

Carleton University

Beyond methods in language teaching: *A qualitative study of
teachers' theoretical and practical knowledge of
communicativeness in language teaching*

by
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of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts

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ABSTRACT

The growing dismissal of language teaching methods, specifically Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), is attributed to the gap between what teachers know in “theory” and what they do in “practice”. Yet in fact, the current accounts of constructivist approach offer a dynamic and interactive way of understanding these superficially polarized looks at teacher cognition and language teaching methodology. This qualitative study, in this manner, examines the cases of six newly-graduated Turkish EFL teachers’ theoretical and practical knowledge of communicativeness in language teaching. The data suggests that the postmethod era in language teaching, whether or not there is full agreement within the field, has always been there. Different factors, such as teachers’ previous language learning/teaching experience, their current schooling and current interests come into play as teachers construct their “theoretical” knowledge about CLT, and in the manner they reflect on their “practical” understandings of *Teaching Language Communicatively* (TLC). While it is not a new discovery, it is becoming more widely acknowledged that teachers have always understood and applied different methods or approaches in their classrooms in their own unique ways. This study and hence the emerging term is evidence of this.

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The writing of this thesis has been one of the most significant challenges I have had to face; and it is only now that I can look back on the process, so filled with worry and hope, frustration and patience, devastation and faith. The former in these duos has been my contribution to the work, and the latter has come from a number of people to whom I owe my deepest gratitude. It is now a pleasure to thank a few special ones, though many more have helped me along this road. I first would like to mention those without whom Carleton and Canada would have never become home. Devon Woods, my supervisor - it has been an honor and a privilege to work with you - the person who ejected the sweetest poisons into my thinking, which I believe are beyond all the knowledge and the theory that we have been toiling over for so long. In both senses, I will always associate 'TLC' with you. Natalie, my editor and the secret friend found so late, I too do believe that what you do comes back to you and you have always reminded me of myself many years ago, an elder sister to a freshman girl. I thank you for bringing the "local" "perspective" into the rest of my life, which has helped me find my way as a woman. Peggy, thank you for being a shoulder to cry on whenever a homey touch was needed. I would also like to thank my three angels: Fatma, Seyda, and Tuba, without whose warmth Ottawa's winter would have been unbearable. Special thanks are due to my participant teachers whose names though unmentioned throughout the thesis, have always been 'my girls'. Lastly, I would like to express my deepest gratitude and love for my family, for you are the true owners of this thesis - which exists only because of the eternal and unconditional love and care you have shown me for more than 25 years.

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

The two groundbreaking developments in the field of language teaching – first, the appreciation of the cognitive and mental aspects of language teaching as opposed to the traditional view of language teaching as an accumulation of the teacher’s classroom practices and procedures; and second, the acknowledgement of the end of the method-based pedagogy in language teaching, hence the movement towards a postmethod era of the field - constitute the theoretical ground of this thesis. On a larger scale, these two developments can be considered parts of a bigger paradigm shift: “from positivism to postpositivism and from behaviourism to cognitivism” (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001).

The first development has shifted the focus of the field away from attempting to find more effective ways of language teaching to the necessity of examining the mental dynamics behind the ways teachers are teaching language in specific contexts (Borg, 1999; Freeman, 1996; Richards, 1998; Woods, 1996). That is, a new field of teacher cognition has started to seek ways to conceive what teachers know, and what they do, and the relationship between the two. However, there are a number of ambiguities about the question of teacher “knowledge” and there are debates about what constitutes it. For example, one categorization was generated by Clandinin and Connelly (1987), drawing a distinction between personal practical knowledge and theoretical knowledge of teachers. As noted by Borg (2006b), there has been a “proliferation” of different categorizations and terminologies as for teacher knowledge, which has hindered research into teacher cognition.

In a similar vein, authors have noted a shift from a method-based conception of language teaching to one that takes the field “beyond methods”, and have urged the field to study language teaching in its particular settings, as a situated practice, with

all its contextual factors (Brown, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 2001). These authors have rejected any kind of predetermined teaching methodology and claim to have put “method” to rest. As the most currently favored methodological approach to teaching, communicative language teaching (CLT) has received the hardest criticisms for being too prescriptive, too generalized and not context-sensitive enough.

The growing dismissal of language teaching methods is related to the failure to recognize the interconnection between two main concerns within the field: (1) how to develop the best classroom techniques and various language teaching methods; and (2) how those techniques are met in classrooms by teachers. Attempts to address these questions in the literature often overlook the fact that teachers do interpret methods differently in their particular contexts. That is, it is of paramount importance that developments in language teaching be informed by the recognition of the relationship between teachers’ theoretical knowledge about, and their application of language teaching methods. Thus, the two domains of research: language teaching methodology and Teacher Cognition should go hand in hand in order to arrive at a better understanding of how teachers draw from the literature in developing their theoretical knowledge as well as how they build upon their personal and practical understandings of various techniques and methods proposed in the literature.

Research examining language teachers' perceptions of language teaching methods have been limited to questionnaires and surveys that “assess” what teachers can recall from what they have learned or heard in the literature (e.g., Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Mangubhai et al., 2004; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Savignon, 1991). There are a couple of works, however, that have contributed to our conceptions of what it is to study the cognitive aspect of teaching in a more constructive and comprehensive manner (e.g., Borg, 2006; Woods, 1996). In conducting the present

study, I attempt to contribute another dimension to these current accounts in language teacher cognition and advance the discussions one step further by problematizing the dichotomy between teachers' theoretical and practical knowledge of CLT.

To this end, six newly-graduated language teachers will be studied in order to answer the following Research Questions:

- (1) What are the theoretical understandings of five newly-graduated Turkish language teachers of English *about* CLT as a method?
- (2) What are their practical interpretations *of* teaching language communicatively?
- (3) What are the factors that affect the two above?

Chapter II provides a theoretical background of the two areas noted above – the emergence of teacher cognition research and the notion of teacher knowledge, and the movement from a “method-based” conception of language teaching (and communicative language teaching) to a “postmethod” conception of language teaching (including “teaching language communicatively”).

In Chapter III, I present a discussion of methodological issues in teacher cognition research and describe the specific inquiry strategies employed in the current research design, with reference to the aims of the study. The procedures taken to carry out the study are also outlined in this chapter. In brief, the study attempted to examine two aspects of teacher knowledge in the case of six recently graduated English language teachers in Turkey. These two aspects are (i) the theoretical knowledge that the teachers have *about* CLT (related to their programs of study in becoming English teachers), and (ii) their interpretations *of* communicative teaching in practice. These two aspects were elicited by two sets of data gathered at two phases: Phase 1 and

Phase 2 respectively. One methodological innovation of the study is the fact that I have used myself as one of the “participants” in the study. I treat myself as a pilot case, carrying out all of the research activities that the other participants carried out, in order to make my own interpretations and biases explicit before analyzing the data provided by the other participants.

Chapter IV provides a step by step analysis of the findings. Firstly, a brief description of each activity that the participant teacher watched is provided. Then, the two different analyses of the activities in terms of “communicativeness” are described: first, the “etic” view of what theory considers as communicative and, second, the “emic” view of the actual teacher who conducted the activities. These analyses are provided in order to create a framework for the subsequent evaluations made by the participant teachers. The results for each participant are presented under two subheadings: *Phase 1* and *Phase 2*.

Chapter V provides a synthesis of the results presenting the new term Teaching Language Communicatively (TLC). The new notion is elaborated on in this section providing some ideas for further study. Finally I will discuss the limitations of the study.

CHAPTER I: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

This chapter focuses on two main areas of the literature in language teaching relevant to the issue of teachers' perceptions of communicative language teaching (CLT). The first area is Teacher Cognition in the fields of both general education and language teaching, with an emphasis on how teacher cognition research has evolved¹. Here I will attempt to explicate what has been reported in the literature regarding teacher cognition research, how the concept of teacher knowledge has been interpreted within the framework of Teacher Cognition, and how it is related to teacher's practice – i.e. what teachers know and what they do with what they know. Hence, the construct of teacher knowledge will be analyzed applying a more holistic and constructivist perspective. Language teacher knowledge will then be discussed in terms of its components such as Content Knowledge, Pedagogic Knowledge and Pedagogic Content Knowledge.

The second area of research deals with the concept of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This section will begin with a discussion of method-based pedagogy, focusing on CLT, and its changing status within the present shift toward a “methodless” period and postmethod pedagogy in language teaching. The importance of teacher cognition research in both method-based and postmethod pedagogy will be demonstrated throughout the chapter.

SECTION 1: Teacher Cognition Research

This section begins by addressing Teacher Cognition as an emergent area of research in education during the 1970s and its appearance in the field of language teaching throughout the 1990s. A discussion of how the term has been understood and

¹ By general education I mean the mainstream education system with or without any reference to a particular subject area excluding language teaching. I will use G Ed. to refer to it. By language teaching I mean Second or Foreign Language Teaching and the acronym LT will be used to refer to these areas.

applied in the literature of both education and language teaching will follow. The proliferation of terminology in teacher cognition research will be touched upon with an emphasis on the construct “Beliefs, Assumptions, and Knowledge” (BAK) (Woods, 1996), which refers to teacher thought in relation to teacher action. Finally, I will attempt to answer the question of how pedagogical concepts, and specifically BAK are broken into components. The examination of the conceptualization and application of teacher cognition in language teaching will provide the background for the discussion on teachers' perceptions of the theory and practice of Communicative Language Teaching.

