, unique, subjective worldviews, rather than external, general and absolute: hence the adoption of a case study approach (see 4.2.2). Case studies are usually deployed in order to produce rich information that is meant to represent the depth and uniqueness of a specially chosen case(s) and not to generate findings that could be extrapolated across groups. Given these reasons, I do not feel that the external validity or the transferability of research conclusions should be pressed against case study researchers as a criterion for trustworthiness (Winter, 2000). Having said that, *thick description* (Geertz, 1994) of data should help readers to determine whether *transferability* to other cases is possible (Cohen et al., 2011) because the 'reader knows the situations to which the assertions might apply' better than the writer; thus, 'the responsibility of making generalizations should be more the reader's than the writer's' (Stake, 2005, p. 90).

4.8 Ethical issues

The current research project aimed to abide by the British Educational Research Association (BERA) Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research (2011), which categorises ethical considerations under four groups of researcher responsibilities to:

- Participants;

- Sponsors of Research;

- the Community of Educational Researchers;

- Educational Professionals, Policy Makers and the General Public.

4.8.1 Responsibilities to participants

BERA (2011) guidelines stipulate that the research participants should 'agree to their participation without any duress' and with full awareness of 'why their participation is necessary, how it will be used and how and to whom it will be reported' (p. 5). In line with this, the participants of the current investigation were approached with the permission of their employer and were presented with an invitation to discuss their potential participation in the research. Further, they were all provided with consent forms in three different languages (English, Kazakh and Russian) (Appendices 1, 2 and 3) and were offered time for reflection before communicating their decisions. Only those teachers who voluntarily agreed to take part in the study were selected for participation.

It is important that the researcher fully discloses the aims of the study and avoids *subterfuge* 'unless their research design specifically requires it' (BERA, 2011, p. 6). My research design did not require any deception and the information provided on consent forms was completely accurate and relevant. However, as mentioned earlier (see 4.4.3), although teachers were aware of my objective to study their beliefs and practices in relation to speaking instruction, they were not told that I was specifically interested in the extent of consistency between their professed beliefs and observed practices. This detail was withheld in order to prevent the contamination of the data

and to avoid the *Hawthorne Effect* (Cohen et al., 2011), in which participants might adjust their behaviour in accordance with the research aims.

Moreover, it is suggested that researchers acknowledge and respect 'the right of any participant to withdraw from the research for any or no reason, and at any time' (BERA, 2011, p. 6). This information was included in the consent forms signed by the participants. None of the four participants discontinued their participation in the study and were committed to and supportive of the research.

The four participants of the main study and the three participants of the pilot study and the research sites were all ensured *confidentiality and anonymity* (BERA, 2011) on the basis of the signed consent forms. The anonymity was external, that is, anonymity for readers of the study and not among the participants. Participants were even invited to select a pseudonym for themselves. In addition, the consent forms prohibit me from using the gathered data for any other purposes than research and the participants were able to request that I discarded or did not use information they had provided during the study. The teachers were also informed of their rights to refuse to answer any questions during the interviews or to deny access to any of their lessons.

Efforts were made to accommodate to the participants' availability and convenience when planning interviews and classroom observations. The specific dates for all of the data generation processes were chosen by the participants themselves. In order to build good rapport with the participants in the shortest period possible, attention was paid to details like clothing as well. I tried to fit in with the way teachers dressed at school since I assumed that it could reduce the distance between the researcher and the researched. The choice of language (particularly for the interviews) was considered with care as the proficiency in English might be a sensitive issue in an EFL context like Kazakhstan. The participants were free to choose the language they

felt   most   comfortable   with   when   articulating   their   opinions (Kazakh/Russian/English) and the usage of formal terminology was minimised.

4.8.2 Responsibilities to Sponsors of Research

I was a Bolashak International Scholarship holder, granted by JSC 'Center for International Programs' (CIP), which operates under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Kazakhstan. This scholarship covered full four-year postgraduate study for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Education at the University of Bath.

CIP was provided with a detailed, four-year individual academic plan (approved by my supervisors and the Department of Education at the University of Bath) which contained the fieldwork trips to Kazakhstan for the collection of data (Appendix 6). Accordingly, the organization was aware of my intention to conduct research in Kazakhstan. My sponsors, however, apart from the condition to submit the thesis within a designated timescale, did not expect or demand 'access to data or participants, ownership of data', 'right to publish, [or] requirements for reporting and dissemination' (BERA, 2011, p. 8).

4.8.3 Responsibilities to the Community of Educational Researchers

According to BERA (2011), the community under discussion consists of 'all those engaged in educational research including academics, professionals (from private or public bodies), teachers and students' (p. 9). The ethical concerns enunciated in this section – manipulation, falsification and distortion of findings; sensationalism; slanderous or libellous language towards other researchers; avoidance of conflict of interest – all generally relate to the *trustworthiness* of the research, which was discussed in section 4.7.

To recapitulate, the transcripts of interviews and the interpretations of observed practices were reviewed together with the participants (member checking); the presentation of the data (in Chapter Five) systematically and purposefully involved

direct quotes from the participants in order to substantiate my interpretations of the data and the emergent findings; the limitations of the research design were acknowledged and discussed (see 4.5; 4.7; 7.3 and 7.4); and other researchers' work was identified and duly credited.

4.8.4 Responsibilities to Educational Professionals, Policy Makers and the General Public

BERA (2011) also encourages researchers to 'endeavour to communicate their findings, and the practical significance of their research' to various audiences (p. 10). Throughout the doctoral study I presented this research project during its different stages of development:

- *Research design* – In June 2013, before collecting any data for the study, I presented the proposed design of my research at the 16th Warwick International Postgraduate Conference in Applied Linguistics, University of Warwick, Coventry, UK. The title of the paper was '*Oral instruction in EFL classrooms: A teacher cognition perspective*'.

- *Preliminary findings* – In March 2015, having completed the analysis of the first case (Peter), I delivered a talk under the tile '*Why teachers do not always practice what they preach?*' at the 2nd Educational Forum for Central Asia - Thinking globally, acting locally: Bringing Change in and through Education. The event was hosted at the University of Sussex, Brighton, UK.

- *Main findings and the implications of the research* – Recently, in June 2016, I presented a paper under the title '*What factors stimulate consistencies and tensions between teachers' beliefs and practices: A multiple case study of Kazakhstani EFL teachers*'. This was possible through participation in the 12th British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL) Language Learning and Teaching SIG – Crossing Boundaries: Language Learning and Teaching Inside and Outside the Classroom at Lancaster University, Lancaster, UK.

Through these platforms I presented the up-to-date state of the study at different stages to various audiences which included early career and established educational researchers, policy makers and practitioners. I thus believe that I fulfilled my ethical responsibilities as a researcher in relation to these communities.

4.9 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the philosophical stances underpinning this study; has introduced the research design and the participants of the investigation; and has provided information in relation to the collection of data. The next chapter then focuses on the presentation of findings.

Chapter Five: Findings

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the four cases involved in the study. The research findings are presented case by case, with each case comprising sections which report on the participants' speaking teaching practices and on selected instances of consistencies and tensions between the participants' stated beliefs and classroom practices. A section on cross-case analysis in relation to the main research question and three sub-questions completes the chapter.

Due to the limitations of space allowed for this work, I decided to include three illustrative instances of consistencies and tensions for each participant that met two main criteria. I selected instances that:

- contained pertinent data featuring in both pre- and post-observation interviews which allowed for the instance to be, first, identified as an example of consistency or tension, and then explored further for underlying reasons;
- best described the individual participants, capturing their unique cognitions and practices in relation to the focus of the study.

Each instance of consistency and tension is extensively discussed within pertinent sections and these discussions are then outlined in Figures 3-19. I recognize that these figures might appear to over-simplify complex relationships (i.e. belief-practice relationship) by making them seem linear. However, the figures merely attempt to summarise the instances of congruence and tension and are not designed to accurately reflect holistic and dynamic nature of the complex relationship between beliefs and practices.

I make use of several symbols in Figures 3-19 to ensure that the summaries of the instances of consistency and tensions are easy for readers to makes sense of. One-

headed arrows (⟶) signify linkages between events, ideas and constructs. Double-headed arrows between the boxes that contain participants' stated beliefs and observed practices are used to indicate whether the relationship between the two is consistent (⟷) or inconsistent (⟷).

The primary data sources in this research are different types of interviews. Extracts from these interviews are presented to validate the claims and the findings. All of the participants chose to speak in their first language (Kazakh and Russian); for that reason, the extracts from the interviews are all my translation. Brackets are used within extracts to insert additional information or my own interpretation on the interview quotes.

The following conventions are used to locate the information provided by the participants: background interview (**BI**; pre-observation interview conducted with an aim to establish a detailed profile of the teachers' educational and professional background), scenario-based interview (**SBI**; pre-observation interview conducted to elicit teachers' beliefs about teaching speaking with reference to the context in which they work; **S** followed by a numeral (e.g. SBI-**S3**) refers to the number of the scenario the extract belongs to), stimulated recall interviews (**SRI**; post-observation interviews conducted to explore the instances of consistency and tension and teachers' decision-making during the lessons; the numeral (e.g. **SR2**) refers to the number of the interview).

5.2 Peter

Peter was interested in a communicative and student-centred approach to language teaching and, in line with this, his lessons appeared to be geared towards communicative activities with a considerable amount of oral practice. His speaking teaching seemed to target the promotion of fluency in oral production with form-focused direct instruction taking a subsidiary role. These practices appeared to reflect Peter's beliefs that learning speaking skills carried a crucial importance to

language learners; although, at the same time, he also expressed uncertainty about his own capabilities for teaching speaking.

> The most important goal of learning a language is to be able to use it in practice, that means being able to speak and write in the target language. […] I think that speaking skills are needed more than any other skill regardless of your goal of learning English, but I am not sure I have enough knowledge to actually teach it correctly.
>
> (BI)

A composite summary of Peter's observed speaking teaching practices is provided below in Table 6. The content of this and all of the following analogous tables in subsequent sections were informed by the observations of the participants' lessons and their post-lesson interviews.

Table 6: Peter's speaking teaching practices

Class / Episode	Task description
1	Whole-class discussion around a picture displayed on the whiteboard
2/1	Small-groups discussions about duties and responsibilities of various jobs
2/2	In turns students provided the descriptions of different jobs to their respective teams; rest of the team had to guess the job titles based on these descriptions.
3	Task-based, small-group discussions towards selecting five items necessary for the school out of the ten provided
4/1	Expressions for asking directions: memorization and reproduction of a dialogue from the course book
4/2	Expressions for asking directions: filling in the missing parts of a dialogue in the course book, memorization and reproduction of the same dialogue
5/1	Formulating questions: guessing the secret item (certificate) in the box through asking questions
5/2	Task-based, small-group discussions towards compiling a list of subjects in an ideal school
6	Individually delivered PowerPoint presentations about dream jobs; Presentations were followed by student-initiated Q&A sessions and discussions
7	Whole-class discussion of a short documentary

Peter utilized both direct and indirect approaches during the teaching of speaking depending on the proficiency level of his students. He conducted more controlled speaking activities (4/1, 4/2 in Table 6) with 8th grade students (pre-intermediate level) where, working in pairs, students studied, memorized and practised ready-

made dialogues from the textbook with some structure manipulation for learning specific conversational expressions. On the other hand, higher level students in 10th grade (upper-intermediate level) received less controlled speaking instruction with eight out of ten speaking activities presented in Table 6 (all the activities except for 4/1 and 4/2) generally exemplifying an indirect approach. I interpreted these activities as less controlled since no specific aspect of speaking ability was isolated and practised. Although both content-oriented (e.g. class 7) and form-oriented (e.g. class/episode 2/2) teacher input was provided prior and during the tasks, students were allowed to draw on both the language presented by the instructor and other vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategies that they already knew or were expected to learn during the course of the tasks. These indirect speaking tasks were conducted through mediation of whole-class and small-group interactional patterns during warm-up, lead-in and practice stages of the lessons.

Group work was used extensively as the prevalent format for speaking tasks. Table 6 provides four instances (2/1, 2/2, 3, 5/2) where Peter made use of group work in order to conduct communicative tasks. According to Peter, through group work he aimed to achieve even participation of students in the practice of oral skills. During group work, students focused on solving various real-life problems such as compiling a list of ideal school subjects, assigning duties to different job titles and selecting items to buy for the school. Peter observed group discussions around the class and encouraged speaking from as many members of the group as possible.

Most of the speaking practices were teacher-fronted in that the initiator and the moderator of the tasks and the interaction was Peter. For instance, in examples 1, 5/1 and 7 the teacher provided prompts in the form of a picture, a concealed item in a box and a video talk. He then asked follow-up questions in order to elicit responses from students and stimulate whole-class discussion. The topics for within-group discussions were also introduced and monitored by the teacher. The only occasion where the initiators of the interaction were students was the oral presentation

activity in lesson 6 where a post-presentation Q&A session and full-class discussion were led by the students themselves. The task itself was monologic: each student was given an opportunity to talk extensively on a prepared topic without any initial interference. The next stage, however, involved the audience asking questions to the presenter and generating discussions. Peter mainly took the back seat at this point with his involvement being confined to explaining the layout of the task at the beginning and to keeping track of the time limit allotted to each presenter.

Peter was not a strict follower of the course book and made use of an eclectic range of resources in his lesson plans. He designed many of the speaking activities himself and utilized different aids such as laptop, projector, videos, cue cards, boxes, pictures in order to support the successful execution of the tasks. Most of Peter's lessons began with warm-up or lead-in stages (1, 5/1, 7) where, again, whole-class interaction took central stage. With the help of the abovementioned aids, Peter introduced the general context for the lessons and followed it up with brainstorming of ideas with the whole class. This was done to redress the major communication constraint that he thought his students had:

> As I earlier mentioned, it is usually about lack of ideas for students. To avoid that, I usually introduce the topic gradually. I present the information I had prepared and invite students to share their opinions about it. That helps to generate some good ideas. It prepares them well for the later stages of the lesson.

(SBI-S1)

Another feature of Peter's speaking teaching practices was that he often integrated the teaching of speaking with other skills development. In particular, the improvement of vocabulary knowledge was consistently mentioned as one of the subordinate objectives of speaking tasks. However, there seemed to be very little focus on grammar during communicative activities. For the most part, Peter only corrected students' pronunciation errors during speaking and even then it was done incidentally.

The analysis of Peter's stated beliefs and observed practices in relation to the teaching of speaking revealed mixed levels of consistency. The sub-sections that follow aim to present and discuss the instances of tensions and consistencies between Peter's professed beliefs and actual classroom behaviour.

5.2.1 Error correction (tension)

The first example of a tension comes from Peter's implementation of error correction strategies during speaking activities in the classroom. For example, he was observed to interrupt a student during his speech to correct a pronunciation mistake. This occurred during Peter's third lesson when two students were presenting a dialogue and one of them mispronounced the word 'sir'. Peter immediately intervened and suggested a correct pronunciation of the word. As a result, the learner immediately self-corrected by imitating the teacher. The students continued with the dialogue until the same mistake occurred a couple of times during the same dialogue and again Peter corrected the error on the spot. Initially, these practices appeared to be in line with Peter's beliefs as he had clearly stated in his pre-observation interview that pronunciation mistakes should be corrected as they occur:

> It is generally believed that pronunciation mistakes should be corrected on the spot as soon as you notice them. It is considered to be good for students' oral skills. I probably agree with that. As for grammar mistakes, I try to correct them after students finish their speeches as a whole class activity without attributing them to a certain student. And I don't interrupt students while they speak unless they make pronunciation mistakes.
>
> (SBI – S6)

Thus, in this instance, there was no reason to assume that Peter's actions were at odds with his stated beliefs. In his post-observation interview, however, Peter made it explicit that interrupting students to correct pronunciation mistakes was not his preferred practice. As a matter of fact, the post-lesson discussion revealed his strong belief in the value of using *delayed error correction* in response to any mistakes that

students made (including pronunciation mistakes) and how he had come to develop that particular belief:

> When I was on practicum [as part of the pre-service teacher education programme] one of the students told me – 'I hated our English teacher. Whenever I got to speak in the classroom she always interrupted me to correct the mistakes I made and never really gave me an opportunity to freely express myself. The moment she called my name to answer a question I already felt irritated and annoyed because it was the matter of 'when' rather than 'if' she would stop me to correct my mistakes yet again. The whole thing just infuriated me.' After hearing this, I established a principle to never interrupt a student to correct mistakes, especially during speaking activities. Let them finish their speech and only after that can we correct mistakes as a whole class activity or drilling, without attributing those mistakes to any individual.
>
> (SR3)

Peter explained that he had developed his belief about *delayed error correction* as a reaction to a negative language learning experience that one of his EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students had had with a former English teacher. The incident led Peter to believe that interrupting students during their speeches to correct their mistakes could be counterproductive. That is, it might incur more damage by affecting language learners' self-esteem, confidence and motivation to speak in the classroom than it might do any good. Further discussion revealed that he had been loyal to *delayed error correction* for the past six years and that *on-the-spot error correction* had only become part of his instructional repertoire since the beginning of the current academic year:

> Actually this is something [on-the-spot correction of pronunciation mistakes] that I only started doing this academic year. But it doesn't really feel right to me yet. I never used to correct any mistakes when students were speaking whether it was a grammar, vocabulary or a pronunciation mistake because I never wanted to interrupt students during their speech.
>
> (SR3)

On the basis of Peter's words, it is clear that there was a tension between what Peter believed in and what he was doing. The discussion of the reasons behind this tension

revealed the factors that were motivating Peter to implement *on-the-spot error correction*. Peter went on to clarify his decision to adopt a new practice (*on-the-spot error correction*) which contradicted his actual belief by attributing it to two factors. The first of them was the negative feedback to his *delayed error correction* strategy from an observer from the Ministry of Education and Science of Kazakhstan (MoES). The observer had criticised Peter's 'extremely lenient' approach to students' errors and warned him that this could result in students 'developing bad language habits', 'internalising inproper speech forms' (i.e. wrong pronunciation and spelling of words), and in 'deterioration of communicative ability of students' (SR3). The other factor was the Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) course in the United Kingdom (UK), where the coaches had explained that *on-the-spot error correction* for pronunciation mistakes was a common practice in TESOL and that it was beneficial for students.

Earlier in Peter's teaching career, an English Language Teaching (ELT) expert from the MoES came to observe his classes. The feedback that Peter received from the expert regarding the error correction strategies that he had used in his observed lessons was not positive:

> The expert told me: 'Did you not notice the obvious mistakes made by your students? If you did, then why did you not interfere and correct their mistakes on the spot?' Despite the fact that I expressed my concerns about the potential negative repercussions this might have for learners in the long term he did not approve of it. He mentioned some studies according to which pronunciation mistakes had to be corrected on the spot, but I stood my ground at the time.
>
> (SR3)

That was the first time Peter's approach to error correction had been challenged and questioned; yet, it did not seem to have influenced him to an extent where he would abandon his initial views on the issue to follow the expert's recommendations. The expert was not simply providing his opinion but was also supporting it by citing particular pieces of research according to which pronunciation mistakes had to be corrected on the spot. Nevertheless, that still turned out to be insufficient for Peter to

reconsider his beliefs and practices since he continued to employ *delayed error correction* in his classes up until the beginning of the current academic year.

It was not until Peter attended a TKT course in the UK that he contemplated adopting *on-the-spot error correction*. The knowledge that he acquired during the course confirmed the views of the MoES' expert on error correction strategies. That, subsequently, led Peter to concede that he might after all consider altering his practices for the good of his students. Thus, the teacher trainers seemed to have convinced Peter that correcting pronunciation mistakes on the spot could actually be more helpful for students in learning speaking skills:

> When I attended a TKT course in the UK I talked to our trainers and other teachers about the matter and asked them specifically about correcting students' pronunciation mistakes during speaking. All of them told me that grammar and vocabulary mistakes could be corrected later but it was more beneficial for students' oral skills if pronunciation mistakes were corrected on the spot. If that's what they say here in the UK, then I couldn't neglect it anymore, for my own students' sake. That is why, this year I started hunting for students' pronunciation mistakes. I don't really know if it's right or wrong though. No one has complained so far. They [students] say 'ok' and continue talking. But I can see that they stumble in speech when I interfere.
>
> (SR3)

It could be assumed that it was the perception that his students were missing out on the benefits of *on-the-spot error correction*, and that this strategy was a widely used one within the community of Western trained TESOL professionals that led Peter to develop an alternative belief in relation to error correction during communicative activities. This belief seemed to have motivated him to incorporate the new technique into his practices. The above extract suggests, however, that Peter did not sound entirely comfortable with the changes he had recently made to his practices. Despite the fact that he had not received any negative feedback from his students about the matter yet, Peter did not seem to be completely convinced that what he was doing was right, hence his concerns about students stumbling in speech when

he had to intervene. Analogous concerns and uncertainty about the new strategy were expressed during further discussions:

> I haven't made up my mind if I should continue with the same error correction strategy because it still doesn't feel right to me. I still believe that the right way is to correct mistakes only after students have finished speaking. Much will depend on the results I get, of course. You can also see it from students' faces actually; whether it [interrupting to correct pronunciation mistakes] bothers them or not or if they will volunteer to speak next time I ask them to. If I see that there are no negative reactions from students and that it does not discourage them from speaking then I will stick to it [on-the-spot error correction], if not, I will go back to my old strategy [delayed error correction].
>
> (SR3)

Judging from Peter's words, his beliefs about the value of *delayed error correction* appeared to be displaying the characteristics of core beliefs described in Phipps and Borg (2009) in that they proved to be resistant to change, and seemed to be held with a higher level of conviction than his belief in the new method. In addition, it is apparent from Peter's comments here that he seemed to be experimenting with the new error correction strategy, which is evidence of him being in the process of either confirming or redefining his beliefs on the issue. This is an indication that beliefs are experientially ingrained. Peter adopted the *on-the-spot error correction* technique to try out and see how it worked in practice; however, he still openly expressed his belief that students should never be interrupted for any reason while they were speaking. Therefore, it seems that Peter's belief in *on-the-spot error correction* had not been firmly established yet and he acknowledged that it would take 'positive learning outcomes' and 'affirmative feedback' from his students for him to reconsider his beliefs about the issue.

One of the other significant insights to surface from the discussion of this tension appears to be the emergence of a broader educational concern and its substantial impact on the consistency level between beliefs and practices. This concern could be labelled as creating and maintaining a non-threatening classroom environment for

students – using strategies that help students to practise their skills in the classroom without reserve (e.g. employing delayed error correction during speaking activities). As reported earlier in this section, this educational concern seems to have been developed during his pre-service teacher preparation program, and later, when he started his English teaching career, he selected a technique (*delayed error correction*) that he thought was in harmony with this concern. This technique, however, was criticized by an expert, and an alternative one (*on-the-spot error correction*) was suggested by teacher trainers in the UK. Peter accepted the suggestion and started to experiment with a new approach, albeit with considerable apprehension. The interview data suggest, though, that Peter would not hesitate to revert to his old strategy if the new one failed to produce classroom experiences that were aligned with his broader educational belief about the issue. This educational concern, subsequently, seems to be playing a key role in defining the consistency level between beliefs and practices, in that it motivated the decision to adopt or to drop a particular error correction strategy when teaching speaking in the classroom. Broader educational concerns thus appear to have more power in guiding teachers' instructional decisions and are held by the teacher in higher regard than particular beliefs about teaching a certain aspect of a foreign language. This is manifested in Peter being prepared to sacrifice his particular belief about the value of using *delayed error correction* if *on-the-spot error correction* produced experiences that were consistent with his broader educational concern to create and maintain a supportive and non-threatening classroom environment for his students. Taken together, the overall story behind this tension is illustrated in Figure 3. This incident provides an example of how an explicit discussion of a tension between teachers' stated beliefs and actual classroom practices can enhance our understanding of belief development and belief redefinition processes. These processes were initiated by Peter's professional education, both pre-service and in-service respectively.

Figure 3: Instance of tension – error correction
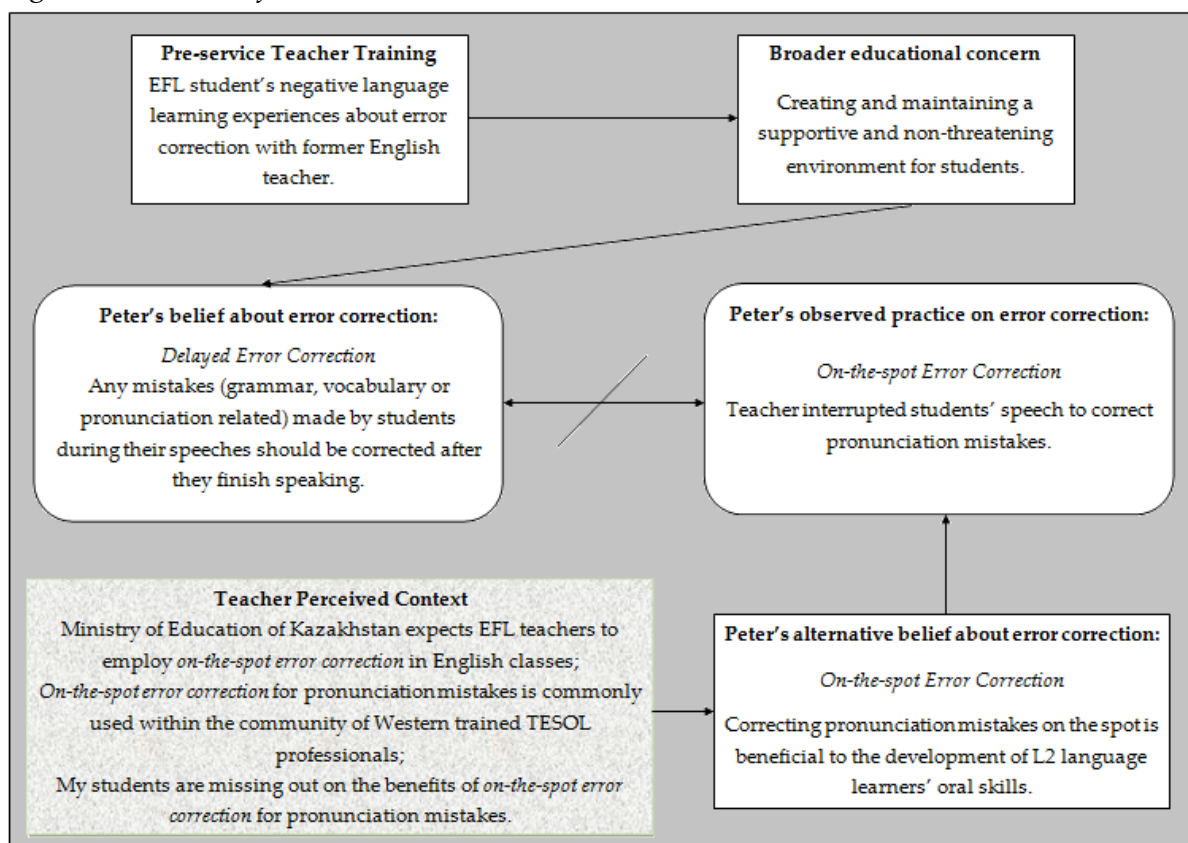
5.2.2 Using students' first language during oral instruction (tension)

Another incident where beliefs were at odds with practices comes from the usage of the students' first language (L1) in Peter's EFL classroom. In pre-observation interviews Peter made it explicit that he did not believe in the value of using L1 in foreign language teaching. He thought that using the mother tongue could inhibit the learning of speaking skills if students resorted to it more times than necessary:

> I try hard not to use the first language during my lessons. I always have it on my mind.
>
> (BI)

> I try to make sure that students are discussing the task in the English language when in groups or pairs. It is not easy to do it, but still, I think EFL teachers should not allow their students to use their first language. It is counterproductive for teaching speaking in English if speaking in the first language turns into a habit.
>
> (SBI – S2)

These beliefs about the role of students' mother tongue in a foreign language classroom appeared to have been informed by Peter's own previous language learning experiences. The experiences he had had as a language learner can roughly be divided into two phases: state school (ages 7-12) and private school (ages 13-18). Peter did not sound overly impressed when he was commenting on the usage of L1 in English classes at the state school. On the other hand, the language learning experiences at the private school were described in a more positive light:

> Speaking the mother tongue during English classes was a norm for both students and teachers at state school because I think it was a Grammar Translation Method. A lot of the tasks we did were about translating stuff from English into Kazakh/Russian. Only some of the phrases like sit down, write into your notebook were in English but the instructions, explanations and tasks were all conducted in the first language. In private school it was completely different [meaning more positive]. We always talked to our English teacher only in English, even when we met him outside the classroom. Students were encouraged to communicate freely and express themselves.

<div align="right">(BI)</div>

Peters' EFL learning experiences at a private school where students always used English as a medium of communication – inside and outside the classroom – and at a state school where L1 was used excessively might have informed Peter's beliefs about L1 usage in the classroom both positively and negatively respectively.

Overall, the analysis of the observational data showed that Peter almost never used L1 himself in the classroom. Thus, his stated beliefs about EFL teachers' use of L1 during lessons were consistent with his practices. Nevertheless, there was one episode in the 12 observed classes where the use of L1 by a student was initiated by Peter. The teacher interrupted the student, who was delivering his PowerPoint presentation, and directed some questions about the presentation to a random student from the audience and then asked the same student to translate some of the sentences on the slide from English to Kazakh. Peter later explained, though, that this was not something he normally did in his lessons:

> I did it to make sure that people were following the presentation, and to see if they really understood the content. Actually I don't do it [ask students to translate sentences] that often. It's just that at that moment I felt students were not listening to the presentation or not understanding it.
>
> (SRI5)

Peter attributed his practices to the need to check students' comprehension of the ongoing lesson, which is one of the academic functions of L1 that language teachers sometimes resort to (Sali, 2014). It is interesting that it was not the fact that students showed any signs of miscomprehension themselves (i.e. they did not ask the teacher or the student delivering the presentation any clarifying questions) but rather Peter's perception that the students were not listening to or understanding the presentation that made him do what he did. This is evidence of how teachers' perceptions of the context can sometimes motivate instructional decisions that are at odds with their stated beliefs. However, since this was the only observed instance of Peter using L1 during 12 observed classes his classroom practices in relation to L1 usage could be considered to match his stated beliefs.

Nonetheless, there was evidence of tension in how Peter reacted to students' usage of L1 in EFL classrooms. The observations of Peter's lessons indicate that students often used their mother tongue among themselves when they discussed tasks in small groups. It could be that students were using L1 to construct solutions to linguistic tasks (Morahan, 2010) when working in groups, which is fairly common in many EFL contexts. However, it is not the occurrence itself that merits attention here, but rather Peter's beliefs about and reactions to it. As mentioned earlier, he was of a strong opinion that EFL teachers should not allow their students to speak in L1 because it might hinder the development of L2 speaking skills. However, some of Peter's students often resorted to their mother tongue when doing group work or pair work, often without Peter providing any instruction not to do so prior to the tasks or making any intervention during them to caution students. The post-lesson

discussion revealed that Peter was in fact aware of the students using L1 when in groups:

> I know, and I reluctantly accept, that when students work in small groups they generally discuss the task in Kazakh or Russian among themselves and only the team captain uses English to deliver the report to the whole class on behalf of his team. I always instruct my students to speak in English even when doing group work but it is difficult to monitor it. And also, I believe students find it awkward to talk to their close friends in English when teacher is not watching; they prefer to use their mother tongue.
>
> (SRI 2)

Peter believed that his students preferred to use L1 instead of English during within-group discussions because he thought that his students, being close friends, felt uncomfortable using English to talk to each other when the teacher was not watching. This could be the reason why Peter did not make any intervention to caution his students about using L1. Thus, this finding lends another support to the claim that teachers' perceptions of their pedagogical contexts can motivate the decisions they make about teaching strategies.

With respect to monitoring students' group work, on many occasions where Peter divided his students into small groups, the number of groups did not exceed three, and he appeared to have enough time available to walk around the class in order to observe the discussions happening within the groups and make interventions where necessary. Further discussion on the matter indicates that it was Peter's concern about students with lower English language proficiency rather than the difficulty to monitor the proceedings that was behind his decision to let students use L1:

> I occasionally let some students talk in their first language during group work because their English is not good enough yet. I feel they react in a negative way every time I caution them for using Kazakh or Russian. They become less active. Students love group work and they always want to get involved at all costs; whether they know the material or not, whether their English is good or bad, whether they contribute to their team's success in Kazakh or in English. I can't keep singling out those

who sometimes use their first language due to their poor language
competence because it is extremely important that they feel part of the
team.

(SRI 2)

The above quotation suggests that Peter was not only aware that some of his
students were using L1 during group discussions, but he also, sometimes
deliberately, chose not to intervene in the proceedings. The reason for that appears
to be Peter's perception of his weaker students' reactions to his remarks and his
desire to support them.

Peter believed that whenever he explicitly registered L1 use with weaker students
during speaking tasks and advised against it, they responded adversely by
becoming inactive, which is the opposite of what he wanted to achieve. This was his
perception of this pedagogical context. Moreover, Peter asserted that no student
should be separated from the learning process or singled out for their poor language
competence, probably because this might result in those students losing face in front
of their peers. He also claimed that students' contributions to the lesson must not be
undervalued because of the form in which they made them. These comments
indicate the emergence of a broader educational concern he had for his students, that
is, providing support for weaker students - using strategies that help to engage
weaker students in tasks and encourage them to contribute to the activity (e.g.
allowing the use of L1 to weaker students in some situations in the classroom during
the practice of oral skills). This pedagogical concern, supported by TPC, seemed to
be overriding Peter's particular belief about not using L1 in a foreign language
classroom. This shows that, although at one level Peter appeared to be displaying
practices that were inconsistent with his particular belief about learning a language,
at another level, these same practices were aligned with broader sets of beliefs about
learning in general.

Consequently, the findings indicate that Peter's perceptions of his pedagogical
context were aligned with his broader educational concern and exerted a greater

influence on his instructional decisions than his specific beliefs about learning a language.

Figure 4 provides an overview of the tension and the impact of Peter's TPC and pedagogical concerns on its emergence.

Figure 4: Instance of tension – using first language in the classroom
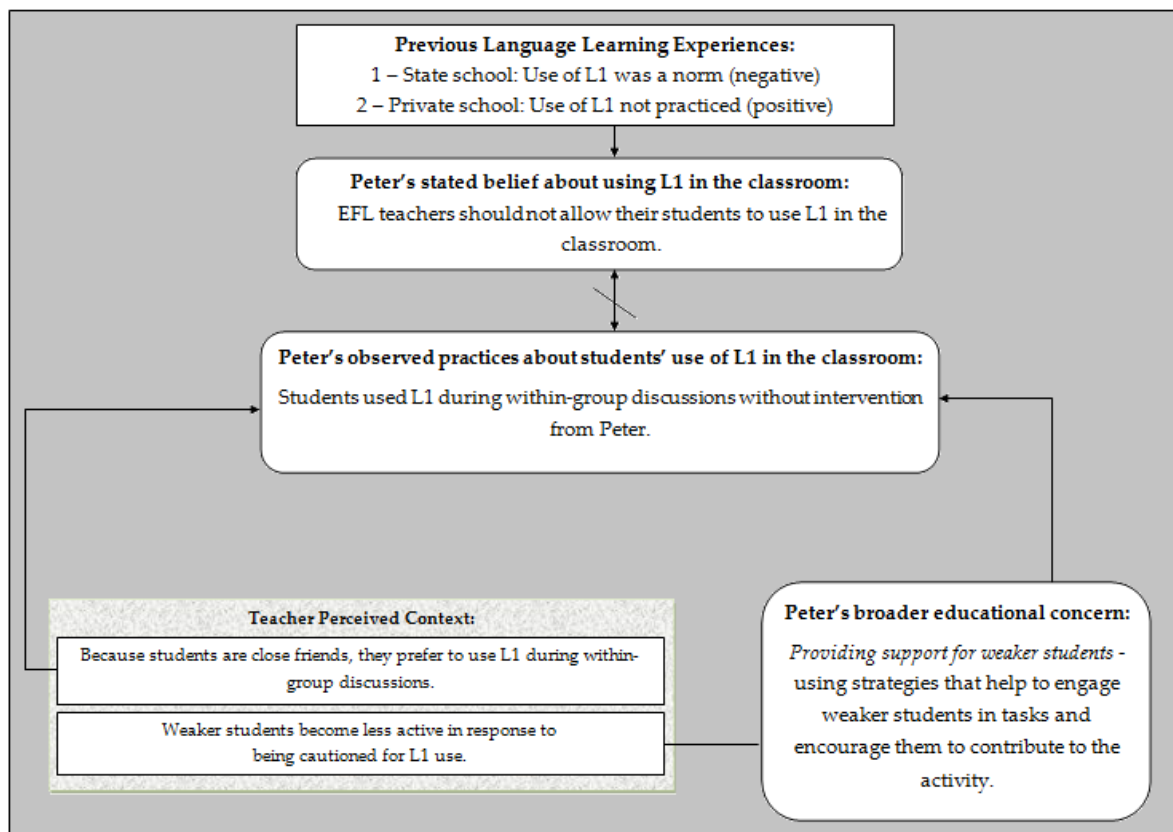
5.2.3 Using group work for teaching speaking (consistency)

There were more instances in Peter's practices where his stated beliefs were congruent with his actions than tensions. One of them is the extensive use of group work in his classrooms to practice speaking. Peter's stated beliefs in pre-observation interviews suggested that he preferred group work to any other student grouping strategies such as pair work or whole class activity for teaching and practicing speaking skills. His observed classroom practices indicated, subsequently, that his actions were in line with his professed beliefs about the value of group work for practicing speaking. Group work was implemented on many occasions over the 12

observed lessons, which suggests that it was a common practice in Peter's EFL classes.