1.1. Emergence of Teacher Cognition Research

The cognitive dimension of teaching first emerged as an area of interest in the field of cognitive psychology and then in education as a result of a number of paradigm shifts within both fields. Among these developments were the increasing recognition of the influence of thinking on behaviour in cognitive psychology, the realization of the teacher playing an active rather than a merely technical role in the classroom, and thirdly, the need to move away from traditional methods of observing teacher behaviours that ignore context, to more holistic modes of inquiry and description to better understand why teachers act the way they do (Calderhead, 1996; Clark & Peterson, 1986). The emergence of this standpoint within the field of education can be traced to counter-arguments against behaviourism and the “process-product” research model advanced in the 1970s (see Freeman & Richards, 1996 for a detailed review).

According to behaviourist theories of learning, in the most general terms, students come to class as *tabula rasa* and learning is equated with an empirical change

in behaviour that results from teaching via stimulus-response, repetition, habit formation, etc. The theoretical approach which aims to determine the most effective method of achieving this behavioural change in students is called *process-product model*. According to this model, learning is strictly a product of teaching, and thus, learner outcomes are considered to be directly tied to teachers' (in)ability to successfully carry out and implement specific teaching methods in the classroom. Contrary to this view that had dominated the literature and shaped pedagogy for many decades, the 1970s bore witness to an increasing opposition to the idea that behaviour can only be understood the way it is observed. Teachers, who had been left to apply certain behaviours in their classroom so that students would alter their behaviours, have now become the center of attention with their mental constructs.

During the 1970s, cognitive psychologists began to emphasize the complex relations between a person's mental processes and thoughts and their behaviours and actions. This development influenced the field of education by bringing into question the view of teachers as automated machines, whose role is to teach a curriculum or syllabus designed and proposed by others, without consideration of context, including student needs and teacher knowledge. Thus, the process-product model of educational research became gradually discredited, replaced by an increasing interest in the mental and cognitive factors related to teacher behaviour. Rather than seeking to determine the most effective teaching methods, the new field of research, namely Teacher Cognition, aimed to understand why teachers act the way they do and to unpack the unobservable background of teachers' observable behaviours in an attempt to better inform educational psychology and teacher education.

A number of milestones marking and staging the onset of the field of teacher cognition are identified and referred to in the literature. The conference held by the

National Institute of Education in 1975 in the United States is recognized as having played a seminal role in the acknowledgement of Teacher Cognition as a significant field of research (e.g. Borg, 2003, 2006; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Kagan, 1988, 1990). The National Conference on Studies in Teaching consisted of 10 panels, one of which was entitled *Teaching as Clinical Information Processing*. This panel chaired by Lee S. Shulman produced a report which put forward the idea of “teacher as agent, rather than a passive employer of teaching skills or techniques, a marginal operator in a complex system of technology, or a set of personality traits and aptitude measures” (p.2). Thus, they concluded that teachers’ mental lives must be studied in order to understand the human teacher and his/her actions:

Though it is possible, and even popular, to talk about teacher behaviour, it is obvious that what teachers do is directed in no small measure by what they think....To the extent that observed or intended teaching behaviour is "thoughtless", it makes no use of the human teacher's most unique attributes. In so doing, it becomes mechanical and might well be done by a machine. If, however, teaching is done and, in all likelihood, will continue to be done by human teachers, the question of relationships between thought and action becomes crucial.

(National Institute of Education, 1975, p. 1)

The appearance of teacher cognition research in the field of Language Teaching (LT) during the 1990s emerged out of a larger body of research, known as Language Teacher Education (LTE). One of the most prominent works associated with LTE is a book edited by Freeman and Richards (1996) entitled *Teacher Learning in Language Teaching*, in which they propose that “in order to better understand language teaching, we need to know more about language teachers: what they do, how they think, what they know, and how they learn” (Freeman & Richards, 1996, p. 1). Authors included in the book address various issues related to how language teachers perceive their profession, how they acquire what they know and how this knowledge influences their decision-making in the classroom. Although the focus of

the book is on language teachers and language teaching, most of the terminology and models of teacher knowledge are taken directly from studies in General Education (G. Ed.) without enough adapted definitions of the terminologies in accordance with the language teaching field. Although the researchers implicitly point out the distinct features of language teaching, they attempt to inform the field by drawing from research in G.Ed (Clark and Peterson, 1986; Elbaz, 1981, 1983; Shavelson & Stern 1981; Shulman, 1986, 1987, etc). That is, not enough research has been carried out in LT classrooms and this may alter the implications that are drawn on G.Ed. as a model.

The first influential teacher cognition model specifically designed and developed for LT is based on the concept of BAK (Beliefs, Assumptions, and Knowledge) introduced by Devon Woods in 1996. In his book, *Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching; Beliefs, Assumptions, and Knowledge*, Woods studies language teachers' decision-making processes based on an ethno-cognitive model of planning, teaching and interpreting classroom practices. The construct refers to a more holistic look at knowledge systems and belief systems of teachers, which had been studied as separate entities in the literature (Calderhead, 1988; Elbaz, 1981; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Shulman, 1986). More recent work by the author (1997, 2003, 2006, to appear) defines BAK as being a co-constructed and dynamically evolving set of knowledge structures for making sense of one's instructional experiences and informing one's classroom decisions. The latter conceptualization of BAK will serve as the framework for this thesis and will be explained in more detail later in the chapter.

So far, I have discussed the emergence of teacher cognition research, first in G.Ed. and then in the field of LT in relation to the chief steps and works illuminated the fields. Although language teacher cognition has been situated within G Ed.

research, the field should neither be considered a sub-category of G Ed., nor totally separate from it. Rather, both the manner in which they differ, as well as how they are similar sheds light on describing and understanding the psychological and cognitive processes of teaching. On the one hand, the teacher cognition research undertaken in mainstream education and its implications provide important background for the curriculum and the design of language teacher education programmes. Also, research in G. Ed. has grounded the research on teacher cognition and LT has drawn on this stance. On the other hand, in terms of the idiosyncratic characteristics of language teaching, the research in LT differs from the mainstream teacher cognition in different ways. In the subsequent parts of the section, the aim will be to characterize the idiosyncrasies and the unique case of language teaching and teacher cognition in language teaching, and to distinguish these from mainstream education.

1.2. Terminology in Teacher Cognition Research

As argued by Long (2007) and others in the field of second language acquisition, and by Borg (2006b), in language teaching, terminological variance and abundance in teacher cognition remains a problem in theory development. Terms are crucial in that they are the tools with which researchers conceptualize what they mean by teacher cognition and by which they situate their research. In Borg's (2006b) terms, the "overwhelming array of concepts" in teacher cognition has rendered it uneasy to frame the research that has been done in the field. Thus, the proliferation in the terminology should be examined in order for us to have a sense of what is signified by the key terms being used. The point to be attended here is however that of Woods (2009) in the book review of Borg (2006). He notes that just because two researchers use the same term does not mean that they have identical concepts in

mind, and the fact that two researchers use different terms does not necessarily mean that they are talking about different things. The next section will address concepts related to teacher cognition (what teachers think, know, do) first in G Ed. and then in LT with different lists of terms for each field of research. It is at this point the concept BAK will be referred to in more detail. Finally, I will discuss two dichotomies arising from the conceptual and hence terminological discussions provided.

I include the tables below in order to demonstrate the abundance of terminology used in teacher cognition research. Hence, I highlight the dichotomous ways of conceptualizing what teacher knowledge means to be. The two comprehensive lists of teacher cognition terminologies are provided by Borg (2006b), one for G Ed. (p. 36-39) and one for LT (p. 47-49). The two tables are abridged and adapted from his review. Each table outlines the grounding concepts of the relevant research in each field, brief explanations for each term, and their source.

Table 1.1 *Terminology in G Ed Teacher Cognition Research*

Table 1.2 *Terminology in Language Teacher Cognition Research*

Table 1.1 *Terminology in Teacher Cognition Research*

Terminology	Explanation	Source
Content Knowledge	Subject-matter knowledge, Pedagogical Content Knowledge, Curricular knowledge; The amount and organization of knowledge in the mind of the teacher	Shulman (1986)
General Pedagogical Knowledge	Knowledge of pedagogical principles and techniques that are not bound by topic or subject matter	Wilson, Shulman & Richert (1987)
Pedagogical Content Knowledge	Knowledge of subject matter, general pedagogic knowledge, knowledge of curricular materials and curriculum in a particular field, knowledge of students' understanding and potential misunderstandings of a subject area,	Grossman (1989)

	and knowledge of instructional strategies and representations for teaching particular topics	
Practical Knowledge	Knowledge of subject matter, curriculum, instruction, self, the milieu of schooling; Five orientations: situational, personal, social, theoretical and experiential, which refer to the formation and process of the knowledge	Elbaz (1981)
Practical Knowledge	The knowledge derived from teachers' classroom experience with the emphasis on the reflective way of teaching and how teachers cope with the real-life situations in their classrooms	Calderhead (1988)
Personal Practical Knowledge	A teacher's experienced-based knowledge formed by his/her past experience and future plans as well as the present situation s/he is in	Connelly & Clandinin (1988, 1997)
Beliefs	An individual's judgment of the truth, or falsity of a proposition, which serves as a filter through which new knowledge is acquired	Pajares (1992)
Beliefs	A form of personal knowledge consisting of implicit assumptions about students, learning, classrooms and the subject matter to be taught	Kagan (1992)
Personalized Pedagogy	A belief system that constrains the teacher's perception, judgement and behaviour	

I postpone a discussion of the highlights arising from the above table until later when the other list of terms employed in Language Teacher Cognition Research is provided.

Table 1. 2 *Terminology in Language Teacher Cognition Research*

Terminology	Explanation	Source
Knowledge about language	The collection of attitudes towards language and knowledge about English grammar that teachers possess	Borg (2005)
Pedagogical Knowledge	The teacher's accumulated knowledge about teaching (e.g. its goals, procedures, strategies) that serves as the basis for his or her classroom behaviour and activities	Gatbonton (1999)
Specific Pedagogical Knowledge	Knowledge related specifically to the teaching of a particular subject	Spada & Massey (1999)

Pedagogical Reasoning	The process of transforming the subject matter into learnable material	Richards et al. (1998)
Practical Knowledge	The knowledge teachers themselves generate as a result of their experiences as teachers and their reflections on these experiences	Meijer et al. (1999)
Personal Theories	An underlying system of constructs that student teachers draw upon in thinking about, evaluating, classifying and guiding pedagogic practice	Sendan & Roberts (1998)
Theories for Practice	The thinking and beliefs which are brought to bear on classroom processes	Burns (1996)
Theoretical Beliefs	The philosophical principles, or belief systems, that guide teachers' expectations about student behaviour and the decisions they make	Johnson (1992)
BAK (Beliefs, Assumptions and Knowledge)	A construct emphasizing the intertwined nature of notions: beliefs, knowledge, and assumptions in the decision-making processes of language teachers.	Woods (1996)

These lists, while extensive, are not exhaustive in terms of the number of terms that exist in the literature. Borg (2006b), who is critical of this terminological proliferation, argues that the field needs a more unified framework, and further, he states that "... the continued introduction of new terms should ... be strongly opposed" (p. 272). While he seems to be correct in his call for a way to represent the complex and multifaceted nature of teacher cognition, when the lists are closely examined, it becomes apparent that there is much overlap both within and between each list. Further, from the literature it is evident that different definitions are used to refer to the same term. Therefore, as Woods (2009) in his review of Borg's book points out, what needs more attention is "...not the proliferation of terms but explicating the relationships among the concepts – the relationships of *beliefs to knowledge*, of *experience to verbal learning*, and of *both of these to action and practice*" (emphasis added, p. 513).

Woods (to appear) argues that underlying the multiplicity of terms used in the literature are two common conceptual dichotomies. The first involves the distinction between knowledge that is personal and subjective (usually referred to by the term “beliefs”) and knowledge that is public, consensual and treated as objective (usually referred to by the term “knowledge”). The second distinguishes between, on the one hand, knowledge that is “in the teacher’s mind” - consciously-held and verbally articulated “theoretical” knowledge, and on the other hand, knowledge that is “in the teacher’s actions” - unconscious, embodied, “practical” knowledge, or “knowledge-in-action”. For this latter distinction, there are not two distinct lexemes as in the case of knowledge and beliefs. Woods (to appear) argues that teachers’ knowledge cannot be unambiguously distinguished and placed into one or the other categories of the dichotomies. Instead, teachers’ knowledge, in any specific case being studied, will have characteristics or shadings of the ends of both of these two clines. In the next two sections, I discuss each cline.

1.3. Beliefs and Knowledge

The first distinction discussed by Woods (to appear) is whether or not knowledge is considered to be objective and consensual, and so factual and verifiable, or whether it is considered to be more subjective and personal, and so more idiosyncratic and perhaps emotional. The attempt to distinguish the two concepts of knowledge and beliefs is evident in some reviews of literature on teacher cognition. Calderhead’s (1996) work entitled *Teachers: Beliefs and Knowledge*, and Hoy et. al.’s (2006) *Teacher Knowledge and Beliefs* are just two explicit examples focused on the issue. Abelson (1979), from the cognitive psychology point of view, identifies seven features that characterize belief systems as distinguished from knowledge systems.

They are listed as belief system's: (1) being non-consensual; (2) denoting existential entities such as God, witches etc.; (3) acknowledging "alternative worlds"; (4) relying on evaluative and affective components; (5) including episodic material such as folklore and cultural experiences; (6) being unbound and having open boundaries as it includes self-concept; (7) holding variable credence as it has varying degrees of certitude. The author remarks that none of the features is able to distinguish beliefs from knowledge when considered individually but a combination of all and their relation is necessary to make the distinction. The distinction, however, yields a necessity of an integration. That is, in his discussion, Abelson (1976) entails the necessity "to model nonconsensual mental systems, and affective processes, and the ways in which personal experience enriches knowledge. Otherwise our models will not be fully faithful to the natural vicissitudes of the human mind" (p. 365).

Researchers in LT seem to favour "knowledge" regardless that when teachers interpret their classroom instructions, it is not evident whether they rely on what they know (factual knowledge), or what they believe (personal beliefs) or what they believe they know (working assumptions). Woods (1996), with his concept of BAK (beliefs, assumptions and knowledge) argues that it is impossible to distinguish these in practice. Some authors argue that knowledge has its affective and personal components. Pajares (1992) states;

"... cognitive knowledge, however envisioned, must also have its own affective and evaluative component. The conception of knowledge as somehow purer than belief and closer to the truth or falsity of a thing requires a mechanistic outlook not easily digested. What truth, what knowledge, can exist in the absence of judgement or evaluation?" (p. 310)

Similarly, although Elbaz (1981), Calderhead (1988), Connelly and Clandinin (1988; 1997), Meijer et al. (1999) use the term knowledge, they emphasize the fact that beliefs are a crucial element of knowledge by using the term "personal" to

describe knowledge. It is obvious that Elbaz (1981) and Calderhead (1988) take the personally- and experientially-based mental constructs of teachers into consideration when they discuss knowledge. Elbaz (1983), in a case study she undertook of a high school English teacher named Sarah, attempts to unpack how knowledge structures are constructed, emphasizing the personal aspects.. According to Pajares (1992), beliefs filter the interpretation of what is considered as knowledge and this role of beliefs is asserted by Elbaz who claims: “The teacher's feelings, values, needs, and beliefs combine as she formulates brief metaphoric statements of how teaching should be and marshals experience, theoretical knowledge, and school folklore to give substance to these images.” (p. 61). In the same vein, Meijer et al. (1999) argue that teachers generate their knowledge as a result of their personal experiences and their reflections on these experiences and this clearly shows how teachers’ belief structures and their reflections form their knowledge which is not necessarily consensual, or factual but more likely personal and experiential.

Connelly and Clandinin (1996) take it one step further in personalizing the knowledge. For them, teacher knowledge is not only tied to the personal structures, it is also context-bound and specific to professional knowledge landscapes in which the teacher works. They critiqued the work of Fenstermacher (1994) arguing that it is not enough and not even possible to find out what teachers know, since what they know is very much related to the context where they live and teach. In response to this entanglement, BAK (Woods, 1996) enables beliefs, assumptions, and knowledge to exist on a continuum which has a more objective and subjective end. That is, rather than attempting to describe where one begins and the other ends in the decision-making and interpretation processes of the teacher, BAK emphasizes the interwoven nature of these notions and the fact that BAK can only be attributed as less factual or

more personal depending on the way the teacher makes instructional decisions and interprets that process. This cline is illustrated below in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 *BAK*



In this thesis, I will use the terms beliefs or personal knowledge when I am emphasizing the personal extreme of this spectrum and I will refer to the other end of the continuum by informational knowledge or narrow sense of “knowledge” (due to the ambiguity in the term “knowledge”).

1.4. Theoretical and Practical Knowledge

The second distinction implicit in the term “knowledge” discussed by Woods (to appear) is that between knowledge “in the mind” and knowledge “in action”. The former relates to an explicit, conscious, and “theoretical” form of verbalized knowledge (sometimes also called “declarative”). The latter relates to an implicit, unconscious and “practical” form of knowledge which underlies and can be observed only in the actual practice and actions of the teacher. For the first of these, the term “theoretical knowledge” is often used; for the second, the term “practical knowledge” is often used. Sometimes, the term “theoretical” is also used to refer to consensual and informational knowledge in the sense of published “theory” as opposed to personal knowledge –beliefs- (with reference to the distinction made in the last section). However, personal knowledge can also be considered “theoretical”, as some authors (for example, Brindley, 1990) have discussed “personal theories” as equivalent to

“beliefs”. Therefore, in this thesis, I am going to use the term “theoretical” to refer to knowledge that is verbalized and conscious, whether or not it is personal or consensual. “Practical” knowledge, in opposition, would refer to knowledge that is tacit and implicit and underlies teachers’ actions. As soon as an individual begins to articulate his or her “practical” knowledge, it ceases to be practical and begins to be theorized. Nonetheless, knowledge can be more or less closely connected to, or abstracted from one’s actions. In other words, it can be more or less “theoretical” and more or less “practical” (Woods, personal communication).

In the field of language teacher cognition, a number of researchers have argued that teachers’ practice is not consistent with their verbalized and articulated “theoretical” knowledge (e.g., Karavas-Doukas, 1996; Mangubhai et al., 2004; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999). Some authors attribute the inconsistencies to external factors outside of the teacher’s background knowledge frame. They are looked at as “excuses” (Lee, 2009). Among those reasons, there are contextual constraints (Lee, 2009), lack of understanding or confusion on the part of the teachers (Karavas-Doukas, 1996), language and institutional policies (Farrell, 2007), teachers’ personal experiences (Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999), etc. Other authors, for example Borg, 2006b, attribute the inconsistencies between what teachers say they know and what they do to the fact that theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge are two different “knowledge sources” (Borg, 2006b).