For instance, in lesson 5 students were divided into three teams comprising 6-8 students and asked to make a list of subjects that should be taught in an ideal school. Students were expected to discuss and produce a list of subjects and then one of the group members had to justify their choice of subjects to the whole class. When providing a rationale for this activity Peter explained that students were presented with a chance to practice speaking while also learning new vocabulary that would help them to justify the choices they had made:

> It was a task-based learning activity; they had a clear task in front of them and all the materials they needed [dictionaries] so they could design their lists in any way they like on the condition that they justify their choices. I wanted them to learn new words to defend their ideas and provide as many details as possible when justifying their lists. Otherwise, they would just read the list of subjects and that is it. Students love to argue with us about the inclusion of certain subjects in our curriculum and I actually thought this would turn into a small debate because students engage better when there is a debate.
>
> (SRI 4)

There are a couple of issues worth highlighting here. Firstly, Peter explained that the selection of the topic for this very task was not random. He reported that the types of subjects included in the school curriculum had been a focus of discussion with students before, and he thought that this matter would awaken students' interest and help engage them in a discussion. This is consistent with Peter's stated beliefs in the pre-observation interview where he described the types of discussion and debate topics that can generate students' motivation:

> The topic you bring for a discussion is very important. Students are encouraged to speak best when they are engaged in a debate or a discussion because they have the urge to get their own opinions heard and accepted by others. I like bringing controversial topics into the classroom, depending on their age and level of course, to create stimulating environment for my students to speak.
>
> (BI)

Secondly, Peter asked his students to justify the selection of the subjects they included in their lists. The reason behind this, as suggested by Peter, was to make sure students learn how to defend their own decisions. Perhaps that is why he mentioned that students had the necessary materials they needed and that he expected his students to use those materials to study the English phrases that are common for expressing opinions and use them in an appropriate way. In addition, Peter did not want his students to simply read out the list but to provide as much detail as possible, thus spending more time practicing the target language. A similar concept was evident in an activity that was conducted in a different lesson where, again, students were divided into three groups and were asked to explain the word they had got on a card in English to their respective teams, without actually mentioning the word itself so that their team mates could guess the words. In addition, Peter wrote the list of taboo words on the board that they were not allowed to use when explaining the words:

> I designed this activity to teach and practice speaking. I wanted my students to learn to express their thoughts in full using appropriate expressions. I forbid them to use some mundane words when explaining the meaning of the words on cards, which pushed them to do it using longer sentences than usual. It means more speaking. Still there were some cunning students who found a way round it and managed to explain everything using only one word. Next time I will be more careful with that. But I thought most of them did a great job and were able to explain their words adequately. Just the way I wanted.
>
> (SRI 2)

Peter explained that the omission of taboo words enabled his students to provide a lengthy description of the words, which in turn resulted in students learning proper ways of describing things and formulating longer sentences when speaking, thus spending more time practicing speaking skills. These practices can be linked to Peter's beliefs expressed in the pre-observation scenario-based interview. In particular, when he was responding to scenario 1,

Peter argued that it was typical of students to avoid using full sentences when speaking English in the classroom:

> It's always like that [students resorting to short answers]. Most of the time students try to answer questions in the shortest way possible. Usually I ask my students some follow up questions or ask them to expand their answers. I need to come up with better strategies. I think I might stop accepting those short answers from now on.
>
> (SBI – S1)

The findings therefore suggest that on the two occasions above, the way Peter conducted group work was motivated by his beliefs that: a) students are most effectively engaged in speaking when the topic is carefully and purposefully selected, (hence the topic about school subjects) and b) students should be encouraged to produce longer, more comprehensive responses when speaking the target language in order to learn speaking skills (hence the implementation of a technique with taboo words).

Another group work activity where students practiced speaking skills was conducted during the second lesson with the same sets of students. Only this time, each team got a sheet of paper with job descriptions without the name of the jobs. The task was to identify the jobs described and write the names next to their corresponding definitions. The team that got most of the names right was to win the competition. Peter once again reiterated that the activity was for learning and consolidating active vocabulary, and practicing speaking. However, further discussion during the stimulated-recall interview highlighted the existence of deeper beliefs that were underpinning the formation of small groups and turning the process into a competition:

> The reason I mainly divide my class into three teams is because I believe students have a passion for competition and I believe they learn new aspects of language and get a chance to practice language skills through these games. Students do not show any interest in or motivation for the lesson if I don't divide them into groups and conduct competitions or games. They expect such things from me. I can say from my experience

that the motivation level is completely different when they work in
groups and compete with each other.

(SRI 2)

These comments suggest that the decision to divide students into groups and organize competitions is simultaneously influenced and informed by several factors, such as Peter's desire to design tasks in a way that stimulates learning, his perception of his students (passion for competition) and of their expectations, and his concern to motivate them. Peter thought that his students had a strong desire to compete with each other and that they expected him to organize such competitions in the classroom. Moreover, Peter claimed that his students learned new aspects of the target language because they were engaged in an activity that increased their motivation. It could be inferred from these findings that the consistency between Peter's beliefs and practices in relation to conducting group work was also influenced by the context he perceived, which was informed by his perception of his students and of their expectations.

Furthermore, while students were engaged in discussions within their groups, Peter moved from group to group, observing the proceedings and monitoring students' output. When asked about what exactly he was monitoring, Peter said that he did it to see:

> ...whether everyone was involved in the task, whether they are talking in English or not and whether they were actually working to solve the problem. Mainly I was monitoring those types of things. In addition, one thing I noticed in one of the groups was that students with lower levels of English were asking those who were stronger to help them. They were interacting and working together. That's what I liked the most. But I guess you have already noticed that it doesn't happen in all of the classes.

(SRI 2)

The extract above reveals Peter's great concern for his weaker students, particularly their involvement in the task. He seemed to be pleased with the fact that in one of the groups weaker students were seeking help and advice from stronger peers. Similar statements highlighting Peter's concern for students with lower levels of

proficiency were also expressed during his pre-observation background interview. Earlier in the study Peter explained that one of the biggest challenges for him as an English language teacher was teaching speaking skills. To be precise, he claimed that designing an activity for teaching speaking where every student in the classroom would be involved and everyone would get a chance to speak presented a particular difficulty for him:

> Mostly it is the question of 'How should I design my activities so that I can give everyone an equal amount of attention?' For example, there are mainly five active students with whom I can successfully conduct any speaking activity. But I struggle to get others to speak at all. They either fear to make mistakes or think their English is not good enough to speak. Also, there are some learners who choose to keep quiet because I feel they are too intimidated by those who are active. Students with a higher level of proficiency say they prefer individual tasks to group work or pair work because that way they get the chance to stand out by speaking more. Weaker students, on the other hand, are afraid to speak in any circumstances. That is why, it is a serious challenge and a great responsibility for me to find and maintain the right balance between my students when designing speaking activities.
>
> (BI)

Thus, Peter explained that his primary challenge when designing a speaking activity was to create a setting that would enable every student in his classroom, whether it was a strong student or a weaker one, to get equal opportunities to practice speaking. Peter was thus greatly concerned about providing support to weaker students in that he wanted them to get involved in practicing speaking as much as other learners. This concern appeared to be heavily informed by Peter's perception of the students he deemed to be weaker; that is, those who feared to make mistakes, thought their English was not good enough to speak in the classroom, were intimidated by stronger students, and were afraid to speak in any circumstances. Based on this information, presumably, Peter claimed that it was his responsibility as a teacher to support weaker students when practicing speaking. This could be the

reason why Peter mentioned 'group work' as an ideal way of grouping students to conduct speaking activities that could help involve all his students in the task:

> I think group work is perfect for this matter [supporting weaker students]. […] Even if they [weaker students] don't look confident and make mistakes, which I choose not to notice, they still try to say something in order to prevent their teams from losing the game. And I can see that sometimes they consult stronger students in their teams and memorize what they have to say. But I think it is still better than nothing. In addition, students do not necessarily have to speak to the teacher to practice speaking; talking to each other is good enough for that matter. Working in groups means student-student interaction, which is better than teacher-student for involving everyone and saving time.
>
> (BI)

Apart from its benefits of involving everyone in the activity and supporting weaker students, Peter's belief in the value of using group work seemed to be reinforced with its other notable features like maximizing student conversation practice in the classroom and saving time. That is, Peter believed students got more time to practice speaking by interacting with each other within small groups rather than waiting for a teacher to give them a chance to speak. Peter acknowledged, however, that group work had its flaws. There were two disadvantages of group work that were mentioned in our post-lesson discussion. Peter reported that a) sometimes stronger students dominated the group talk and other members of the group failed to contribute to the discussion at all, and b) students generally used L1 during group discussions which he was aware of and sometimes accepted. Despite these disadvantages, observational data indicate that group work activities appeared to be an integral part of Peter's classroom practices. It could be assumed that Peter's concern for involving weaker students in the speaking activities and providing everyone with equal opportunities to speak outweighed the disadvantages that he believed group work possessed. This is also evident in his comments in the previous extract above about choosing not to notice mistakes made by weaker students, and his awareness of and resignation to the fact that his students sometimes resorted to

L1 during group discussions. This is further confirmed by Peter himself during his post-lesson interview:

> The important thing that compensates for the disadvantages of group work is that it helps to involve everyone in the class and students work together to solve one common problem.
>
> (SRI 2)

The evidence from this section suggests that there were a number of factors that influenced the consistency between Peter's stated beliefs and classroom practices about using group work for teaching speaking. The analysis of these factors highlights the impact of broader educational concerns – some of which coincide with the broader pedagogical concerns described in Sanchez & Borg (2014) - and of the teacher perceived context (TPC) on Peter's decision to implement group work in his classroom:

Broader educational concerns

- *Motivating students* – using strategies that create in learners a willingness to engage with the lesson (e.g. selecting discussion topics that are interesting to students (e.g. *ideal school subjects* group discussion) in order to encourage speaking);

- *Encouraging even participation* – using strategies that help involve every student in the ongoing lesson and provide students with equal opportunities to practise skills (e.g. structuring group work activities in a way that every student gets a chance to speak);

- *Providing support for weaker students* - using strategies that encourage weaker students to contribute to the lesson and engage them in the activities (e.g. speaking-oriented group work activities where weaker students work with stronger peers);

- *Integrating language teaching* – Using tasks that bring primary language skills and associated skills all together during instruction (e.g. conducting group

work tasks to stimulate the practice of speaking in addition to other language aspects such as vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.);

- *Being economical* – using strategies that are efficient, time-wise (e.g. group work activities for enabling student-student interaction).

Teacher perceived context (TPC)

Peter thought that:

- students had a passion for competition;

- students expected him to organize group work activities which involved competitions;

- weaker students did not want to speak in the classroom because they were afraid of making mistakes; underestimated their language abilities; and were intimidated by stronger, more dominant students.

The educational concerns that seemed to motivate Peter's decision to conduct group work activities correspond to some of the pedagogical arguments for using group work in Long & Porter (1985), in that group work increases the quantity of language practice opportunities; create a positive affective climate for shy and weaker students; and increases learners' motivation. The important insight emerging from the data is how Peter's educational concerns interact with his perceptions of his students and of their expectations (TPC), and collectively they seem to inform and reinforce his belief in the value of using group work for teaching speaking. Subsequently, by his extensive implementation of group work activities Peter feels he is responding to his TPC and all the above mentioned educational concerns. This incident of consistency is illustrated in the following figure below:

Figure 5: Instance of consistency – using group work for teaching speaking
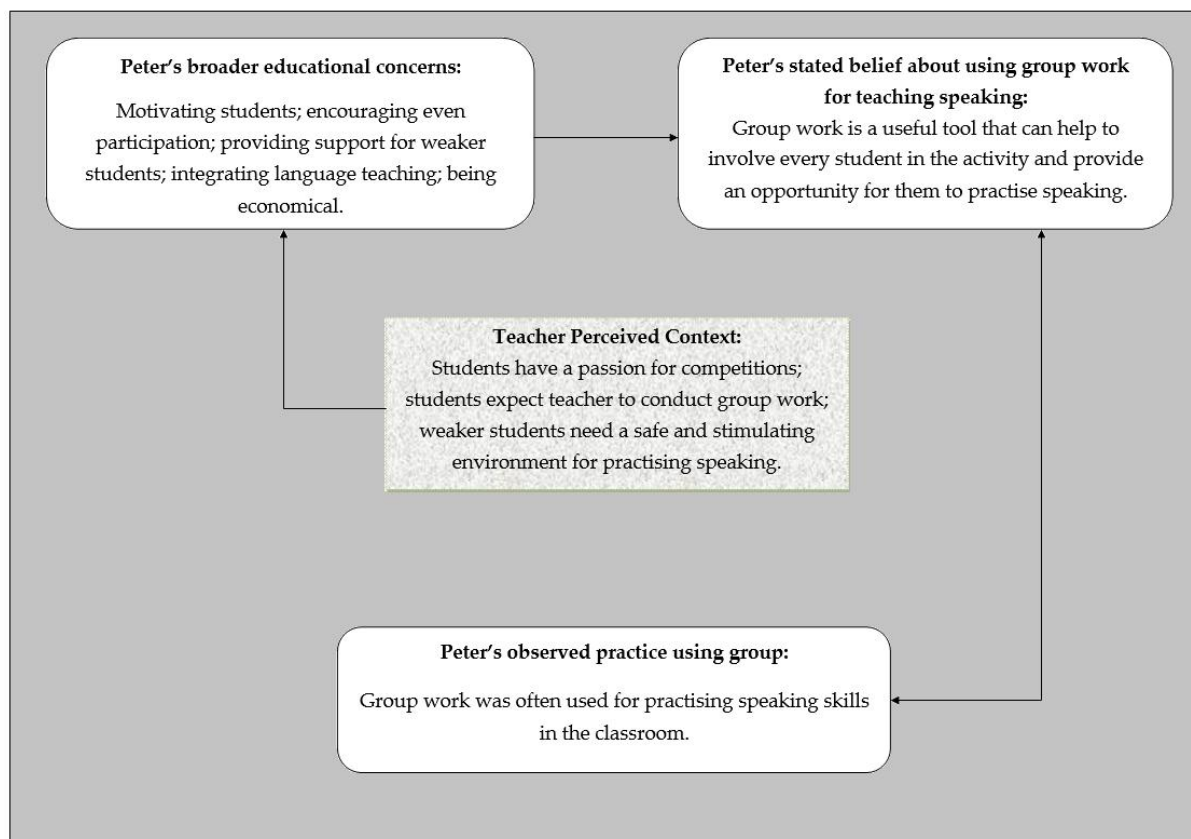
5.3 David

Unlike Peter, David's English language teaching was characterized by his exclusive reliance on course book material and his focus on student mastery of vocabulary and grammar syllabus. Presentation and practice of grammar content was a dominant feature of David's classes. In regards to the teaching of speaking, 11 classroom observations of David's lessons revealed a strong emphasis on direct approaches to the instruction of oral skills. The tasks that he employed for teaching speaking included drills (e.g. pronunciation of words), pattern practice (e.g. questions with *Do*), controlled dialogues and pair work (e.g. short memorized role plays to illustrate level of politeness), book retelling and memorization and recitation of course book texts. An overview of David's observed speaking teaching practices is outlined in Table 7 below. There was evidence from David's interviews to suggest that the reason behind his focus on grammar and preference for controlled speaking tasks was his perception of his students' proficiency level and of their needs:

That is what they need right now. We do a lot of grammar and vocabulary work, but I also try to practise that knowledge through speaking activities. That is how I make sure they master it quicker. They are not ready yet [for free oral practice of the target language]. Maybe later they will prepare and deliver speeches and all that but this is the platform for that. The sooner they master all the grammar content the sooner they begin to do the rest.

(SRI3)

Table 7: David's speaking teaching practices

Class / Episode	Task description
1, 2, 3/1	Memorization and recitation of course book texts (e.g. Boat race & Sydney Olympics)
4	Short oral reports on the topic *My favourite sports character* based on the course book text *Challenge*
3/2, 5,	Memorization and reproduction of dialogues from the textbook
6, 7	Formulating general questions in present tense: construction, memorization and reproduction of dialogues that contained questions with *Do*
11	Retelling books (or book chapters) to the class.

The speaking teaching practices that David utilized were of two types: monologic and dyadic. Examples of individual speaking tasks include the memorization and recitation of full course book texts (1, 2, and 3/1), the delivery of short reports on favourite sports characters (4) and the retelling of books (11). All of the other speaking tasks were conducted through the mediation of pair work. Accordingly, the absence of group and whole-class discussions at any stages of the lessons was a distinct characteristic of David's speaking teaching practices.

Another common feature of David's oral instruction was that it appeared to be completely teacher-fronted. He introduced topics and initiated all the interaction in the classroom and rarely invited students' input. In the 11 lessons that I observed, there was little evidence of David attempting to facilitate a full-class discussion by encouraging students to share their own opinions on a topic, which was in complete contrast to the other cases. However, David seemed adamant that all of the above presented tasks prepared students to the ultimate goal of learning a foreign

language: being able to fully express yourself in the target language through oral communication:

> Of course, the main reason we learn a foreign language is to be able to orally communicate your thoughts through it. All the activities that we do, such as dialogues, pair work, memorization and extra reading, are designed to prepare students for that aim. But it doesn't happen overnight. The grammar and vocabulary that students learn and then consolidate through these tasks is part of teaching speaking because without those foundations they won't be able to speak freely later.

(SRI 6)

Thus, the extract above suggests that David's understanding of teaching speaking at elementary and pre-intermediate levels was that the primary focus should be on mastering and practising the accurate form through controlled speaking tasks so that the students are well prepared for freer practice of oral skills at more advanced stages.

The analysis of the data revealed mixed levels of consistency between David's espoused beliefs and enacted practices. The account which follows is a review of instances of tension and consistency identified between David's stated beliefs and classroom practices in relation to the teaching of speaking.

5.3.1 Text memorization (consistency)

One of the instances of consistency comes from David's use of memorization as a strategy to teach and practice speaking skills in his classrooms. In his pre-observation interview David mentioned this very technique as a useful learning strategy that he often preferred to employ in his classes to teach speaking. The observation of his lessons revealed that memorization was used widely and seemed to be an integral part of his teaching repertoire. In particular, during lessons 1, 2 and 3 students were invited to the board one by one to deliver full memorized texts in front of the whole class on topics such as 'Boat race' and 'Sydney Olympics' from the course book. The analysis of pre-observation and post-observation interviews along

with the observational data itself revealed the probable source of the belief about the said method and the potential factors that appeared to have influenced and determined the congruence between David's espoused beliefs and enacted practices about the value of memorization as a strategy for teaching speaking.

David's belief about memorization seemed to trace back to his school days where he said he had experienced the benefits of learning large texts by heart as a language learner:

> We had an English teacher who would always ask us to memorize texts on different topics from the course book and then deliver them in front of the whole class. I can still remember many lines from those texts. It was good for learning vocabulary, some grammar material and developing speaking skills.
>
> (BI)

David's belief in the value of memorization appeared to have been informed by his own previous language learning experiences. These experiences seemed to have had a positive influence on the development of his English language competence, particularly vocabulary and speaking as well as some grammar content. Previous language learning experiences have been found to inform teachers' beliefs (Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Sanchez, 2013); in this case, there might be an indication of direct influence on the practices too:

> We used to do it [memorizing texts on English classes] a lot when I was a student. […] This is something similar to that. I like to employ it myself in my classrooms. I ask my students to memorize texts because I strongly believe that it will have the same positive impact on them.
>
> (SR1)

David seemed convinced that memorization could bolster his students' language capacity in a similar way that it improved his. There is evidence that teachers tend to replicate some of the techniques from their own previous language learning experiences that they thought were effective (Sanchez, 2010). As a matter of fact, what David was doing in his classrooms appeared to be exactly the same as what his

teachers did when he was a student. For instance, when David was describing his language learning experiences in relation to memorization, he mentioned that they would memorize texts from course books, tongue twisters and even some rules about speaking, writing and reading. Indeed, during lessons 5, 6 and 9 similar practices were observed. Therefore, it could be suggested that David's previous language learning experiences had a direct influence on the implementation of memorization in his classrooms.

Furthermore, during his post-lesson interviews David referred to several other reasons as to why he preferred using memorization to support foreign language learning:

> By memorizing texts students firstly train their tongues and learn to pronounce the English words correctly, which is essential for them when learning speaking. Moreover, I believe that they will remember these texts forever. For instance, I still remember the texts that I memorized at school. Furthermore, as these texts are authentic, students learn the grammar structure too. For example, they learn when to use gerund and infinitive. Sometimes students do not completely understand some of the new vocabulary in the texts and their pronunciation even if I explain it to them. And the grammar-related points they come across in the same text might not be clear to them either. I am familiar with that feeling. So it's better for them just to memorize it. Later they will understand it when they actually apply those memorized chunks to real life communication.

<div align="right">(SR1)</div>

It appears that for David memorization and recitation of texts represented a useful tool that could help students when they struggled with new vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar content that came with the texts in the course book. Particularly, David believed that memorization was necessary for his students in order to develop speaking skills since it helped to master the appropriate pronunciation of English words. Additionally, memorization enhanced students' understanding of some grammar material (e.g. gerund and infinitive) and of active vocabulary. Finally, another important feature of memorization, as suggested by

David, was that it supported the internalisation of knowledge if/when memorised chunks were applied to real life communication. This is also referred to as proceduralization of the language, when, through memorization, chunks of texts become easily accessible to the language learner whenever he/she needs to retrieve them (N. de Jong & Perfetti, 2011). Consequently, David's perception of his students (students do not always understand vocabulary and grammar-related points in texts; students need help with pronunciation) in this example seemed to have prompted him to practise memorization because it was in line with his pedagogical concern to reinforce learning (using strategies that stimulate practising and learning speaking skills, together with other language aspects such as vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation; using strategies that proceduralize the language).

Similar findings were revealed upon further analysis of the post-lesson discussion:

> Another advantage it [memorization] has is that they can't cheat. If the task is a written one then it is possible for them to copy it from somewhere or get help from other students. But with memorization it is not possible at all. They spend a lot of time memorizing these texts that is why you can see that they show great desire to deliver it because it is the product of their hard work. And by delivering it in front of the class they develop their speaking skills.

> (SR1)

The extract above suggests that David perceived memorizing texts and then reciting them as a reliable assignment which is highly convenient for a teacher in that it makes monitoring cheating on tests relatively easier than in written tasks. In addition, David thought that his students showed great willingness to deliver memorized texts because they spent a considerable amount of time accomplishing the task. Thus, David revealed that he employed memorization because it assisted him in assessing students' work and in motivating his students. Subsequently, the consistency appeared to be influenced by two further educational concerns emerging from the data (assessing students' work and motivating students) which were in agreement with his TPC (students demonstrate increased willingness to participate

when they have to memorize texts; students cannot cheat during the recitation of the memorized texts).

I will now summarize the factors influencing the consistency of beliefs and practices about the value of memorization covered in this section. The analysis of these factors highlights the impact of David's previous language learning experiences, of his broader educational concerns, and of teacher perceived context on his decision to implement memorization in his classes.

The educational concerns emerging from the data are as follows:

- *Reinforcing learning* – Using strategies that stimulate proceduralization of the taught content (e.g. asking students to memorize and recite texts so that they internalize grammar points, learn new vocabulary and practise pronunciation).

- *Motivating students* – selecting materials which create in learners a willingness to engage with the lesson (e.g. asking students to memorize texts that are meaningful to them).

- *Assessing students' work* – using strategies that help monitor cheating during tests (e.g. asking students to memorize and recite texts instead of utilizing written tests).

With regard to David's TPC in this instance, it seemed to comprise perceptions that students struggled with active vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar content that came with the texts in the course book; students were eager to deliver memorized texts because of the amount of time spent accomplishing them; and that students could not cheat during the recitation of the memorized texts.

Overall, the findings in this section suggest that David's previous language learning experiences about memorization had a major influence on the consistency of beliefs and practices. They not only informed his belief about the value of this method but also had a direct impact on his present practices. Moreover, there is an indication

that David's perceptions of the context and broader educational concerns were also informed by his previous language learning experiences.

As reported earlier, David held extremely positive recollections of memorization during his school days and sounded convinced that it had the same beneficial effect on his own students as well. In particular, he described how memorization fostered the development of his students' language skills (vocabulary, speaking, pronunciation and grammar) in the same way as it had done his own. In addition, the design and the execution of memorization-based activities and tasks in his classes looked similar to what David described he did as a language learner himself. Based on this, it could be assumed that the educational concern for reinforcing learning, which Peter claimed memorization addressed, and the perception of the pedagogical context that prompted him to use the said method could have also been informed by David's previous language learning experiences. In other words, David might have been describing his own feelings from his time as a language learner when he said that students struggled with new vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar content in the course book texts. That is why, he probably believed that memorization was convenient for *reinforcing learning* because he had experienced all these benefits of memorization as a language learner himself.

In summary, these findings suggest that previous language learning experiences can directly influence teachers' current classroom practices, guide the way they perceive their pedagogical contexts and inform broader educational concerns. This example of consistency is illustrated in Figure 6 below.

Figure 6: Instance of consistency – memorization and recitation of texts for teaching speaking
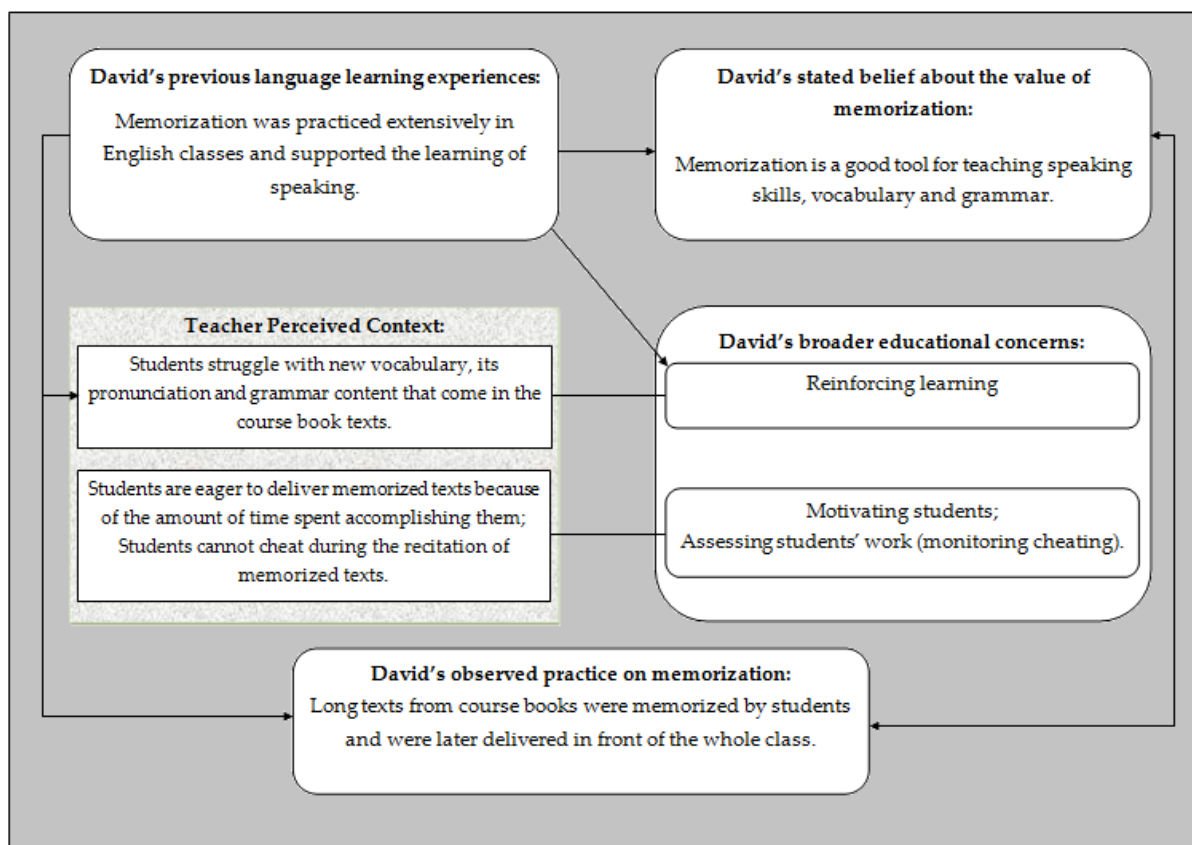
5.3.2 Using students' first language (consistency and tension)

The next example is related to the use of L1 in EFL classrooms and illustrates instances of both consistency and tension with respect to David's beliefs and practices. The consistency was observed in regards to David's own use of L1 in the lessons while the tension was encountered in connection with David's reaction to situations where his students' resorted to Kazakh/Russian instead of English.

In his pre-observation interview David reported that during a parent-teacher conference at the beginning of the academic year he was at the receiving end of some pointed remarks about students' speaking skills. Some parents were discontented with their children's failure to demonstrate their speaking abilities when on holidays abroad and were openly suggesting that the school change its English language teaching approach:

> Some parents complained at the beginning of the year that their children failed to speak in English when they were abroad on holidays. They suggested that maybe we should focus more on teaching speaking skills than doing just written grammar work. After that meeting I thought that I should only use the English language with my students from minute one till the bell rings. I later told those parents the same. Initially students found it unusual, but now they speak in English with me too, even during the breaks. I think that is the right way. Students will learn to speak in English faster if the teacher avoids using first language during lessons.
>
> (BI)

It seems that David started to exclusively use English in his classes in response to some of the parents' critical comments about their children's poor speaking skills. The fact that David's first reaction to these remarks was to try to eliminate the use of L1 from his discourse with students, inside and outside the classroom, and that his students initially found it 'unusual' could imply that prior to that conference David used the L1 during his classes. In any case, David's reaction to that meeting was that he should refrain from using Kazakh and Russian to support the improvement of his students' speaking skills. Accordingly, the data revealed that David did not use the L1 in any of the 11 English language lessons I observed:

> When you come to an English language lesson it is only natural that you speak only English. [...] For students it only takes to see their teacher use the first language once for it to become a dangerous precedent. For them it means that they can also resort to Kazakh/Russian whenever they want. First language is already present in their speech, and if they also see me doing it then they will never get rid of that habit. That would really hamper the development of their oral skills.
>
> (SR1)

David believed that using only English when communicating with his students could accelerate the progress in student's speaking skills (see quote from the BI above). This belief, in turn, appears to have been facilitated and reinforced by David's perception of parents' expectations (i.e. parents expect EFL teachers to focus more on speaking skills during English classes). The decision to eliminate the use of L1 from his discourse with students seems to have been further supported by

David's perception of his students' interpretations of the teacher's L1 use (for students the teacher's use of L1 signifies an approval for using it as well). Thus, in response to his TPC, David produced practices that were consistent with his stated beliefs (see Figure 7). This is evidence of how the teacher's perception of the context can facilitate the enactment of the teacher's espoused belief.

Figure 7: Instance of consistency – teacher's use of students' first language
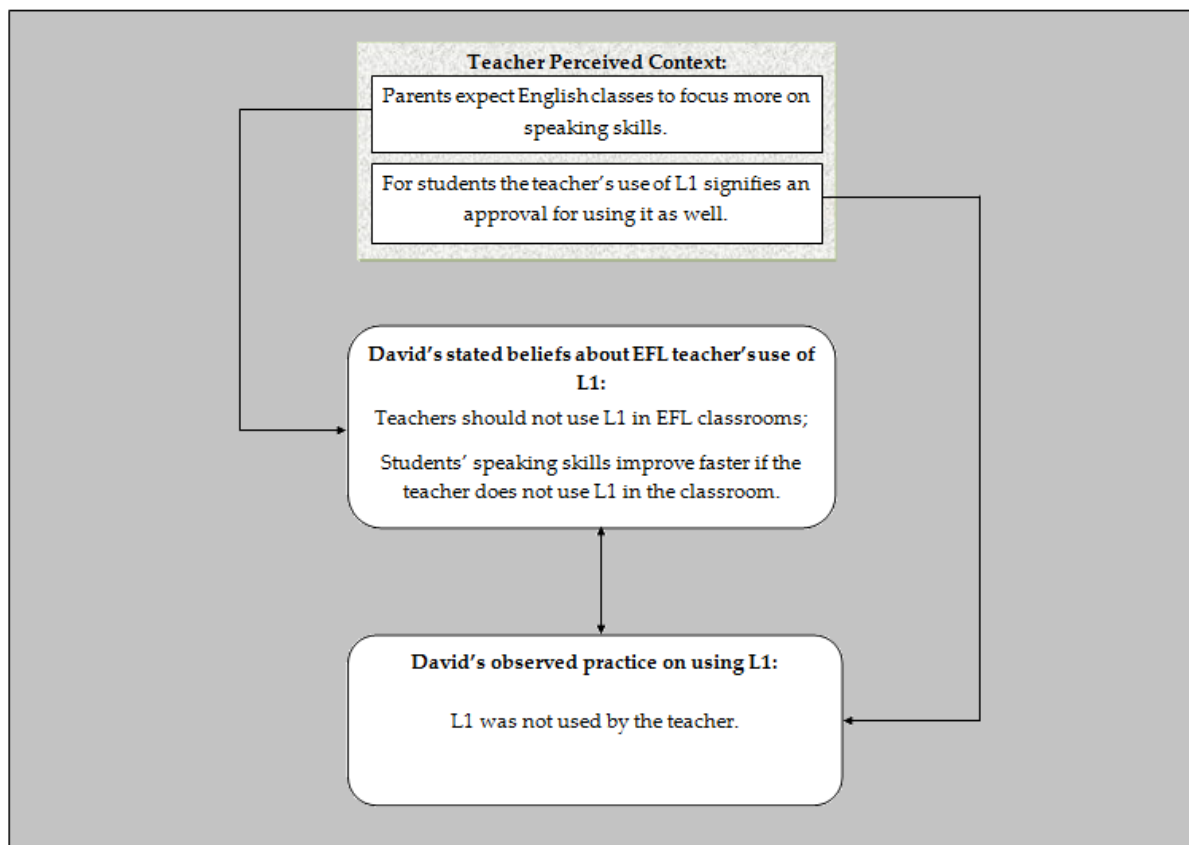
However, a tension between beliefs and practices was identified when it came to students' use of L1 in the classroom and David's professed position about it. David made it explicit in his pre-observation interviews that students should not be allowed to use L1 during lessons if they wanted to improve their speaking skills. He even thought that this was an unspoken rule at the school regarding EFL classes:

> I believe students should not use the first language at all. Sometimes they want to express their ideas using Kazakh or Russian but I prefer not to allow it. I think it is an unofficial school policy that using the first language should not be allowed. Students should try to do it in English

even if the message might be distorted. Allowing students to use Kazakh or Russian whenever they struggle to express themselves in English actually hinders the development of their speaking skills. This is because when students handle those tricky situations with the help of the first language they don't feel they need to learn to convey their message using only English.

(SBI)

Despite David's stated belief that students should not be allowed to use L1 in class, the observational data revealed that it was a rather difficult task to accomplish. Kazakh and Russian were used by students on many occasions during the lessons not only among themselves when working on assignments, but also during student-teacher interaction. In lessons 1 and 5 some of the students directed their questions to the teacher and gave their own responses to questions in full Kazakh sentences. On these occasions David did not make any attempts to impede the proceedings. He did not instruct his students not to use L1 nor did he offer any alternative solutions that might have resulted in students producing the English equivalents of those Kazakh sentences, as he had suggested during the pre-observation interview:

If I feel that forcing a student to speak in English can hurt his self-esteem, especially if the student claims he can't answer in English, I help him by giving him some hints in English. Then, we can agree on the answer he prefers. This could be a solution to the situation without actually letting the student use the first language.

(SBI)

David's pre-observation comments indicate that he was determined not to let his students use Kazakh or Russian. He had argued he would implement different strategies to support students' use of English if they were unable to express their ideas in the L2 and if he felt their confidence could be weakened. Nevertheless, it was difficult to find any links between what David initially said he would do and what he actually did on such incidents during the observed lessons. The post-lesson discussion with David implied that he attributed this tension to his perception of the context and his broader educational concerns:

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> There are some students who do not attempt to speak English at all even if I ask the question in English. I am helpless in these situations. I cannot force them to speak in English, can I?! [...] Perhaps I could do it. I could maybe refuse to accept their answers given in the first language until they produce English equivalents. But I fear they might start hating the English classes altogether if I do that. My classes are mostly scheduled in the afternoon and students come to me having already attended five or six other lessons. They are exhausted and I do not want to stress them even more. If I do, then they might start hating me and the English classes which is very bad for teaching and learning processes.
>
> (SR1)

David argued that putting pressure on his students by forcing them to speak exclusively in English at times when they were not capable of doing so (i.e. exhaustion) could jeopardise the relationship they had and affect students' opinion about him and English classes. The extract suggests that, therefore, David sacrificed his belief about not letting students use L1 in the classroom to maintain a friendly relationship with his students, hence the tension. On the other hand, the analysis indicates that, although David's practices appeared to be in stark contrast with his stated beliefs in this instance, they were seemingly consistent with his broader educational concerns for *building and maintaining good rapport with students* – using strategies that help establish and sustain a harmonious relationship with students (e.g. allowing students to use L1 during L2 oral practice). This is a good example of how David had to make sense of and choose between two competing beliefs that implied completely different actions in connection with students' use of L1. He decided to prioritize the broader educational belief in this case (i.e. good rapport between students and the teacher should be maintained for productive teaching and learning processes) because his perception of the pedagogical context (i.e. students come to EFL classes feeling exhausted having already attended five to six other lessons) was conducive to it. Thus, it indicates that David held the value of a healthy relationship with his students in much higher regard than the limited value of not letting students use L1.

Correspondingly, in this example, the tension between stated beliefs and practices occurred because broader educational concerns exerted a more powerful influence on the practices and were supported by the TPC. Figure 8 provides the overview of the tension and the reasons for it described in this section.