However, the ultimate aim of teacher cognition research can be shown as portraying teacher knowledge when it is in practice. So, if we go back to the emergence of teacher cognition research, the main attempt is argued to be finding out how teacher thought and action come together in relation to one another (Clark & Peterson, 1986; National Conference, 1975), in other words the relationship between

what teacher knows and what teacher does. Woods (1996) argues for a more complex relationship between these sources of knowledge. He discusses the notions of “knowing declaratively” and “knowing procedurally” in terms of conscious and unconscious knowledge, arguing that in any specific case, a teacher’s “knowledge” may be more or less conscious. In other words, this distinction between declarative and procedural, or theoretical and practical, knowledge can be seen as a continuum (see Figure 1.2 below). As noted above, as soon as we begin to discuss or analyze “practical knowledge”, it begins to be “theorized” or made declarative. As soon as we reflect on our practice, or are asked about it, there begins to be an interaction between verbalized theoretical knowledge and tacit practice.

Figure 1.2 *Theoretical and Practical Knowledge*

Theoretical Knowledge



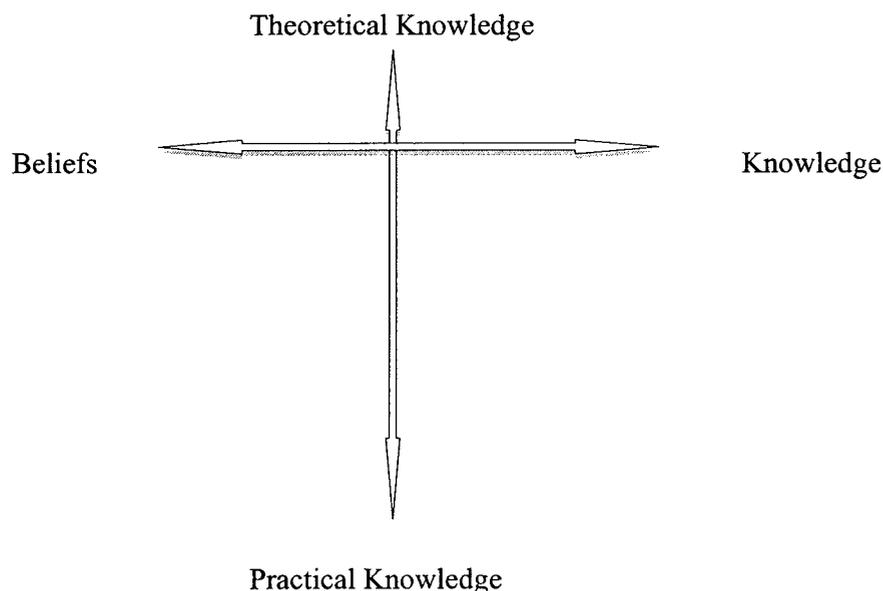
Practical Knowledge

In this thesis, for the concept of “theoretical knowledge”, referring to the analytic, conscious, articulated knowledge, I will use the term “knowledge *about*” (following the lead of authors such as Andrews (2001) who refers to the meta-linguistic knowledge of teachers as “knowledge *about* language“, or “KAL”). The

concept of “practical knowledge”, referring to intuitive, implicit, unconscious knowledge instantiated in action, can take the term “knowledge *in*” (Woods, to appear). However, this type of knowledge is equivalent to tacit forms of practice; as soon as a teacher begins to discuss it, there begins to be a conscious awareness and interaction between conscious “theory” and unconscious “practice”. For this interaction between “knowledge *about*” and “knowledge *in*”, I will use the term “knowledge *of*.” Since the term “practical knowledge” is commonly used in the literature, I will also use this term, not to refer precisely to this tacit invisible knowledge, but to refer to knowledge which drawn from and “close to” practice.

1.5. An interactive model of teacher knowledge

When we put the beliefs-knowledge cline and the theoretical-practical cline together, we have a figure that relates personal aspects of knowledge (beliefs) to the consensual aspects of knowledge (informational knowledge) on one dimension. These aspects of knowledge, whether personal or consensual are both theoretical. On the other dimension is the opposition between these theoretical aspects of knowledge and the practical aspects of knowledge. The figure below illustrates these dimensions.

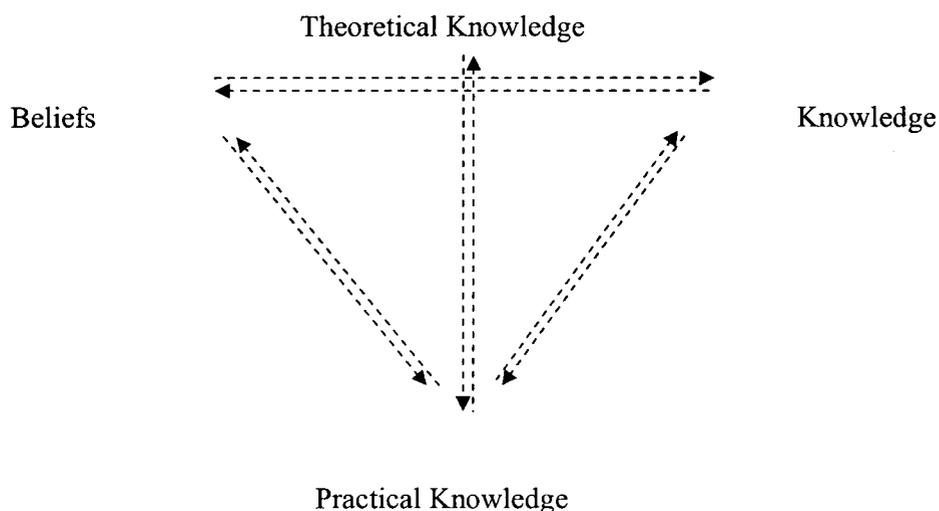
Figure 1.3 *Two Dimensions of Teacher Knowledge*

However, the dichotomies and distinctions illustrated in this figure are in a constant, dynamic relation to one another. In a variety of complex ways, each inform and be informed by the others. As noted by Woods, in traditional research the relationship between knowing and doing has been studied in one direction in which case researchers have attempted to find out if teachers can transform what they say they know into action. But, “constructivist accounts acknowledge a two-way relationship between knowing and doing and doing and knowing” (Woods, to appear).

The updated version of the figure given in the previous part is provided below and it illustrates the interactions among the different knowledge sources. For example, when a teacher reflects on practice, it informs his or her theoretical knowledge. The reflection can inform the teacher’s personal beliefs, and it can also inform the teacher’s understanding of consensual or published “theory”. This is represented by the arrows flowing upwards in the diagram. The teacher may also use his or knowledge and beliefs when teaching (using a particular activity, or way or of

explaining something). This is represented by the arrows flowing downwards in the diagram. What a teacher learns from reading about or studying teaching may influence his or her personal beliefs, as will the teacher's personal beliefs influence the way that he or she will interpret theoretical concepts (Woods, 1996).

Figure 1.4 *Dynamic nature of Teacher Knowledge*



1.6. Teacher Knowledge

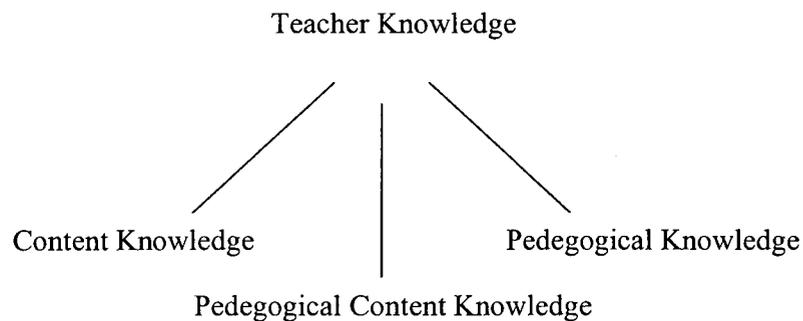
In this section, there will be an in-depth exploration of Teacher Knowledge, in order to better explicate the differing meanings of knowledge imbued in the terminology within the fields of Teacher Cognition and Language Teacher Cognition research (see tables 1.1 and 1.2). Although research into teacher cognition has been largely undertaken within G. Ed. and we use that body of research as a point of reference for examining language teacher cognition, hedge in language teacher cognition research, it is understood that language teaching is a special case. While we can draw from the research in Teacher Cognition to an extent, we need to devote

research to LT cognition to better understand its unique characteristics. Thus, in the following section I will begin with a brief discussion of Teacher Knowledge in G. Ed. and then examine the unique case of Language Teacher Knowledge.

1.7. Teacher Knowledge in G. Ed.

In G. Ed. research, the concept of teacher knowledge has frequently been broken into three main components: Content Knowledge, Pedagogical Knowledge and Pedagogical Content Knowledge (Grossman, 1989; Shulman, 1986; Wilson, Shulman & Richert, 1987). Although each author classifies teacher knowledge differently, the figure below demonstrates a synthesis of these various categorizations.

Figure 1.5 *Components of Teacher Knowledge in G. Ed.*



Shulman (1986) argued that pedagogical knowledge (PK), which is defined as “the knowledge of generic principles of classroom organization and management” not specific to a certain subject (p. 14) had been overemphasized in G.Ed. programs, which resulted in the oversight of more sophisticated definitions of content knowledge (CK). For him, teacher knowledge entails more than the accumulation of facts and concepts related to a specific subject-matter, and goes beyond awareness of

general pedagogic strategies. Knowledge of the subject matter, Schulman (1986) maintained, must be learned from a pedagogic perspective, leading to what he termed pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). By PCK, he means knowledge “which goes beyond knowledge of subject matter per se to the dimension of subject matter knowledge *for teaching* ... that embodies the aspects of content most germane to its teachability” (p. 9). He argues that “[m]ere content knowledge is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content-free skill” (p. 8).

Grossman’s (1989) categorization is important as it demonstrates that pedagogical content knowledge of mathematics, for example, is not only knowing how to teach mathematics in the abstract, but also a “situated” knowing how to teach mathematics - to the certain group of students within certain curricular context. Likewise, we can include “knowledge of self” (Elbaz, 1981) - teachers knowing what they know - as a form of content knowledge, as it has an impact on teachers’ instructional decisions. In a study conducted by Leinhardt & Smith (1985), it has been found that teachers’ awareness of their subject matter knowledge, fraction knowledge in this case, is a major determinant in their way of presenting the content. Thus, if teachers are informed about the conceptual reasoning behind the fraction knowledge, they are better able to break down the subject matter for the students; whereas, if they don’t feel comfortable with the rationale, they tend to avoid long explanations, instead transmitting information to students in a less interactive and less in-depth manner.

Thus, from this discussion of teacher knowledge in G.Ed. it is evident that beliefs and assumptions also play an important role in teachers’ instructional decisions, besides the narrow definition of informational knowledge (factual, consensual, and objective). They and their interaction are in all likelihood into the

play. I will now discuss how this categorization of teacher knowledge is addressed in Language Teacher Cognition research.

1.8. Language Teacher Knowledge

Content knowledge in language teaching: KAL & KOL

The distinction between theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge in Language Teaching is a special case because the content in LT is language itself and language is also the means to convey the content. Because of this ambiguity teachers must have not only theoretical knowledge of the content (in other words, conceptual knowledge of, for example, the meanings of lexical items and grammar rules), but they must also have practical and action-based knowledge – the ability to use the language appropriately and correctly when carrying out classroom teaching. Therefore, content knowledge includes two types of knowledge: Knowledge About Language (KAL) and Knowledge Of Language (KOL) (Andrews, 2001; 2003; Andrews & McNeil, 2005). KAL refers to more overt and theoretical knowledge, or subject-matter knowledge – that is knowledge people acquire by studying the grammar and rules of the language, especially if they are non-native speakers of the language. KOL is the intuitive knowledge that native speakers have about their own language, which is related to native speaker competence in language as it involves not learning per se but acquisition of language within its context of use. These two types of knowledge in language teaching are very different because they involve different pedagogies in both learning and teaching. Yet, the relationship between KAL and KOL is crucial and it “exists at a number of levels, with, for example, ... the former being mediated by the latter whenever the L2 is being used as the medium of instruction” (Andrews, 2003, p. 86).

The fundamental distinction between competence and performance as defined by Chomsky (1965), provides a useful means of distinguishing between KAL (related to competence) and KOL (related to performance). Competence, he writes is " the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language" while performance is "the actual use of the language in concrete situations" (p.4). Yet, what these explications do not account for are the different meanings and aspects of the term "language" that depend on the way it is used. As argued by Gee (1996) "'[l]anguage' can be a misleading term" (p. 124). By narrow definition, it stands for systemic declarative rules of grammar, lexicon, phonology etc.; in a broader sense, it connotes both the grammatical knowledge and the knowledge of how to use that system appropriately in social contexts. From the latter sense, Gee (1996) came up with the term "linguaging", which refers to "doing" with language. The ambiguity in differing considerations and conceptions in regards to language is at the root of the inconsistencies and challenges in distinguishing what it means to "know (and learn) a language". In the next section I will seek to demonstrate that it is not exactly a distinction, and a richer understanding can be found within the ambiguity itself.

The concept "communicative competence" first introduced by Hymes (1972) is considered as a way of capturing the multiple dimensions of knowing a language. What it includes or should include has been discussed by different researchers and attempts have been made to make it as comprehensive as possible (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Bachman, 1990). The key components are: *grammatical competence*, as linguistic knowledge of form and structure of language; *pragmatic competence* or *sociolinguistic competence*, as knowledge of how to use the linguistic competence appropriately in social contexts; *discourse competence*, as knowledge of different discourse conventions and of how to be coherent in different uses of

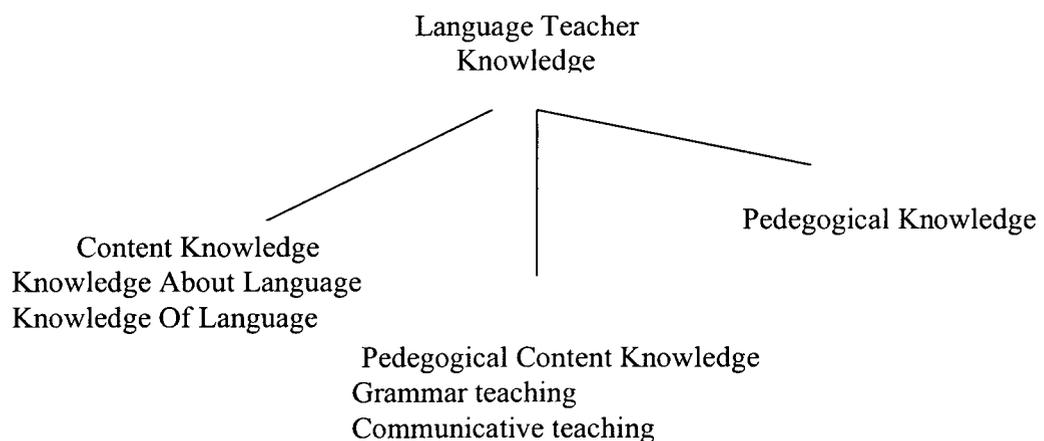
language; *strategic competence* as knowledge of how to cope with any challenge caused by the lack of any other competence. Obviously, there are overlaps among these categories and although they are listed as separate entities, they are inextricably linked. This point has been made by Agar (1994) who coined the term “*languaculture*” to indicate the relationship between language and its use in society and its culture, and Woods (1998; to appear) who discusses a “*language-culture continuum*” to mean that the narrow and the bigger senses of “*language*” discussed above are not two separate entities but in fact they exist in a way that one depends on the other in a circular continuum.

Pedagogical Knowledge & Pedagogical Content Knowledge in language teaching

Knowledge about the teaching act in general, and its goals and strategies (PK) and knowledge about the teaching act of a certain subject-matter and its goals and strategies (PCK) have been considered to be the fundamental components of a “*knowledge base*” for teacher education (Freeman & Johnson, 1998; 2005; Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Richards, 1998). Pedagogical Knowledge refers to “*any knowledge, theory, and belief about the act of teaching and the process of learning that inform teachers’ behaviour in the classroom*” (Gatbonton, 2008, p. 163). So, it can be considered a kit of instructional methodologies and strategies that present the ways in which teaching is carried out. As it was pointed out earlier in the paper, language teaching is a special case because it takes “*language*” as its content to be instructed by “*language*” itself. This uniqueness of the field can and should be observed in its pedagogy as well. Thus, we need to redefine and adapt the general pedagogical knowledge for language teaching and this actually is the territory of PCK.

The way in which content is organized in the case of language teaching is different from other subjects like math or history because it can be taught in two quite different ways. This distinction is at the heart of many debates in language teaching (Brown, 1994; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Nunan 1995; Richards & Renandya, 2002, etc.) One way of teaching language is grammar-based, where the focus is on teaching the systemic aspects of language. This is what happens in most of the grammar-translation approaches taught around the world by non-native speakers, who often have a lot of KAL by virtue of how they acquired it themselves. The second method of teaching is more implicit, where classroom activities are organized so that learners acquire the target language experientially and implicitly, as in the case of communicative language teaching (CLT). We could therefore say where knowledge of CLT lies within the perspective of teacher cognition studies: it is the PCK of KOL. In other words, language teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, i.e. their pedagogical competence, of teaching students the Knowledge of Language is what CLT is all about

Figure 1.6 *Components of Teacher Knowledge in LT*



SECTION 2: Communicative Language Teaching

In this section I will first present a brief history of language teaching methods, with an emphasis on communicative language teaching (CLT), which has remained one of the more credible methods of the last two decades. I will then shift the discussion to the emergent period of postmethod pedagogy in LT in the twentieth century. By reviewing the history of methods, basically CLT, and so studying the reasons behind the “failures” of the method-based pedagogy, I aim to demonstrate the increasing recognition of the importance of teacher thought and action -Teacher Cognition- within all these discussions, confusions and resolutions about methods, mainly CLT, which all seem to take the field to a “methodless” period (Kumaravadivelu, 2002).

2.1. History of Methods

Classical Method, also known as Grammar Translation Method (GTM), was one of the first and most long-standing teaching methods of LT field. First used in the instruction of ancient languages such as Latin and Greek, the method lasted “from [the] 1840s to the 1940s, and in modified form it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 6). Some characteristic features of GTM include extensive reading and translation exercises, explicit attention to the rules and structures of grammar, vocabulary memorization, and an absence of oral production. In the late 1980s and early 1990s GTM was no longer regarded as useful for teaching living languages. This led to the emergence of the Direct Method, also known as the Natural Method, which attempted to draw parallels between L1 acquisition and learning a second language. Contrary to previous methods, Direct Method included “lots of oral interaction, spontaneous use of the language, no

translation between first and second languages, and little or no analysis of grammatical rules” (Brown, 1994, p. 55).