Figure 8: Instance of tension – students' use of first language
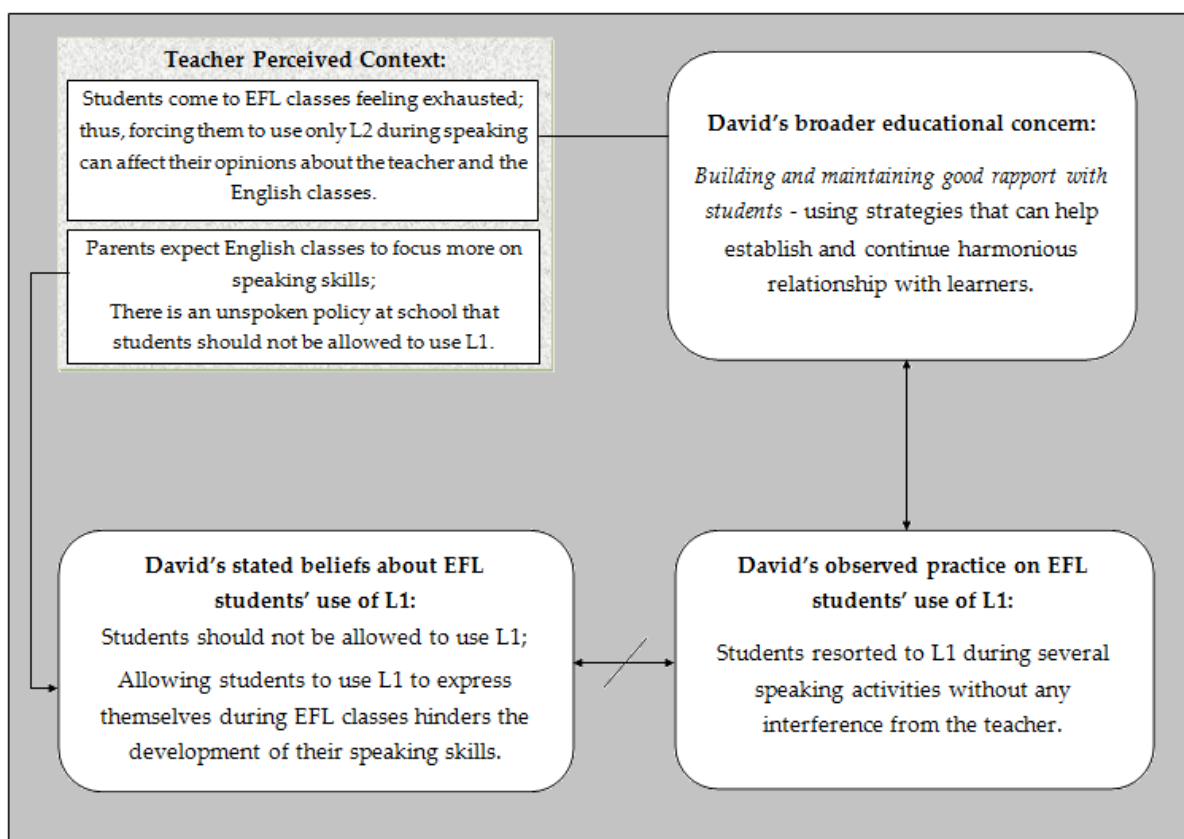
5.3.3 Using pair work for teaching speaking (consistency and tension)

There was another instance in David's practices where both consistency and tension were identified. These examples come from David's implementation of pair work in his classes and his professed desire to utilize one specific feature of this interactional pattern. During the scenario-based interview David's responses to the second scenario highlighted his belief about the value of pair work and its benefits in helping to engage all the students in classroom activities and saving time. Observations of David's lessons indicated that his practices were consistent with his stated beliefs. He extensively and exclusively employed pair work in his classes as

proposed by his initially espoused beliefs. Namely, students worked in pairs to construct and deliver dialogues during communicative exercises, to work on grammar and vocabulary points and when engaging in listening, writing and reading activities as well:

> We practise pair work more frequently during lessons than any other interactional patterns. Pair work helps to involve everyone in the practice of speaking and saves a bit of time. I can't speak to everyone during the lesson. There are 26 students in my class with only 45 minutes allocated for one lesson. And with pair work they all get the opportunity to practise and develop their speaking skills.

> (SBI)

In the passage above, David argued that pair work was a convenient grouping strategy in that it aided in providing all of his students with an opportunity to practise speaking. For David, apparently, this was an important characteristic of pairing students during speaking tasks because he thought that otherwise, some students would not get a chance to speak. He added that 45 minutes allocated for one English language lesson was not sufficient for students to practise and, subsequently, develop their speaking skills. Thus, the data suggest that the implementation of pair work was guided by David's educational concerns to *involve everyone* in the practice of speaking and to *be economical* (i.e. save time). These concerns were further reinforced by his perception of the pedagogical context (i.e. L2 class duration is not enough for everyone to practise speaking with the teacher).

As mentioned earlier, observational data revealed that pair work was preferred to other grouping methods such as group work, mingling or whole class activities and David had his own reasons for it:

> I prefer to employ pair work for oral practice than group work. The reason I do not conduct much group work activities is that I think my students are still too young for that. They start to make too much noise in the place and it becomes difficult for me to monitor the proceedings. I don't like shouting and ordering around. I want to encourage and nudge my students to do things instead of directly shouting and ordering. That

is why I prefer to avoid activities that can lead to classroom management problems. I have not had any troubles with pair work.

(SR1)

The extract reveals the factors that seem to have influenced David's decision to reject other grouping methods in favour of pair work and as such consistency between stated beliefs and practices occurred. David believed that the order of the lesson should not be disrupted by activities that could potentially cause student indiscipline and that the students must be positively encouraged and guided instead of being shouted and directly ordered in order to maintain a productive classroom atmosphere. Consequently, David thought that conducting pair work activities could potentially result in an undesirable behaviour of his 'young' students which could lead to classroom management issues that he wanted to avoid.

The overall insights emerging from the data seem to suggest that David's broader educational concerns here were the main reason behind the consistent implementation of pair work. These educational concerns are:

- *Encouraging even participation* - using strategies that help involve every student in the ongoing lesson and provide students with equal opportunities to practise language skills (e.g. teaching oral skills through pair work so that every student gets a chance to speak during the lesson);
- *Being economical* - using strategies that are efficient, time-wise (e.g. pair work activities for enabling student-student interaction and saving time);
- *Maintaining discipline* – using strategies that help prevent student misbehaviour and classroom management issues (e.g. conducting speaking tasks through pair work instead of group work)

These concerns were supported by David's perception of the pedagogical context (class duration is not enough for everyone to practise speaking with the teacher; students do not cause classroom management issues when working in pairs) and reinforced his belief about pair work (pair work is a useful tool for involving

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everyone in the practice of speaking) (see Figure 9). The implementation of pair work, subsequently, appears to have been regarded as a viable way to respond to the broader educational concerns, and deemed congruent with the perception of the pedagogical context.

Figure 9: Instance of consistency – using pair work for teaching speaking
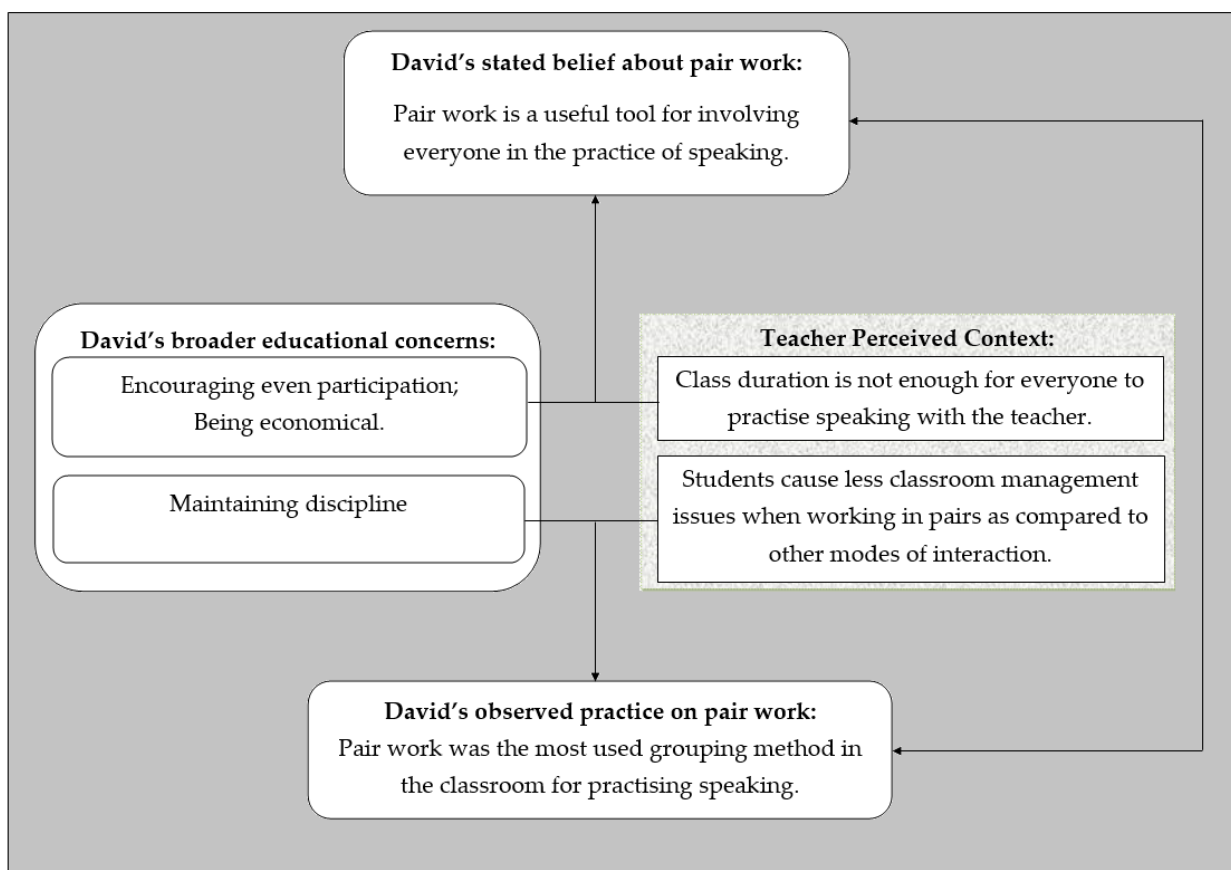
However, the instance where David's practices were not in line with his stated beliefs was identified in his use of pair work as a tool to help students with lower levels of English to practise and improve their speaking skills. In the pre-observation interview David argued that he liked forming pairs of students with different levels of English proficiency and, if necessary, would introduce a policy which required a stronger student to work with a weaker one. The motivation behind the idea appeared to be David's concern for weaker students. David believed that stronger

students could help their weaker peers practise and develop their oral skills even if some of them might not like the overall proposition:

> Some may not like that idea saying: 'I don't want to work with this student; he is too slow. Can I just do it all by myself and hand it in quickly'. I don't accept such excuses. That is why I monitor them to make sure they are talking to each other. If I notice that the majority of the work is being done by the stronger student then I remind him that they are going to get a joint mark for the work and that the performance of his partner will affect the overall score they get. Then he realizes that he has to help the weaker student too. In this way I guess I can make that partnership work.
>
> (SBI)

Nevertheless, David was not observed implementing that particular idea in his classroom. Unless such pairs (comprising a strong and a weak student) had been already formed prior to David's participation in the research project, students always worked with the same partners they were sitting next to at the beginning of the observations, and were not observed to switch them on any other English classes that followed. The post-lesson discussion highlighted the impact of teacher perceived context and of a broader educational concern on the emergence of the tension in this instance:

> That is a good technique that I like but it is not always applicable. Students choose their partners themselves. They always sit and work together with that person in the classroom, and thus become inseparable. That is why I do not want to be intrusive. These are still kids. […] I don't know exactly who they get on well with in the classroom. If I make them sit with a different student it might turn out that they do not like each other that much and the partnership will not work. When it doesn't work they struggle to focus on the lesson let alone help each other. Losing focus and interest in the lesson is the last thing I want to happen. For that reason, I prefer to let them choose their own partners.
>
> (SR3)

David thought that his students did not like his idea of forming pairs with different students and, therefore, they chose the people they wanted to work with themselves. David was worried that his proposal, aimed at helping

weaker students, could turn out to be counterproductive if, as a result, students were to lose interest in and focus on the lesson. That being the case, it would clearly contradict David's educational concern emerging from the data for gaining and sustaining students' attention – using strategies that help to keep students focused on the lesson (e.g. allowing students to work with the partners of their own choice during pair work, as opposed to forming forced pairs, in order to prevent distraction from and disinterest in the activity).

The main reason behind the tension in this instance appeared to be David's prioritization of the TPC (students prefer forming their own pairs; students struggle to focus on tasks if they are paired with students with whom they do not have friendly relationship) over pair work's potential to promote collaborative work between weaker and stronger students. The decision to allow students to work with the partners of their own choice was consistent with David's educational concern for gaining and sustaining students' attention, and that, seemingly, tipped the balance in favour of TPC (see Figure 10).

Figure 10: Instance of tension – pairing weaker & stronger students for oral practice
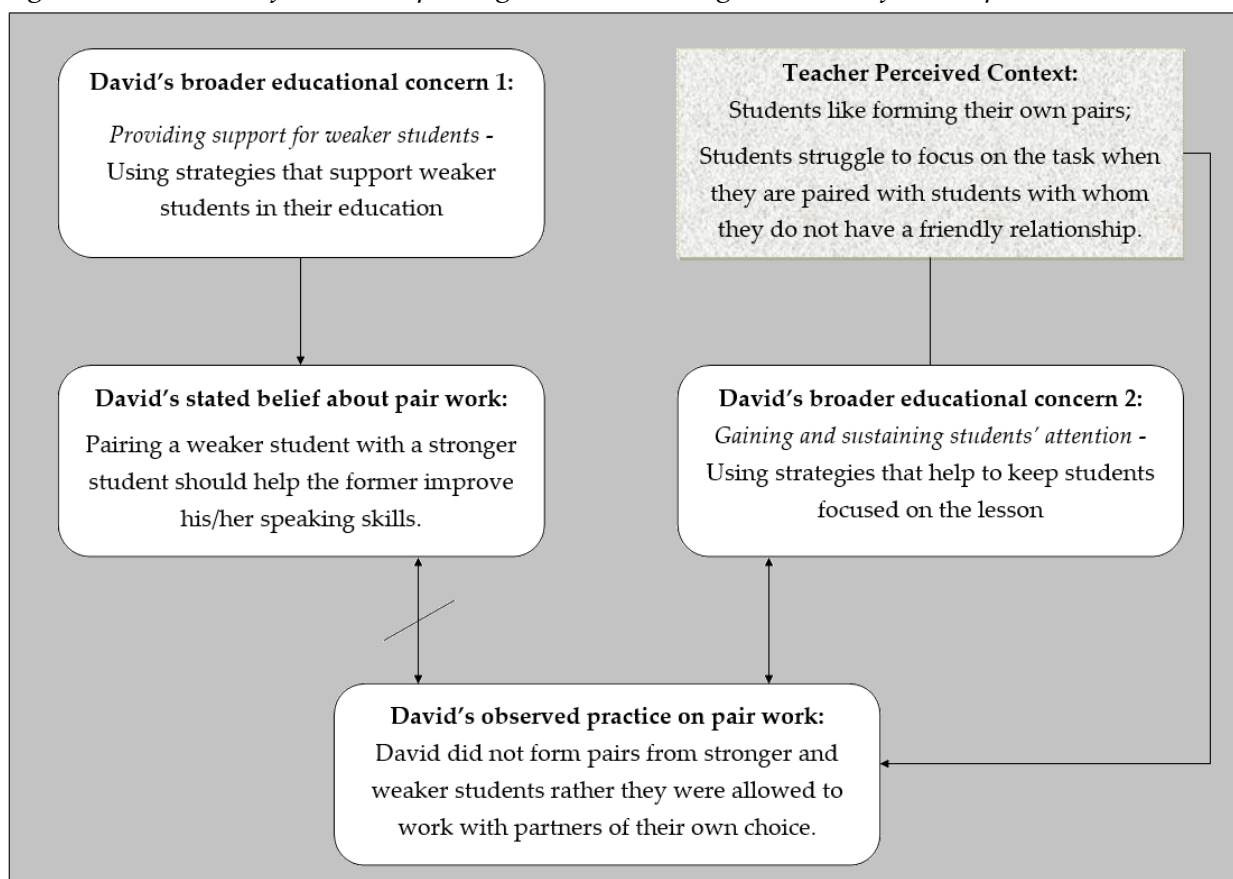
5.4 Adam

This section presents the findings for the third case involved in the current study. Adam was an advocate of learner-centred teaching in that he believed that students should be treated as people who come to the classroom with their own worldview and can contribute to the teaching and learning process. This was largely reflected in his practices as he generally adopted a communicative approach to language teaching. Table 8 below illustrates the activities that Adam's employed in order to teach speaking.

Table 8: Adam's speaking teaching practices

Class / Episode	Task description
4, 5	Individually delivered PowerPoint presentations on free topics
8	As a whole class students defined the term *device* and provided their examples.
12	Whole-class discussion about holidays.
13	Whole-class discussion around two questions: 1) What are the most popular

	places to visit in Kazakhstan; 2) Do people from our country go abroad for holidays and where?
20	Whole-class discussion about superstitions
21	Expressions for making invitations: construction and reproduction of dialogues using the expressions

The majority of Adam's speaking teaching practices depicted in the table above (except for the pair work activity in lesson 21) seemed to represent an indirect approach to the instruction of speaking. Those tasks were of two types: individually delivered oral presentations (examples 4 and 5) and full-class discussions (examples 8, 12, 13 and 20). The approach in these tasks was indirect in that none of those activities seemed to be designed for acquiring any new specific aspect of speaking, but were rather focused on practicing the skills and knowledge students already possessed.

Although the conversations during whole-class speaking tasks developed around certain themes (usually introduced by Adam), the form and the structure of oral production by both the students and the teacher were spontaneous. The interaction in the classroom was mainly initiated by Adam; however, he was prepared to withhold any intercession if learners expanded on the topic and were eager to converse further with each other. The language produced during oral presentations was different, though, because it was prepared and practiced prior to the performance rather than incidental. However, during the course of speech preparation, students still enjoyed the freedom of selecting the topics, the structure and the language of talks. Moreover, the emphasis appeared to be on the development of fluency as Adam did not correct errors during students' talks. The common objective of these tasks, as expressed by Adam in post-observation interviews, appeared to be the provision of opportunities for the practice of speaking:

> This is what I understand as teaching speaking. It's all about getting them
> to speak no matter what. I think what our students lack in general is the

oral practice. I believe I am providing that opportunity for them by all these whole class discussions, oral warm-up activities and presentations. I am not completely sure if these [tasks] teach them speaking skills. Maybe it is not teaching after all but only practising. But students do not learn speaking skills if they are not actually speaking in the classroom.

(SRI 4)

Adam's comments indicate that for him teaching oral skills was about creating conditions in his classroom through various tasks for oral practice to take place.

The only direct speaking task was the pair work activity in lesson 21. That is to say, the focus of the task was on mastery and practice of a specific feature of oral interaction: common English expressions for making invitations. In order to conduct that activity students first listened to a conversation between two people. Adam then displayed the list of expressions for making invitations on the board - which were grouped under three categories: inviting, accepting and declining – and asked his students to identify the ones that they thought were used in the conversation. Having studied and memorized the given material with the whole class, students, then, prepared and performed their own dialogues to practise the newly covered piece of knowledge. Another detail in the execution of this task that led me to interpret it as a direct one was the fact that Adam asked his students to use the dialogue they had listened to as a template for their own work. This meant that during this very task there was less freedom on the structure and the language that students could use.

Another noteworthy feature of Adam's speaking practices was the personalisation and localisation of the materials. While he generally followed the textbook prescribed for the course, he also seemingly employed instructional strategies to make the book materials suitable for his students. For example, the topic of lessons 12 and 13 was *Tourism and Travel* and the textbook material supposed to be used for classroom discussion was titled *British on holiday*. Instead of using that text, Adam started lesson 12 talking about how he had spent his latest holiday and invited his

students to share their own experiences as well. He followed it up with another full-class discussion activity in lesson 13 which revolved around two questions that Adam displayed on the board: 1) What are the most popular places to visit in Kazakhstan; 2) Do people from our country go abroad for holidays and where? (see Table 8 for full description). Thus, whilst the main topic of the lessons remained unchanged (*Tourism and Travel*), it was no longer about the *British on holiday*, but about students' and Kazakhstanis' holiday experiences.

The next sub-sections aim to present the findings in relation to the instances of consistencies and tensions occurring in Adam's belief-practice relationship.

5.4.1 Role of L1 in teaching speaking (consistency)

Adam's classroom practices were overall in congruence with his stated beliefs. An example of consistency related to his position on the role of L1 in English language classes. In the pre-observation interviews Adam expressed a belief that he had an un-censorious attitude towards the use of L1 in EFL classrooms. He argued that EFL teachers should neither explicitly advocate nor strictly prohibit the use of L1. He believed that the priority should be to encourage students to use English as the primary means of communication for the sake of practising and improving speaking skills; yet if the situation in the classroom required it, he would be open to the use of L1:

> Teachers should not openly promote the use of L1. We should let students feel that we expect them to speak in English. That should always be our priority so that students get to improve their speaking skills. […] But I want to think of myself as a flexible teacher. Depending on the situation in the classroom I am prepared to use Russian or Kazakh and will allow my students to use it too.
>
> (SBI-S2)

Nevertheless, the analysis of the data indicated that Adam had not always been a proponent of a cross-lingual approach to ELT. Previously, Adam was of the opinion

that there should be no room for Kazakh or Russian in English language classes (monolingual approach):

> When I first arrived at KTLs [Kazakh-Turkish Lyceum] the feeling was that EFL teachers should be very strict about L1. It was like an unofficial rule. When you are just starting to teach you don't improvise, you follow the rules. I sincerely believed that it was the best way to support the teaching of speaking in the target language. Some students struggled with this policy, but the feeling was that their peers would help them to catch up. My colleagues advised me not to relax the rule in any case for students' own sake. And I followed that rule until last year.
>
> (BI)

The extract above suggests that Adam perceived that the avoidance of L1 in EFL classes was an unspoken rule that he, as a novice teacher at the time, had to follow. He had rigidly adhered to that rule even though he realized that it proved to be challenging for some students. Adam's decision to conform to the rule seems to have been supported by his beliefs that the prohibition of L1 in EFL classes aided the development of students' speaking skills and that, if necessary, fellow language learners would help stragglers to keep up. His rigid stance against the use of L1 in EFL settings softened over time, though, with the knowledge he acquired at teacher seminars and the experience he accumulated through applying that knowledge in his classes. Notably, a consultation with an experienced EFL teacher during one of the seminars that Adam attended appeared to have influenced the change in the position on the value of L1. In particular, Adam learned that a moderate use of L1 could actually 'facilitate' foreign language learning:

> I have attended many seminars and talked to many other experienced teachers. Then I realized that actually there were numerous other views on this matter. I approached a very experienced native-speaker EFL teacher during a seminar last year and he told me that we should not eliminate L1 from the classroom altogether. He claimed that L1 can be used when we feel it helps students to understand the content faster and better. It actually made a lot of sense and I decided to try it out. I used L1 whenever I felt it would facilitate learning. I have come across many students who struggled to understand the material or stalled a lot when speaking. I

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found leaning on L1 very helpful in such cases and that changed my
opinion about its value.

(BI)

The quotes above provide a more detailed account of how Adam became aware of an alternative, more flexible, position (cross-lingual approach) on the use of L1 in foreign language teaching. He experimented with the new approach in his classes and it seemingly resulted in practices that Adam was content with. Subsequently, the positive experience in connection with the use of L1 that he had accumulated through classroom practice led him to embrace the new method and thus modify his initial belief about the role of L1 in L2 instruction.

In essence, Adam's initial belief about L1 appears to have been developed as a reaction to his TPC (i.e. a tacit policy existed which required EFL teachers to avoid the use of L1 in EFL classrooms) and was later redefined following the intervention of in-service teacher education and the accumulation of relevant experience. Figure 11 illustrates the gradual development of Adam's belief about the use of L1 in foreign language classrooms.

Figure 11: The development of Adam's belief about the role of L1 in EFL settings
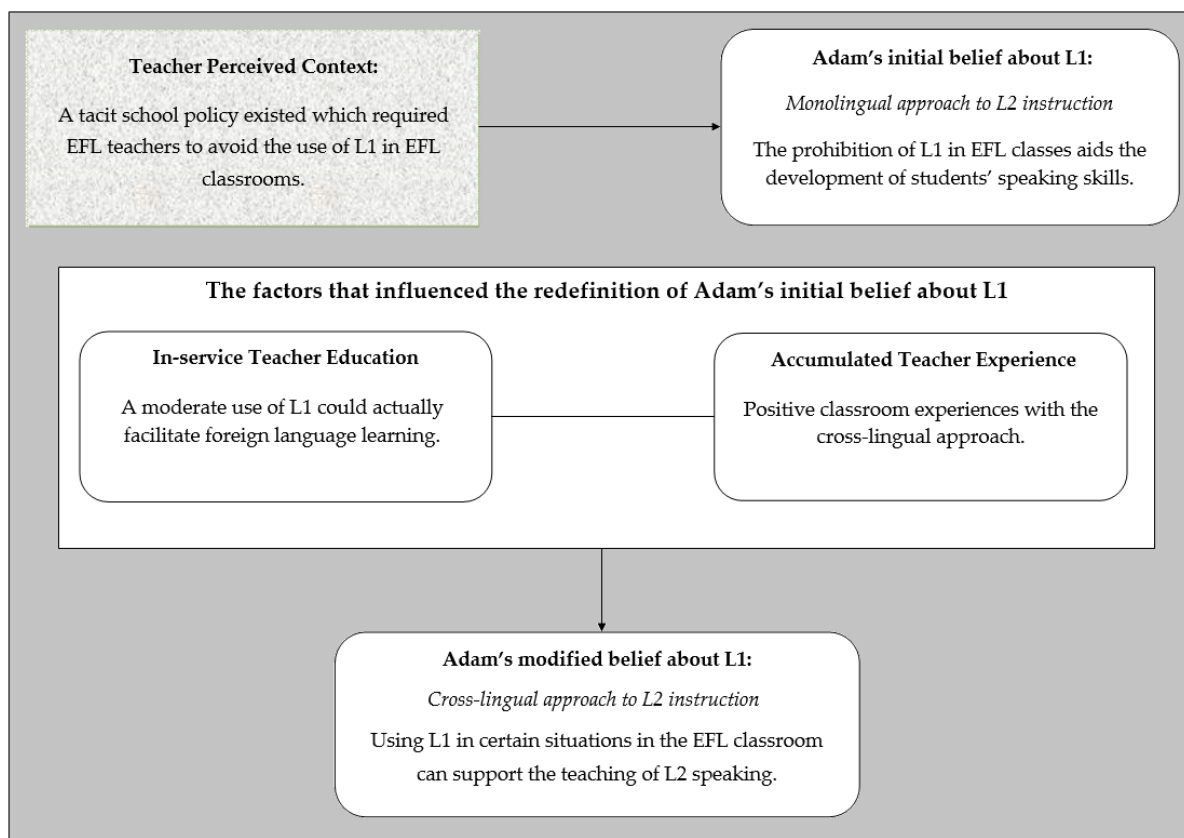
The observational data suggest that Adam demonstrated practices that were consistent with his stated beliefs about the use of L1. The following uses of L1 were identified in the context of speaking instruction over the course of the 21 classroom observations of Adam's English language teaching practices. He used L1 to check for comprehension during a communicative activity (lesson 9), to analyse errors and provide corrections during speaking activities (lessons 3 and 9), to present speaking tips (lessons 10 and 11), and to clarify instructions for speaking-oriented activities (lessons 2, 3, 17, 18). It should be added here, though, that in all of the above examples L1 was used to provide a translation and/or a clarification of the preceding instructions offered in English. The examples of Adam's L1 usage presented above indicated consistency between his stated beliefs and classroom practices in relation to the role of mother tongue in the instruction of L2 speaking.

One of the post-lesson interviews involved a conversation about a particular instance of L1 usage that occurred during observation 17. Adam initiated a whole

class discussion and presented the instructions both in English and Russian. The cross-lingual approach continued throughout the whole activity. Adam revealed the reasons for the use of L1 when answering to the question '*Do you think that using L1 in the EFL classrooms can hinder the development of speaking skills?*

> Some students are very strong and I try to use only English with them. However, there are also weaker ones. That is why some situations in the classroom call for the use of L1. It is necessary in order to help those students understand the content better and quicker. I use L1 only in such situations. My previous students responded well to this practice. I haven't had an opportunity to sit down and get feedback from my current students, but from what I can see, they welcomed this approach as well. I think students understand me better now and consequently seem to be more interested in what is going on in the classroom.

(SRI 1)

The extract above underlines the influence of Adam's TPC and broader educational concern on the congruence of his beliefs and practices in connection with the use of L1. His educational concern was to provide support for weaker students: in this case with the help of L1. However, what called it into action appeared to be a particular perception of the immediate pedagogical context. Adam argued that he resorted to L1 only on those occasions when he thought it would aid the learning process for the students he believed to be weaker than others. This means that Adam made a selective use of L1 in circumstances when he perceived it was necessary. This is evidence of TPC guiding teacher's instructional decisions. Moreover, despite the fact that he did not receive any relevant feedback directly from his students, Adam believed that students had 'welcomed' the new approach, and, as a result their comprehension of the content and their interest in the lesson had increased. Therefore, it appears that Adam's TPC not only invited the use of L1 but also supported its further use, thus reinforcing his belief about the cross-lingual approach to foreign language teaching.

Similarly, an alignment of stated beliefs and practices was identified in relation to instances where the use of L1 was initiated by Adam's students. Prior to classroom observations, Adam argued that if a student requested to use Kazakh/Russian to express his opinion during a speaking-oriented activity, he would not hesitate to grant permission. As a matter of fact, during lesson 3 one of the students made such a request. He asked if he could offer his point of view on the topic under discussion in Russian. Adam immediately gave his consent and the student proceeded with the speech in L1. This episode from Adam's lesson was the focus of our post-observation discussion afterwards:

> The language [L1/L2] does not matter to me. He is one of those students who need my support and I provided it. […] Students open up when you build the right atmosphere where they can be engaged in the lesson. It is crucial that they feel the teacher values what they have to say and that they are welcome to actively participate in the lesson and contribute to the positive classroom environment. And he does that. His overall language proficiency might not be good enough to always provide answers in English but because he is active I choose to turn a blind eye to that.

> (SRI2)

Adam preferred to take no notice of the student's language competence and allowed him to resort to L1 in this instance because he felt it was his responsibility as a teacher to provide support for the student that he considered to be weaker than others. Furthermore, Adam stated that he held creating a 'positive' environment in the classroom, which enabled students to be 'engaged' in the lesson and 'actively participate' in it, in higher regard than their competence in English. Adam's comments highlight the influence of emerging educational concerns on the enactment of his stated belief about the value of L1 in L2 instruction. These concerns that appeared to strongly impact on the consistency level seem to be a) providing support for weaker students - using strategies that can aid weaker students in mastering the lesson material (e.g. using L1 during the instruction of oral skills) and b) creating a supportive environment for students – using strategies in order to

engage students in the lesson and encourage participation (e.g. allowing students to use L1 to contribute to the speaking-oriented activities). Together with Adam's perception of his pedagogical context, his broader educational concerns in this instance appear to be the main influence behind the consistency in the belief-practice relationship (see Figure 12).

Figure 12: Instance of consistency - using first language to support the teaching of speaking

Teacher Perceived Context:
Some situations in the classroom require the use of L1;
Students embraced the use of a cross-lingual approach;
Students' comprehension of the content and their interest in the lessons increased as a result of using a cross-lingual approach.

Adam's broader educational concerns:
Providing support for weaker students;
Creating a supportive environment in order to *engage* students in the lesson and *encourage participation.*

Adam's stated belief about L1:
Cross-lingual approach to L2 instruction
Using L1 in certain situations in the EFL classroom can support the teaching and practice of speaking.

Adam's observed practice on L1:
Cross-lingual to L2 instruction
L1 was often used by both Adam and his students during speaking-oriented activities in the classroom.

5.4.2 Oral presentations (consistency)

Consistency between stated beliefs and classroom practices was also identified with regard to Adam's employment of oral presentations in his classes. Prior to his classroom observations, he had stated that oral presentation was an activity he commonly employed during lessons. He suggested that he used this technique to provide opportunities for students to practise and improve their speaking skills. Additionally, he outlined the value of this method in integrating all the other language skills (i.e. listening, reading and writing) during the process:

One of the activities we conduct a lot is prepared oral presentations. It is yet another opportunity for my students to practise and develop their speaking skills. In addition, I use it to practise all other language skills as well. […] Through presentations students build up their confidence and learn the techniques to convey their message. We used to do this a lot back when I was at school. I still remember the enthusiasm we had towards designing a PowerPoint presentation and preparing a speech. It was one of my favourite activities back then.

(BI)

Adam's comments appear to indicate that he related his current teaching with his own prior language learning experiences. He referred to the word 'enthusiasm' when commenting on the feelings he had towards preparing presentations as a language learner himself. Thus, his previous language learning experiences seem to have informed his belief about the value of oral presentations for the practice and development of speaking.

The observations of Adam's classroom practices revealed that oral presentations were indeed frequently implemented in his classes. For example, during lessons 4 and 5 students presented their individual projects (PowerPoint presentations) one by one in front of the whole class. The selection of topics was diverse and included such titles as *Famous buildings around the world*, *Top video games* and *Best mobile phone designs*. The stimulated recall interviews shed light on the rationale behind the use of oral presentations. One of the arguments in favour of this activity was its convenience for integrating the practice of all four language skills at once. For instance, before each presentation Adam provided detailed instructions about the tasks that students were asked to complete while listening to the presentation. A short question-and-answer session and discussion of main points followed the students' presentations as well:

It involves all the four language skills. It is not only about the student that is delivering the presentation but also about those in the audience. If you have noticed, I gave them tasks before the presentations started. They had to listen to the speeches carefully, read the notes on the slides and provide

their answers in written form. Moreover, we did a little post-presentation discussion too. Four birds with one stone; saves a lot of time.

(SRI5)

Adam indicated that the use of oral presentations was efficient time-wise in that it provided a platform for the practice of all four language skills through one activity. The emergence of an educational concern appears to be evident here: *being economical* - using strategies that are efficient, time-wise (e.g. designing oral presentations in a way that it combines tasks for the practice of several primary language skills and, as a result, saves time).

Further reasons for using oral presentations were enunciated during post-lesson discussions. The involvement of broader educational concerns appeared to surface in this instance as well:

> I don't impose my own topics so that I don't limit their creativity. When students get that freedom they become extremely motivated to do the task since they suddenly feel important and in charge. They make their own decisions. […] But of course the biggest reason I conduct oral presentations is because of the benefits it has for the teaching of speaking. When preparing their speeches students learn new vocabulary and phrases that help them convey their message to the audience. And also they learn to speak in front of the audience which is important as well.

(SRI5)

Adam argued that when students were given the freedom to choose a topic to present, they were indirectly asked to take initiative and become decision makers. He believed that students appreciated it and it resulted in the increase of their motivation. Furthermore, Adam pointed out that the most important reason for employing oral presentations was that it supported the teaching of speaking. In particular, Adam believed that students expanded their lexicon through which they could communicate their ideas during the presentation and developed their public speaking skills. This seems to indicate that Adam adopted the integrated-skill approach in that a primary language skill (i.e. speaking) and an associated skill (i.e.

learning vocabulary) were 'interwoven during the instruction' (Oxford, 2001). This notion is further supported by Adam's earlier quotes (p. 8, SRI5) as well. Thus, the influence of three further educational concerns on the enactment of the stated beliefs becomes salient. These are *motivating students* - selecting strategies that create in learners a willingness to engage with learning tasks (e.g. giving students freedom in terms of topic selection for oral presentations); *fostering learner autonomy and agency* – using strategies that provide students with opportunities to take control of their own learning (e.g. giving students freedom in terms of topic selection for oral presentations); and *integrating language teaching* - using tasks that bring primary language skills and associated skills together during instruction (e.g. employing oral presentations for integrating vocabulary learning with the teaching of speaking skills).

Another factor that encouraged the use of oral presentations in the classroom appears to be Adam's TPC. An academic year at secondary schools in Kazakhstan consists of 4 terms. Students at the school under study have to sit tests at the end of each of these terms. According to Adam, the English language section of that exam was confined to assessing students' grammar and vocabulary knowledge and tested only receptive skills (listening and reading). As a consequence, such neglect of the productive skills (speaking and writing) in those exams seemingly guided Adam's decision to regularly use oral presentations in his classes:

> We have around 200 students and only four EFL teachers here. We are told that checking all of these students' written work and listening to their speeches is not feasible. I agree, but we haven't discussed any other way of assessing students' speaking or writing skills and I am not sure we will. It's not that they [school leadership] don't care, it's just that I don't think it is an issue they'd put on top of the agenda. […] Speaking is an important skill. If we don't assess it then how do we know if students are mastering that skill or not? That is why as a teacher I had to find a way to evaluate students' speaking skills in order to support its development; oral presentations are one of them.

(SRI4)

It seems that it is the combination of Adam's broader educational concerns and his TPC that impacted on the consistency level between his stated beliefs and actual classroom practices in this case. Overall, there appears to be four broader educational concerns that featured in the analysis of this particular instance of consistency, some of which coincide with the pedagogical concerns presented in Sanchez and Borg (2014): *being economical; motivating students*; *fostering learner autonomy and agency*; and *integrating language teaching*.