When World War II broke out, the United States was in need of spies who could speak different languages with native-like fluency. However, DM failed to equip speakers with proficiency within the desired time frame. In the meantime the field of psychology was exploring a new school of thought called behaviourism that posited language learning as habit formation behaviour that could be improved with stimulus-response drills and reinforcement. This led to the development of a method called Audio-lingual Method (ALM or Army Method), which focused on oral production through dialogue memorization, dialogue completion, different types of drills -expansion, repetition, question and answer-, use of minimal pairs, grammar games, etc. (see Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 45-50). Although not as influential as the aforementioned major paradigms, the following methods, designed to be marketed by entrepreneurs, also played a role in the evolution of LT: *Community Language Learning (CLL)*- peer mediated learning; *Suggestopedia* - the importance of low affective filter in language acquisition; *Silent Way* – the focus on receptive skills before making students produce language; *Natural Approach* - emphasizing the role of input in helping a learner achieve proficiency in a target language.

As Brown (1994) noted, looking back to the history of language teaching methodology, we observe the constantly changing dynamics of teaching and learning languages. Much attention has been paid to these shifts in methodology in the literature, some of which have been cited in this chapter. Even more relevant to the research question being explored in this paper however is the direction toward which these shifts have advanced the field of LT. In the next section, I will highlight two important critiques to the method-based pedagogy depicted above: first, the

emergence of CLT as an encapsulation of previous methods; and second, the shift toward what has been coined postmethod pedagogy.

2.2. Communicative Language Teaching

The emergence of CLT as a method in language teaching in the late 1970s, and its pre-eminence throughout the 1980s and 90s has been attributed to the theoretical, social and socio-political climate of the time. According to the literature (Savignon, 1991; 2001; Brown, 1994; Richards 2005), CLT gained status as a result of:

- the increasing population of immigrants in Europe who need to use language in social contexts
- the failure of Audio-lingual Method in making language production flexible and creative on the part of the learners to function with language outside the class
- the functional - notional syllabus introduced by the Council of Europe as a means to introduce socially accepted ways of ‘doing with language’
- Hymes' introduction of communicative competence (1972) as a response to Chomsky's linguistic-based definition of “competence”
- the realization of social as well as linguistic aspects of communicative competence brought by Canale and Swain (1980)

Yet, it took some time and work to shape CLT as a language teaching method. The resulting communicative frameworks brought by researchers, language teacher educators, applied linguists etc. showed variance in terms of both the content and the structure of language classes that were said to be communicative.

As part of the evolution of CLT, two major concepts have been considered significant in terms of their role in this evolution. One is the introduction of different

syllabi such as Notional (meaning-based rather than structured-based) and Functional (“what we ‘do’ with what we ‘say’”) (van Ek & Alexander, Wilkins, 1976 ;). Wilkins (1976) draws the distinction between “synthetic” and “analytical” ways of studying language. The former suggests a discrete and traditional focus on form and the latter requires an analytical examination of holistic “chunks” of the language within a meaningful context. So, he argues that “analytical” ways of examining language give learners the chance to focus on meaning rather than on form. In the book prepared for the Council of Europe, van Ek and Alexander (1980) proposed some practical models of Notional-Functional Syllabus.

The second issue arose from the criticisms advanced against the different types of syllabus designs as being still an information and transmission-based pedagogy – where the content was based on communication, but the pedagogy, hence the process of teaching, was still non-communicative. Attempts were made to make (Breen and Candlin, 1980 and Breen, 1985) classroom activities process-based and therefore communicative. This led to task-based pedagogy or Task-Based Instruction (TBI), as it has been more recently named. In this pedagogy, learners are given different tasks to complete by using the target language in which case students’ attention is drawn to the completion of the task which necessitates interaction and communication among students. These tasks are considered as instructional units which are independent of any particular language teaching method as even a grammar point can be the part of the task in question. In this sense, although there is no explicit argument about TBLL being the motive or the outcome of the postmethod condition in language teaching, it is seen as another dimension of the arguments about “communicativeness” of language classrooms unbound to any method-based

pedagogies. A more recent definition of classroom tasks and the aim behind them is provided by Ellis (2003).

A task is a workplan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct or indirect, to the way language is used in the real world.

(Ellis, 2003, p.16)

These accounts have led and contributed to attempts to synthesize and define what is meant by “communicative”. Yet, instead of providing a definition of the notion, the authors preferred to delineate a set of criteria in an attempt to encapsulate different aspects of “communicative” teaching of language. Francis Mangubhai et al. (2005), for instance, prepared a collection of key attributes of CLT (referred to as “criterial attributes”) gathered from different conceptions of CLT in the literature (e.g., Canale and Swain, 1980; Finnochiaro & Brumfit, 1983; Johnson, 1982, 1996; Joyce, Weil, & Showers, 1992; Littlewood, 1981; Nunan, 1987; Richards and Rodgers, 1986; Savignon, 1983; 1991; Thompson, 1996; Whitley, 1993). Different definitions of CLT were refined and compiled into the following list (Francis Mangubhai et al., 2005):

- Communicative competence is best developed in the context of social interaction.
- Communication among classroom participants should be authentic, i.e., not staged or manipulated by a power figure.
- The teacher encourages learners to initiate and participate in meaningful interaction in L2

- Grammar should be situated within activities directed at the development of communicative competence rather than being the singular focus of lessons.
- Emphasis should be placed on meaning-focused self-expression rather than language structure.
- Strategies include role playing, games, small group and paired activities, use of authentic resources involving speaking, tasks requiring the negotiation of meaning.
- Teacher's role is to communicate processes, guide rather than transmit knowledge, analyse student needs, act as counsellor/corrector
- Teacher places minimal emphasis in error correction and explicit instruction on language rules
- Resources should be linguistically and culturally authentic.

Savignon (1991) argues that “CLT thus can be seen to derive from a multidisciplinary perspective that includes, at least, linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research” (p. 265). Yet in fact, Jacobs and Farrell (2001) argue that the factors that resulted in CLT should be considered within two greater paradigm shifts: positivism to postpositivism and behaviourism to cognitivism. As part of the two paradigm shifts, eight changes in language teaching were proposed by the authors, which led to the emergence of CLT: learner autonomy, cooperative learning, curricular integration, focus on meaning, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessment, and teachers as co-learners. According to Jacobs and Farrell (2001), these changes had been on the agenda of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research for a long time but it was the increasing recognition of CLT that highlighted their importance. This point is also raised by Kumaravadivelu (2006) who

argues that in recent years this awareness has turned into an “awakening” whereby a focus on methods has decreased, setting the stage for a period of postmethod pedagogy. Before proceeding with this discussion, I will first present a critique of CLT, both conceptually and in terms of its application in the classroom.

2.3. Different Understandings of CLT

Before being referred to as a method per se, CLT was associated with various terms compounded with the word “communicative”. Different concepts such as “communicative competence” (Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983), “communicative teaching” (Prabhu, 1987) and “communicative approach” (Littlewood, 1981; Richards & Rogers, 1986) were used interchangeably. There was confusion about what was meant by the term “communicative” in theory when authors discussed it and more importantly in practice when teachers attempted to teach it. I will first provide an overview of some of the different interpretations of CLT in the literature, followed by examples of how these inconsistencies translated to the classroom.

The question posed by Prabhu (1985) in the title of his chapter “*Communicative Teaching: “Communicative in what Sense?”*” has gone unresolved throughout the communicative era of language teaching. Those who have attempted to answer this question have been separated into two camps: the first, regarded as “weak”, have called for an adjustment in the current “culture of teaching” with common principles of CLT, while the other side, considered “strong”, propose a more fundamental change in terms of the entire framework of teaching and learning language (Howatt, as cited in Nunan, 1987, p. 137). As one of the proponents of the pragmatic “weak” wing, Littlewood (1981) argues that there is no need to abandon the

former so-called “traditional” ways of teaching. Instead, whenever needed during the pace of the lesson, he suggests we can still make use of the old drills and structural exercises alongside the new communicative games and activities. For him, the rationale that has led to the development of communicative framework is flawed. First, the new communicative tide brought the idea that “language had suddenly ceased to be a system of structures”, which seems to be “providing an *alternative to teaching the structural aspects of language*” (p. 2). Second, the goal of teaching became confused with the means, where communication through classroom activities is seen as the only way to promote the goal of communication. Third, the aim of classroom communication was believed to be achieved by new “classroom tricks” regardless of their appropriateness in relation to the repertoire and rationale of the teacher. The assumption that the teacher will implement the principles of CLT in the classroom requires further investigation, as research in LT shows that the classrooms do not reflect 'the lights and bells' of the current tides of CLT (e.g. Kirkgoz, 2008; Nazari, 2007; Phipps & Borg, 2009)

Contrary to Littlewood (1981), Prabhu (1985) argues that the two methods of language instruction; form-focused and meaning-focused, are different by nature and for him the reconciliation of the two is a “real conflict and its practical consequences in the classroom can be either the use of activities which are communicative only in appearance (but fulfil linguistic prediction) or the use of activities which are genuinely meaning-focused (but do not conform to the linguistic syllabus)” (p.34). Regarding these and some other differing understandings, Thompson (1996) articulated the following four common misconceptions about the principles of CLT. It is mistakenly believed by many in the field, that CLT is (1) not teaching grammar, (2) teaching only speaking, (3) use of pair work and role play, and (4) expecting too

much from teachers. Nonetheless, it is obvious in these discussions that the concept CLT has been (mis)understood in various different ways and there has been put many definitions and criteria attributed to CLT in the literature. This thesis is an exploration of the meaning of the term communicative language teaching on part of the teachers and an explanation of why a clear definition is not possible. In the next section, I will discuss how these “theoretical” attempts in establishing a communicative framework in language teaching have been received in classrooms.