Adam's perceptions of his pedagogical context appeared to exert a significant influence on the manifestation of his belief about oral presentations as well. It would seem that these perceptions constituted notions that a) lack of speaking tests in term exams makes it difficult for teachers to monitor students' progress in speaking and b) the school leadership does not prioritize making alternative arrangements for assessing students' competence in productive skills (speaking and writing). The data suggest that these perceptions motivated Adam to make use of oral presentations in his classes. Figure 13 is an attempt to depict the dynamics behind the consistency described in this section.

Figure 13: Instance of consistency – oral presentations
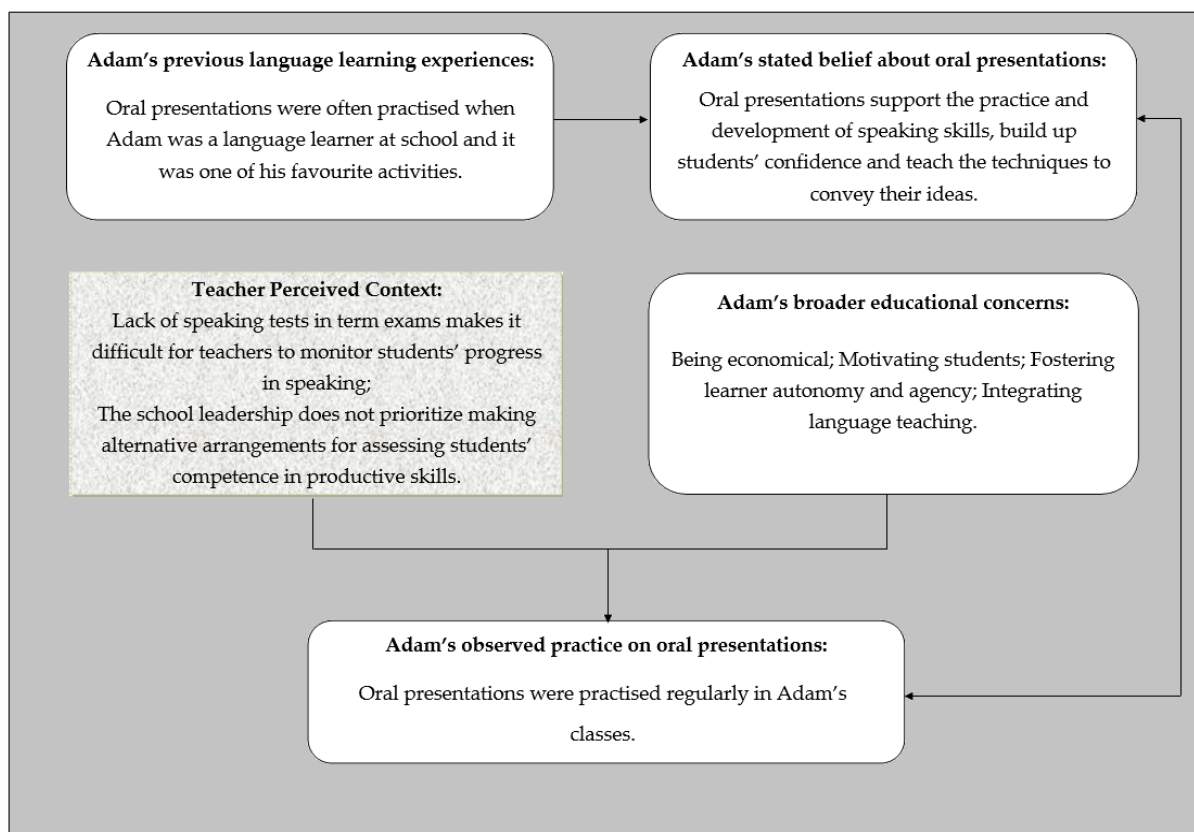
5.4.3 Using group work for teaching speaking (tension)

Adam's stated beliefs were mostly in line with his classroom behaviour with the exception of one instance. This instance of tension came from the mismatch between Adam's espoused beliefs and actual classroom behaviour relative to group work activities for teaching speaking. His pre-observation statements indicated that Adam was an exponent of using group work as a technique for 'involving everyone in the lesson and providing them with speaking practice' (SBI – S3). He acknowledged that there was 'always someone at the end of the lesson who was upset about not being given the chance to speak' and claimed that the regular use of group work was his 'preferred' solution to this issue, though he also accentuated the importance of the detailed preparation that it required beforehand (SBI – S3):

> You have to know exactly how you are going to monitor the whole
> process, how you are going to assess the team work and the contribution
> of each group member. Besides, it is easy to divide students into groups;
> the other thing is to make sure that each member has a clear, individual

duty within that group so that he is indeed involved in the proceedings. It is not simple but I love group work. It is my preferred way of involving everyone in the lesson and providing them with speaking practice.

(SBI - S3)

The analysis of Adam's commentary seems to imply that he was concerned about involving every student in the lesson and providing them with opportunities to practise their speaking skills. His belief about the value of group work appeared to stem from that concern.

However, Adam did not conduct any group work during the 21 observed classes, even though he maintained that group work was a method he preferred. Instead, his lessons revolved around whole class discussions, oral presentations and pair work: alternative means of speaking practice. The next two extracts from stimulated recall interviews provide insight into the cause of this tension:

I really like group work activities. I know I have not conducted them recently and my lessons probably looked empty, but still it is my preferred technique for oral practice. I did more whole class discussions because they consume less preparation time. Group work activities require detailed preparation which I literally can't afford to do right now. I have 26 hours p/w and on top of that I was assigned an additional administrative work which is really important because it concerns all the students at school not only one or two classes.

(SRI 6)

It would seem that contextual factors had a direct impact on the tension. Adam referred to the 'additional administrative work' at school, which he had to do aside from his workload of 26 hours p/w, as a constraint that inhibited his lesson preparations, thus preventing him from designing group work activities that required thorough preliminary planning.

More evidence of contextual factors influencing the tension seemed to emerge from post-lesson discussions:

> I wish we could do it more often. I am asked to follow an annual plan by the school. It is based on the course book which I am expected to cover by the end of the year. The tasks there are not suitable for group discussions. That restricts me a bit. I would need to adapt or design group activities for speaking myself. But if I stray from the annual plan I will have to teach supplementary lessons in order to catch up with the book so that my students are ready for the term exams. Currently I don't have time to do that.
>
> (SRI4)

Adam elaborated further on his reasons for not conducting group work in his classes for the purposes of speaking practice. He cited the annual plan for teaching English that he had to follow as another factor in tension. According to Adam, in order to execute that plan he had to cover the course book material by the end of the academic year. In addition, as the term exams were designed on the basis of the material covered in the course book, he claimed he could not 'stray' from it. However, the analysis of his quotes seems to indicate that it was Adam's perceptions of the contextual factors presented above rather than those external factors themselves that influenced his decision not to employ group work. Firstly, it appeared that because it had implications for all the students at school, Adam perceived the administrative work to be more important than designing comprehensive lessons that would possibly include group work. Secondly, Adam believed that the prescribed course book restricted his freedom to conduct oral practice through group work because it did not offer tasks that were suitable for that purpose. That is why, he argued that he would need to adapt the book material or design his own tasks in order to conduct group discussions, which meant departing from the annual plan. Subsequently, he perceived that deviating from the annual plan would result in supplementary lessons to catch up with the book because the term exams were based on the book material. Accordingly, these insights appear to point to internal factors (TPC) as a probable cause of tension between beliefs and practices.

Overall, therefore, it seems that Adam's educational concern for *involving students* (designing activities in a way that involves every student in the class and provides everyone with equal opportunities to speak) informed his belief about the value of group work. However, his perceptions of the pedagogical context described earlier hindered its manifestation in his classroom (see Figure 14).

Figure 14: Instance of tension – using group work for teaching speaking
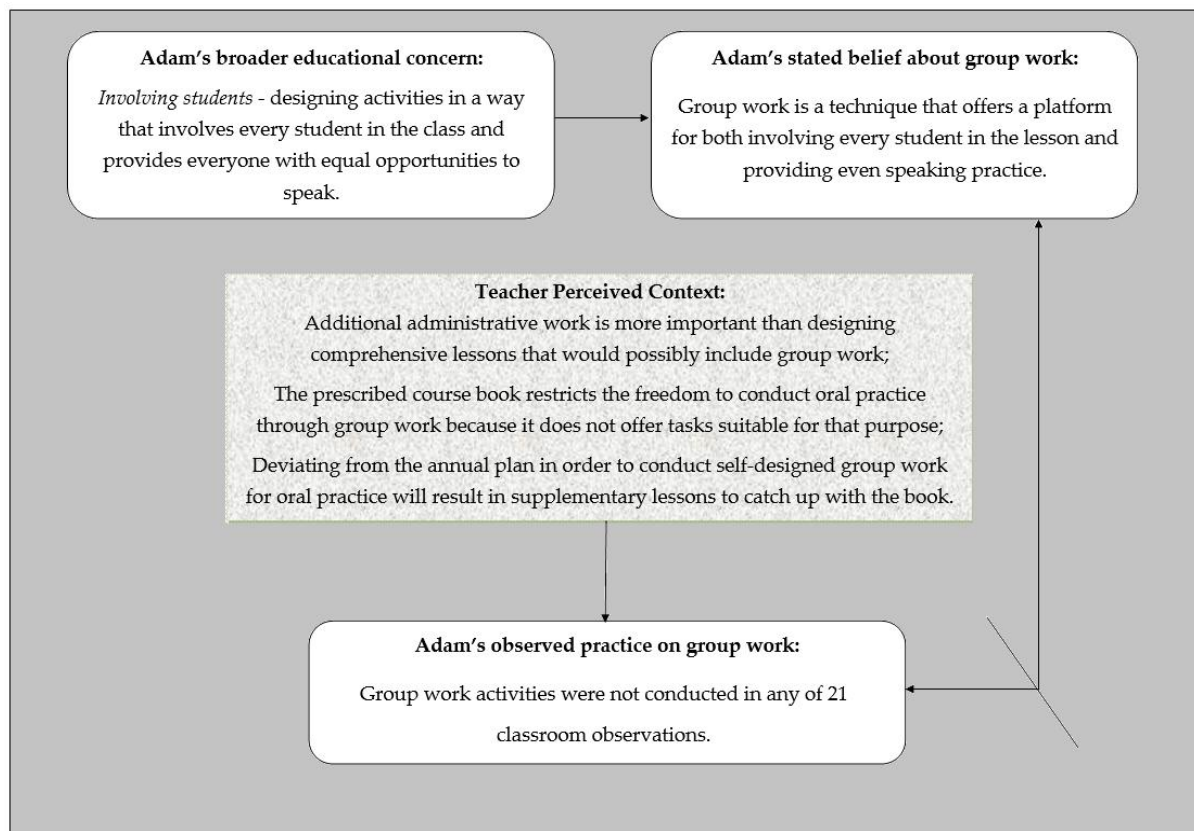
5.5 Mary

The first distinct characteristic of Mary's English classes was the classroom layout. The desks were arranged facing each other and were set up in four separate locations in the classroom so that students were always seated in four small groups. Correspondingly, most of the speaking activities in her lessons were conducted through group work and team competitions. Interestingly, individual and pair work tasks were also executed in the same seating arrangement described above. Mary claimed that this layout enabled her to maximise learner speaking time through student-student interaction.

Mary argued that she was a proponent of communicative language teaching; as such, there seemed to be an emphasis on oral practice in her lessons. Having said that, her speaking teaching practices were all teacher-initiated and teacher-led as Mary seemingly preferred to closely control the execution of tasks and define the language that students produced. She made use of both direct and indirect approaches to the teaching of speaking. However, some of Mary's speaking teaching practices did not fall precisely into either of those approaches; rather, they had elements of both. This was a significant feature of her speaking instruction. Table 9 presents the collection of Mary's speaking teaching practices observed over 13 lessons.

Table 9: Mary's speaking teaching practices

Class / Episode	Task description
1, 2	Formulating interview questions based on the provided answers; role-playing completed interviews in pairs
4	Retelling books (or book chapters) to the class
7, 8	Small-group poster presentations about favourite movie characters
11, 12	Constructing dialogues through asking questions with comparative and superlative adjectives
13	Preparing questions based on the James Bond text and interviewing peers

The examples of speaking tasks where Mary combined the elements of direct and indirect approaches included group work in lessons 1 and 2 and pair work activities during lessons 11 and 12. Prior to speaking tasks in classes 1 and 2, students did some language work: Mary provided deliberate grammar instruction in relation to the accurate formulation of questions in present tense using adverbs of frequency. This, in turn, was used as a basis for a subsequent communicative task. In groups of four, students engaged in free within-group discussions – learners shared ideas and negotiated with one another drawing on the L2 knowledge they had – in order to arrive at a common consensus in relation to the task. The outcome of the group discussion was presented as a role-play by two volunteers from each group. The

approach adopted here was mainly direct in that students were already presented with half of the interview schedule (12 answers) that guided the invention of the other half (12 questions). In addition, the communicative outcome (i.e. the interview questions) was instructed to include an adverb of frequency (e.g. often, rarely, sometimes, etc.) which further outlined the language students could use (see Table 9 for a detailed task description). However, the activity was enhanced with an element of indirect approach in the form of group interaction during which students' oral language use was not controlled.

Likewise, the combination of two approaches was evident in speaking tasks during lessons 11 and 12. Mary argued that one of the objectives of the tasks was to promote longer speaking turns during students' conversations. In order to achieve this, Mary resorted to instant corrective feedback whenever she deemed students' utterances to be too short (this is discussed further in sub-section 5.4.2). This indicates that the activity targeted a specific feature of oral interaction, hence the element of direct approaches. Additionally, the initial stages of the tasks were controlled because the questions that students were supposed to ask each other in order to spark a conversation did not emanate from the learners themselves, but were provided by Mary on cue cards. Nonetheless, according to Mary, the next stage was supposed to be less controlled as she expected her students to engage in a free exchange of information and maybe expand the dialogues into a whole-class discussion. Thus, Mary intended to incorporate aspects of direct and indirect approaches to speaking by varying the degree of control on learners' oral production depending on the stage of the task.

The other common feature of the speaking tasks discussed above was that they all involved the practice of grammar structures. For instance, group work was designed to practise the present tense questions with adverbs of frequency; pair work focused on the use of comparative and superlative adjectives. The speaking task in lesson 13, which purely exemplified a direct approach, could be mentioned for the same reason

here as well since it was about formulating accurate questions in past tense. Therefore, for Mary, speaking tasks - aside from providing opportunities to practise oral skills - seemed to offer communicative contexts in which students could use and consolidate the grammar content recently covered. This was encapsulated in the following extract from Mary's stimulated recall interview:

> It is easy to conduct a whole-class conversation or a task where students just talk. I don't deny that they have value but in this way students are more focused because the purpose is clear. We are practicing the stuff that we have just learnt. The grammar knowledge is internalised faster because it was practised through speaking activities immediately after the grammar work. In order to achieve this, the [direct] instruction should be there. These tasks are more difficult [to prepare] and require much more time.

(SRI9)

In line with her words above, Mary was not observed to conduct full-class discussions in her classes. Her communication with the whole class appeared to serve a social function rather than instructional, with an aim to establish a comfortable environment at the beginning of lessons.

The instances of indirect speaking activities where there was no attempt to influence language output and no emphasis on form were evident in lessons 4 (book retelling), 7 and 8 (poster presentation). Instead, students were at liberty to decide on the type of language they could use in order to accomplish the tasks. Moreover, Mary did not correct students' form related mistakes on the spot during these activities, allowing the learners to concentrate on fluency which is a feature of indirect approaches.

The following sub-sections provide selected instances from Mary's speaking teaching practices in order to present a more detailed account of the consistency level in her belief-practice relationship.

5.5.1 Error correction during speaking activities (tension)

The first instance to be presented in this section is an example of tension between Mary's stated beliefs and classroom practices pertaining to error correction strategies during oral instruction. In the pre-observation interviews Mary stated that delayed error correction was the technique that she preferred to employ during speaking activities. Mary claimed that she was an advocate of oral skills activities, and therefore intervening in students' speeches with a purpose of correcting errors seemed counterproductive to her as it could discourage students from speaking in the classroom:

> As someone in favor of promoting more speaking-centered exercises I would not advise to stop students for any reason during speech. It is hard enough to get them to speak in the first place; for that reason error correction should be done after students finish speaking. I don't want them to become completely reticent. However, if I feel that error correction can be done swiftly without pausing the student much, then I can do it. It is only possible with pronunciation mistakes though. Correcting grammar mistakes takes longer; that is why I prefer to do it afterwards since students might lose the stream of thought.
>
> (SBI – S6)

Despite her preference for delayed error correction, Mary acknowledged that exceptions could be made for pronunciation mistakes. That is, she believed she could correct those mistakes as they occurred if the whole process did not require much time so that the students did not 'lose the stream of thought'. Further discussions revealed the source of Mary's belief. Her inclination towards delayed error correction appeared to be emanating from her own accumulated teaching experience:

> My experience tells me I should not try to correct errors while they [students] are speaking. I used to do it in the past but not anymore. I remember how they would immediately react to that; they would get anxious, confused and forget their thoughts. For that reason I decided to drop it.
>
> (SBI – S6)

Mary's commentary seems to suggest that earlier in her career she had employed on-the-spot error correction during communicative tasks. However, in the light of students' negative reactions to those practices Mary decided to abandon the technique.

The observations of Mary's classes revealed that the uses of on-the-spot and delayed error correction strategies were not mutually exclusive: both techniques were employed interchangeably within the context of teaching and practising speaking skills. Some of the occasions where both forms of error correction strategies were implemented corresponded to Mary's espoused beliefs provided during the pre-observation interviews. For instance, during observation 4 Mary resorted to delayed error correction with regard to students' mistakes that occurred during a task that she labelled as extra reading. The task required learners to retell the books that they had read during the course of the term in front of the classroom; hence, according to Mary, it represented an opportunity to practise oral skills. During the post-lesson interview Mary reiterated her previously stated reasons for delaying error correction in relation to grammar mistakes in speech:

> For example, [A] and [B] made a lot of mistakes during retelling their books yesterday but I tried not to correct them. Instead I did it at the end of the lesson. Those were grammar mistakes. I was afraid that pausing them would affect their flow. I guess you noticed their numerous mistakes as well. But it was important that they kept talking without any interruptions.
>
> (SRI 4)

Mary pointed out that she was aware of the mistakes committed by her students in this case. The lack of any error correction in response to those grammar mistakes in students' speeches were in line with her statements in the pre-observation interviews. It was essential for Mary that students maintain their speeches without intervention in order to avoid any negative repercussions on the 'flow' of ideas during the act of speaking. This indicates that Mary was supporting students in developing oral fluency.

Likewise, there were instances where Mary opted to correct students' errors on the spot during tasks that were designed for practising oral skills. The example comes from lesson 4 as well, from the same extra reading activity. The mistakes related to the pronunciation of certain words (e.g. character, novice) during speeches and, since Mary earlier mentioned that on-the-spot error correction could be used for pronunciation errors, these practices were congruent with her beliefs.

However, some uses of on-the-spot error correction appeared to be in stark contrast with Mary's professed beliefs. In particular, during observation 13 she repeatedly paused the dialogues between students with the purpose of providing corrections. All of the mistakes related to grammar (the order of auxiliary verbs, subjects and objects; the use of past tense) and each instance of correction, in this case, seemed to last longer than those episodes where the errors concerned pronunciation. Therefore, these examples indicated the emergence of tension. Mary provided her own account of those instructional episodes after the observed lessons:

> It was a speaking task, but the focus was on formulating grammatically correct questions during a dialogue. It was something we have covered recently. Some of them were doing it incorrectly, so I stopped them because if the questions were not constructed in a grammatically correct way then it could have been confusing to the other student and it could all go wrong. The focus was on accuracy, but I could still have done it [error correction] afterwards if it was a monologue but it wasn't. The errors would have affected their partners' as well.

> (SRI 13)

Mary claimed that the overall aim of the task was to practice speaking while focusing on grammatical elements. In other words, she expected her students to produce grammatically accurate sentences during the dialogues – a material that she argued they had covered recently –so that they could engage in a meaningful exchange of ideas. Initially, it may seem that the reason behind Mary's decision to correct grammar mistakes on the spot was her objective to teach accuracy. However, a closer look at her comments appears to point to the relevance of the nature of the

task. That is to say, Mary argued that despite the focus on form, she could have still employed delayed error correction if the task had been a 'monologue' (e.g. prepared speech, presentation, book retelling) and not a dialogue. This means that her decision to intervene in students' dialogues was not the focus on accuracy. It can be inferred from the extract above that Mary deemed on-the-spot error correction to be more appropriate in this case because the successful execution of a dialogue relied upon the accuracy of the uttered sentences between the interlocutors. To put it differently, Mary seemingly thought that students' grammar errors would interfere with the flow of this particular task (i.e. dialogues), hence the intervention of on-the-spot error correction.

Consequently, the motivation behind the tension here appeared to be her educational concern for monitoring the successful execution of tasks - using strategies that ensure the appropriate accomplishment of activities (e.g. correcting grammar mistakes during dialogues on the spot to prevent potential disruptions to the activity). Figure 15 is an attempt to illustrate the emergence of tension reported in this section.

Figure 15: Instance of tension – error correction during dialogues
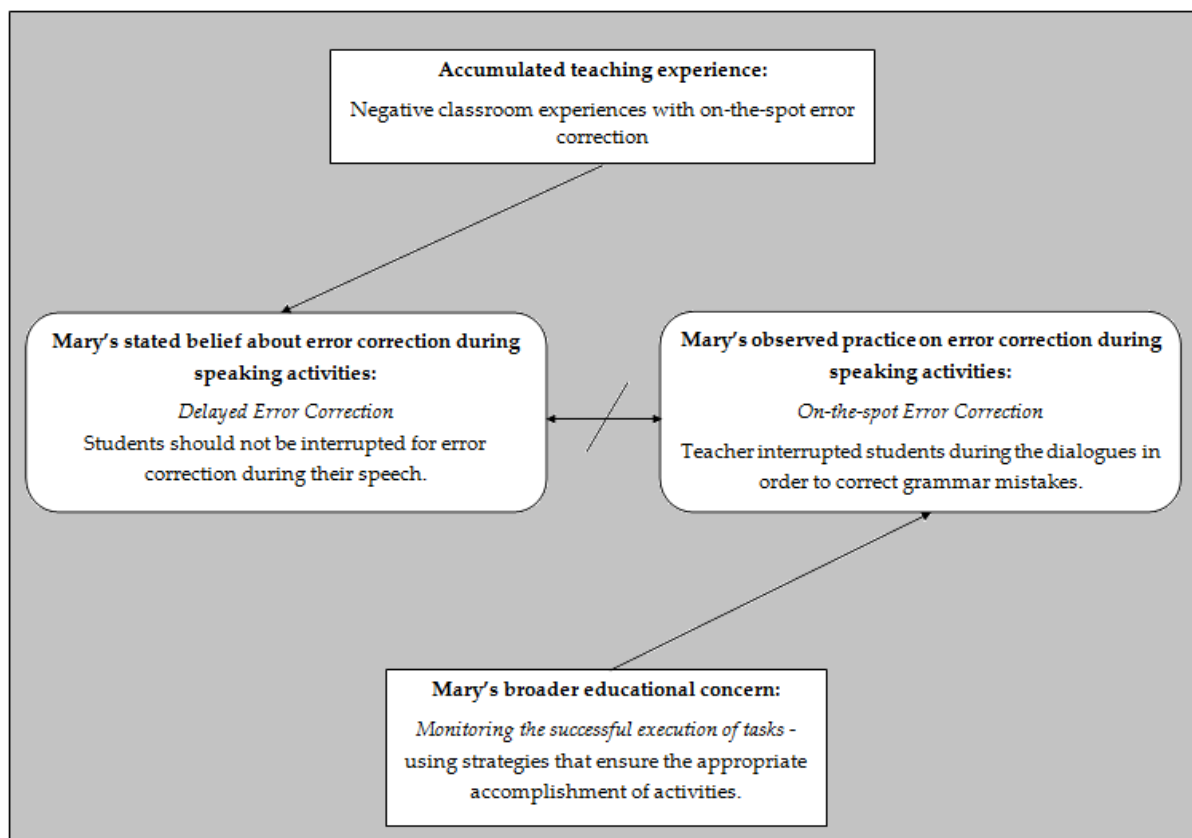
5.5.2 The instruction of speaking turns (tension)

A tension between stated beliefs and classroom practices was also identified in relation to Mary's position on the impact of prolonged oral production on the development of students' speaking skills. Her comments provided in response to scenario 1 prior to classroom observations indicated that she was lenient towards students who provided short or even one-word answers to the probing questions that were meant to generate classroom discussions and construct interactional or transactional conversations among students. Sometimes foreign language learners tend to answer questions in the shortest way possible. Mary indicated that her students exhibited similar behavior during speaking tasks. The potential reasons for that, according to Mary, could include anxiety over making mistakes while speaking for a longer duration; or, alternatively, students might simply be underestimating their abilities in speaking competence:

> Yes, it happens in my classes too, particularly with year 9 students. To get students talking I try to bring something that can be attractive to them. Sometimes they keep answering questions with very short answers, even with only one word. However, I actually want them to talk as much as possible in full sentences. It can be disheartening for a teacher because we spend so much time preparing these discussions. I am not sure about the reasons though. It could be that they are afraid to make mistakes during speaking or maybe they simply don't trust their own capabilities. It could be anything.
>
> (SBI – S1)

Mary alluded to her own classroom experiences when commenting on the scenario. She acknowledged that it could be frustrating when students resorted to one-word answers when in fact she expected them to provide more comprehensive responses. Mary speculated about possible reasons for this sort of behaviour without referring to any of them as the definite cause. However, during further discussions Mary did put forward an alternative explanation for the issue; and yet, she refused to entertain the idea that this behaviour, which seemed to limit students' exposure to the target language, had any negative impact on the development of oral skills:

> No, no, I don't think that giving short answers has any negative effect on learning speaking. I think it just shows that students have different speaking habits which reflect their diverse learning styles. I know several students in grade 9 who always answer with single words or reply with short incomplete sentences when I ask questions. But that doesn't mean they lack the knowledge or the necessary skills. From their test results I know that they are more than capable of producing the required spoken form. But it's just the way they are. I don't see it as a serious problem.
>
> (SBI – S1)

Mary attributed students' avoidance of extensive sentences when answering questions to their individual peculiarities as language learners; specifically, she referred to students' different 'speaking habits' and 'learning styles'. As an example, she mentioned certain students who often responded with short turns even though, according to Mary, that was not representative of their true language competence. To summarize, Mary's belief was that the phenomena under discussion did not have

a significant enough influence on the development of students' speaking skills to merit meticulous attention. This belief appeared to be supported by her perception of the students in that it was natural for them to have diverse learning styles and different speaking habits.

However, Mary's classroom practices with regard to the issue indicated that she was acting contrary to her stated beliefs. The tension seemed to be evident during lessons 11 and 12 when she conducted the same speaking activity with two different sets of students. Mary distributed cards with questions containing superlatives and comparatives (e.g. 'who is *the best* actor?'; 'what is *the hottest* place you have ever visited?'). Follow-up questions such as 'why' and 'why not' were also part of the task. Mary explained that while one of the objectives was to consolidate the grammar material on superlatives and comparatives, the overall aim of the exercise was to teach oral skills:

> Well, I wanted them to ask questions to each other and thus build a
> conversation in English and maybe turn it into a whole-class discussion.
> This involves listening to your interlocutor and providing your own
> responses based on what you hear. In short, I was hoping they would
> practise and develop their communicative skills. But it seems like it didn't
> go as I planned.
>
> (SRI 12)

The task resembled a teacher-fronted activity in that Mary appeared to control the whole proceedings as well as the type and quantity of language produced. Whenever students responded with short, incomplete sentences to the questions, Mary intervened with corrective feedback in the form of recasts. As an illustration, when one of the students replied with a single-word answer - 'grandfather' - to the question 'who is the oldest person in your family?' Mary interposed with a complete form of the response - 'my grandfather is the oldest person in the family' (observation 12). When Mary's students were exposed to such feedback, they tried to reformulate their initial utterances and re-produce more complex and accurate target

language. Identical practices continued throughout the whole task, which seemingly implied that, contrary to what Mary had suggested before, she was not actually sympathetic towards the enactment of afore-described speaking habits. Her practices indicated her preference towards longer speaking turns as opposed to short, phrase-sized bursts of speech. It appeared to resemble a sentence-based model for oral production described in Brown & Yule (1983). These interpretations were further confirmed during a post-observation interview:

> Obviously I wanted them to provide longer responses than that. But it turned out to be difficult to make them do that. I had not given it much attention previously but now I really think this [interacting through short turns] does not benefit their speaking in any way. I should not accept it. Even though I demonstrated how I expected them to answer, they were still speaking in the same way. It has become a habit for them. They need to learn how to formulate complete, richer sentences in the right grammatical order. If the focus was on fluency, then I wouldn't complain about it. But then how do they learn the correct form if I always neglect accuracy in their speech?

(SRI 12)

Mary's post-lesson comments appeared to be inconsistent with her pre-observation ones. While initially she claimed she was not censorious of students providing short answers, after the above occurrences in her classroom she sounded concerned about the negative consequences it could have on the development of learners' oral skills. In addition, she argued that previously she had not paid much attention to this issue, and that henceforth she would no longer approve of such speaking manners in her classes. These statements imply that the tension had hitherto been unconscious. In other words, it seems that the awareness of the inconsistency in her work as well as a more critical attitude towards it were only stimulated by an explicit discussion of Mary's stated beliefs and her actual classroom behaviour.

The reason for Mary's sudden apprehension seems to be stemming from her concern that her students might disregard learning the accurate and more complex form of oral production in the target language. Therefore, she resorted to recasts to invite

students to produce pushed output (Swain, 1995) through the 'process of rephrasing or reformulating one's original utterance in response to feedback' (Mackey, 1999, p. 559). This is evidence of Mary's broader educational concern for teaching language accuracy and complexity – using strategies that help students to produce grammatically correct, lexically and semantically rich written or spoken language (e.g. using corrective feedback (recasts) for training students to reformulate complete, comprehensive and grammatically accurate sentences during speaking activities). As in the previous example of tension in relation to error correction, it seems that Mary's broader educational concern had a significant role in the emergence of inconsistency between her espoused beliefs and enacted practices (see Figure 16).

Figure 16: Instance of tension – instruction of speaking turns

Teacher Perceived Context:

Students have diverse learning styles and different speaking habits.

Mary's stated belief about short speaking turns:

Short speaking turns are acceptable and do not have any negative effect on learning speaking.

Mary's observed practice in relation to short speaking turns:

Mary dismissed *short speaking turns* and instead encouraged *longer turns* through corrective feedback to invite students to re-produce more complex and accurate utterances.

Mary's broader educational concern:

Teaching language accuracy and complexity - using strategies that help students to produce grammatically correct, lexically and semantically rich written or spoken English.

5.5.3 Using first language for teaching speaking (consistency)

The example of consistency between stated beliefs and actual classroom practices came from Mary's use of L1 for supporting the teaching of speaking. Her ideas about

the role of L1 in oral skills instruction seemingly reflected a cross-lingual approach. However, similar to Adam's case, Mary's belief about the value of a cross-lingual approach developed over a period of considerable time. The discussion about the worth of L1 usage in foreign language classrooms was stimulated by a pre-observation conversation on Mary's entry into the profession and her development as an EFL teacher. She revealed that when she was being hired one of the expectations that the school set up for her was the exclusive use of English with EFL students. In particular, the issue was raised by the vice-principal of the school during the job interview:

> Honestly, to use or not to use L1 is not something you think a lot about, but when it's mentioned during your job interview you have to take it seriously. […] Students were expected to speak in English in all the other classes since the medium of instruction was English. That's why I believed that not using L1 supported the development of students' oral skills and helped them to adapt to the school environment faster. It was a bit difficult at the beginning because my own English vocabulary was limited. […] My classroom was right next to the vice-principal's room who was an English teacher himself. And that would make me feel nervous at first because I knew that he could hear us. If I used L1, he might have thought that I am not adhering to the arrangement we had made.

(BI)

The statements above seem to point to the underlying reasons for Mary's decision to avoid L1 in her classes during her earlier career. The vice-principal's office was located in such close proximity to her classroom that she perceived it was possible for him to overhear the lesson proceedings. This perception appeared to have further encouraged her to avoid using L1 because otherwise, according to Mary, the vice-principal – being an EFL teacher himself - could have classified her actions as a breach of their tacit agreement. Accordingly, it could be assumed that Mary's initial belief in a monolingual approach to support the teaching of oral skills was informed by her TPC (avoiding L1 use was a school policy because it was mentioned during her job interview; resorting to L1 during lessons could have been classified by the vice-principal as a breach of their tacit agreement).

Nevertheless, Mary later claimed that she modified her initial position on the role of L1 in accordance with her accumulated teaching experience. As someone who had been involved in ELT for eight years, she argued that a language teacher should be able to alternate between L1 and L2 depending on the instructional situations in the classroom. Contrary to her original stance, she now believed that L1 could actually support the teaching of speaking if used in certain situations, and also provided descriptions of relevant contexts where L1 could and could not be used:

> I trust my experience now. My opinion has changed slightly. 7th and 8th grade students are just beginning to learn English. It is unfair to expect them to speak fluent or accurate English for now. They still don't know enough English words to speak freely. They need support that's why I can let them use their mother tongue if they want. I sometimes use it as well. […] No, 9th grade students cannot use L1. They are at an intermediate level now. No excuses for them. They should not rely on the first language anymore, especially during speaking activities because it will not help them improve any further. They need to build on the knowledge they have already acquired.
>
> (SBI – S2)

Thus, Mary's decision to utilize or not to utilize L1 in the classroom appeared to be dependent on students' English language proficiency level. In both circumstances however, the primary purpose would seemingly be the progress of students' oral competence in L2. That is, as reported by Mary, L1 could be used with students of elementary and pre-intermediate levels (grades 7 and 8) in order to support the practice of oral skills, and conversely should be restricted for higher level students (intermediate, upper-intermediate and advanced) to support their further development of oral skills. Correspondingly, it can be inferred that, for Mary, L1, as any other classroom technique, was merely a strategy which could be used for facilitating the teaching of speaking. The development of Mary's belief about the value of L1 in L2 speaking instruction is illustrated in Figure 17 below.

Figure 17: The development of Mary's belief about the role of L1 in EFL settings
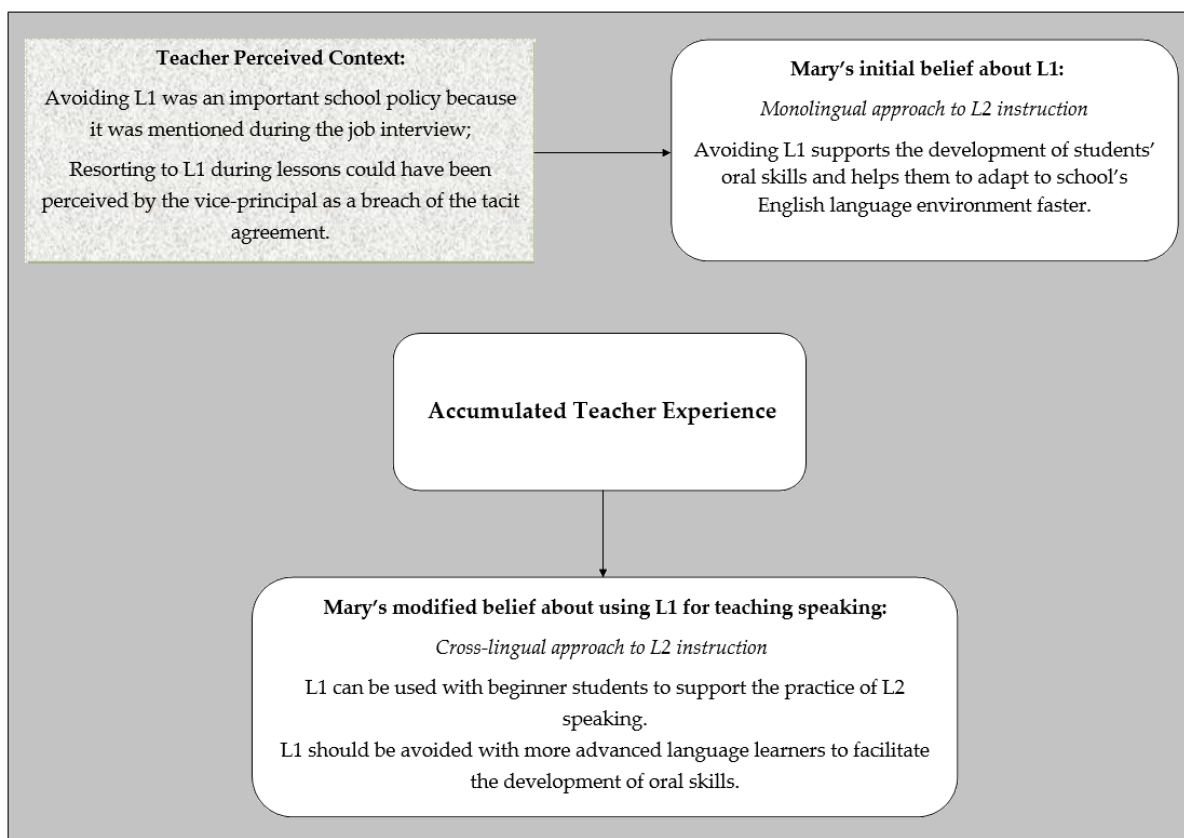
The observations of Mary's English classes revealed that her classroom practices in relation to the use of L1 generally corresponded to her stated beliefs. Mary's workload amounted to 26 hours per week during which she taught 7th, 8th and 9th grade students. This enabled me to observe her practices with respect to L1 use during speaking activities with both lower and higher level students. The observational data, together with the evidence from stimulated recall interviews, suggested that in all these pedagogical contexts Mary enacted practices that appeared to be in line with her espoused beliefs.