2.4. “Communicative” Classrooms

Empirical studies across worldwide have shown that although the theoretical developments within CLT are enriched, there is a disconnect between classroom practices and the techniques and activities proposed by CLT (see Larsen-Freeman, 1996 for details of CLT techniques and activities). One example demonstrating this incongruence can be drawn from Turkey, the home country of the author. In a study conducted by Kirkgoz (2008) where Turkish teachers implemented a Communicative Oriented Curriculum (COC), it was found that there was considerable variation in teachers’ different ways of understanding and implementing the policy. The majority of the teachers involved in the study were observed to have “put greater emphasis on the delivery of knowledge about the language, less emphasis on encouraging pupils’ active participation in the lesson, and the development of their communicative abilities” (p. 1867). This is attributed to teachers drawing from their own beliefs about the best ways to teach language as well as their prior training experience. In the same vein, a study Phipps and Borg (2009) conducted in Turkey revealed a tension between what Turkish teachers of English think about grammar and how they teach it in their classrooms. Although the teachers did not find it useful to focus on form during their

activities, the observation of their classrooms revealed that they rely largely on grammar exercises and structured drills.

Another study by Sato and Kleinsasser (1999) that investigated how Japanese language teachers view and practice CLT, demonstrated that teachers hold some misconceptions about CLT. For those teachers, CLT requires (1) emphasizing communication in the L2, (2) focusing on speaking and listening skills, (3) little grammar teaching, and (4) time-consuming activities. Also, the teachers were reported to be reluctant in using the interactive and communicative activities regardless of the favourable arguments they had heard about CLT during the interviews. In another study, Karavas-Doukas (1996) examined 14 Greek teachers' attitudes towards CLT and found inconsistencies in what was reported in surveys and their actual classroom practices. Although the teachers seemed to favour CLT principle, they tended not to incorporate any of the techniques and activities associated with CLT.

In a recent study, Nazari (2007) discovered similar inconsistencies between what teachers think of CLT and how they practice it in the classroom. In this study teachers' knowledge about communicative competence was tested against the teachers' classroom behaviours. Nazari (2007) reported that teachers seemed to know about the concept of communicative competence, but in practice, he observed, they tended to rely more on traditional and grammar-based drills and exercises. There are countless other studies demonstrating that CLT did not have a significant influence on teachers' manner of instruction in the classroom, and this has been largely attributed to a discrepancy between its methodological principles and teachers' prior experiences and knowledge as discussed above. Yet, this discrepancy, between what teachers know and what they do, in recent years, has been credited for leading to two

important realizations in the field: first, that teacher cognition research should start seeking ways to uncover how teachers attain certain belief and knowledge constructs i.e. *Beliefs* and *Knowledge* about teaching language, and how these are instantiated in practice, and secondly, that “*There Is No Best Method*” (Prabhu, 1990), which has paved the way for the postmethod era in LT.

2.5. Beyond Methods

The discussions above demonstrate the different understandings of CLT and the disconnect between the theory and practice of it. In this section, I attempt to expand on the recent accounts of the postmethod era referring to the argumentations behind it. The first notable critique of CLT was made by Swan in 1985, in which he argues that “[CLT] over-generalizes valid but limited insights until they become virtually meaningless; it makes exaggerated claims for the power and novelty of its doctrines; it misinterprets the currents of thought it has replaced; it is often characterized by serious intellectual confusion; it is choked with jargon” (p. 2).

Kumaravadivelu (2006) argues that the three main features once regarded as the main strengths of CLT, are actually weaknesses. First, although CLT was believed to bring *authenticity* to classroom communication, “communicative curriculum, however well conceived, cannot by itself guarantee meaningful communication in the classroom” (p. 62). He also questions the *acceptability* of CLT principles. According to Kumaravadivelu, although CLT was expected to bring a revolution to method-based pedagogy of language teaching, “it too adhered to the same fundamental concepts of language teaching as the audiolingual method it sought to replace, namely the linear and additive view of language learning” (p.63). Finally, he argues that principles and practices of CLT are far from *adaptable*. Kumaravadivelu's arguments, and the many

other critiques advanced against CLT and other teaching methods, have led the field to consider that language teaching should be conceived not by means of methods, but that in fact we must go “beyond methods” (Brown, 2002; Kumaravadivelu, 1994, 2001, 2002, 2005, 2006; Pennycook, 1999, Richards, 1990; Savignon, 2007, Woods, to appear).

Although he didn't explicitly argue for a postmethod condition, Prabhu (1987) implied as much when describing the Bangalore Project he ran in India, in which 18 language teachers taught 8 language classes over a period of 5 years in an attempt to display the implementation of communicative principles in real classrooms. Although the project was heavily criticized for posing unauthentic implications, and overgeneralizing those implications (Beretta & Davies, 1985; Brumfit, 1984; Greenwood, 1985), Prabhu's (1987) discussion of his findings revealed insights compatible with what is currently being advanced in the field with regard to methods and the role of the teacher in interpreting and implementing those methods. According to Prabhu:

A good system of education, from this point of view, is not one in which all or most teachers carry out the same recommended classroom procedures but rather a system in which (1) all, or most, teachers operate with a sense of plausibility about whatever procedures they choose to adopt, and (2) each teacher's sense of plausibility is as 'alive' or active, and hence as open to further development or change as it can be.

(1987, p. 106).

Richards (1990) expresses his discontent with method-based pedagogy of language teaching noting that “[d]espite the appeal of methods, their past history is somewhat of an embarrassment. . . . The basic problem is that methods present a predetermined, packaged deal for teachers that incorporates a static view of teaching” (p. 36-37). Likewise, Brown (2002) declares the death of methods and he lists four possible causes of their “demise”: methods (1) are too prescriptive, (2) become

indistinguishable from each other at later stages, (3) cannot be testified clearly by empirical validation, (4) become ways of empowering their proponents.

Similarly, Kumaravadivelu (2001) argues that the language teaching-learning environment is so dynamic, complex and unpredictable that instead of prescribing the “correct” ways of teaching, research should help teachers develop and theorize their own “correct” ways of practice which is context-sensitive and location-specific. Thus, this constitutes the basis of postmethod pedagogy, which he explains by way of four parameters (Kumaravadivelu, 2002, 2006) and ten macrostrategies (1992, 2003) derived from the current theoretical and experiential knowledge. The first principle is *particularity*, where a teacher's theory of practice is context-specific and idiosyncratic, and thus cannot be generalized for other language teaching environments. The second principle is *practicality*, which denotes the understanding that the dichotomy between theory and practice is artificial whereas postmethod pedagogy recognizes how the two are interdependent. The third principle is the *possibility*, which is the idea that language learning should not only be viewed as a linguistic functional act restricted to classrooms but in fact as a social act within which participants – teacher and students – constituted by their identities and experiences, also shape the teaching and learning environment. The ten macrostrategies developed by Kumaravadivelu (2002, 2006) to be used by language teachers include: (1) Maximize learning opportunities, (2) Facilitate negotiated interaction, (3) Minimize perceptual mismatches, (4) Activate intuitive heuristics, (5) Foster language awareness, (6) Contextualize linguistic input, (7) Integrate language skills, (8) Promote learner autonomy, (9) Ensure social relevance, and (10) Raise cultural consciousness. Finally, he raises the issue of shifting from a state of awareness to a state of awakening:

We have been awakened to the necessity of making method-based pedagogies more sensitive to local agencies, awakened to the opportunity afforded by postmethod pedagogies to help practicing teachers develop their own theory of practice, awakened to the multiplicity of learner identities, awakened to the complexity of teacher beliefs, and awakened to the vitality of macrostructures – social, cultural, political, and historical – that shape and reshape the microstructures of our pedagogic enterprise

(Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 75).

The authors and the works marking the postmethod condition in language teaching have been referred above. As it has been mentioned briefly in the previous part, another attempt to “go beyond” methods in language teaching and merge the gap between focus on form and focus on meaning in classroom instructions is shown as the task-based pedagogy. What appeals the authors (e.g., Long, 2005; Bygate, Skehan and Swain, 2001) about the TBI (Task-Based Instruction) is the fact that as the major instructional unit, a task is composed of sub-structures which gradually build up an upper and ultimate target which is the completion of the task through which communication is the key tool to be applied. Thus, a lower level focus, such as fixing the grammatical errors in a set of questions, may end up as a small-scale research project where students are asked to generate a questionnaire, distribute it to the target audience to collect the data, analyze the results and write a report on the authentically created and carried out classroom project. So, task-based teaching should be noted as another practical way, besides Kumaravadivelu’s macrostrategies, to embody the “method neutral” pedagogy in language classrooms.

However, the emergence of these postmodern approaches to language teaching has not been well-received by everyone in the field. Savignon (2007), who maintains that CLT has been repeatedly misunderstood and misinterpreted, calls for a revisiting of CLT, as opposed to its total dismissal. According to her, conceptualizing CLT as a method trivializes the theoretical richness of this ‘approach’. Some others still argue

that the idea of a postmethod period or postmethod pedagogy is put forward not as an alternative to methods but as an alternative method itself (Akbari, 2008; Block, 2001; Bell, 2003; 2007). They argue that the strategies and principles of postmethod do not differ from those of the other methods, in that they still produce and propose certain instructional strategies for teachers to consume and practice in their classrooms.

Conclusion

In sections one and two, I have focused my discussion first on Teacher Cognition Research and then on Communicative Language Teaching. My attempt has been to take the construct of teachers' ways of knowing, or Teacher Cognition, and apply it to the methodology discussions and the latest accounts of method vs. postmethod pedagogies in LT. The role of CLT in Teacher Cognition research has been situated –it is teacher's pedagogical competence to teach students the Knowledge of Language. Then, the significance of studying what teachers know and what they do has been demonstrated in recent trend in language teaching methods.