As a starting point, I will provide evidence from Mary's elementary class lesson with 7th grade students. The incident occurred during observation 7 when one of the students was presenting a poster on behalf of his team. Although he started his speech in English, he stumbled a lot through his delivery and finally, without asking for Mary's approval, decided to use Russian to finish his presentation. Mary immediately offered the full translation of the sentences herself without asking the

student to do it. Her rationale for these practices seemed to echo her initially stated beliefs:

> I think that 7th grade students are still at a level when they could benefit from the occasional use of L1. Sometimes, as in this case, during speaking activities students want to use their mother tongue since the [L2] knowledge they have is too limited for them to express their opinions in English. […] I know the student well. I let him do that because I felt that otherwise he would react negatively. If these students know that they can't rely on L1 when they run into trouble during speaking, they will not take any chances.
>
> (SRI9)

In this particular case, Mary claimed that she allowed the student to complete the task using L1 because she perceived that he 'would react negatively' to a prohibition. It is noteworthy that her perception of the student's probable reaction did not appear to be informed by an actual experience here, rather it looked to be based on a hypothetical scenario which might have been informed by past experiences with that student.

Mary's another perception of 7th grade students was that their L2 competence was still insufficient for them to fully express their ideas in English. For that reason students sometimes resorted to L1 during oral practice to accomplish the given tasks. In the given context (elementary level English classes), according to Mary, resorting to students' first language could be beneficial since it compensated for their deficiencies in L2. Mary seemed to suggest that allowing the use of L1 provided a sense of security for students and empowered them to fully articulate their thoughts; as a result, students could become eager to experiment and take risks while speaking in English. Thus, Mary's willingness to allow the use of L1 in this case appeared to be motivated by the combination of TPC and her concern for providing support for lower level students – using strategies to help beginner students to confidently practise L2 skills (e.g. allowing lower level students to use L1 during L2 speaking activities to encourage and support the practice of L2 oral skills).

Furthermore, Mary commented on the part where she provided English translations for student's utterances in Russian. The impact of Mary's perception of the context and of her broader educational concern seemed to be emerging from her quotes:

> I think it is more important for students to fully understand the meanings of the words in both languages [L1 and L2] than to be able to memorize their English definitions only. At this stage students might not be able to link the definitions they know in English to their equivalents in L1. They still think in their mother tongue. My impression is that when I ask them to speak they first prepare sentences in L1 and only then do they translate it into English. The translations are not accurate most of the time. That is why I use both L1 and L2 with them to clear up misunderstandings.
>
> (SRI9)

Mary believed that before verbalizing their speeches, her students formulated them in L1 in their minds, and only after that did they translate them into L2. However, Mary reported that because grade 7 students were beginner learners, they often fell short in making precise links between their L1 and L2 lexicon, allowing for mistranslations and misunderstandings to occur. Consequently, it motivated Mary to translate those sentences in this case. Thus, Mary's reaction in this example seems to be originating from her perception of her students and her broader educational concern for promoting the development of interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge – using strategies for 'building up interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge in the students' minds' (Cook, 2001, p. 418) (e.g. translating information from L1 to L2 (or vice versa) during speaking activities to convey the correct meanings).

Although Mary was open to resorting to L1 with grade 7 students for the earlier noted reasons, she was reluctant to apply the same concept to upper level students. L1 was not utilized within the context of teaching speaking during six observations of English classes with grade 9 students (intermediate level), which was consistent with her stated beliefs. The rationale underpinning these practices was explored during a post-lesson discussion:

> Predominantly it should be English. These students [grade 9] need to push themselves to speak exclusively in English. They should not get used to mixing L1 and L2 one their speeches. This might lead to stumbling and dithering when speaking. Fluency is the word I was searching for, yeah. Speech fluency will suffer. Their vocabulary and grammar knowledge is enough for them to be able to speak. They just need to practice that orally. That's why teachers should control the use of L1 at this level.
>
> (SRI12)

Mary perceived her intermediate-level students possessed sufficient L2 grammar and vocabulary knowledge for L2 oral production that is independent of L1. That is why, she emphasized that when practising oral skills with more advanced students, L1 should be avoided for its potential to form undesirable speaking habits such as unnatural pausing and hesitation. She explicitly stated that she preferred to avoid using L1 with stronger students because of her concern that it might inhibit the development of fluency in students' oral production. As reported in previous sections, some of Mary's instructional decisions were stimulated by her concern for teaching accuracy in speaking, and equally, in this instance, her practices seemed to be influenced by an adjacent pedagogical concern for teaching fluency in L2 speaking. This concern was aligned with her perception of grade 9 students' language competence. The educational concern could be defined as the employment of strategies designed to build students' 'capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation' (Skehan et al., 1996, p.16) (e.g. avoidance of L1 to encourage students to speak in L2 without stumbling and dithering).

In general, therefore, it seems that the consistency in this section was motivated by Mary's broader educational concerns (providing support for lower level students; promoting the development of interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge; and teaching fluency) and by her TPC (beginner level students' L2 competence is insufficient for them to fully express ideas in English; the student would react negatively to the prohibition of L1 use; beginner-level students think in L1 and struggle to link L1 and

L2 knowledge; intermediate-level students possess sufficient L2 knowledge and do not need the support of L1) (see Figure 18).

Figure 18: Instance of consistency - using L1 to support the teaching of L2 speaking
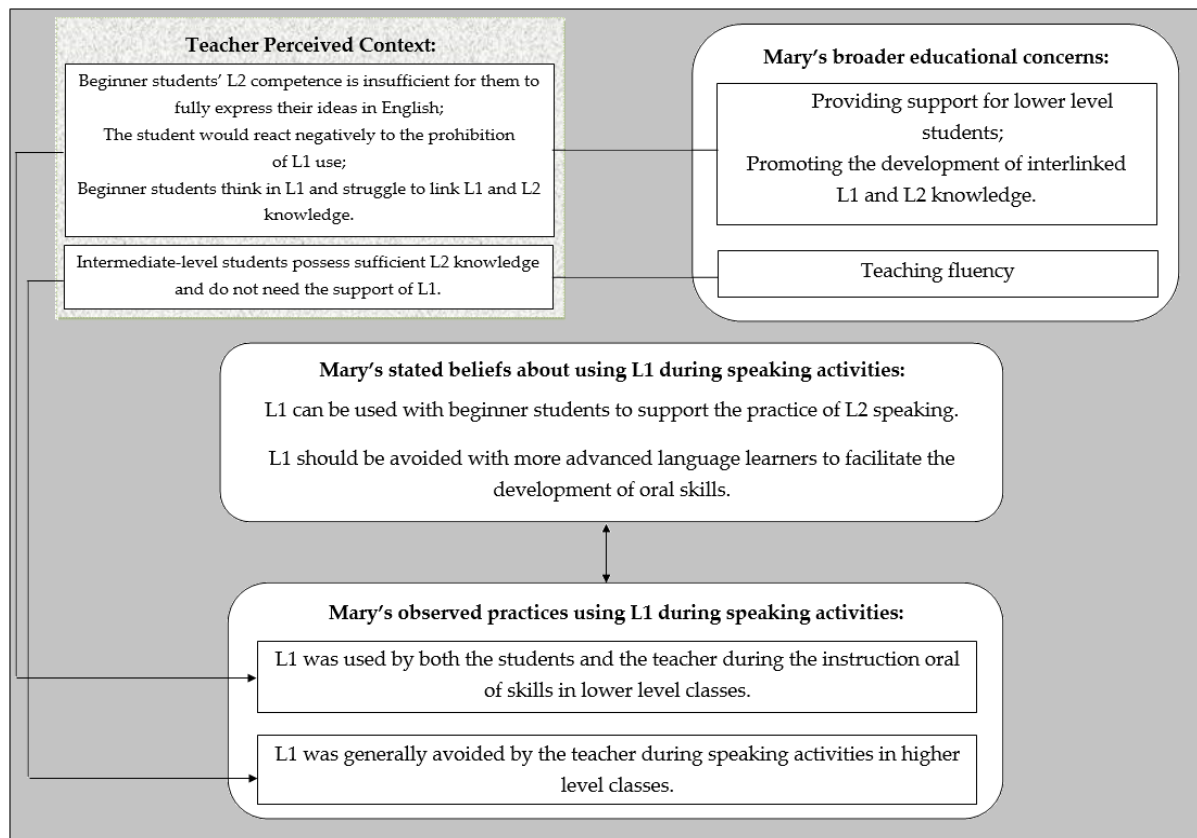
5.6 Cross-case analysis

5.6.1 Introduction

The preceding four sections in this chapter presented the findings from the four individual cases, identifying in turn the instances of both consistencies and tensions between the teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices and discussing the factors that might have influenced their emergence. The analysis of the data revealed that there were mixed levels of consistency between what teachers said and did.

Seven instances of congruence and seven instances of tensions were examined in the discussion of findings, which amounted to a total of 14 examples across the four cases; these related to seven different aspects of oral instruction (see Table 10 below). Taking into account all the evidence presented earlier, the purpose of this section

then is to capture commonalities and differences, and highlight the most significant findings across the four individual cases by performing inter-case synthesis.

Table 10: The instances of tensions and consistencies from across the four cases

#	Source	Stated belief	Observed practice	Degree of consistency
1	**Peter**			
Aspects	Error correction	Error correction should be delayed	Error correction was done on the spot	tension
	Using L1	Use of L1 should be avoided	L1 was used in the classroom	tension
	Group work	Group work should be employed for teaching speaking	Group work was often employed in the classroom	consistency
2	**David**			
Aspects	Memorization	Memorization and recitation of texts are good for teaching speaking	Memorization and recitation were extensively practised	consistency
	Using L1	Teachers should not use L1	L1 was not used by the teacher	consistency
		Students should not be allowed to use L1	Students were allowed to use L1	tension
	Pair work	Pair work can improve students' oral skills	Pair work was employed	consistency
		Pair work can support weaker students' oral skills	Pair work activities did not target weaker students	tension
3	**Adam**			
Aspects	Using L1	Cross-lingual approach to L2 instruction should be employed	Cross-lingual approach was practised	consistency
	Oral presentations	Oral presentations support the teaching of speaking	Oral presentations were widely employed	consistency
	Group work	Group work should be used for practising oral skills	Group work was not used	tension
4	**Mary**			
Aspects	Error correction	Error correction should be delayed	Error correction was done on the spot	tension
	Speaking turns	Short speaking turns are acceptable	Longer speaking turns were encouraged	tension
	Using L1	L1 can be used with beginner students but not with more	L1 was allowed for beginner level students but avoided	consistency

		advanced students	with more advanced students	

This section is organised in a way as to address the main research questions which were introduced in Chapter 1:

1. To what extent do the teachers' stated beliefs about teaching speaking correspond to their actual classroom practices?

2. What factors impact on the consistency level between teachers' stated beliefs and actual classroom practices in relation to the teaching of oral English?

   2.1 - How do teachers' perceptions of the context impact on the consistency level?

   2.2 - What constitutes language teachers' core and peripheral beliefs about teaching speaking and learning in general and how do they impact on the consistency level?

   2.3 - How do all these factors interact and impact on the consistency level?

The section on cross-case analysis consists of six sub-sections. Sub-section 5.6.2 explores the impact of TPC on the consistency level between beliefs and practices. Sub-section 5.6.3 extends our current understanding of the relationship between core and peripheral beliefs by determining what constituted these belief systems in four individual accounts and how they influenced the degree of consistency. The next sub-section, 5.6.4, focuses on the interaction between CPBR and TPC and its impact on the consistency level between teachers' espoused beliefs and their actual classroom behaviour. One of the participant teachers attributed the consistency between his stated beliefs and classroom practices to an additional factor other than the two mentioned above (TPC and CPBR). This factor that has emerged from the data is referred to in sub-section 5.6.5.

5.6.2 The impact of TPC on the degree of consistency

The analysis of the data shed light on the significant role which TPC played in mediating teacher beliefs and practices. The considerable impact of TPC on the consistency level was evident across all four cases. The particular way the participant teachers perceived and understood the context that surrounded them appeared to both facilitate and inhibit, on different occasions, the realisation of their stated beliefs about the teaching of speaking.

A. TPC influencing the consistencies between beliefs and practices

As a starting point, I would like to describe selected instances where teachers' perceptions of their pedagogical contexts contributed to the enactment of their professed beliefs. This was evident in the example about David's position on the role of L1 in the instruction of oral skills. He believed that English language teachers should avoid using students' L1 and that students' speaking skills would improve faster if they did so. This belief was reinforced by David's perceptions of parents' expectations (parents expect teachers to give more attention to oral skills during EFL classes) that he gained following one of the parent-teacher conferences at the school. Subsequently, David was not observed using L1 in any of his classes. The reasoning behind his actions highlighted TPC's influence on his practices. He avoided using L1 in his lessons because he perceived that the teacher's use of L1 could be interpreted by students as an approval to follow suit. Thus, the impact of TPC on the consistency between stated beliefs and classroom practices, in this instance, seemed to be apparent in that David appealed to his TPC both when expressing his belief about the issue in a pre-observation interview and when providing a rationale for his actions in the post-lesson discussion.

A similar influence of TPC was identified in Adam's case in relation to the role of L1. However, unlike David, Adam claimed that he was a proponent of a cross-lingual approach to foreign language teaching. Correspondingly, he made use of both L1 and L2 during speaking activities in his classes, which was consistent with his earlier

enunciated beliefs. Adam's post-lesson commentary underlined the impact of TPC on his decision making. He argued that he only resorted to L1 in situations where he thought that its use would facilitate the teaching process. Furthermore, although his students had not provided any sort of feedback on the matter, he perceived that they had embraced the cross-lingual approach and that their comprehension of the lesson content and their motivation had increased as a result. Consequently, Adam's perceptions of his pedagogical context not only invited the application of his stated belief about a cross-lingual approach, but also justified its practice.

Consistency between Adam's stated beliefs and observed practices was also manifest in relation to oral presentations. The analysis of the evidence that Adam provided after the lessons while articulating his rationale for the extensive implementation of the said activity seemed to point at his perceptions of the context once again. His TPC comprised notions that a) the lack of speaking tests in term exams at his school makes it difficult for teachers to monitor students' progress in speaking and b) the school leadership does not prioritize making alternative arrangements for assessing students' competence in productive skills (speaking and writing). As a result, Adam's decision to employ oral presentations as a way of evaluating students' progress in oral skills represented his personal response to his perception of the pedagogical context around him. This lends another support to the claim that TPC can motivate the congruence between stated beliefs and actual classroom practices. The above examples are summarised in Table 11 below.

Table 11: TPC contributing to consistencies between beliefs and practices

1	David	Stated belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context
Aspect	Using L1	Teachers should not use L1	Parents expect English classes to focus more on speaking skills; For students teacher's use of L1 signifies an approval for using it as well.
3	Adam	Stated belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context
Aspect s	Using L1	Cross-lingual approach to L2 instruction should be employed	Some situations in the classroom require the use of L1; Students embraced the use of cross-lingual

		approach; Students' comprehension of the content and their interest in the lessons increased as a result of using bilingual approach.
Oral presentations	Oral presentations support the teaching of speaking	Lack of speaking tests in term exams makes it difficult for teachers to monitor students' progress in speaking; The school leadership does not prioritize making alternative arrangements for assessing students' competence in productive skills.

B. TPC influencing the tensions between beliefs and practices

On the other hand, participant teachers also referred to contextual factors when explaining the tensions between their expressed beliefs and enacted practices. As an illustration, in the first case, Peter utilized *on-the-spot error correction* for students' pronunciation mistakes during the practice of oral skills despite the fact that he had said he preferred *delayed error correction* for any types of student mistakes. The tension occurred because Peter thought that the MoES expected EFL teachers to employ *on-the-spot error correction* in English classes. The validity of that strategy was further reinforced by UK TKT course trainers and participants. This experience seemingly led Peter to perceive that his students were missing out on the benefits of the *on-the-spot error correction* for pronunciation mistakes and that this technique was widely used within the Western trained TESOL community. These perceptions were the reason behind the tension in this case, in that they propelled Peter to exhibit practices that were at odds with his espoused beliefs.

There was another example from Peter's classes where TPC seemed to guide practices that were at odds with stated beliefs. That was the instance about using L1 in EFL lessons. Although Peter said he was not in favour of letting his students use L1 during classes, he was observed to do the opposite on some occasions. In particular, Peter let his students use L1 during group work discussions because he perceived that, being close friends, they preferred to use L1 during within-group discussions when the teacher was not monitoring. Thus, Peter's perceptions of his

immediate teaching environment was behind the conflict between his beliefs and practices.

Likewise, TPC prevented Adam from enacting his professed beliefs about the value of group work for the instruction of speaking. His pre-observation statements suggested that he was a proponent of using group work as a technique for involving every student in the practice of oral skills since it maximized the exposure to the target language for everyone. However, his classroom observations indicated that, instead, he employed alternative modes of interaction for speaking practice such as whole-class (discussions), monologic (oral presentations) and pair work. The extracts from his stimulated recall interviews implied that tension occurred because of Adam's perceptions that a) the administrative work (that he was assigned by the principal) was more important than designing comprehensive lessons that could potentially include group work; b) the prescribed course book restricted the freedom to conduct oral practice through group work because it did not offer tasks suitable for that purpose; and c) deviating from the annual plan in order to conduct self-designed group work for oral practice would result in supplementary lessons to catch up with the book. Accordingly, it could be inferred from this evidence that Adam's perceptions of situational constraints were a probable cause of tension between beliefs and practices. Table 12 provides a synopsis of the participants' perceptions that motivated them to exhibit actions incongruent with their stated beliefs.

There were other instances where teachers' TPC had a considerable impact on the degree of consistency between beliefs and practices. However, I have decided to present them as evidence to other claims in subsequent sub-sections in order to avoid repetition.

Table 12: TPC contributing to tensions between beliefs and practices

1	Peter	Stated belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context
Aspects	Error correction	Error correction during oral practice should be delayed	MoES expects EFL teachers to employ on-the-spot error correction in the English classes; Students are missing out on the benefits of on-the-spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes; On-the-spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes is commonly used within the community of Western trained TESOL professionals.
	Using L1	Use of L1 in should be avoided in EFL classes	Because students are close friends, they prefer to use L1 during within-group discussions.
2	Adam	Stated belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context
Aspect	Group work	Group work should be used for practising oral skills	The additional administrative work is more important than designing comprehensive lessons that would possibly include group work; The prescribed curriculum restricts the freedom to design and conduct speaking-oriented activities like group work.

5.6.3 The impact of CPBR on the degree of consistency

There was a substantial amount of evidence in the data to suggest that teachers' core beliefs had a considerable impact on their belief-practice relationship and exerted a more powerful influence on participants' performances than their peripheral beliefs. I understand core beliefs as generic beliefs about language teaching, and teaching and learning in general (e.g. learning is facilitated when students are motivated), and peripheral ones as those that are more related to the teaching of specific language aspects (e.g. oral presentations are an appropriate tool for practising speaking). As was illustrated in the participants' individual case reports, broader educational concerns have featured heavily in the analysis of the data. I refer to these concerns as teachers' core beliefs since they appeared to have the relevant characteristics (i.e. resistant to change, stable, experientially ingrained, held with more conviction than peripheral beliefs) that have been previously attributed to core beliefs in the literature (Breen et al., 2001; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Teachers drew upon those broader educational concerns when accounting for both tensions and consistencies between their stated beliefs and classroom practices. The insights emerging from the data underline the central role of educational concerns in guiding teachers' instructional decision making processes.

For instance, even though Peter's perceptions of the context motivated him to employ practices that were incongruent with his stated beliefs in the example of error correction, the key factor in defining the degree of consistency seemed to be Peter's educational concern to create and maintain a supportive and non-threatening classroom environment for his students. He developed this educational concern (core belief) during his pre-service teacher education program, and later, during his earlier teaching career, opted to use delayed error correction during speaking activities (peripheral belief) as it was aligned with that concern. That harmony was endangered when Peter's strategy in relation to the correction of pronunciation mistakes during the practice of oral skills came under criticism by an MoES ELT expert. However, Peter refused to alter his instructional choices at the time, which suggests that his earlier cited core belief was resistant to change. Although he started to employ on-the-spot error correction following the UK TKT course (which was in stark contrast to his stated beliefs), he was still not completely convinced that it was the right thing to do. He argued that he would go back to his old strategy if the new one generated negative feedback from his students. The selection of a particular error correction strategy during the instruction of speaking – whether it was *delayed* or *on-the-spot error correction* – appeared to be dependent on the ability of one of those techniques to produce learning outcomes that were compatible with Peter's said educational concern. In other words, his peripheral belief in the value of a particular error correction technique for teaching oral skills would consolidate its position only if it was harmonious with his core belief. Thus, Peter's educational concern demonstrated another characteristic of core beliefs: it was stable and determined the selection of a peripheral belief.

Further examples of broader educational concerns influencing the emergence of tensions were evident in Mary's case as well. The first instance was also in relation to error correction strategies. However, unlike Peter, Mary was not against correcting pronunciation mistakes on the spot. Her objection was about correcting grammar mistakes during speaking tasks because she was concerned that otherwise students could lose the stream of thought. Although in general her practices were consistent with her beliefs, there was one episode in her classes where she intervened in the speaking tasks in order to provide corrections to learners' grammar mistakes. Mary argued that she could have delayed the correction of mistakes if the task had been a monologic one (e.g. book retelling). However, it was a dyadic speaking activity; and as such, Mary was worried that grammar mistakes could result in communication breakdowns and affect the flow of the task. For that reason, Mary abandoned delayed error correction strategy towards grammar mistakes occurring during speaking tasks (peripheral belief) in favour of her educational concern to monitor the successful execution of activities (core belief).

Mary intervened in another speaking activity as well. However, this time she did not target the quality of the language but its quantity. She had stated that short turns during oral practice were acceptable and did not pose any danger on the development of learners' speaking competence (peripheral belief). Yet the observations of her lessons revealed that Mary encouraged her students to produce longer speaking turns because she was concerned that students might neglect the construction of complete, comprehensive and grammatically accurate spoken language. In practice, then, the stated peripheral belief (short speaking turns are acceptable) was subordinated to a desire to adhere to the core belief (students should learn language accuracy and complexity) once again. The above-discussed examples indicate that the manifestation of peripheral beliefs in teachers' practices was subject to their consonance with core beliefs. Table 13 illustrates the core and peripheral beliefs discussed above.

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Table 13: Core beliefs influencing the degree of consistency

1	Peter	Peripheral belief	Core belief (broader educational concerns)
Aspect	Error correction	Error correction during oral practice should be delayed/done on-the-spot	It is important to create and maintain a non-threatening classroom environment for students
2	Mary	Peripheral belief	Core belief (broader educational concerns)
Aspects	Error correction	Error correction should be delayed/done on the spot	It is important to monitor the successful execution of tasks
	Speaking turns	Short/Long speaking turns should be promoted during oral practice	It is important to teach language accuracy and complexity

5.6.4 The interaction between CPBR and TPC and its impact on the degree of consistency

Sub-section 5.6.3 provided instances where teachers' practices were at odds with their stated beliefs about teaching speaking; and yet, they appeared to be congruent with more generic beliefs (broader educational concerns) about language teaching, and learning in general. In this sub-section I discuss instances of tensions from the participants' accounts as well; however, this time, I will introduce evidence that indicates that teachers' perceptions of the context played an impotant role when teachers had to choose between two or more competing beliefs. The significant impact of the interaction between CPBR and TPC on both tensions and consistencies between participants' stated beliefs and actual classroom practices is one of the most important findings emerging from the research project. Specific examples from individaul accounts are presented in the following sub-sections here to support this poposition.

A. *CPBR and TPC influencing tensions between beliefs and practices*

It certainly seemed to be true in the case of Peter in relation to his error correction strategies. This instance of tension was mentioned in preceding sub-sections (5.6.2 and 5.6.3) to discuss the influences of TPC and CPBR separately. However, it equally

seems to represent an example of a joint impact of those two factors. As reported earlier, Peter had developed a strong core belief (creating and maintaining a non-threatening classroom environment) during his pre-service teacher education which translated to a peripheral belief (delayed error correction during speaking tasks) that was in line with it. Nonetheless, these were not reflected in Peter's practices; instead, he practised a contrasting peripheral belief because of the perceptions of the context that he had (discussed in sub-section 5.6.2). This peripheral belief was that correcting pronunciation mistakes on the spot is beneficial to L2 language learners' oral skills and seemed to have been developed in the aftermath of the MoES ELT expert's visit and the UK TKT course. This instance shows that a teacher's specific belief about oral instruction can be preferred to his/her general belief about learning when it is supported by the perceptions of the context.

Competition between two core beliefs was identified when David used pair work as a means of supporting weaker students' speaking skills. Prior to classroom observations, he had expressed a belief that forming pairs of students with different levels of English proficiency during speaking tasks was a useful strategy because it helped students with limited L2 speaking competence to benefit from their stronger peers (peripheral belief). It appeared that this belief was motivated by his educational concern for providing support for learners with lower levels of L2 competence (core belief). However, during classroom observations no link was found between his stated beliefs and actual practices. Post-lesson discussions showed that David decided against that strategy because he was worried that his students might lose interest in and focus on the lesson if they did not like the partners they had been allocated. He preferred to act upon another broader educational concern for gaining and sustaining students' attention (core belief) in order to keep them focused on the lesson because it was reinforced by his perceptions of his students' preferences (students prefer forming their own pairs) and of their reactions to his pairing strategy (students struggle to focus on tasks if

they are paired with students with whom they do not have a friendly relationship). Thus, this example seems to represent a clash between two core beliefs where David decided to prioritize the one that was in line with his perceptions of the context.

Prioritization of core beliefs over peripheral beliefs amid support from TPC was exemplified in Peter and David's cases in relation to students' use of L1 during oral skills instruction. Both teachers were adamant that students should not be allowed to resort to L1 during the practice of speaking. However, in both cases the analysis revealed that classroom practices were inconsistent with the participants' espoused beliefs, but were congruent with their deeper, general beliefs about learning. Peter stated that he sometimes deliberately allowed students to make use of L1 because he believed that students should not be separated from the learning process or singled out for their poor language competence, and that their contributions to the lesson should not be undervalued just because they made them in their mother tongue. This means that he was concerned about providing support for weaker students in order to encourage them to contribute to the lesson and engage in the ongoing activities (core belief). This pedagogical concern was in line with his TPC that weaker students become less active in response to being cautioned for L1 use (i.e. they become reticent and avoid contributing to the lesson). Correspondingly, this implies that Peter's perception of his pedagogical context was aligned with his broader educational concern and exerted a greater influence on his instructional decisions than his specific beliefs about learning a language.

Similarly, David had to make sense of and choose between two competing beliefs that implied completely different actions in connection with students' use of L1. During his pre-observation interviews he sounded resolute in his belief that students' use of L1 should be closely controlled in order to minimize its effect on the development of oral skills (peripheral belief). The observations of his lessons, however, revealed the opposite. David perceived that his students came to his lessons feeling tired having already attended five to six other classes during the day.

Subsequently, he argued that putting further pressure on students by forcing them to use only English during tasks could adversely affect their sentiments about the teacher and the subject. Because of these perceptions David decided to compromise on his peripheral belief about not letting students use L1 during oral practice in the classroom because he held the importance of maintaining a friendly relationship with his students in higher regard (core belief). The last two examples enable us to deduce that tensions between stated beliefs and practices can occur when teachers relinquish their peripheral beliefs in favour of their core beliefs through the mediation of their perceptions of the pedagogical contexts (see Table 14).

Table 14: CPBR and TPC influencing tensions between beliefs and practices

1	Peter	Stated belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context + Core belief/Peripheral belief
Aspects	Using L1	Students should not use L1.	Weaker students become less active in response to being cautioned for L1 use + It is important to provide support for weaker students.
	Error correction	Error correction during oral practice should be delayed	MoES expects EFL teachers to employ on-the-spot error correction in the English classes; Students are missing out on the benefits of on-the-spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes; On-the-spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes is commonly used within the community of Western trained TESOL professionals. + Correcting pronunciation mistakes on the spot is beneficial to L2 language learners' oral skills
2	David	Stated belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context + Core belief/Peripheral belief
Aspects	Pair work	Forming pairs of weaker and stronger students can improve former's oral skills.	Students prefer forming their own pairs; Students struggle to focus on the tasks if they are paired with students with whom they do not have a friendly relationship. + It is important to gain and sustain students' attention.

			Students come to EFL classes feeling exhausted, thus forcing them to use only L2 during speaking can affect their opinions about the teacher and the English classes.
	Using L1	Students should not use L1.	+ It is important to build and maintain good rapport with students.

B. CPBR and TPC influencing consistencies between beliefs and practices

The combination of teachers' TPC and their broader educational concerns also seemed to motivate the consistencies between beliefs and practices. The evidence of this can be seen in the example about group work from Peter's account. Peter apparently thought that his students had a passion for competitions, expected him to conduct group work activities, and that his weaker students needed a safe and stimulating environment for practicing speaking. These perceptions of his students coincided with some of his broader educational concerns to motivate his students, integrate language teaching, encourage even participation in the activities, and provide support for weaker students. Thus, Peter appeared to be implementing group work in response to the alignment of his TPC and educational concerns.

In like manner, Mary enacted practices which were congruent with her professed beliefs about the role of L1 in teaching L2 speaking as a result of a similar alignment between her perceptions of the context and educational concerns. Mary was concerned about providing support for lower level students and promoting the development of interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge with them, hence the occasional use of L1 during oral practice with beginner level students as she had claimed she would do before observations. These concerns were strengthened by her perceptions of her beginner-level students that their L2 competence was still insufficient for them to fully express their ideas in English; they would 'react negatively' to the prohibition of L1 use; and that they still thought in L1 and struggled to link L1 and L2 knowledge during speech. In the same way she tried to control the use of L1 when teaching more advanced students because she perceived that intermediate-

level students possessed sufficient L2 knowledge and did not need the support of L1 during speaking. Conversely, she claimed that the use of L1 might inhibit the development of fluency and cultivate undesirable speaking habits such as unnatural pausing and hesitation. This was in line with her concern to teach language fluency.

Another illustration comes from David's extensive use of pair work for teaching speaking. The alliance between TPC and broader educational concerns appeared to first inform his belief about the technique in question, and then to emerge as a rationale for his practices. During pre-observation interviews David argued that pair work was a convenient tool for involving every student in the practice of oral skills and saving time in the process because he believed that class time was not enough for everyone to get a chance to speak to the teacher. Pair work was indeed frequently utilized in his classes on account of David's perceptions that his students did not cause classroom management issues when working in pairs, which was aligned with his educational concern for maintaining discipline in the classroom. In the three instances discussed above consistencies between professed beliefs and enacted practices transpired because there seemed to be coherence among core and peripheral beliefs and teachers' perceptions of their pedagogical contexts. This is illustrated in Table 15.

Table 15: CPBR and TPC influencing consistencies between beliefs and practices

1	Peter	Peripheral belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Core belief(s) (broader educational concern)
Aspect	Group work	Group work should be employed for teaching speaking	Students have a passion for competitions; Students expect teacher to conduct group work; Weaker students need a safe and stimulating environment for practising speaking.	It is important to motivate students; encourage even participation; provide support for weaker students; reinforce learning; and be economical.
2	Mary	Peripheral belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Core belief(s) (broader educational concern)

			Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Core belief(s) (broader educational concerns)
Aspect	Using L1	L1 can be used with beginner students but not with more advanced students	Beginner students' L2 competence is insufficient for them to fully express their ideas in English; The student would react negatively to the prohibition of L1 use; Beginner students think in L1 and struggle to link L1 and L2 knowledge; Intermediate level students possess sufficient L2 knowledge and do not need the support of L1.	It is important to provide support for lower level students; promote the development of interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge; and teach fluency.
3	David	Peripheral belief	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Core belief(s) (broader educational concerns)
Aspect	Pair work	Pair work can improve students' oral skills	Class duration is not enough for everyone to practise speaking with the teacher; Students cause less classroom management issues when working in pairs as compared to other modes of interaction.	It is important to encourage even participation; be economical; and maintain discipline.

The seven examples discussed in this sub-section indicate the importance of interplay between teachers' core beliefs and their perceptions of the pedagogical context when accounting for both divergences and congruence between teachers' beliefs and practices.

5.6.5 Additional factor that impacted on the degree of consistency

The report hitherto seems to suggest that there is substantial evidence from across four individual cases of the dominant role of TPC and broader educational concerns in mediating the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and practices. However, among all 14 instances presented in this chapter there was one particular instance in David's case pertaining to memorization and recitation of texts where the

influence of those two factors on the consistency level was seemingly overshadowed by the impact of an additional factor: previous language learning experiences.

As the observations of his lessons revealed, David used memorization extensively in his classes to practise speaking skills which showed congruence between his beliefs and practices. The analysis of his interviews indicated that David resorted to his own language learning experiences apropos of the memorization and recitation of texts when providing a rationale for his current practices. He described how he used to memorize content such as texts and tongue twisters and deliver them from memory in front of the class. Those descriptions appeared to be similar to David's execution of the same technique in his lessons. Furthermore, he believed that the strategy would have an analogous 'positive' influence on his students as it had on him. Correspondingly, the direct impact of previous language experiences on the degree of consistency was evident in this case.

The impact of TPC and broader educational concerns were identified as well. However, there was evidence to suggest that they emanated from David's own language learning experiences as well. That is to say, David argued he used memorization since he perceived that his students struggled with new vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar content in the course book texts. He suggested that those were similar feelings he had experienced himself during his time as a language learner and described how memorization had helped him to overcome those issues. Therefore, according to David, memorization could foster the development of his students' language skills in the same way as it had done his own.

Consequently, although David's TPC and broader educational concern contributed to the emergence of consistency between stated beliefs and classroom practices, it was his previous language learning experiences that seemed to have the defining impact on it (see Figure 6 in sub-section 5.3.1).

Moreover, there is an important issue to note about this chapter and it is the absence of reference to the impact of participants' experience on the degree of consistency between their stated beliefs and observed practices. As mentioned earlier in 3.5, various researchers have suggested that teacher's *experience level* may influence the extent to which their professed beliefs are observed in practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Ertmer et al., 2012; Feryok, 2005; Mitchell, 2005; Roehrig et al, 2009). However, in 14 instances presented in this chapter there was no evidence of teachers' experience being a factor behind tensions or consistencies. This does not mean that the participants' professional experience did not influence their beliefs and practices. In fact, as indicated in the study, accumulated teaching experience played a significant role in the development of beliefs in the cases of Peter (5.2.1), Adam (5.4.1) and Mary (5.5.1). However, since none of the participants directly mentioned their experience as rationale for their practices during stimulated recall interviews, *teacher experience* was not included as a factor that motivated tensions or consistencies in the examples presented in this chapter.

5.6.6 Conclusion

The cross-case analysis of the four individual cases has revealed the roles that TPC, CPBR, previous language learning experiences played in accounting for matches and mismatches between the participants' espoused beliefs and enacted practices. First, it began by discussing each factor in isolation and then proceeded to explore their collective impact on the degree of consistency. As a starting point, sub-section 5.6.2 shed light on the influence teachers' perceptions of the context exerted on the consistency level. Sub-section 5.6.3 highlighted the internal complexity of belief sub-systems and their relationship with teacher decision making process. Moreover, sub-sections 5.6.4 and 5.6.5 provided some insights into the intricate interaction among TPC, CPBR and prior language learning experiences and how they influenced the participants' instructional practices in their respective pedagogical environments.

The following chapter (Chapter 7) will focus on summarising the main findings from this chapter and discussing emerging issues in relation to the existing literature.

Chapter Six: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the main findings of the study and engages in the discussion of emerging insights in connection with the existing literature in the field. The objectives of this investigation were to examine the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and observed practices about teaching speaking and to explore the impact of factors such as TPC and CPBR on the phenomenon both individually and collectively. As a starting point, I will focus on the teaching of speaking, presenting how oral skills instruction unfolded in the classrooms and how it relates to contemporary ELT research. Following this, I shall talk about TPC and CPBR in isolation and finish the chapter by discussing the interaction between the two constructs and their impact as a system on the phenomenon under study.

The research project provides further insights into our understanding of teacher perceived context by shedding light on the specific sources and constituents that inform and shape the construct. Additionally, the data uncovered evidence which may raise our awareness about language teachers' belief systems delineating core and peripheral beliefs. Finally, the main contribution of the study lies in illustrating the significant impact of the interplay between different factors on teachers' belief-practice relationship.

6.2 The teaching of speaking

6.2.1 Teachers' conceptualisation of the teaching of speaking

In this sub-section I intend to provide a characterisation of participant teachers' oral skills instruction on the basis of the analysis of classroom observations and interviews conducted during the study. To this end, I shall identify teachers' shared and unique speaking teaching practices and juxtapose them with the existing literature on the subject at hand. All the teachers perceived learning speaking skills to be extremely important; however, as the data illustrate, they made use of diverse

approaches to the teaching of speaking through a variety of communicative tasks. Overall, the speaking teaching methodology adopted by the teachers closely correspond to the broad categorization of direct/controlled and indirect/transfer approaches for oral skills instruction well documented in the literature (Burns, 1998; Richards, 1990).

Most of the observed practices adopted an indirect approach, which indicates that teachers placed a strong emphasis on functional language use during oral practice. The only exception in this respect was David. His speaking teaching involved teacher-led *skill-getting* activities (Rivers & Temperley, 1978) such as drills and pattern practice; the use of controlled tasks such as the reproduction of scripted dialogues through pair work (Fulcher, 2003); and the memorization and recitation of course book texts where oral language production is not spontaneous but predetermined (Willis, 2015).

Moreover, unlike other practitioners, Mary conducted speaking tasks that did not neatly match the definitions of either direct or indirect approaches; rather, they reflected elements of both. Such a combined use of the two approaches has been proposed by experts before (Bygate, 1998; Johnson, 2003; Littlewood, 1992; Thornbury, 2012) and reportedly compensate for the shortcomings of exclusive reliance on either direct approaches (a neglect of language fluency and complexity) or indirect approaches (a neglect of linguistic elements and discourse structures) (Bygate, 2005). From these data, we can infer that Mary's approach to teaching speaking can be understood as a continuum, involving elements of both direct and indirect approaches in different degrees during the instruction.

Another interesting point of discussion, which is also related to one of the other aspects of the study, emerged from the analysis of David and Adam's observed approaches to and the enunciated rationale of their instruction of speaking. As reported in their individual accounts, they were involved in teaching English to

students of the same proficiency level (7th grade; officially an elementary level) and even taught students from the same class (7 A & D) since the school divided classes into two groups during language lessons in line with the governmental guidelines (GOSO, 2012, paragraph 5.65). Despite that, they employed different approaches for teaching oral skills because their perceptions of the students varied. This is noteworthy because it reveals the application of context-sensitive methodology (Holliday, 1994) in that teachers' perceptions of the same environmental element stimulated the adoption of different approaches to the teaching of L2 speaking.

Table 16 presents the use of approaches for the teaching of speaking employed by the participants in classes of different language abilities. The school followed the Common Reference Levels set by the CEFR for describing the levels of proficiency in different grades: grade 7 – A1 (Beginners); grade 8 – A2 (Pre-intermediate); grade 9 – B1 (Intermediate); grade 10 – B2 (Upper-intermediate); grade 11 – C1 (Advanced) (de Europa & de Cooperación Cultural, 2002).

Table 16: Teachers' approaches to the teaching of speaking

#	Types of approaches	Peter	David	Adam	Mary
1	Direct approach	A2	A1;A2	A1	A1
2	Indirect approach	B2	-	A1;A2;B1	A1;A2
3	Combined approach	-	-	-	A1;A2

The teachers employed many different types of speaking tasks. Peter stood out from the other participants in that he showcased the vastness of his teaching repertoire by utilizing all the speaking tasks listed in Table 17 below. The one other unique feature of his speaking teaching was that he customized a purely monologic task (oral presentations) with the inclusion of student-led, post-presentation, whole-class discussions (see Table 6, lesson 6). Thus, Peter was the only participant practitioner that conducted a student-initiated speaking activity that appeared to reflect a student-centred, constructivist pedagogy (Windschitl, 2002).

Adam's oral instruction was characterised by a predominant use of whole-class discussions. Although he was the initiator of the interaction, Adam promoted opinion sharing and meaning negotiation among students, who seemed to respond to this teaching style positively. Adam further reinforced this with localisation and personalisation of the resources (see Table 8, lesson 13). Correspondingly, he offered learners a contextualized language activity (Crawford, 2002) that was relevant to their cultural and social environment (Hughes, 2002).

One thing that Adam and Peter had in common in relation to task types was the use of context-gap tasks. This type of speaking activity is intellectually challenging for it demands students 'to create a context for the information that they are sharing, encouraging them to express their meaning by drawing on their knowledge of the language' (Goh & Burns, 2012, pp. 203-204). Peter conducted this task by handing out cards with job titles and asking students to discuss and decide on the duties and responsibilities of these jobs, while Adam displayed a PowerPoint slide with the word *device* on it and invited students to give their own definitions to the word and provide examples.

All four teachers conducted monologic tasks that are also described as talk as performance (Richards, 2006). Individually, students prepared talks and delivered them for an audience in the classroom. These included oral presentations, book retelling and recitation of memorized texts. The speeches were planned, edited, rehearsed and even memorized in some cases as opposed to being impromptu. Mary, Peter and Adam allowed flexibility to their students in terms of topic selection for oral presentations, which enabled each learner to prepare a talk outside the classroom by researching a topic of their own choice. This provided a platform for the practice of so-called 'decontextualized oral language skills' (Goh & Burns, 2012, p. 212) in that, by relying on their linguistic skills, the students produced extensive prepared speeches in the classroom in order to convey information to an audience who did not share the same background knowledge. David's students, on the other

hand, were largely engaged in memorization and recitation of texts during monologic speaking tasks. David believed that, afterwards, students would be able to apply this memorized information to real-life communicative situations, which reflects the notion of 'proceduralization' of the language (K. Johnson, 1997) within the cognitive model of speech processing put forth by Levelt (1995).

It can be seen from Table 17 that David's stock of speaking tasks was relatively modest in comparison with other teachers. During the course of 11 classroom observations he utilized only dyadic and monologic speaking tasks. Crookes & Arakaki (1999) suggest that, most of the time, *teaching ideas* come from teachers' accumulated teaching experiences. Although there is no indication in the data that David's inexperience prevented him from employing other types of speaking tasks, it is worth remembering that this was his first full academic year as an EFL teacher in a state secondary school in Kazakhstan.

Table 17: Types of speaking tasks used by teachers

#	Types of tasks	Peter	David	Adam	Mary
1	Information-gap tasks	✓	-	-	✓
2	Context-gap tasks	✓	-	✓	-
3	Discussions	✓	-	✓	✓
4	Dialogues & Role-plays	✓	✓	Limited	✓
5	Monologic tasks	✓	✓	✓	✓

Speaking teaching tasks were actualized through the mediation of various interactional modes: whole-class work, group work and pair work. However, the degree to which these modes were utilized varied from teacher to teacher, as shown in Table 18 below.

Table 18: Teachers' use of interactional modes during speaking tasks

#	Modes of interaction	Peter	David	Adam	Mary
1	Whole-class work	✓	-	✓	Limited
2	Group work	✓	-	-	✓
3	Pair work	✓	✓	Limited	✓

The table shows that the two most experienced teachers, Peter and Mary, made use of all three modes of interaction, while David relied solely on pair work. In fact, Mary's classroom layout was arranged in a way that students were always seated in four small groups during the lessons. This resembled the seating arrangement defined in Scrivener (2011) as buzz groups. Likewise, Peter extensively used group work in order to maximise student talk time by encouraging student-student interaction within groups. In addition, by placing weaker and stronger students in the same groups he aimed to develop good working relations between the students and provide a platform for scaffolding of weaker students by stronger students (Harmer, 1991; Jacobs & Goh, 2007). The strong focus on group discussions in Peter and Mary's classes is aligned with the view that learning is constructed jointly through the experience of interacting with others (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). This reflects the sociocultural theory of learning (Block, 2003). Similarly, David argued that pairing weaker and stronger students during oral practice would help him accomplish similar goals. However, the data revealed that he used pair work mainly as a classroom management tool instead (i.e. he claimed students were less noisy during pair work).

Furthermore, the data revealed a collective emphasis on establishing a non-threatening, supportive environment for students during oral practice. For example, Peter and Mary were in favour of providing error correction that displays appreciation of learners' inner feelings (Tudor, 1996). Adam claimed that if students are not allowed to resort to L1 when they run into trouble during speaking, then they will not experiment and take risks when participating in communicative tasks (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Likewise, David allowed the use of L1 to maintain students' positive feelings towards English classes and the teacher. The participants were thus concerned about creating a 'safe place' (Nelson, 2010, p. 66) for the teaching and learning of the target language, which is aligned with humanistic

psychology in language teaching (Stevick, 1990) that highlights the affective dimension of ELT.

In this sub-section, then, I provided my interpretation of the teachers' conceptualizations and practices of their speaking teaching and established its connection to the dominant ideas (i.e. cognitive, sociocultural and humanistic) in the contemporary ELT literature. While doing so, I not only revealed what approaches, tasks and modes of interaction teachers made use of during speaking instruction, but also how they used them.

6.2.2 Critique of participants' speaking teaching pedagogy

Although the previous sub-section illustrated how teachers' speaking teaching practices aligned with the contemporary thinking in ELT research, the data also identified several aspects of the participants' speaking instruction that require more critical appraisal.

For instance, the participants seemed to have a distinctly limited understanding of what systematic teaching of pronunciation and the learning of new sound system entailed. Their ideas about the instruction of pronunciation appeared to be confined to the use of on-the-spot or delayed correction of pronunciation mistakes and to conducting drills for mastering the oral production of individual words. However, these were done to the complete exclusion of any attention to the articulation of individual phonemes and other important factors such as voicing, aspiration, voice-setting features, stress and intonation (Esling & Wong, 1983). This is despite the suggestions in the literature that pronunciation should be 'highlighted and given increased prominence within formal curricula' (Macdonald, 2002, p. 12) because students regard learning pronunciation to be a priority to them (Willing & Nunan, 1993), and that deliberate and appropriate instruction of pronunciation is as important as form-focused instruction of grammar or vocabulary (Nation & Newton, 2009). It was not within the scope of this study to reveal the potential reasons for the

absence of comprehensive pronunciation teaching. There has been some suggestions in the literature that teachers might avoid teaching pronunciation because a) they lack relevant knowledge, skills or confidence to deal with pronunciation teaching (Yates, 2001); or because they hold a belief that pronunciation instruction is boring to them and to students due to overroutinisation (Baker, 2014). However, there is no direct evidence in the data to suggest that these claims apply to my participants as well.

Furthermore, among all four participants, only Mary alluded to the teaching of speaking turns. However, having stated that short speaking turns are acceptable and do not pose any danger to the development of speaking skills, Mary, during the observations, refused to accept short turns and, through *pushed output* (Swain, 1995), encouraged her students to reformulate their utterings and provide longer speaking turns. After the lesson, she explained that she now realized the potential negative effects of students providing short turns on the mastery of accuracy and complexity and claimed that she would not accept them anymore. The literature, however, suggests that both types of speaking turns are common features of natural communication and that their instruction should be determined by the purpose of the *talks* (Brown & Yule, 1983; Nolasco & Arthur, 1987). For example, *talk as interaction* primarily serves a social function where the interlocutors converse 'to establish a comfortable zone of interaction' (Richards, 2006, p. 2). The focus is on speakers and interactional short turns are a salient characteristic here. *Talk as transaction* and *talk as performance* place importance on successful communication of information, which in turn requires greater accuracy and complexity in speech; as such, extended oral production ought to be emphasized here (ibid.). Mary's post-lesson commentary suggested that she viewed the aforementioned types of speaking turns to be mutually exclusive in communication. She implied that her prospective instruction of speaking might be limited to long turns only, which does not acknowledge the value of short turns in social interaction. This and the lack of

reference to the instruction of speaking turns from the other three teachers appear to indicate this is an area of L2 speaking teaching where improvement could be achieved through engaging with the pertinent existing literature.

Another distinctive and consistent feature of the participants' teaching seemed to be the lack of reference to formal theory when providing a rationale for their L2 speaking practices. Teachers drew on their beliefs, accumulated teaching experiences, observations of and past encounters with their students, feedback from learners, their understandings of the pedagogical contexts, and their own experiences as learners and language learners at school as the sources of evidence for their actions; therefore, their explanations were largely practical and experiential in nature. This was manifest in the absence of metalanguage in teachers' discourse as well. For example, although some of the participants (e.g. Peter and Mary) referred to the teaching of *fluency, accuracy and complexity*, none of them explicitly mentioned *direct/indirect* or *controlled/transfer* approaches to speaking that represent key concepts in the discussion of L2 speaking instruction (Goh & Burns, 2012). As illustrated in the previous sub-section, the lack of technical language does not mean that these key concepts are not reflected in teachers' practices. Adam, for example, when expressing his understanding of speaking instruction, argued that for him teaching speaking was about creating opportunities in the classroom for oral practice to take place in a natural way. Despite the absence of direct reference, this was in line with the conceptualization of the indirect approach to the teaching of speaking proposed by Richards & Nunan (1990), who suggest that oral competence can be acquired incidentally as a by-product of engaging in communicative tasks. Nation & Newton (2009) emphasize the value of this approach in internalisation of the language as well.

Such lack of a theoretical basis for teachers' work has been noted in previous research (Ebsworth & Schweers, 1997; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999) and seem to suggest that teachers draw upon their experiential

personal practical knowledge (Golombek, 1998) rather than propositional knowledge when commenting on their practices. The evidence from my study discussed here is consistent with the existing literature and indicates that propositional knowledge may not be an immediate and direct source of teachers' instructional decisions. Once acquired, this knowledge is believed to become over time melded into teachers' own practical knowledge in such a way that teachers may no longer be conscious of its presence and of its impact on what they do (S. Borg & Burns, 2008). Although the lack of reference to propositional knowledge cannot be linked to the lack of propositional knowledge per se, it has been suggested that the overwhelming experiential and practical nature of teachers' rationales 'raise[s] questions about the reliability of their judgments about its effectiveness' (Borg & Burns, 2008, p. 479).

In any case, the conspicuous scarcity of pertinent metalanguage and the absence of theoretical reference points in teachers' discourse is revealing in the light of the proliferation of literature with respect to speaking instruction. These findings may also point to the role of context as a contributing factor to the teachers' atheoretical body of evidence for the teaching of L2 speaking. Webster (2015) suggests that 'without a context in which teachers are exposed to theory, routinized practices may no longer be subject to theoretical examination and the problematizing of teachers' practices required for development may not take place' (p. 218). The insights emerging from the study appear to be a sufficient indication of Kazakhstani secondary school EFL education being a context where teaching second language speaking is not prioritized and encouraged. It is highly likely that the lack of L2 speaking tests in English language exams in the Unified National Test (UNT), which is both a school leaving and a university entrance exam in Kazakhstan, has an impact on the prominence that teaching speaking is given in the school curricula and how it is enacted. Support for this suggestion can be found in Winter et al. (2014), who argue that because of its significance, UNT 'plays a major role in shaping what

young people learn in school and how this is taught' (p. 106). In this research project the *washback* (Alderson & Wall, 1993) or *backwash* effect (Biggs, 1995) of this high-stakes exam was reflected in the absence of speaking tests in school assessment practices – both in formative (term exams) and in summative assessments (annual exams) – as well as in teachers' expressed misgivings about the possibility of the school leadership making alternative arrangements for the assessment of students' speaking competence.

These observations concur with Akpinar & Cakildere's (2013) findings. The researchers studied the washback effect of an English language test in a high-stakes exam administered by the ministry of education in Turkey (an EFL context) on the school curricula. The points of similarity between the UNT and YGS (Yüksek öğretime Giriş Sınavı) were in that they both served as a university entrance examination and did not have sections that assessed students' speaking and writing skills (p. 82). The study concluded that an absence of speaking and writing tests in an exam of such paramount importance had a particular negative effect on the teaching and learning of L2 productive skills (speaking and writing) in states schools.

In the present study, the only sign of an institutional support for the teaching of L2 speaking (other than classroom resources) could possibly be inferred from the expressed perceptions of several participants that the avoidance of L1 during EFL lessons was a school policy and that it was mentioned in relation to the development of students' speaking skills. Thus, it provides a broad understanding of the institutional culture where teaching oral skills does not seem to receive equal attention as does the instruction of other aspects of L2 (e.g. grammar and vocabulary). Although collectively the practitioners acknowledged the importance of teaching and learning L2 speaking skills, the school, possibly, does not treat EFL teachers' professional development in this regard to be of major significance.

6.3 To what extent do teachers' beliefs correspond to their actual practices?

6.3.1 Teacher perceived context

Contextual factors have been treated as external to teachers and have generally been defined as the social, environmental, institutional, instructional and physical *realities* that can impact on teachers' instructional decisions and the realisation of their cognitions (Basturkmen, 2012; S. Borg, 2006; Crookes & Arakaki, 1999; Fang, 1996; Kinzer, 1988; Lee, 2009; Spada & Massey, 1992). I understand these *realities* as specific components of the context that exist in a material or physical form, not abstract (e.g. students, parents, schools, policies, etc.). Some studies refer to contextual constraints as internal to teachers. For instance, Burgess & Etherington (2002) reported that their participants' perceptions of their students' expectations guided the selection of specific teaching methods. Likewise, a teacher in Chant (2002) attributed the changes in her instructional practices to her interpretations of her experiences as a beginner teacher in a new context.

A fresh perspective on contextual factors from a conceptual standpoint, then, was adopted by Sanchez (2010). He introduced a new construct (teacher constructed context) and argued that what influences the application of teachers' cognitions is their interpretations and understandings of contextual agents (e.g. teachers' perceptions of students' proficiency level), and not those agents per se (e.g. students' proficiency level). Sanchez and Borg (2014) elaborated on this idea by explaining that components of teachers' pedagogical context - from the classroom to the educational system - 'are filtered through teachers' cognitions and, therefore, even teachers who work in the same institutional context may interpret and react to it in diverse ways' (p. 52). The current study maintained this viewpoint and has generated evidence to further illustrate a) the unique ways in which teachers perceive their pedagogical context and b) their impact on the consistency level between espoused beliefs and enacted practices. The first half of sub-section 6.3.1 focuses on the construct of TPC

itself. The impact of TPC on the degree of consistency shall be discussed in the second part.

A. Conceptualisation of TPC

The cognitive construct that shapes TPC is perceptions. The data indicate that perceptions in turn are formed as a result of teachers' interaction with and interpretation of specific contextual elements within the environments surrounding them. The various levels of context such as micro (classroom-level), meso (institutional- and/or social- level) and macro (regional- or national-level) have been noted in previous research (Andrews, 2003; Cincotta-Segi, 2011; Dooley & Assaf, 2009; Southerland et al., 2011). To build on that, the data from this study appear to point to additional types of environmental realities informing TPC which seemingly refer to a temporally distributed dimension of the said construct. This enables us to look at TPC from a new angle. The new categories of TPC are discussed in the next paragraphs and are illustrated with examples in Table 19-Table 22 below.

The first type emerging from the study is the TPC informed by *present* environmental realities. This relates to teachers' perceptions about presently active and relevant components of their pedagogical context. There is substantial evidence in support of this inference across all four cases. For instance, Peter perceived that, on a national level, the MoES of Kazakhstan expected EFL teachers to use on-the-spot error correction in English classes. Following a parent-teacher conference, David believed that parents expect English classes to focus more on speaking skills. Adam thought that the leadership of the school where he worked did not prioritize making arrangements for assessing students' competence in speaking skills. Finally, on a classroom level, Mary believed that beginner students' L2 competence was insufficient for them to fully express their ideas in English. All these perceptions were informed by present environmental realities and represented various levels of context, starting from the macro context on a national level to the immediate micro environment on a classroom level.

Furthermore, there was one unique instance of TPC in this regard which was about an element of the present context but appeared to be simultaneously shaped by the participant's past experience. This is in reference to David's perception that his students struggled when mastering new vocabulary, its pronunciation and grammar-related points in course book texts. He said he believed so because he had experienced the same difficulties himself when he was a language learner. Hence, this suggests that the participant's personal past experiences as a language learner guided the perception of his own students' difficulties. In other words, TPC about present environmental realities was fashioned by experiences from the past. This assumption can be supported by an analogous finding in Golombek (1998), where an in-service ESL (English as a Second Language) teacher preferred to avoid, if possible, the correction of students' pronunciation mistakes because she was wary that learners did not appreciate it. This apprehension seemed to derive from her own language learning experiences when she went through a 'traumatic experience' by persistently being corrected for her grammar mistakes (p. 454). Accordingly, it would seem that, similarly to David's case, this teacher's past experiences as a learner influenced her understanding of the educational context. In order to save space, in Table 19 below, I only present the examples discussed above.

Table 19: TPC formed of present environmental realities

#	Source	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Perceived feature of the context
1	Peter	Ministry of Education of Kazakhstan expects EFL teachers to employ on-the-spot error correction in English classes.	MoES' expectations
2	David	Students struggle with new vocabulary, its pronunciation and grammar content that come in the course book texts.	Students' learning difficulties
3		Parents expect English classes to focus more on speaking skills.	Parents' expectations
4	Adam	The school leadership does not prioritize making alternative arrangements for assessing students' competence in productive skills.	School leadership's disregard of productive skills
5	Mary	Beginner students' L2 competence is insufficient for them to fully express their ideas in English.	Beginner students' L2 competence

The next type is the TPC formed of *past* environmental realities. These perceptions were about participants' former contexts and appeared to have been gained at some point in the past. For example, when they first started teaching at their respective schools, both Adam and Mary believed that a tacit policy existed which required EFL teachers to avoid the use of L1 during lessons. As a result, both participants tried not to make use of students' first language when teaching speaking during the early years of their careers. However, at the time of their participation in this research, Adam and Mary indicated that their approaches to L1 use during speaking instruction had changed and was not based on those perceptions of the past context anymore. They now preferred to use both L1 and L2 interchangeably.

Despite this, some of Adam's perceptions of his past pedagogical context appeared to bear relevance to his present classroom practices. After he started using a cross-lingual approach during oral practice at his former institution, he perceived that his former students responded positively to it. This perception of the past pedagogical context seemed to shape the interpretation of his current educational environment as he thought that his present students embraced the cross-lingual approach as well, even though he did not receive any direct feedback from the students confirming this. These perceptions seemed to still guide Adam's current instructional practices in relation to L1 use.

Table 20: TPC formed of past environmental realities

#	Source	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Perceived feature of the context
1	Adam	A tacit school policy existed which required EFL teachers to avoid the use of L1 in EFL classrooms.	Avoiding L1 as an institutional policy
2		Students embraced the use of a cross-lingual approach.	Students' reactions
3		Students' comprehension of the content and their interest in the lessons increased as a result of using a cross-lingual approach.	Students' learning outcomes and motivation
4	Mary	Avoiding L1 was an important school policy because it was mentioned during the job interview.	Avoiding L1 as an institutional policy

Furthermore, an instance of a perception about a *future* environmental reality informing participants' TPC was identified in Adam's case. One of the interpretations of the context that prevented him from conducting speaking-oriented group activities appeared to refer to an anticipated scenario. That is, Adam claimed that he would have to conduct supplementary lessons if he deviated from the annual plan in order to design and conduct group discussions. Compulsory term exams were based on the course book material. Subsequently, if the textbook content was not covered during the scheduled lessons, Adam thought he would be required to design additional classes so that his students were prepared for the term exams. Thus, a perception of a future pedagogical context formed the TPC in this case. This finding can be linked to and supported by the well-established domain of research investigating the impact of exam washback/backwash. For instance, Hughes (1993), as cited by Bailey (1996, pp. 262-264), explains the mechanism by which test washback can impact on teaching and learning with 'the trichotomy of backwash model' (p. 2). One of the affected components of the context (along with process - what is done - and product - what is learned), according to Hughes, is participants, which includes teachers. He suggests that exam washback can shape the *perceptions* and *attitudes* of teachers about their teaching and that these in turn can determine what teachers do in an attempt to fulfil their work. These claims are similar to Adam's case discussed above in that a test washback shaped his perception and guided his actions; yet, it is different in that this perception was not about teaching but about a prospective educational context.

Table 21: TPC formed of future environmental reality

#	Source	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Perceived feature of the context
1	Adam	Deviating from the annual plan in order to conduct self-designed group work for oral practice will result in supplementary lessons to catch up with the book.	Supplementary lessons as an anticipated consequence of departing from the annual plan

There were also examples of TPC formed of *hypothetical* scenarios that did not have any relation to time despite being based on past experiences and prior knowledge. Examples of such perceptions come from Mary's account. For example, this was evident when Mary talked about the agreement with the vice-principal in relation to the avoidance of L1 use in EFL classes. As reported earlier, the vice-principal's office was in close proximity to Mary's classroom. That being the case, she tried to avoid the use of L1 because she thought that otherwise it could have been interpreted by the vice-principal as a breach of their tacit agreement. Thus, a perception of the vice-principal's probable interpretation of her actions guided Mary's instructional practices.

Likewise, another hypothetical scenario seemed to have shaped Mary's TPC. She let one of the students resort to L1 during oral practice because she perceived that he would react negatively to a prohibition. It was the perception of a hypothetical environmental reality (assumed teacher action) having an impact on the student's probable reaction that guided her instructional practices. This scenario appeared to be projected on the basis of the teacher's knowledge of the person involved either because of previous experience with that particular student or because of how she conceptualised that student. That is to say, the teacher might have seen how that student responded in one situation and she might have created a hypothetical scenario depicting how he may react in another similar situation.

Table 22: TPC formed of hypothetical environment

#	Source	Teachers' Perceptions of the Context	Perceived feature of the context
1	Mary	Resorting to L1 during lessons could have been perceived by the vice-principal as a breach of the tacit agreement.	Vice-principal's probable interpretation of teacher actions
2		The student would react negatively to the prohibition of L1 use.	Student's probable reaction

Thus, it can be argued that TPC can be built up on the basis of four main categories of sources: present, past and future environmental realities and a collection of atemporal hypothetical scenarios that are informed by past/recent experiences with the educational context. These insights draw our attention to the quadripartite nature of TPC and underline the importance of examining contextual factors as internal to teachers.

The above findings can be supported by Van Manen's (1995) work since they seem to coincide with his conceptualisation of reflective thought in the practice of teaching, which he says is 'complicated by the temporal dimensions of the practical contexts in which the reflection occurs' (p. 34). He distinguished between 'anticipatory reflection' (future-oriented reflection prior to action), 'retrospective reflection' (past-oriented reflection post action), 'contemporaneous reflection' ('as a stop and think' after a lesson) and 'immediate' reflection (reflection during the act of teaching) (p. 34). It is my argument here that thinking about *past*, *present*, *future* and *hypothetical* pedagogical contexts (i.e. TPC) overlaps in many aspects with thinking *on*, *about* and *in* the experience of teaching encompassed by the temporally distributed dimension of reflective practice in Van Manen's study, and above all encourages us to turn inward rather than outward when examining the art of teaching in its natural environment.

Along with the above claim, the discussion and the concomitant tables in this sub-section contribute to our understanding of TPC as a construct. I have attempted to compartmentalize the construct of TPC by outlining its various components, starting from the basic contextual agents under the focus (e.g. students, parents), continuing with the perceived features of those agents (e.g. students' reactions, parents' expectations), and concluding with the sources that inform the perceptions (e.g. past experience with the parents, teachers' knowledge of the students). Delineating these essential constituents of teacher perceived context enables us to comprehend it better.

B. *Impact of TPC on the belief-practice relationship*

This study set out to explore the impact of TPC on the relationship between the participants' stated beliefs and observed practices about speaking teaching and has provided substantial evidence across all the four cases of the influential role of TPC in the said relationship. Sub-section 5.6.2 presented six instances illustrating how teachers' perceptions of the context either facilitated or hindered the enactment of stated beliefs into practices resulting in consistencies or tensions respectively.

Regarding the impact of TPC on consistencies, David, for instance, in line with his stated beliefs about the need to avoid the use of students' first language during communicative tasks, was not observed making use of L1 over the course of 11 lessons. He ascribed this congruence to the perception of his students' interpretations of teacher actions, that is, he believed that the learners would accept the teacher's use of L1 as permission to use it as well. Adam's perceptions that his students welcomed a cross-lingual approach (i.e. the use of both L1 and L2) during oral practice and that their interest in the lessons increased as a result accounted for consistency as well. He often switched between L1 and L2 during speaking tasks, which corresponded with his professed belief that this approach can facilitate the instruction and practice of speaking skills. Likewise, in a different example, his extensive use of oral presentations in his classes coincided with his espoused beliefs that this type of speaking activities support the development of oral skills, build up students' confidence and enable the practice of presentation skills. His understanding of the educational environment around him (lack of speaking tests in term exams makes it difficult for teachers to monitor students' progress in speaking; the school leadership does not prioritize making alternative arrangements for assessing students' competence in productive skills) underpinned the match between stated beliefs and observed practices once again. Evidently, participants' perceptions of the pedagogical context in relation to students' interpretations of teacher actions; students' positive reactions to instructional strategies; repercussions

of not including speaking tests in term exams; and school leaderships' negligence of L2 productive skills motivated the consistencies in the belief-practice relationship.

There were other instances when the participants attributed tensions to TPC as well. In particular, Peter corrected students' pronunciation mistakes instantly and not after the speaking tasks as he had earlier suggested because he thought that a) the MoES of Kazakhstan expected EFL teachers to employ on-the-spot error correction in English classes; b) on-the-spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes was commonly used within the community of Western trained TESOL professionals; and c) his students were missing out on the benefits of on-the-spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes. In addition, contrary to his espoused beliefs avoiding L1 use during communicative tasks, Peter used and allowed his students to use L1 since he perceived that students did not appear to be listening to or understanding the lesson and that students preferred to use L1 during group discussions. Finally, the observations of Adam's lessons did not record the employment of group discussions, which was at odds with his professed beliefs in connection with providing even participation in classroom interaction through group work. The post-lesson interviews revealed that the tension appeared to be down to the way he construed the educational context. The content of the TPC in that case was as follows: a) the additional administrative work is more important than designing comprehensive lessons that would possibly include group work; b) the prescribed course book restricts the freedom to conduct oral practice through group work because it does not offer tasks suitable for that purpose; and c) deviating from the annual plan in order to conduct self-designed group work for oral practice will result in supplementary lessons to catch up with the book. In other words, the participants' conceptualisations of their pedagogical environments with regard to the ministry's expectations; international recognition of an error correction strategy; students' needs; students' actions; students' preferences; value of administrative work; influence of mandated curriculum; and supplementary lessons as an

anticipated consequence of departing from the prescribed plan predicated the tensions between professed beliefs and enacted classroom practices.

Overall, the study then offers empirical evidence for the proposition put forth by Sanchez (2010) and Sanchez and Borg (2014) that teachers' perceptions of the context mediate the relationship between teachers' cognitions and practices.

Moreover, the above findings reveal that a combination of several perceptions about different contextual factors can stimulate one particular practice. This is manifest in Adam's use of L1 (two stated perceptions), oral presentations (two stated perceptions) and group work (three stated perceptions); and in Peter's case in relation to error correction (three stated perceptions) and using L1 (three stated perceptions) (see Figure 12, Figure 13, Figure 14; Figure 3 and Figure 4).

Furthermore, the data seem to suggest that the impact of TPC was not limited to influencing only practices since the teachers appeared to resort to their perceptions of the educational context when providing their stated beliefs prior to observations. For instance, David's perception of the parents' expectations (parents expect English classes to focus more on speaking skills) seemingly *stimulated* his beliefs about EFL teachers' use of L1 (teachers should not use L1 in EFL classrooms; students' speaking skills improve faster if the teacher does not use L1 in the classroom) (see Figure 7). Likewise, David's beliefs about EFL students' use of L1 (students should not be allowed to use L1; allowing students to use L1 to express themselves during EFL classes hinders the development of their speaking skills) were also *reinforced* by his perception that there was an unspoken policy which advised the restriction of students' L1 use (see Figure 8). In like manner, as illustrated in Figure 9 David's perception that class duration is not enough for everyone to practise speaking with the teacher *coincided* with his belief that pair work was a useful tool for involving everyone in the practice of speaking. David's teaching philosophy, subsequently, appeared to be very context-specific as TPC both stimulated his stated beliefs prior to observations and emerged as rationale for his observed practices after the

observations. The impact of TPC on a stated belief was also identified in one of the examples discussed in Mary's case. Her stated belief about the duration of speaking turns (short speaking turns are acceptable and do not have any negative effect on learning speaking) was *rationalized* by a perception of the context (students have diverse learning styles and different speaking habits). This is illustrated in Figure 16.

In general, therefore, it seems that the influence of TPC is *multidirectional* in that it can impact both ends of the belief-practice relationship, and *combined* in that several perceptions of the pedagogical context can simultaneously motivate a particular belief or practice. This is the way that insights emerging from my study appear to complement those of earlier studies (Sanchez, 2010; Sanchez & Borg, 2014).

The discussion about the impact of TPC on the degree of consistency between stated beliefs and observed practices will also be discussed in sub-section 6.3.3.

6.3.2 Core and peripheral beliefs

There seems to be a general consensus among researchers that teachers' beliefs exist as a dynamic system where some beliefs are core and others peripheral (Breen et al., 2001; Green, 1971; Pajares, 1992). These belief substructures may not necessarily be logically arranged (Richardson, 2003), and conflicting and contrasting beliefs may be residing within the same network (Bryan, 2003). The current study has provided further evidence of belief sub-systems operating within teachers' cognitive dimensions and impacting on their classroom practices.

The examination of the data indicates that the structure of the participants' belief systems comprised different types of beliefs: beliefs about teaching and learning in general, beliefs about EFL teaching, and beliefs about teaching L2 speaking. Almost all the participant teachers held beliefs in these different areas. As stated in the previous chapter, in this study, the generic beliefs about teaching and learning and beliefs about EFL teaching were identified as core beliefs, whilst beliefs about teaching L2 speaking were recognized as peripheral beliefs.

A. *Conceptualisation of core and peripheral beliefs*

The analysis of the rationales that teachers provided when accounting for their classroom practices in relation to L2 speaking instruction revealed a range of broader educational concerns that guided their decision making process. As reported in sub-section 5.6.3, these educational concerns were identified as core beliefs since they seemingly displayed pertinent distinguishing characteristics previously ascribed to core beliefs by various researchers. The broader educational concerns emerging from this research project proved to be stable, experientially ingrained (Phipps & Borg, 2009), resistant to change, deeply held and context-independent (Breen et al., 2001). The peripheral beliefs about teaching speaking, on the other hand, appeared to be context-adaptable (Breen et al., 2001), entailed or derivative (in that they were developed on the basis of primary beliefs) and held with less conviction than the core beliefs (Thompson, 1992).

As discussed in section 3.2.1, the teacher cognition field is suffering from the proliferation of terms. There is a long list of constructs such as attitudes, values, judgements, axioms, opinions, ideology, conceptions, dispositions, implicit and explicit theories, personal theories, internal mental processes and practical principles, all of which, according to Pajares (1992), essentially refer to beliefs. By proclaiming that broader educational concerns in my study are regarded as one, specific type of teacher beliefs (i.e., core beliefs), and not as a parallel construct that should be used interchangeably with *beliefs*, I intend to alleviate the criticism for adding to the profusion of terms in the literature regarding this very construct (Borg, 2006).

The educational concerns emerging from the study appear to represent both sets of core beliefs: core beliefs about teaching and learning; and core beliefs about EFL teaching (see Table 23 and Table 24). The descriptions of the educational concerns were based on the participants' interviews, while the corresponding examples were compiled from their actual classroom practices; as such, they illustrate how EFL

teachers conceptualized and enacted teaching. These conceptualizations of teaching appeared to reflect – in the broadest sense possible – both student-centred (constructivist approach: e.g. Pedersen & Liu, 2003) and teacher-centred (transmission approach: e.g. Hancock & Gallard, 2004) models of teaching.

Table 23: Broader educational concerns about teaching and learning

#	Label	Description	Enactment	Source
1	Creating and maintaining a non-threatening classroom environment	Using strategies that help students to practise their skills in the classroom without reserve	Employing delayed error correction strategy during speaking activities	Peter
			Allowing students to use L1 to contribute to speaking activities	Adam
2	Providing support for weaker students	Using strategies that support weaker students in their learning	Allowing the use of L1 for weaker students during oral practice to engage them in tasks and to encourage input; Designing speaking-oriented group tasks in a way that weaker students work with stronger peers	Peter
			Using L1 during the instruction of oral skills to aid weaker students in mastering the lesson material	Adam
			Allowing lower level students to use L1 during L2 speaking activities to encourage and support the practice of L2 oral skills	Mary
3	Motivating students	Using strategies that create in learners a willingness to engage with the lesson	Selecting discussion topics that are interesting to students (e.g. ideal school subjects) in order to encourage speaking	Peter
			Asking students to memorize and recite texts that are meaningful to them	David
			Giving students freedom in terms of topic selection for oral presentations	Adam
4	Encouraging even participation	Using strategies that help involve every student in the ongoing lesson and provide students with equal opportunities to practise their skills	Structuring group discussions in a way that every student gets a chance to speak	Peter
			Teaching oral skills through pair work so that every student gets a chance to speak during the lesson	David
			Employing oral presentations for integrating vocabulary learning with the teaching of speaking skills	Adam

5	Being economical	Using strategies that are efficient, time-wise	Conducting group work activities for enabling student-student interaction to save time	Peter
			Conducting pair work activities for enabling student-student interaction to save time	David
			Designing oral presentations in a way that they involve tasks for the practice of several primary language skills and, as a result, save time	Adam
6	Reinforcing learning	Using strategies that stimulate internalization of the taught content	Asking students to memorize and recite texts so that they internalize grammar points, learn new vocabulary and practise pronunciation	David
7	Assessing students' work	Using strategies that help monitor cheating during tests	Asking students to memorize and recite texts instead of utilizing written tests	David
8	Building and maintaining good rapport with students	Using strategies that help establish and sustain a harmonious relationship with students	Allowing students to use L1 during the L2 oral practice	David
9	Gaining and sustaining students' attention	Using strategies that help to keep students focused on the lesson	Allowing students to work with the partners of their own choice during pair work, as opposed to forming forced pairs, in order to prevent distraction from and disinterest in the activity.	David
10	Maintaining discipline	Using strategies that help prevent student misbehaviour and classroom management issues	Conducting speaking tasks through pair work instead of group work	David
11	Fostering learner autonomy and agency	Using strategies that provide students with opportunities to take control of their own learning	Giving students freedom in terms of topic selection for oral presentations	Adam
12	Monitoring the successful execution of tasks	Using strategies that ensure the appropriate accomplishment of activities	Correcting grammar mistakes during dialogues on the spot to prevent potential disruptions to the flow of the activity	Mary

The above table of broader educational concerns represents participants' core beliefs about teaching and learning in general (i.e. what needs to be done, how it should be done, what strategies are effective, what conditions need to be created for learning to take place, how to create these favourable conditions, etc.). Although these educational concerns are broad in their representation and are not associated with any subject area, the specific examples of instructional strategies that address these concerns show how core beliefs about general educational processes can be salient and relevant in the instruction of a specific language aspect as well, in this case, in the teaching of L2 speaking. This helps to circumvent the practice of describing generic beliefs about teaching and learning in ways that are 'too broad to illustrate the nuances and variation of beliefs at work in daily practice' (Fives, Lacatena, & Gerard, 2015, p. 250).

Some of the educational concerns in the table coincide with the pedagogical concerns identified by Sanchez and Borg (2014), in particular, *providing support for weaker students* (2), *motivating students* (3), *being economical* (5) and *gaining and sustaining students' attention* (9) (pp. 51-52). The table also reveals that the participants shared a range of pedagogical concerns, although, evidently, that did not necessarily translate into identical classroom strategies when attempting to address them. For example, both Peter and Adam cared about creating and maintaining a non-threatening classroom environment (1). However, in order to achieve that, Peter employed delayed error correction during oral practice, while Adam allowed his students to resort to L1 to contribute to the ongoing lesson. In a reverse manner, the same instructional strategy was stimulated by different educational concerns. For example, Adam gave his students freedom in terms of topic selection for oral presentations because he was concerned about motivating students (3) and fostering learner autonomy and agency (11). An analogous relationship between educational concerns and instructional strategies was noted by Sanchez and Borg (2014) as well. The pedagogical concerns in their work, however, were defined and described in

reference to grammar teaching in particular. By contrast, the labels and the descriptions of the educational concerns emerging from my study are content-general, which allows for comparisons of teachers' core beliefs across diverse pedagogical settings and range of subject areas.

Furthermore, the study revealed that domain-specific beliefs can have the features of core beliefs as well. The analysis identified four different types of core beliefs that were associated with the nature of EFL and how it can be taught. Table 24 comprises the participants' EFL related core beliefs.

Table 24: Broader educational concerns about EFL teaching

#	Label	Description	Enactment	Source
1	Integrating language teaching	Using tasks that bring primary language skills and associated skills all together during instruction	Conducting group work tasks to stimulate the practice of speaking in addition to other language aspects such as vocabulary and pronunciation	Peter
			Employing oral presentations for integrating vocabulary learning with the teaching of speaking skills	Adam
2	Teaching language accuracy and complexity	Using strategies that help students to produce grammatically correct, lexically and semantically rich written or spoken language	Using corrective feedback (recasts) for training students to reformulate complete, comprehensive and grammatically accurate sentences during speaking activities	Mary
3	Promoting the development of interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge	Using strategies for building up interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge in the students' minds	Translating information from L1 to L2 (or vice versa) during speaking activities to convey the correct meanings	Mary
4	Teaching fluency	Using strategies that build students' capacity to produce language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation	Avoiding L1 use to encourage students to speak in L2 without stumbling and dithering	Mary

What is interesting in the data is that core beliefs about teaching and learning appeared to be relatively more dominant in EFL teachers' L2 speaking teaching

practices than their core beliefs about EFL teaching. That is to say, there were only four examples of the latter compared to 12 of the former. Three of the four core beliefs in relation to EFL teaching emerged from Mary's case alone, while Peter and Adam accounted for the other one. This observation is fitting in a sense that belief specialization is believed to occur with experience (Duffin, French, & Patrick, 2012; Fives & Buehl, 2009) and the above participants are indeed the most experienced ELT teachers in the study with eight, seven and five years of experience respectively. As far as David is concerned, for whom this was the first full academic year as a secondary school EFL teacher, his teaching seemed to be based more on general notions about teaching and learning. These generic beliefs were described as *lay conceptualizations* about teaching and learning that could be formed by the individual's personal school experiences as a learner (Holt-Reynolds, 1991) which seemed to be the case for David (this was previously alluded to in sub-sections 5.2.1 and 5.5.5).

In regard to peripheral beliefs, there was evidence throughout the individual cases that peripheral beliefs about L2 oral skills instruction were based on core beliefs - either about teaching and learning or EFL teaching, which is in line with the characterization of primary and derivative beliefs proposed by Thompson (1992). For example, Peter's belief that students' mistakes during oral practice should be corrected after they finish talking was based on his educational concern for creating and maintaining a non-threatening classroom environment. Likewise, Mary's belief that L1 should be avoided with more advanced language learners to facilitate the development of oral skills seemed to emanate from her EFL-related core belief about teaching fluency. Consequently, core beliefs appeared to function as guides, filters and frames that determined the development or/and selection of peripheral beliefs. Table 25 presents all the L2 speaking specific beliefs in the study that were classified as peripheral. Some of these beliefs, as discussed earlier, were based on the teachers' core beliefs.

Table 25: Participants' peripheral beliefs

#	Peripheral beliefs	Core beliefs (Broader educational concerns) It is important…	Aspect	Source
1	Any mistakes (grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation related) made by students during their speeches should be corrected after they finish speaking.	… to create and maintain a non-threatening classroom environment	Error correction	Peter
2	Correcting pronunciation mistakes on the spot is beneficial to the development of L2 language learners' oral skills.			Peter
3	EFL teachers should not use or allow their students to use L1 in the classroom.		Using L1	Peter
4	Group work is a useful tool that can help to involve every student in the activity and provide an opportunity for them to practise speaking.	… to motivate students … encourage even participation … to provide support for weaker students … to integrate language teaching … to be economical	Group work	Peter
5	Memorization and recitation is a good strategy for teaching speaking skills, vocabulary and grammar.	… to reinforce learning … to motivate students … to assess students' work	Memorization & recitation	David
6	Teachers should not use L1 in EFL classrooms. Students' speaking skills improve faster if the teacher does not use L1 in the classroom. Students should not be allowed to use L1. Allowing students to use L1 to express themselves during EFL classes hinders the development of their speaking skills.		Using L1	David
7	Pair work is a useful tool for involving everyone in the practice of	… to encourage even participation	Pair work	David

	speaking.	… to be economical; and maintain discipline		
8	Pairing a weaker student with a stronger student should help the former improve his/her speaking skills.	… to provide support for weaker students		David
9	Using L1 in certain situations in the EFL classroom can support the teaching and practice of speaking.	… to provide support for weaker students	Using L1	Adam
		… to create and maintain a non-threatening classroom environment		
10	Oral presentations support the practice and development of speaking skills, build up students' confidence and teach the techniques to convey their ideas.	… to be economical	Oral presentations	Adam
		… to motivate students		
		… to foster learner autonomy and agency		
		… to integrate language teaching		
11	Group work is a technique that offers a platform for both involving every student in the lesson and providing even speaking practice.	… to encourage even participation	Group work	Adam
12	Students should not be interrupted for error correction during their speech.		Error correction	Mary
13	Short speaking turns are acceptable and do not have any negative effect on learning speaking.		Speaking turns	Mary
14	L1 can be used with beginner students to support the practice of L2 speaking.	… to provide support for lower level students.	Using L1	Mary
		… to promote the development of interlinked L1 and L2 knowledge.		
15	L1 should be avoided with more advanced language learners to facilitate the development of oral skills.	… to teach fluency		Mary

B. Impact of CPBR on the consistency level

The evidence generated by the study sheds light on the heterogeneous nature of belief systems revealing what language teachers had cognitions about and which of

these cognitions were core and which were peripheral. The following sub-section, then, will focus on discussing how these cognitions functioned as a system and determined teachers' classroom behaviour. The data indicate that teachers' belief systems are complex; not only because of the multiplicity and variety of beliefs they hold or the level of conviction they are hold with, but also because of the dynamic and intricate relationship among them and the implications this relationship carries for instructional practices.

The beliefs that the participant teachers held were compatible with or sometimes contradictory to each other, thus motivating consistencies and tensions respectively. There were instances across cases when core beliefs were aligned with peripheral beliefs and guided teachers to enact practices which were consistent with their professed beliefs. This is evident in Peter's case in relation to group work when a range of educational concerns (motivating students; encouraging even participation; providing support for weaker students; integrating language teaching; and being economical) were in accordance with his specific belief about the value of group work for oral practice and resulted in belief-practice consistency. This instance also shows that several beliefs can come together and stimulate one practice. Additionally, it exemplifies the positive relationship between core beliefs about teaching and learning and core beliefs about EFL teaching (i.e. integrating language teaching) as they coexisted and influenced teachers' actions without conflict.

On the other hand, discrepancies between stated beliefs and observed practices occurred when there was a lack of agreement between core and peripheral beliefs and the actions they implied were at odds with each other. For instance, Mary seemed to experience a sudden 'reversal' of beliefs in relation to the validity of short speaking turns for the development of L2 speaking competence (Cabaroglu & Roberts, 2000, p. 393). That is to say, contrary to her earlier expressed belief that short speaking turns are acceptable and do not affect the development of L2 speaking competency, she dismissed students' short answers during oral practice

and instead encouraged longer speaking turns through corrective feedback. She argued that she now realized that short turns can be detrimental to the development of learners' oral skills. She attributed the tension to an EFL-related core belief about the need to teach accuracy and complexity in oral production.

The above instance from Mary's account is one of the many examples of tensions in the study (other examples are provided in section 5.6.3) where the observed practice was not congruent with the espoused belief but was consistent with a different belief. This indicates that, in any circumstance, teachers' actions tend to be underpinned by a particular belief, be it core or peripheral. Having recorded similar findings, Zheng (2013a) suggested that the relationship between beliefs and practices should not be characterized by consistencies or tensions 'as the teachers' practice had always been determined by certain beliefs' (p. 339). She went on to claim that tensions do not exist between teachers' beliefs and practices, but rather between observed practices and certain types of beliefs, that is teachers' *stated* beliefs. Indeed, the examination of instances of tensions in this study revealed that each observed practice, though not consistent with the stated belief, was, most of the time, stimulated by a different belief. This complex interaction between belief networks and practices helps to escape linear and dualistic explanations of the belief-practice relationship and look at the phenomenon from a different perspective. There were two occasions, however, where tensions were not justified by a different belief but were attributed to the perceptions of the pedagogical context. These examples come from Peter's case in relation to his use of students' L1 (see Figure 4) and Adam's case in connection with group work (see Figure 12). These exceptions preclude Zheng's claims from being categorical.

In any case, there seems to be sufficient evidence to suggest that the interaction between core and peripheral beliefs is important in determining the degree of consistency between espoused beliefs and enacted practices. The study reveals that: (a) core beliefs are salient in teachers' practices and exert more influence on teacher

classroom behaviour than peripheral beliefs either collectively or individually; (b) core beliefs of different areas (teaching and learning and EFL teaching) can coexist and underpin the same practice without causing conflict; (c) peripheral beliefs mainly operate in relation to core beliefs and their interaction with core beliefs (either positive or negative) subsequently predicts the selection of particular instructional strategies; and (d) beliefs of different areas and status compete among themselves for being enacted and depending on the situation some beliefs are prioritized over others. These insights highlight the dynamic, interactive, multidirectional and multidimensional features of teachers' belief systems.

6.3.3 Interaction between TPC and CPBR and its impact on belief-practice relationship

One of the central aims of this investigation was to explore the belief-practice relationship from a multidimensional perspective. That is, the research was designed so as to examine the individual and, more importantly, the collective impact of factors such as TPC and CPBR on the phenomenon. The research findings indicate that it is this multi-perspective approach to the study that enables us to make better sense of the phenomenon. The underlying forces behind the relationship between beliefs and practices were revealed trough the examination of the interaction between and among the components of teachers' mental lives: core and peripheral beliefs and the perceptions of the pedagogical context. In sub-section 5.6.4 I presented evidence of impact of the interaction between CPBR and TPC on the degree of consistency. Prima facie, the data suggest that the interplay between the two factors had a significant impact on the consistency level between EFL teachers' beliefs and practices about teaching speaking.

There is sufficient evidence in this study and in the literature that teachers' particular beliefs about teaching specific language aspects are not always reflected in their actual practices. However, such practises are sometimes reported to be consistent with alternative, more core sets of beliefs. Phipps and Borg (2009) described this type

of tension as 'I believe in X, but I also believe in Y' (p. 388) (X and Y representing divergent beliefs), and suggested that the belief which is held with more conviction is likely to have a greater impact on the actual classroom practice. Evidence from my study seems to provide insights that expand on that form of tension by introducing the impact of teachers' perceptions of their pedagogical contexts. The four examples provided in section 5.6.4, sub-section A in this regard show how TPC reinforced and activated the participants' alternative beliefs that implied different actions to the ones suggested by their earlier stated beliefs, hence the tensions. Consequently, the analysis of those instances points to a refined form of tension, that is, 'I believe in X and Y, but I choose Y under the influence of TPC'. The revised representations of this type of tension are displayed in Table 26 below.

Table 26: Tensions stimulated by the interaction between TPC and CPBR

I	believe in X	and Y,	but I choose Y	under the influence of TPC
	Students should not be allowed to use L1 during speaking tasks	It is important to provide support for weaker students	Students with low levels of oral competence were allowed to use L1 during oral practice	Weaker students become less active in response to being cautioned for L1 use.
Peter	Error correction during speaking activities should be delayed in order to create and maintain a non-threatening classroom environment	Correcting pronunciation mistakes on the spot is beneficial to L2 language learners' oral skills	Students' pronunciation errors were corrected on the spot	MoES expects EFL teachers to employ on-the-spot error correction in the English classes.
				Students are missing out on the benefits of on-the-spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes.
				On the spot error correction for pronunciation mistakes is commonly used within the community of Western trained TESOL professionals.
David	Forming pairs of weaker and	It is important to gain and	Students were allowed to form	Students prefer forming their own pairs.

	stronger students can improve former's oral skills	sustain students' attention	their own pairs for oral practice	Students struggle to focus on the tasks if they are paired with students with whom they do not have a friendly relationship.
	Students should not be allowed to use L1 during speaking tasks	It is important to build and maintain good rapport with students	Students resorted to L1 during oral practice without intervention from the teacher	Students come to EFL classes feeling exhausted, thus forcing them to use only L2 during speaking can affect their opinions about the teacher and the English classes.

The insights emerging from the study highlight the importance of teachers' perceptions of the context when teachers have to choose among several competing beliefs. Subsequently, I believe that the major finding of the research project is about how TPC affects which pedagogical beliefs are activated and enacted.

To date, there has been evidence of competing beliefs. Mainly the competition is between core and peripheral beliefs, and core beliefs often prevail in it (Phipps & Borg, 2009; Zheng, 2013b). While similar trends have been discerned in the current study as well, there appears to be findings that point to additional patterns. Firstly, David's case (pair work), for instance, revealed that beliefs of the same category compete against each other, that is, the competition is not always between core and peripheral beliefs, but also among core beliefs themselves. In other words, a teacher might have a concern for supporting weaker students (core belief) and therefore intend to pair them with their stronger peers during speaking tasks so that their speaking competence improves (peripehral belief). However, his/her perceptions of the learners' alternative preferences with regard to choosing partners and the perceptions of students' potential negative reactions to the teacher's pairing strategy activate a different core belief about maintaining students' foci on the lesson. This newly mobilized core belief implies a different action than the one suggested by the initial core belief and subsequently they become incompatible. The compatibility of

beliefs and their relevance to the pedagogical situations at hand, correspondingly, seem to be arbitrated during the teaching process when teachers' belief systems interact with TPC.

Secondly, a different instance from the study revealed that core beliefs do not necessarily have the edge over peripheral beliefs in contest over impact on teachers' classroom practices. Evidence from Peter's case (error correction) indicates that teachers can in fact prioritize a peripheral belief over a core belief amid encouragement from TPC. That is to say, a teacher might have fears that correcting pronunciation mistakes on the spot during oral practice can be detrimental to a non-treatening and supportive environment in the classroom, and yet still employ that strategy because his/her perceptions of the context suggest that it improves L2 speaking competence. Consequently, the research project provides evidence that seem to extend our undertsandings of the interaction between belief sub-systems and teachers' perceptions of environmental realities, and their impact on instructional practices. The support for the two claims above is illustrated in Figure 10 and Figure 3.

Taken together, the findings of the study suggest a role for TPC in context-appropriate pedagogy research. Pennycook (1989) suggests that teachers' pedagogical decisions can be based on many factors, including 'their particular institutional, social, cultural, and political circumstances, their understanding of their particular students' collective and individual needs' (p. 606). This, along with many other studies that recognize the significance of pedagogical context in guiding instructional decisions, has led to the idea of developing a language teaching methodology that is suitable to the environment where teaching is expected to take place (Canagarajah, 2005; Holliday, 1994). Bax (2003) even called for a paradigm shift insisting on relegating the prominence of methodology (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching) in language teaching to a subordinate position with an aim to draw attention to a new perspective, which he termed *Context Approach* and which

entails acknowledging and elevating the role of contextual factors in succesful language teaching and learning. In line with this approach, Kuchah (2013) generated systematic strategies for designing 'contextually appropriate pedagogic principles and practices' and provided empirical evidence that underlined their benefits (Kuchah, 2016, p. 158). The data from the present research project illustrated that teachers have perceptions about different components that correspond to different levels of the context. These perceptions played a crucial role in determining the relevance of teachers' pedagogical beliefs (core and peripheral) to particular instructional situations as well as their compatibility and coexistence, thus defining the actual classroom practices. That being the case, this study then highlights the necessity of taking account of not only the educational contexts, but also (and perhaps more importantly) teachers' perceptions of these contexts when developing context-appropriate methodologies and pedagogies for teaching in general and language teaching in particular.

The findings of the study shed light on the complex and dynamic interplay between various constituent elements of teachers' cognitive dimensions. My argument, then, is that teachers may be able to successfully act on their desired beliefs about teaching and learning and language teaching provided there is a positive and coherent interaction between belief sub-systems (i.e. among core and peripheral beliefs) and teachers' perceptions of the pedagogical context.

6.4 Conclusion of Chapter Six

This chapter has identified and discussed the key insights of the study and has highlighted the main contributions to knowledge. In the concluding chapter of the thesis I will discuss the implications of these contributions for language teacher cognition, teacher education and teacher development. In addition I will outline the limitations of my study and offer some recommendations for future research.

Chapter Seven: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter I summarise the main contributions of the study and present my concluding remarks. On the basis of the findings presented and discussed in the previous two chapters, I now examine the potential implications of the study, discuss its limitations and offer some recommendations for future research in the field.

7.2 Implications

It is difficult to outline all possible implications of any research project. However, I believe that the insights emerging from my study can be of particular value to the fields of teacher cognition and teacher development practices in Kazakhstan.

7.2.1 Teacher cognition research

The findings of the present study can be of interest to experts in the field of language teacher cognition, particularly to those concerned with the examination of belief-practice relationship and the factors that influence it.

The data revealed the dynamics behind not only the *tensions* between stated beliefs and observed practices (Phipps & Borg, 2009), but also the *consistencies* between them. However, more importantly, the analysis of the data enabled us to challenge previous reductionist characterizations of the phenomenon (i.e. consistency or tension). In other words, the present study, in alignment with Zheng (2013b), provided evidence that tensions are not likely to exist between teachers' belief networks and their classroom practices; as the data illustrated, each observed teacher action if not congruent with a stated belief was ultimately motivated by a different belief. Tensions, thus, seem to occur only between teachers' *espoused* beliefs and *observed* practices. Therefore, any examination of belief-practice relationship would be reductionist if focused exclusively on these types of tensions as it overlooks teachers' belief networks more generally. Although this claim is not categorical (see

6.3.2.), the aforementioned evidence helps to depart from the prevailing unidirectional and dualistic representations of the phenomenon in the literature (Basturkmen, 2012) and draws attention to the emerging multiplex nature of the belief-practice relationship.

Some researchers have suggested that the congruence between beliefs and classroom actions may not always be desirable (Buehl & Beck, 2015), especially when teachers enact 'practices based on maladaptive beliefs' (p.73) that are not considered to meet the cognitive, social and educational needs of the students (Pedersen & Liu, 2003; Richardson, 1997). In Uzuntiryaki & Kirbulut's study (2010), for instance, the participants with the most matches between beliefs and practices were those who held transmissionist views of instruction. Likewise, one of the teachers in Lim & Chai's investigation (2008) was observed to consistently implement a traditional, teacher-centred model of teaching which was congruent with his espoused beliefs. As a result, teachers' beliefs and practices may sometimes be targeted by an agenda (e.g. the ministry of education; see 7.2.2) to align them with the best international practices in the literature. In the present study, for instance, David's speaking teaching was characterized by direct tasks where language production was controlled and students were rarely invited to share their opinions or negotiate meanings through discussions. These practices were consistent with his stated beliefs but could be perceived as maladaptive in light of the world-wide popularity of CLT. Nonetheless, it should not be ignored that those same practices were motivated by his perceptions of the context. David employed the above practices because he perceived that those particular students were not at the necessary proficiency level to effectively respond to indirect speaking activities. Thus, it could be argued that the desirability of belief-practice consistency should probably be based on the appropriateness of that congruence for student learning in a particular context and not determined by its misalignment with what is considered good practice in the literature.

Furthermore, the current research project involved individual explorations of the constructs TPC and CPBR with an aim to examine a) their unique nature (their structure, content and features); and b) the extent of their impact on belief-practice consistency. The examination of TPC illustrated the complexity of its structure and the multiplicity of its content as well as its multifaceted dimensions. The structure of TPC comprised individual contextual agents (e.g. students, parents), the perceived features of these agents (e.g. students' reactions, parents' expectations), and the sources that shape the perceptions of these agents (e.g. teachers' knowledge of the students, past experiences with parents). The content of TPC was rich as teachers held perceptions of many components of their pedagogical environments residing within different levels of their educational contexts, such as ministry guidelines (national level), parents' expectations (social level), school policies (institutional level) and students' preferences (classroom level). Finally, the data revealed that TPC can be shaped by four different categories of context: present, past and future environmental realities as well as atemporal hypothetical scenarios (see Table 19-Table 22). The study has also generated empirical evidence to support the proposition that teachers' perceptions of the pedagogical contexts mediate the relationship between cognitions and practices (Sanchez & Borg, 2014), and thus might motivate matches and discrepancies. Additionally, some of the instances of tensions and consistencies showed that multiple perceptions of the context could simultaneously inform beliefs or stimulate classroom practices. These insights emerging in relation to TPC, I believe, add to our understanding of the construct.

As far as CPBR is concerned, the study identified teachers' multifarious beliefs about different aspects of their work, categorized these beliefs into core and peripheral ones, and attempted to explain the interaction between the two and its influence on the degree of consistency between beliefs and practices. The analysis of teachers' rationales revealed a range of broader educational concerns that guided their instructional practices. These educational concerns were classified as core beliefs (see

5.6.3) and were of two categories: about teaching and learning in general and about EFL teaching (see Table 23 and Table 24). Teachers' beliefs about teaching L2 speaking, on the other hand, represented their peripheral beliefs. The exploration of the participants' belief systems shed light on several significant insights:

- core beliefs about teaching and learning are more dominant in EFL teachers' L2 speaking teaching practices than their core beliefs about EFL teaching;

- teachers' core beliefs exert more influence on their classroom behaviour than peripheral beliefs either collectively or individually;

- core beliefs about different aspects (teaching and learning and EFL teaching) can coexist and underpin the same practice without causing conflict;

- core beliefs function as guides, filters and frames that determine the development or/and selection of peripheral beliefs;

- the positive or negative relationship between core and peripheral beliefs can predict consistencies and tensions respectively in the professed belief-observed practice relationship, which suggests that the coherent interaction between the two is important;

- beliefs of different areas and status compete among themselves for being enacted and, depending on the situation, some beliefs are prioritized over others.

These findings underscore the intricate, dynamic, interactive, and multidimensional features of teachers' belief sub-systems and serve as a response for calls in the literature to provide empirical evidence as to what constitutes teachers' core and peripheral beliefs and how they function as a system (S. Borg, 2006; Phipps & Borg, 2009).

Borg (2006) also made an appeal to teacher cognition researchers to undertake investigations that would help us to understand 'how the different elements in teachers' cognitive systems interact' (p. 272). By adopting a multi-perspective research design, this study, in addition to examining TPC and CPBR individually, set out to explore the interplay between the two factors and their collective impact on the belief-practice relationship. The major contribution of the study then came out of this multi-dimensional approach to the investigation. The analysis of the data illustrated the intimate interconnectedness of different components of teachers' cognitive dimensions and how these collectively impact on practice. An understanding of any of these individual components (i.e., core beliefs, peripheral beliefs, perceptions of context, instructional practices) might require a look at how they function as a whole system. Namely, the data showed that the interaction between TPC and CPBR determined:

- which pedagogical beliefs should be activated and enacted in which instructional situations in the classroom;

- and the compatibility of different beliefs and their coexistence.

These findings inform the domain of teacher cognition research and can serve as a base for future investigations in the field.

7.2.2 Professional development of practicing teachers

The present study provided evidence of and extensively discussed insights into TPC and CPBR, their interaction as a system and their collective impact on teachers' classroom practices. These findings, I believe, carry important implications for the professional development of in-service teachers. Bearing in mind a) that beliefs and practices are considered to be situated (Borg, 2006) and given that the findings emerged from the case studies of practicing teachers based in a state secondary school in Kazakhstan, it seems only natural for me to propose implications specifically in relation to the context of Kazakhstan. To this end, I shall offer a

glimpse of teacher development practices in Kazakhstan and then explain how insights from this study can be of use in this particular environment.

A. *Critique of current in-service teacher training practices in Kazakhstan*

Kazakhstan's *State Programme of Education Development for 2011-2020* (MoES, 2010) within the *Kazakhstan 2030* and *Kazakhstan 2050* strategies (Nazarbayev, 1997, 2012) outlined the priorities for education and set the wheels in motion for what was called *radical* and *rapid* educational reforms (Bridges, 2014). In 2011, new plans for the training and development of teachers were approved by the government and, in collaboration with the Cambridge University Faculty of Education (FoE) and Cambridge International Examinations (CIE), the Centres of Excellence (CoE) were established to actualize these plans (ibid.). The CoE, which operated under the auspices of the Autonomous Educational Organization (AEO) Nazarbayev Intellectual Schools (NIS), were given the target of training 120,000 in-service teachers of different subjects (including EFL teachers) by 2016, which constitutes nearly 40% of all in-service teachers in Kazakhstan; and as such, represent the single largest professional development endeavour undertaken in the country (Turner et al., 2014).

Other reasons for focusing on this professional development programme include my first-hand experience of working as an assistant to an external consultant at *CoE Almaty* for three months and the fact that the three participants of the present study - Peter, Adam and Mary - had gone through CoE training prior to their involvement in this research project.

The aforementioned foreign partners (FoE & CIE) were responsible for developing 'multilevel, in-service training programmes for the pedagogic staff of the Republic of Kazakhstan using *the best* international experience and pedagogical practice' (CoE, n.d.). In January 2012 the FoE team worked with 286 local, would-be teacher trainers from all over the country to teach the principles of the programme during the course

of three months. These local trainers, as the agents of the reform, in turn were expected to train other in-service teachers in the various regions of the state. Prior to the actual training courses, the learning outcomes and criteria were negotiated between the FoE and CoE teams 'defining the *knowledge*, *skills* and *behaviour* expected as a result of the training' (Wilson, Turner, Sharimova, & Brownhill, 2013, p. 5). Among other objectives, CoE aspired to consolidate and spread '*the best* pedagogical practices of Kazakhstani and foreign teacher-innovators'; and train Kazakhstani teachers 'in accordance with the *international practice'* (CoE, n.d.). Using a cascade model of professional development (Hayes, 2000), the trainers aimed to deliver the programme through three stages:

- Stage 1: face-to-face workshops with an emphasis on theory-oriented introduction of *best* international practices;

- Stage 2: school-based practice of and evaluation of these theories;

- Stage 3: reflection and discussion of Stage 2 and the assessment of the trainees (Turner et al., 2014).

Teachers who successfully complete the programme receive salary increases (Fimyar et al., 2014).

Although my intention here is not to evaluate the quality or the effectiveness of this large-scale professional development programme, I would like to express my personal reservations about some of its aspects with a view to suggesting tentative considerations for future practice on the basis of my findings.

Firstly, the notion of *best practice* in educational contexts is heavily criticised in the literature (Edge & Richards, 1998; Kuchah, 2013; Prabhu, 1990; Smith & Sutton, 1999). It could imply, among many other things, that a particular *practice/method* is inherently *best* by itself, 'independent of anyone's subjective perception of it'; and therefore, should succeed in any given context 'regardless of how it is subjectively

perceived by the different teachers involved' (Prabhu, 1990, p. 171). Prabhu argues that, if *best method* existed as such, then the 'subjective perception' that was behind its design would be expected to supersede potential dissimilar perceptions of the teachers who are being trained to replicate that *method* on the basis of its objective superiority, which seemingly indicates that 'teachers' pedagogic perceptions are as easily replaceable as classroom procedures' (p. 171). The findings of the present study, on the contrary, highlighted that no practices were separable from and independent of the interplay between teachers' personal networks of beliefs (core and/or peripheral) and their perceptions of their pedagogical contexts.

Those *best international practices* (whatever connotations they carry) had been collated by the Cambridge University educational experts who had limited understanding of the Kazakhstani educational context (macro, meso or micro level), were not familiar with the local teachers; and probably did not consider their beliefs or perceptions of the context at the onset of their job.

In addition, the way the CoE programme is structured and run (see the three stages above) imply that the programme is not designed to build *on* teachers' pre-existing beliefs or perceptions of the context, but to teach them new theories and encourage practitioners to build new beliefs and perceptions *around* this knowledge. This could be inferred from a) the fact that the designers and the promoters of the programme pre-defined the knowledge, skills and behaviour that they expected the trainees to acquire, learn and exhibit by the end of the training; and b) the assumption that the local, Kazakhstani teachers 'need to change their beliefs about teaching and learning developed from experience in the system' (Wilson et al., 2014, p. 90). This gives the impression (hopefully a false one) that this professional development is a top-down mission funded and administered by the government in order to *fix* local teachers (Diaz-Maggioli, 2004).

Peter's case seems to exemplify this attitude well. As reported earlier, an ELT inspector from the MoES criticised Peter's use of delayed error correction during oral practice and insisted that he change his strategy to instant correction. The point in this story is not the value of any error correction technique but the way that the MoES representative dismissed Peter's articulated *belief* (which was identified to be a core one) motivating his decision to employ delayed error correction, and exclusively targeted his *practice*. Therefore, it was not surprising that Peter disregarded the inspector's remarks in return and continued to use delayed error correction in his classes. In a similar manner, the affiliation of the CoE with the MoES and the official programme message that it comprises *best international practices* compiled by world renowned Cambridge University experts can muffle teachers' own voices 'as though they are irrational, non-scientific and therefore irrelevant to today's world' (Smith & Sutton, 1999, as cited in Kuchah, 2013, p. 47). Such state-driven, top-down, system wide professional development endeavours are common around the world (Fullan, 2006) and their ineffectiveness has been noted and attributed to lack of involvement of crucial stakeholders, practitioner teachers, in the process of designing, organizing and executing the professional development programmes (Carter, 2008; Day & Smethem, 2009; Koellner & Jacobs, 2015).

Furthermore, the cascade model of professional development adopted by the CoE entails, in its broad description, teachers participating in training events and then disseminating what they have learned to their fellow practitioners. This model has been at the receiving end of some criticism in the literature (Kennedy, 2005; Solomon & Tresman, 1999) for reasons similar to the ones discussed above. In particular, Kennedy (2005) suggests that the cascade model 'supports a technicist view of teaching, where skills and knowledge are given priority over attitudes and values' (p. 240), presupposing that it is the content that matters in professional development and not the specificity of the teaching and learning contexts where that content is

used for educational purposes. Beliefs can function as a filter for new information and exert more influence on teacher practice than knowledge (Pajares, 1992). Thus, for more sustainable forms of professional development such programmes need to also consider the question of *why* along with the traditional *what* and *how* (Nieto, 2003) because teachers are not mechanical implementers of prescribed instructional recipes but 'active, thinking decision-makers' (Borg, 2006, p. 7) whose pedagogical practices are guided by a complex, cognitive system that includes, as illustrated by the present study, TPC and CPBR.

B. Towards a new approach to teacher development in Kazakhstan

Having critiqued current teacher development practices in Kazakhstan, I would like to suggest some general practical ideas for the professional development of practicing EFL teachers in Kazakhstan on the basis of my own findings. It should be stated, however, that I am not offering these suggestions as a necessary remedy or a full replacement for the existing CoE programme. These merely represent an alternative perspective to the training of teachers that I believe has the potential to be more meaningful, sustainable and effective. My idea of a sustainable and effective in-service teacher training represents an ecological perspective in that it acknowledges and stresses the interrelations among and the interconnectedness of many factors that impact on teaching, and where teachers' reflection on their own perceptions, beliefs and practices take central stage.

TPC and CPBR were the main foci of the present study and they featured heavily in the analysis of the findings. For example, the evidence illustrates that while there seemed to be *intersubjectivity* (Scheff, 2006) between teachers in that they shared similar interpretations of the context they worked in, they also had different perceptions of the same environmental realities, which consequently motivated divergent classroom practices. The other insight relates to the temporal dimension of TPC and the hypothetical scenarios that inform it. This has already been discussed in the literature in relation to the temporal dimension of reflective practice (Van

Manen, 1995). I am starting the discussion from TPC as it seemingly played a crucial role in activating beliefs, relating them to practice and regulating the relationship between different belief clusters (core, peripheral).

These insights would be of particular relevance to practitioners working in the same macro, meso and micro contexts. For instance, at the onset of a training programme for EFL teachers, teachers could be asked to reflect on and articulate their perceptions of different features of their own pedagogical contexts. Evidence from this study could be used as illustrative examples: MoES guidelines regarding EFL education in state schools (e.g. error correction strategies during oral practice), institutional assessment practices (lack of speaking and writing tests in school term and annual exams), parents' expectations of EFL teachers (e.g. EFL classes should focus more on speaking skills) or teaching speaking according to students' proficiency level (e.g. pre-intermediate-level students). Following that, teachers, in groups, could be invited to design and conduct lessons or activities based on those perceptions. Finally, in small groups, teachers could then compare and contrast the utilized approaches and the types of tasks in order to examine the emergent differences and commonalities in practices. As illustrated in my study, teachers perceived their students in different ways (David and Adam). Reflecting on their conceptualisations of their students, teachers could problematize their perceptions and be more critical of how they construe different components of the educational environment around them.

In addition, the cases of Mary and Adam revealed that perceptions about past contexts have implications for teachers' present selves and can shape the way teachers interpret their current surroundings. Such instances could be of value during group discussions as well since it is particularly important, in my view, for teachers to realise how their unique conceptualisations of the context inform their pedagogical decisions and classroom behaviour.

TPC about future/hypothetical context could be of particular interest to pre-service teacher education. Conway (2001) suggests that an emphasis on future-oriented *prospective reflection* during teacher preparation 'might accelerate and deepen the journey toward reflective practice through more focused reflections as student teachers draw on their prior knowledge in a manner that may be more specifically relevant to anticipated teaching experiences' (p. 90). Coaching pre-service teachers to reflect on *prospective teaching experiences* should be done together with reflecting on the projections of potential or imminent pedagogical contexts where teaching is expected to take place. An EFL teacher educator, for example, could facilitate a critical discussion about Kazakhstani state secondary school EFL education, an educational context where the lack of L2 speaking and writing tests in high-stakes exams such as the UNT shapes the school curricula in relation to ELT to an extent that schools do not prioritize or encourage the teaching of productive skills. The student teachers, on the basis of this information, could then be invited to share their perspectives of the context and think of the ways they would design syllabi and EFL lessons accordingly. Thus, these exercises would help to develop a habit of using prior information for foreshadowing potential or forthcoming teaching environments. Subsequently, this would allow teachers to plan ahead and in turn be better prepared for the act of teaching.

Reflecting on perceptions of the context can be a good instrument for cultivating a sense of criticality in teachers (Yost, Sentner, & Forlenza-Bailey, 2000). It could also be useful in developing in teachers a habit, or rather a second nature, of realizing and analysing personal perceptions of past/present/future/hypothetical pedagogical contexts of different levels: national, regional, institutional, social and the urgent and dynamic classroom-level environment. These activities would be a good step in addressing the call in the literature for devoting attention to perceptual activity in language teaching and learning, which is the value of 'learning how to perceive and how to relate various kinds of perceptual information' (van Lier, 2004, p. 89).

In this study I have established that teachers' practices were motivated by a range of broader educational concerns, which were identified as core beliefs, some of which were shared across participants and some others were unique to certain teachers. The activities of reflecting on perceptions of the context and then conducting demo lessons/activities based on these perceptions could be complemented by exercises of identifying the beliefs underpinning these actions. Teachers' core (e.g. teaching and learning and language teaching) and peripheral (e.g. teaching L2 speaking) beliefs could be disclosed as a result of this *group reflection* (Calderhead & Gates, 2003), some of which might align with the broader educational/pedagogical concerns that emerged from this study and from Sanchez & Borg (2014). If teachers realize that there is alignment among their own perceptions of the context, their practices and their beliefs, then that could possibly boost their capacity and self-efficacy beliefs (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006) and even lead to satisfaction with their identities as teachers (E. J. de Jong, 2008; Greene et al., 2008).

These initial procedures could inform the introduction and discussion of pertinent formal theory (e.g. teaching speaking turns, error correction methods, types of speaking tasks), thus making them more meaningful to teachers. Under such circumstances, the integration and the application of freshly acquired propositional knowledge are likely to be more effective and sustainable since they are built on teachers' reflections on their own beliefs and perceptions of the context.

The above practices are aligned with a constructivist approach (Freeman & Johnson, 1998) to teacher development and would work well with a *community of practice* model for professional training (Wenger, 1998) as opposed to the *cascade model* currently implemented in Kazakhstan. The former model recognizes that development happens as a result of members of a particular community coming together and interacting with each other, and not merely through rigidly pre-planned courses. The central idea in a community of practice model is that the control over the agenda lies with the members of the community, not with the

authorities above, which would help to break away from a top-down decision making system to a bottom-up one in Kazakhstani professional development practices and pave the way for greater 'transformative practice than a managerial form of accountability would allow' (Kennedy, 2005, p. 245).

Furthermore, community of practice model is likely to be successful through small-scale, school-based approaches to professional development (Whitcomb, Borko, Liston, 2009) rather than large-scale, region wide approaches currently practised in Kazakhstan. Professional development events are considered to be most effective when there is a safe, supportive and dynamic environment in place (Little, 2002). In such an environment 'teachers are more likely to take risks and engage in challenging discussions that push them to deepen understanding and attempt new practices that will reach more learners' (Whitcomb, Borko, Liston, 2009, p. 210). Creating safe and supportive environment for teachers employed in the same school is arguably more feasible than doing it for a cohort of in-service teachers who come from throughout the country.

In addition, although Turner et al. (2016) claim that 'content knowledge [in CoE programme] was generally being successfully transferred throughout the system' (p. 1) with the use of cascade model, conceptual or belief change in teachers and the application of the content knowledge in practice remain un-assessed. Systematic evaluations of the impact of the current cascade model are not in place and are extremely challenging due to the scale of the programme (Wilson et al., 2013). School-based, small-scale professional development would make it relatively more practicable to carry out such evaluations because they are less labour-intensive and time consuming. In light of these, I would recommend that my recommendations for professional development of in-service teachers in Kazakhstan presented in this section be piloted in schools.

This is one way in which the insights from my study and my understanding of the forces that influence teachers' belief-practice relationship gained from carrying out this research project could be of use in the development of in-service ELT practitioners in Kazakhstani schools.

7.3 Limitations

The findings and the implications of the present investigation should be considered with reference to its potential limitations:

1. The study was conducted in a particular institution (state secondary school) within a particular educational context (Kazakhstani EFL education) with the number of the participants being limited to four. Therefore, the insights emerging from a small sample size based in a specific setting with unique characteristics should not be generalized to other contexts. Nonetheless, the *thick description* (Geertz, 1994) of the data might offer *transferability* (Cohen et al., 2011) and relevance of the findings and implications of the present study to readers and researchers who may identify similarities with their own contexts.

2. Scenario-based interviews were designed for eliciting teachers' personal beliefs about speaking instruction with reference to the specific environment where they work. The data, however, revealed that, in some cases, teachers' comments reflected their 'theoretical or idealistic beliefs' (Phipps & Borg, 2009, p. 382), not their individual beliefs. This seemed to be the case with Peter. The pre-observation interview analysis suggested that he believed in the value of on-the-spot error correction. Peter employed the said strategy during his classes; as such, there was nothing to suggest that there was a mismatch between his stated beliefs and enacted practices. However, the post-lesson discussion of the observed practices revealed that, in fact, he preferred delayed error correction and his earlier statements about instant

correction had been informed by the formal knowledge he had obtained at a UK TKT course that he had recently attended. Although care was taken to avoid similar incidents from happening in subsequent cases, this points to a methodological limitation of the investigation.

3. The number of teachers' classroom observations varied from 10 to 21 depending on the participants' availability and willingness. Therefore, the representations of the participants' belief-practice relationships were confined to those observations only. In particular, this is relevant to the instances of tensions. Because some of the professed beliefs did not link to the observed practices, it may inadvertently imply that those stated beliefs are irrelevant altogether or that teachers from this particular context *failed* to exhibit behaviour which they had stated they should be exhibiting. Those un-enacted professed beliefs may have been irrelevant to the practices recorded within the scope of the current study; however, it should be borne in mind that they might have been relevant to the practices that remained outside of the scope of the project.

4. The insights of the study emerged through a *double hermeneutic* (Giddens, 1984) process of analysing my own interpretations of teachers' conceptualisations of their teaching. Consequently, researcher subjectivity (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992) was one of the major factors influencing the research outcomes of this project. Although it is impossible to eliminate this subjectivity altogether, a research diary was used to facilitate reflexive practice (Nadin & Cassell, 2006). In short, the diary contained my reflections on the data collection methods (the efficiency and the adequacy of the methods adopted) and the participants (my impressions of the individual participants as EFL teachers and as regular human beings). This helped me to identify and examine possible personal biases both in my attitude towards different participants and approaches to data collection.

5. The Hawthorne Effect (Cohen et al., 2011), in which participants' involvement in the research might shape the behaviour they display during the research process, can constitute another limitation of the present study. As described earlier in Chapter 4, necessary measures were taken to communicate to the participants (both face-to-face and via consent forms in three different languages) that the aim of the research was to observe naturally occurring EFL classes, absent of any intention to evaluate, judge or report to administrators. Moreover, since all four participants worked in the same institution, many times the decision to observe a particular teacher's class was made spontaneously following a short discussion in the teachers' room. Thus, this significantly reduced the possibility of attending a specially prepared demonstration lesson.

The limitations discussed above do not necessarily diminish the findings and the implications of the study, but invite readers to examine them in context. In addition, some of the limitations indicate possible recommendations for future research, which shall be presented in the next section.

7.4 Recommendations for future research

Based on the findings, contributions and implications of this study and the review of the selected literature, several recommendations for future research have been identified.

The second limitation in 7.3 serves as a basis for a recommendation for future research in the field of language teacher cognition. That example from Peter's case and my understanding of the complex and dynamic cognitive system influencing participants' decision-making processes, which I arrived at having conducted this study, point to the relevance of exploring teachers' cognitions through their practices using a bottom-up approach, i.e. an investigation which is grounded in participants' practices rather than their espoused beliefs. By first eliciting teachers' beliefs through

various pre-observation interviews I ended up with a collection of stated beliefs which were dissociated from actual practices. Then, after a period of time, I compared these stated beliefs to practices that originated in a different instructional context and were the outcomes of the interaction between TPC and CPBR that occurred under different circumstances. The emergence of tensions, as a result of this detachment, was highly likely. Examining the instances of tensions and consistencies through stimulated-recall interviews, where teachers' actual practices served as the basis for discussion, revealed, however, that the interrelationship between teachers' belief networks and their perceptions of the immediate, broader institutional, social and national contexts influencing classroom practices is inextricable.

In addition, at the onset of this research project I viewed the belief-practice relationship as being autonomous with different factors sometimes potentially inhibiting it. However, the insights that emerged from the retrospective exploration of teachers' practices indicate that a) teachers' beliefs are not automatic predictors for teacher behaviour and that b) TPC or CPBR are not constraints but crucial elements of the complex, interconnected system that informs teachers' instructional decisions. Thus, these findings raise questions about focusing on belief-practice relationship as though beliefs were the only explanations for teacher actions.

Consequently, the analysis of the post-observation interviews resulted in a relatively more accurate representations of cognition-practice relationships. On the basis of these insights, I suggest that teachers' cognitive worlds be examined as embedded in their practices. This is in line with a recent proposition in the field to designate 'situated professional practice' as 'the entry point' to investigations of teacher beliefs (Borg, 2016). To this end, future research could possibly adopt a *participatory approach* (Skott, 2015) that presents a departure from a conventional cognitivist understanding of teacher cognitions as 'reified mental constructs' (p. 22) to an alternative epistemological perspective of treating teacher cognitions as 'emergent sense making in action' (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 436). Furthermore, before the data

collection stage of this project took place, one of the other embedded units of analysis was student learning. I had intended to explore the impact of consistency level between teachers' stated beliefs and observed practices about teaching speaking on students' learning experiences by interviewing the students involved in the identified and analysed instructional episodes of tensions and consistencies. However, time restrictions did not allow me to pursue this idea and it was eventually dropped. Future researchers aiming to combine the exploration of both teacher cognition and student cognition have a potential of achieving this purpose by embracing the aforementioned participatory approach. Un-enacted stated beliefs seem irrelevant to practices; therefore, they have no influence on student learning. The participatory approach, in theory, would enable researchers to save invaluable time by abandoning the elicitation of cognitions prior to observations and diverting it into exploring both teacher and student cognitions following classroom observations. This would help to address the calls in the literature to recuperate the importance of the language teacher cognition domain by studying 'language teachers' inner worlds and their teaching' in relation to 'their students' inner worlds and their learning' (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015, p. 442).

7.5 Concluding remarks

The present doctoral study conducted at the University of Bath, along with contributing to my professional development as a novice researcher (research design, data collection and data analysis skills), has enhanced my understanding of ecologies of teachers' inner lives and how these relate to their pedagogical practices. I see this as the major gain since I aspire to build my academic career as a teacher educator and a researcher in the field of teacher education and development.

To the best of my knowledge, this research project is the first investigation in the field of teacher cognition in Kazakhstan. It is an educational context where teaching profession 'suffers from low status and prestige' (OECD, 2014, p. 19) and where continuous top-down educational reforms tend to repudiate teacher voices. As

teacher cognition research provides an emic perspective of teaching and highlights the prominence of teachers' standpoint on matters, I hope that this study can facilitate a discussion of teacher agency in society and become a guiding beacon for local researchers, practitioners and policy makers.

Finally, as discussed in 6.2, teaching L2 speaking remains very much an unencouraged domain of EFL education in Kazakhstani state secondary schools. On a national level it is reflected in the lack of L2 speaking tests in high-stakes exam such as the UNT and on an institutional level it was evident in the absence of speaking tests in the school's assessment practices. Although studying the teaching of L2 speaking in Kazakhstani schools merely served as a context for the exploration of the principal phenomenon (belief-practice consistency), I have generated evidence that provides a general understanding of the instruction of oral skills in Kazakhstan which I hope can spark further interest in investigating the said domain and attract the attention of language educators.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Participant consent form (English)

You are being invited to be a participant in the research project on language teacher beliefs about teaching speaking. This study is being conducted by Tleuov Askat Bahytovich as part of his MPhil/PhD thesis at the Department of Education, University of Bath. The ultimate purpose of the research is to explore teaching and learning processes in their natural setting in an attempt to understand and describe the nature of EFL teachers' beliefs about teaching speaking skills.

The contents of the study will only be disclosed partially so as to avoid the contamination of the data. The data collection methods to be used include interviews, classroom observations, stimulated recall and the analysis of documents (syllabus, students' works, lesson plans). The whole data collection process might take up to five months.

There are no known risks if you decide to participate in this research study, nor are there any costs for participating in the study. All the responses you give will be kept strictly confidential. Participation in this research project is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw from it at any time without having to provide any reason and without being penalized or disadvantaged in any way. You may choose not to respond to any particular question(s) during the study and you can also ask the researcher to delete or not make use of any information you provide.

Your real name will not appear anywhere in the research materials; no one will be able to identify you, nor will anyone be able to determine which company you work for. None of the information you provide during the study will in any way influence your present or future employment with your current employer. The information you provide will be used anonymously for internal publication for Mr Tleuov's PhD thesis and might be submitted for publishing in academic journals and conferences.

If you have any questions about the study, feel free to contact Mr Tleuov at his e-mail address: A.Tleuov@bath.ac.uk. If you have any comments or concerns about the ethics or procedures involved in this study, you can contact Mr Tleuov's supervisor, Dr Hugo Santiago Sanchez, at his e-mail address: H.S.Sanchez@bath.ac.uk.

I have read and understand the above and consent to participate in this study. I understand that I will be able to keep a copy of this consent form for my records.

_____   _____

    Participant's signature   Date

I have explained and defined in detail the research procedure in which the participant has consented to participate. I will retain a copy of this consent form for my records.

_____   _____

    Researcher's signature   Date

Appendix 2: Participant consent form (Kazakh)

Бұл хат сізді ағылшын тілінде сөйлеу дағдысын үйретумен байланысты тіл оқытушыларының ұстанымдары жайлы жүргізіліп жатқан зерттеу жобасына қатысуға шақырады. Аталмыш жоба Бат Университетінің студенті Тілеуов Асқат Бахытұлы тарапынан докторлық диссертациясының бір бөлігі ретінде жасалуда. Зерттеу жобасының негізгі мақсаты ағылшын тілінде сөйлеу дағдысын үйретумен байланысты болған тіл оқытушыларының ұстанымдарын ұғыну үшін оқыту процесін өзінің шынайы ортасы мен қалпында зерттеу болып табылады.

Зерттеу жұмыстарының нәтижесінде жиналуы керек деректер мен мағлұматтардың сапасына зиян келтірмеу үшін жобаның толық құрамы қатысушыларға жарияланбайды. Дерек жинау құралдары түрлі сұхбаттардан, сабақ бақылауларынан және де кейбір құжаттардың (оқу жоспарлары, оқушылардың жұмыстары т.б) сараланауынан тұрады. Бүкіл дерек жинау процесінің ұзақтығы 5 айдан аспауы тиіс.

Бұл жобаға қатысу, сіз үшін ешқандай рухани немесе материалдық шығын әкелмейді. Жобаның барысында сіздің берген жауаптарыңыз толығымен құпия ретінде сақталынады. Зерттеуге қатысып-қатыспауыңыз тікелей өз еркіңізде және сіз қалаған уақытыңызда, ешбір негізсіз ары қарай қатысудан бас тартуға құқылысыз. Жоба барысында сізге қойылатын сұрақтардың кейбіріне жауап беруден бас тарта аласыз. Сонымен қоса, зерттеушіден қалаған жауабыңызды өзгертуді немесе мүлде алып тастауды талап ете аласыз.

Жиналған мағлұматтардың ешбірінде сіздің аты-жөніңіз немесе жұмыс орныңыз көрсетілмейді және сізге жұмыс беруші мекеме мен сіздің араңыздағы қарым-қатынасқа да әсер етпейді. Деректердің барлығы құпия түрде Тілеуов мырзаның докторлық диссертациясы үшін және академиялық журналдар мен конференцияларда қолдану мақсатында жиналады.

Жоба туралы қандай-да бір сұрақтарыңыз болса, Тілеуов мырзаның электронды адресіне (A.Tleuov@bath.ac.uk) хабарласуыңызды сұраймыз. Жобаға байланысты ой-пікірлеріңіз немесе сын-ескертпелеріңіз болса, онда Тілеуов мырзаның ғылыми жетекшісі, др. Хьюго Сантиаго Сенческе хабарласуыңызды сұраймыз (H.S.Sanchez@bath.ac.uk).

Мен жоғарыда жазылғандармен толығымен таныстым және жобаға қатысуға өз келісімімді беремін. Бұл хаттың бір дана көшірмесінің менде қалатынынан хабардармын.

_____   _____
   Қатысушының қолы   Күні

Мен зерттеу жобасына қатысу ниетін білдірген тұлғаға жоба туралы керекті мағлұматтарды бердім. Бұл хаттың бір дана көшірмесін өзімде сақтаймын.

_____   _____
   Зерттеушінің қолы   Күні

Appendix 3: Participant consent form (Russian)

Вас приглашают принять участие в исследовательском проекте на тему «Представление учителей английского языка о преподавании устной речи». Исследование проводит Тлеуов Аскат Бахытович, которое является частью его докторской диссеертации на Кафедре Образования в Университете Бата. Основной целью данного исследования является изучение процесса обучения английскому языку в его естественной среде, чтобы понять и описать происхождение представлений учителей о преподавании устной речи.

Во избежание ухудшения качества собираемых сведений, полное содержимое проекта не будет раскрыто. Методы сбора данных состоят из разных видов интервью, наблюдений за процессом обучения в классах и анализов релевантных документов. Весь процесс сбора данных будет длиться не более четырех месяцев.

Участие в исследовании не влечет за собой абсолютно никаких рисков и не требует финансовых затрат. Вся информация, предоставленная вами, будет считаться конфиденциальной. Участие в проекте является добровольным, и вы оставляете за собой право отказаться от дальнейшего участия в любой момент без предъявления каких-либо на это причин. Вы можете отказаться отвечать на любой из задаваемых вам вопросов и даже попросить исследователя удалить или же не использовать информацию, которую вы предоставили.

Ваше подлинное имя и наименование вашего учреждения не будет фигурировать в материалах проекта. Данные исследования никоим образом не повлияют на ваши отношения с нынешним либо будущим работодателем. Все собранные сведения будут использованы исключительно в научных целях для докторской диссертации господина Тлеуова и для публикаций в различных научных журналах и конференциях.

Если у вас есть какие-либо вопросы, касающиеся этого проекта, вы можете написать господину Тлеуову на его электронный адрес: A.Tleuov@bath.ac.uk. Если у вас возникнут вопросы относительно этики ведения исследования или же вы захотите сделать комментарии по поводу проекта, то вы можете написать научному руководителю господина Тлеуова доктору Хьюго Сантьяго Санчесу на его электронный адрес: H.S.Sanchez@bath.ac.uk.

Я удостоверяю, что полностью ознакомилась(-ся) с приведенной выше информацией и даю свое согласие на участие в данном исследовательском проекте. Я оставляю одну копию данного соглашения у себя для записи.

_____   _____
        Подпись участника   Дата

Я предоставил всю интересующую информацию о проекте и обязуюсь в дальнейшем информировать и всячески помогать участникам проекта. Сохраняю одну копию соглашения для записи.

_____   _____
        Подпись исследователя   Дата

Appendix 4: Background interview schedule

The interview schedule is adapted from (Sanchez, 2010).

Section 1: Education

1. What do you recall about your English language learning experiences at school?
   - What do you remember about your English teachers? Any favorite/non-favorite teachers? What did you like/dislike about their lessons?
   - What methods/approaches/materials were used?
   - What were your favorite activities in EFL classes? Why?
   - What did you like learning the most on EFL classes? Speaking? Writing? Reading? Listening? Grammar? Vocabulary? Pronunciation? Why? Why not?
2. What about your EFL learning experiences during university?
3. Do you think that your experiences as a language learner have had any impact on the way you teach today?

Section 2: Entry into the Profession and Development as a Teacher

1. How and why did you become an EFL teacher?
   - Who/what influenced your decision to become an EFL teacher? Why?
2. Describe your earliest teaching experiences? (Practicum?)
   - Were these particularly positive or negative?
   - What did you learn from them?
3. Tell me about your teacher training experiences if you've had any?
   - Did they promote a particular way of teaching?
   - Was there anything about teaching speaking? CLT?
   - What did you like/dislike about them?
4. What have been the greatest influences on your development as a teacher?

Section 3: Reflections on Teaching

1. What do you feel the most satisfying aspect of teaching EFL is, and what is the hardest part of the job?
2. What do you think your strengths as an EFL teacher are, and your areas for improvement?
3. Can you describe a typical EFL lesson of your own?

- What methods/approaches/materials/activities do you like/dislike using?
- What aspect is the usual focus of your lesson? Grammar? Vocabulary? Pronunciation? Why? Why not?
- What skills do you think your lessons focus on teaching the most? Reading? Writing? Listening? Speaking? Why? Why not?

4. How would you rank the abovementioned aspects of ELT and the language skills in order of importance? What influences that ranking (syllabus, state exams, school, students, and parents)?

5. What do you enjoy about teaching speaking in particular? Why? Why not?
   - What do you find difficult when teaching speaking?
   - What do you think is the best way to promote/encourage speaking in the classroom?
   - A (un)successful speaking/communicative activity you've recently done in your class. Why do you think it was (un)successful?
   - What activities/materials do you use?

6. Do you think your students like speaking/communicative activities?
   - How do you group students? Pairs? Group work? Individual? Why? Why not?
   - What do you think the ultimate goal of teaching speaking skills to students should be? Why?
   - How do you work with students you deem to be weak/strong in speaking?
   - What other student-related problems do you face when teaching speaking?

Section 4: The context

1. What do you particularly enjoy about teaching at a state school? What are the difficulties of teaching at a state school?
2. Would change anything in the organization of the teaching process at your school that would improve your work as an EFL teacher? What? Why? Do those changes have anything in particular with the way you teach speaking?
3. Does the school you work for promote any particular style of teaching? Are there any restrictions on the kinds of materials you use or on the content and organization of your lessons?

4. Do students/parents/syllabi expect a particular type of language course? If yes, what impact do those expectations have on the way you teach speaking in the classroom?

Appendix 5: Scenario-based interview schedule

Notice: <u>The rationale sections of the following interview schedule have been left out in the copies offered to interviewees.</u>

Below are a number of possible situations that can occur in the classroom. Please carefully study each scenario and provide your professional judgment on them by making links (if possible) to your own recent/past teaching experience.

Scenario 1: You aim to promote a whole-class discussion in the classroom as part of an activity designed to improve students' speaking skills. You want to involve students in the discussion by asking questions. However, you realize that students resort to short answers such as 'yes', 'no' or one-word responses. How do you think you should react in this situation? Why?

Rationale: When a teacher tries to involve students in a discussion by asking them questions, students are normally expected to provide comprehensive responses and engage in discussion of ideas. Otherwise, giving short, one-word responses prevent them from getting that much needed practice in producing the spoken form. It is typical for a student to try to answer questions in the shortest way possible because most of the time they are afraid of making mistakes while speaking a lot or, alternatively, simply underestimate their abilities in oral production. This scenario is aimed to reveal teachers' beliefs on the matter of teaching speaking turns (short or long), conducting whole-class or other forms of discussions.

Scenario 2: You are in the middle of a discussion of one fascinating topic with the whole class. Students are very engaged in the discussion and are taking turns in expressing their opinions on the matter. Suddenly, one of the students raises his/her hand and asks – Teacher, I want to add my own opinion to the discussion but I'm afraid I can't do it in English. May I say it in Kazakh/Russian? How do you think you should react in this situation? Why?

Rationale: L2 is thought to be best learned through massive amounts of exposure to the target language with limited time spent using L1 (Tang, 2002). During my previous observations of EFL classes in Kazakhstan I got the impression that L1 (Kazakh/Russian) is largely used in the classrooms by both students and teachers as the mode of communication. Scenario 2' would stimulate the discussion about using L1 in the teaching of L2 speaking during which I expect to find out:

- *Whether teachers accept the use of L1 (by both students and themselves) during oral practice. When? Why? Why not?*
- *Whether there any expectations from school, parents, students or state regulations on the role of L1 in the EFL classroom in general, and during oral skills instruction in particular?*
- *Whether they think using L1 during teaching speaking assists/hinders the development of speaking/communicative skills in any way. How?*

Scenario 3: Today you employed a communicative activity in the classroom which mainly involved a teacher-student interaction. However, you were not able to involve every student in the activity because of the limited time available. After the lesson ended, a couple of students approached you to say – 'Teacher, it's a pity we couldn't express our opinion during the lesson today. We had some ideas we wanted to share.'

How would you describe the situation? What do you think you would have done to involve all the learners in the activity?

Rationale: Some people suggest that it is more important for learners to listen and speak to the teacher than to each other because they believe students learn a lot of the target language by interacting with a more competent user of the target language (Goh & Burns, 2012). *However, some others suggest that due to the limited time available for a single class it is impossible for every student to have enough time to practice the target language with the instructor. Consequently, learners would get more conversation practice in interacting with fellow language learners rather than the teacher. Scenario 3 should reveal teachers' beliefs about teacher talk time and student talk time in the classroom. Most of the language classrooms in Kazakhstan are dominated by teachers or the materials, which subsequently leaves less time for students to practice the target language, hence another potential obstacle for developing speaking skills. Moreover, the second question at the end of the scenario should stir up a discussion of grouping students in the classroom and how that would help learning/teaching speaking. In addition, these scenarios should help elicit teachers' beliefs in relation to providing speaking practice to students during limited class time.*

Scenario 4: Imagine a situation in a foreign language class where a teacher comes in, stares at the class and says 'Today we're going to talk about oil pollution. What do you think?' Following the teacher's question, the students look down at their tables, make faces at each other and keep silent. How would you encourage students to speak in this situation?

Rationale: I hope that when commenting on this scenario, teachers will draw on their practical knowledge and experience. This would first of all reveal if teachers have had any experience in organizing activities of this type that are designed primarily for developing learners' speaking skills. Moreover, the discussion should swiftly lead to teachers' goals (accuracy/fluency) in organizing such activities and their beliefs about them. In addition, 'scenario 4' should spark a conversation on different types of activities that facilitate teaching/learning speaking skills in the classroom which teachers might have previously employed in the class. These activities could potentially be discussed along with various grouping styles and seating arrangements mentioned in 'scenario 3'.

Scenario 5: You would like to include a communicative activity in your lesson plan for next week's class, but you are not yet sure which one of the activities below to choose. The objective of the lesson is to enable student conversation practice. Please think of your own class and tell me which of the two activities below you would choose and why.

- Pairs of learners have different pictures cut from today's newspaper (which they don't show each other). They compare their views, initially describing their two pictures.
- Everyone is given a name of a famous person (which they keep secret). The whole class stands up and walks around (as if at a party), meeting, chatting and answering questions about recent events 'in character'.

Rationale: This scenario would give me a chance to discuss different activities making use of different groupings in the classroom (whole class seated, whole class mingling, pairs, and small groups). This scenario would provide a concrete example of activities and groupings for teachers to comment on and give out their beliefs about. During the discussion I plan to ask teachers (if they do not mention it themselves) if they had employed anything similar in their classrooms. Whether learners feel encouraged to speak in every situation may depend on how they feel motivated by that task, hence teachers will also be invited to provide ways of implementing each task so that students feel motivated to speak.

Scenario 6: Below is a question that you might hear from a student. How would you answer it? Why?

- Teacher, I try to speak a lot in English whenever I get the chance in the classroom but you never seem to correct my mistakes. Do you think I'll ever improve this way?

Rationale: With the help of this scenario I aim to get teachers' views on when and how to focus speaking activities on accuracy and fluency. Moreover, I expect teachers to reveal their beliefs about error correction strategies during oral practice and how student expectations may impact on these strategies.

Scenario 7: You have divided students into groups in order to start a discussion in the classroom, when a student turns to you and says – 'Teacher, I don't think we need to practice speaking because there are no speaking tests in the state exams. We can learn to speak later.' How would you react to such statement? Why?

Rationale: I expect teachers to reveal their beliefs about the role/importance of teaching speaking in comparison to grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing. In addition, I plan to talk about how the lack of speaking tests in state exams may impact on teaching/learning speaking in the classroom and whether students expect teachers to teach more grammar and vocabulary because of those state exams.

Scenario 8: One of your students approaches you after a class and asks – 'Teacher, I really want to improve my speaking skills and I am prepared to do some extra work to achieve that. What do you think I should be doing?' What would you suggest your student in such a case? Why?

Rationale: This scenario should enable me to discuss the strategies that teachers adhere to when they want to improve students' speaking skills. In addition, teachers should reveal their beliefs about the students that are ready to do some extra work outside the classroom.

Appendix 6: Individual Academic Plan

Draft study plan for PhD student:
On the letterhead of the university

<div align="center">

INDIVIDUAL ACADEMIC PLAN
(See **note 1** below)

</div>

Date: 24.04.2013
Full name of the student: Askat Tleuov
Name of the University: University of Bath
Program: PhD in Education
Specialty: TESOL and Applied Linguistics
Supervisors: Dr Hugo Santiago Sanchez and Dr Trevor Grimshaw
Area of Research: The Development of Oral Skills in Kazakhstani EFL Classrooms
Duration of the study: 01/10/2012 – 30/09/2016

Notes:

1) This is a ***tentative*** plan which is subject to modification depending on factors such as changes in the focus and design of the study and problems which may arise during field work.
2) Both cyclical and linear research designs are accepted in this department.
3) Upon request, the student may be granted an extension for one year (***4th year***) to write up the thesis.
4) Throughout the period of study the student will undertake an on-going review of the literature, refinement of the theoretical framework, and cross-checking between the literature review and the findings.
5) Since the desire of the researcher is to study the phenomena specifically in Kazakhstani state secondary schools, the pilot study and the data collection processes should be conducted within the territory of ***Kazakhstan*** during the dates shown in this plan.

1 YEAR (01/10/2012 – 30/09/2013)
1. Attend the following research units
Research unit 1: Principles and skills of social research
Research unit 2: Qualitative methods 1
Research unit 3: Quantitative methods 1
Research unit 4: Qualitative methods 2
Research unit 5: Contemporary issues in education research 1
2. Complete the following forms:
a. Ethical requirement form (to be checked by both supervisors and signed off)
b. Candidature form (a 'research in-progress' report written by the student after 3 months)
3. Refine research proposal

4.	**Write a first draft of the following chapters:**
a.	Literature review
b.	Methodology (research design and methods)
c.	Collect documents for context chapter (28.04.2013 – 13.05.2013)
d.	Recruit participants for pilot study (28.04.2013 – 13.05.2013)
e.	Write context chapter (June – July, 2013)
f.	Design methods (July – August, 2013)
5.	**Present research in progress in postgraduate research conferences**
6.	**Conduct pilot study & Phase 1 of the data collection in Kazakhstan (depending on the design in 4. b)** (08.08.2013 – 30.09.2013) a) Pilot data collection tools: • Background interviews • Scenario-based interviews • Non-participant classroom observations • Stimulated recall interviews b) Recruit participants for actual study c) Phase 1 of the data collection: conduct background interviews & scenario-based interviews with the research participants.

2 YEAR (01/10/2013 – 30/09/2014)	
1.	Analyze data (cyclical and/or summative)
2.	Complete methodology chapter (e.g. data collection procedures, report on pilot study, and data analysis)
3.	Produce a Transfer Report (MPhil - PhD)
4.	Sit Transfer Seminar (20.11.2013)
5.	**Phases 2 & 3 of the data collection in Kazakhstan** (23.12.2013 – 28.02.2014): conduct observation of classes & stimulated recall sessions; and final interviews with the research participants.
6.	Analyze data (cyclical and/or summative)
7.	Write findings chapter
8.	Present research in progress in postgraduate research conferences
3 YEAR (01/10/2014 – 30/09/2015)	
1.	Write discussion chapter (including contributions)
2.	Submit full literature review
3.	Write conclusion (including limitations, implications, and recommendations for further research)

4.	Complete the rest of the thesis (including introduction, abstract, table of contents, acknowledgements, appendices, and references)
5.	Edit entire thesis
6.	Present findings in postgraduate research conferences
7.	Submit full final draft to supervisors. An internal reader will also check the thesis and provide feedback within 1 month approximately.
8.	Submit final copy for examination (internal and external examiners)
9.	Attend final oral examination (viva), normally three months after submitting the final copy for examination.

4 YEAR (See **note 3** above**)** (01/10/2015 – 30/09/2016)

1.	Correct thesis based on the examiners' suggestions
2.	Submit corrections to supervisors
3.	Submit final copy for approval of corrections
4.	Disseminate research outcomes through publications and presentations in conferences

The student is also expected to:
- *Attend tutorials (individual and group sessions) at least every other week and to send drafts to his supervisors regularly. After each individual supervision session the student should write a brief email report, stating what has been discussed and what objectives have been set for the next meeting.*
- *Engage in academic development training seminars organized by the university and by his supervisors.*

Appendix 7: Sample interview transcript (translated version)

An extract from scenario-based interview conducted with Peter. R refers to researcher.

R: There are 7 scenarios. First, read each of them carefully and answer the questions. These are instructional situations in EFL classrooms. Please, share your own opinion on them by resorting to your teaching experience.

Peter: Are these hypothetical situations? Let me read the instructions first.

R: Let's start with the first one.

Peter on scenario 1: Well, the first one is difficult.

R: Have you ever come across such kind of situation in your classes?

Peter: It happens a lot. Some of my students tend to give very short answers. This is not an easy issue to deal with.

R: Do you expect them to provide more comprehensive answers?

Peter: I do. Therefore, I encourage my students to speak more by prompting or giving ideas. I think there are two reasons for it: lack of ideas or lack of skills or knowledge to express their ideas in English. I usually tell my students not to get too focused on grammar so that they can speak without fear. I tell them beforehand that I won't reduce their marks because of grammatical mistakes. In order to help my students with the first problem as a class we brainstorm ideas prior to speaking activities. Everyone including me shares some ideas about the topic. As for the second problem, I usually pre-teach the active vocabulary. I write them on the board or show them via overhead projector. However, they sometimes continue answering in short. In that case, I ask them Why questions or encourage them to give examples. I tell that their marks will be low or that their team will lose if they do not give examples. That's why I usually divide my students into teams and make them compete with each other. As a result, they try to answer fully.

R: Thank you. Let's move on to the 2nd scenario.

Peter on scenario 2: Well, this happens frequently during the lessons. The majority of the students, who don't study well and can't speak English as fluently as some of their peers, are actually very talkative. They like talking in general but do not do it in English. Some teachers let students speak in their mother tongue in order to involve

them in the lesson. I personally try to make sure that students are discussing the task in the English language when in groups or pairs. It is not easy to do it, but still, I think EFL teachers should not allow their students to use their first language. It is counterproductive for teaching speaking in English if speaking in the first language turns into a habit. Sometimes they start speaking English and mix it up with Kazakh or Russian since they lack vocabulary knowledge. To be frank, I was thinking of letting my lower-level students speak L1. However, 10th or 11th grade students should definitely not use L1. I can't allow that. To be honest, I don't know what the right thing to do.

R: Why would you consider letting beginner students use L1?

Peter: Because of fluency. With elementary level students I am more interested in making them speak. An occasional use of L1 can help them build confidence and motivate them to participate in speaking tasks.

Appendix 8: Sample interview data coding

An extract from stimulated-recall interview conducted with Peter. R refers to researcher.

#	Interview transcript	Codes
1	R: 10 В, кешегі сабақ 12:45 те. Түсіндіріп өтсеңіз? Peter: Бұл әрі reading әрі warm-up. Тақырыпқа байланысты сөзді жасырдым бұл жерде. Ары қарай тақырып осы сөзбен байланысты болды. Мысалы school туралы айттық, university туралы айттық. Бәрі де бір жұмысқа qualified болудың жолы. R: Тек lead-in мен warm-up па? Peter: Ия R: Қай дағдыға бағытталған бұл жаттығу? Peter: Бұл жерде speaking деп айтуға болатын шығар.	Teaching speaking – warm up activity
2	R: (plays another stimuli) Мұнда қайтадын топтарда жұмыс істеді оқушылар. Dream schoolдағы subjectер қандай болу керек солардың тізімін жасады. Командалардың капитандары justification жасады.	

	Peter: Мен бұл жаттығуды екі класпен жасадым. Біреуінде капитандар тізімді justification жасады ал екіншісінде команда мүшелері justification жасады. R: Қай дағды бұл жерде? Peter: Speaking skills. Сосын жаңа vocabulary үйрену, бірақ менен емес, өздері іздеп үйренулері қажет еді. Тақырып белгілі, бұл уже task-based learning. Task берілді, dictionary болды қолдарында, не айтса да өздері біледі. Әйтеуір өздерінің ойларын қорғау керек болсын.	Teaching speaking – group work, justification of lists, learning new vocabulary (associated skill)
3	R: Why is there a focus on justification? Қандай пайдасы болды сол justification жасауларында? Peter: Justification болмаса олар тек тізімді оқи салады болды ғой. Негізі бұл жерде мен дебат сияқты шыға ма деп ойладым. Өйткені бұл тақырыпта балалар әсіресе мұғалімдермен көп спорласады. Мына сабақ керек емес мына сабақ керек деп. Не үшін оқып жатырмыз осыны. Мини дебат болады деп ойладым осы тақырыпта.	Teaching speaking – group work, justification of lists (longer speaking turns), Teaching speaking – choosing topics that can spark debates (motivation).

An extract from stimulated-recall interview conducted with Adam. R refers to researcher.

#	Interview transcript	Codes
	R: Observation 12, 8C. Мұнда оқышулардан олардың демалыстары жайлы сұрап жатырсыз. Қандай дағдыны үйреткді көздеп едіңіз? Adam: Yeah, it was a warm-up activity. Обычно это все связано с темой урока. То есть у нас тема была 'Tourism & Travel' и поэтому я спрашивал наводящие вопросы. It was done as a warm-up activity to the text 'British on holidays' that followed the	Teaching speaking - warm-up activity Probing questions about the topic

1	discussion. Almost all of my lessons begin with warm-up activities. Most of the time, we talk in English. It is important that the warm-up activities involve speaking in English because in this, way it helps students to immerse into English language atmosphere. They need to hear a speech in English so that they feel that English classes have started.	Warm-up, speaking, importance of using L2, establishing an English language atmosphere	
2	R: Рахмет. Ал сіз неге 'Especially I will ask Zhandos and Nurseit' дедіңіз? Adam: Нақты есімде емес бірақ бұл оқушылар кішкене пассивный оқушылар. Негізі жазбаша түрде сұрасаң өте жақсы жауап береді ал ауызша еш сөйлегісі келмейді. Сол үшін осындай оқушыларды сөйлетейін дегенім ғой.	Warm-up Support for weaker students (core belief?) Encouraging speaking (core belief?)	
3	R: Сосын мына тақтаға сіз сұрақтарды жазып қойдыңыз соған қарап жауап берсін оқушылар деп. Adam: Ия, бұл оларға көмек болсын деп. Кейде не айту керек екенін білмей қиналып тұрады оқушылар. Ал алдында сұрақтар тұрса онда саспайды.	Encouraging speaking (core belief?)	
4	R: Сіз байқағаным екі тілде instructions береді екенсіз? Adam: Бұл қызық болды. Сіз кеткеннен кейін оқушылар маған айтаыды «Ағай неге тек ағылшынша сөйлеп кеттіңіз? Ана ағай сабаққа қатысқан үшін ба?» - дейді. Бұл сыныппен мен екі тілді де қатар қолданып жүретінмін. Мен негізі тек ағылшын тілін қолдана отырып сабақ жүргізе аламын бірақ сол өткен жылы бір курсқа қатыстық сол жерде бір ағылшын кісі айтты өз тілдерінен айыруға болмайды, қолдану керек деді.	Cross-lingual approach Source of belief – professional development course	