The present accounts of postmethod pedagogy argue that there is no real “communicative method” (i.e. CLT) and no absolute answer to the question “what is communicative teaching”. Rather, there is a need to study the interpretative processes and practices – especially those of teachers, with regard to the “communicative teaching of language”. The role of communication in the classroom has not been discredited, and is still considered important; however what is being called for by some, and what characterises the objective of this paper, is a 'beyond methods' conception of communication, which takes into consideration teachers own ways of understanding and practicing communicative language teaching. To further explore what this 'beyond method' approach might look like, in the following parts of the

paper, I will examine the case of recently-trained teachers in Turkey, their own understandings of communicative teaching, as well as the factors that are affecting their conceptions of it.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

In developing the methodology for this study, I attempted to tailor a research design incorporating features of a variety of qualitative approaches, paying close attention to what the literature has recommended with regard to research on teacher perceptions and Teacher Cognition, allowing some methodological decisions to emerge as the research proceeded. As outlined in Chapter II, there are a number of crucial issues that need to be taken into account in any study of Teacher Cognition. Hence, I designed the study in order to be able to address the research questions in a way that would allow me to present the different accounts of teacher knowledge and language teaching pedagogies – method- and postmethod-based.

The chapter begins with the research questions and a description of the overall research design. I then discuss the major methodological issues that have arisen within the research on teacher cognition, followed by the different modes of inquiry I have drawn from in developing my study. From here I provide the specific details of the study, describing the participants, the methods used to gather my data, and how I went about analyzing the data.

1. The Research Questions and Overall Research Design

The aim of the study is to assess teachers' understandings of Communicative Language Teaching from both a theoretical and practical perspective. Specifically, I am interested in the relationship between how teachers conceptualize CLT, as a method, and their reflection on this knowledge upon observing its practical application in the classroom. Further, I hope to determine some of the factors that shape these perceptions.

The study examines the case of six Turkish teachers of English who are recent graduates of the Foreign Language Education Department of a prominent educational institution in Turkey. The data for the study was collected in two phases using a combination of surveys, questionnaires and interviews. The first phase inquired into teachers' conceptual understanding of CLT; the second phase sought their reflection on its application in the classroom. However, as it is the aim of this study to highlight the interaction, and not the distinction between theory and practice in LT, I will refer to the two sets of data according to the phases of data collection as opposed to the general categories: "theoretical" and "practical" to which they refer, as there is significant overlap between the two.

In *Phase 1* distributed the survey, questionnaire, and conducted a follow-up interview with the participants in order to gain insights into their background knowledge about CLT. In addition, I asked the teachers to provide an assignment they were all required to complete in university, in which they were asked to write about their teaching philosophies, by referring to different methods and approaches they had learned in their methodology course. With these data, I explored the language teachers' theoretical knowledge *about* CLT as a language teaching method.

In *Phase 2* participants were shown videotape of three lessons from an English for Academic Purposes program in a Canadian university, in which a Canadian ESL instructor discussed her intentions and interpretations of the lessons within the overall design of the course and the EAP program. The participants' viewing of these videotapes elicited both the written (questionnaires) and oral (interviews) reflections of each of the teacher's practical knowledge of what it means to teach language communicatively. Upon viewing the videotape the participants' attention was drawn to specific activities via a correspondent questionnaire given to them before they

watched each video. I then conducted follow-up interviews for each video and the subsequent questionnaire.

In my analysis of the data I highlight a number of emerging themes, such as teachers' preconceptions, learning and teaching experiences, and educational backgrounds, in order to demonstrate how these factors affect their understanding of CLT. I attempt to situate their responses within the emerging developments in the literature on "teacher knowledge" discussed in Chapter I. In this manner I hope to build upon some of the critiques that have led to what is being called now the postmethod era in LT, by attempting to move beyond the tension between theory and practice that has been at the core of Teacher Cognition research, and instead demonstrate the meaningful relationship between "theoretical knowledge" and knowledge that is practically constructed, and related to situated action.

2. Methodological Issues

In this section, I discuss and situate within the literature on methodological issues, four approaches that informed and which characterize my research: (1) Qualitative Study, (2) Case Study, (3) Self Study, and (4) Phenomenological Study.

2.1. Qualitative Study

Denzin and Lincoln (2008) draw a distinction between the two paradigms Qualitative and Quantitative research in regards to their approaches to "capturing the individuals point of view". They continue:

However, qualitative investigators think they can get closer to the actor's perspective through detailed interviewing and observation. They argue that quantitative researchers are seldom able to capture their subjects' perspectives because they have to rely on more remote, inferential empirical methods and materials. Many quantitative researchers regard the empirical materials

produced by interpretive methods as unreliable, impressionistic and not objective.

(Denzin & Lincoln, 2008, p.16)

An interpretive method of research seeks for “knowledge to be gained from an inductive, hypothesis- or theory- generating (rather than a deductive or testing) mode of inquiry” with an in-depth analysis of the data and the issues involved (Merriam, 1998, p. 4). Also, it is context bound in nature with limited (if any) generalizability of its results. That is, a qualitative researcher aspires to illuminate meaning onto the unique milieu of the study as part and parcel of a larger context “to gain a fuller, more ecological understanding of the individual’s abilities, traits, behavior, and knowledge” (Duff, 2008, p. 38).

Also, a qualitative method of inquiry renders the design of the research flexible according to the direction of the research questions. As Denzin and Lincoln (2008) note, “if the [qualitative] researcher needs to invent, or piece together, new tools or techniques, he or she will do so. Choices regarding which interpretive practices to employ are not necessarily made in advance” (p. 5). They refer to the metaphor of bricoleur and quilt maker for the qualitative researcher who “uses the aesthetic and material tool of his or her craft, deploying whatever strategies, methods, and empirical materials are at hand” (Becker 1998, cited in Denzin and Lincoln 2008, p. 5).

The different tenets discussed above steered the present study in the direction of a qualitative approach. As it was my aim to investigate the perceptions of teachers in an inductive manner by focusing on eliciting a better understanding without any concern of confirmation, following the authors referred above, I felt that a qualitative approach would be appropriate. There are various types of qualitative research, though they may share some common characteristics as shown above, which are

distinct from one another in terms of how they elicit understanding and meaning, and how they set up the descriptive analysis (Bogdan and Biklen, 1998; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Merriam, 1998). Below, I discuss what has been said about the Case Study method/approach in the literature in order to demonstrate its suitability in addressing my research questions.

2.2. Case Study

Merriam (1988) defines a qualitative case study “as an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon or social unit” (p. 16). Merriam (1988; 1999) also offers a comprehensive list of its characteristics according to what has been discussed in the literature. She states that a case study is *particularistic, descriptive, heuristic and inductive* in nature. The current study, which includes multiple cases as sources of data using an information-oriented sampling that binds it to its context (newly-graduated Turkish teachers of English language) can be classified as particularistic. Also, its “widest array of data collection” entails a descriptive and thereof an in-depth analysis of the data (Creswell, 1997, p. 123). As for the heuristic aspect, Stake (1981) states “insights into how things get to be the way they are can be expected to result from case studies” (p. 47). Furthermore, the hypothesis-generating characteristic of case studies is evident in the present case study based on its inductive nature.

The use of multiple cases rather than a single case is generally for the purpose of increasing variation and thus representativeness, as suggested by Duff (2008). Yet, in this research design the use of multiple cases relates to the question of what factors shape teachers' understanding. That is, although the participants graduated from the same university, they have different career and professional paths, which provides a

broad spectrum of experience from which to decipher where their different understandings may originate.

2.3. Self Study

Bullough and Pinnegar (2001) suggest that self-study began to appear as a research method in the field of teacher education, based upon some specific developments in our understandings of research. Two of them will be discussed in this section. The first influence goes back to the “paradigm wars” (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998, p. 3) in the 1980s when the naturalistic and qualitative research methods started to take their place in education and the definitions of validity and reliability were changing. Bullough and Pinnegar (2001) note, “Many researchers now accept that they are not disinterested but are deeply invested in their studies personally and profoundly... Who a researcher is, is central to what the researcher does” (p.13). Another development was the increasing importance of self-exploration and self-learning of teachers in teacher education and training programs, and the interest in capturing this experience through narrative inquiry (see Clandinin and Connelly, 2000).

Bullough and Pinnegar (2001) point out the necessity of a balance between “confessional and traditional research” (p. 15). In other words, rather than focusing on his/her own self in the study, which would make the research a work of confession, the researcher should balance the data gathered (both from self and others). They claim the aim of self study research is “to provoke, challenge, and illuminate rather than confirm and settle” (p. 20).

The current study contains two elements of ‘self-study’. The first is that I include myself among the participants, and present my own reflections in the analysis of the

findings as a pilot case. Secondly, as laid out previously in this chapter and in Chapter II, the study demonstrates different conceptions of teacher knowledge and it attempts to show different perceptions constructed within those different ways of "knowing". In this manner, it exposes the inherent discrepancy of making totally objective claims about the nature of teacher knowledge. Rather, the findings indicate that teacher knowledge is an emergent and situated phenomenon that can only be understood within the context in which it is expressed.

2.4. Phenomenological Study

This method, with roots in philosophy, sociology, and psychology, attempts to explore and decipher the meaning of a given phenomenon (e.g. a circumcision tradition in a tribe or a recent social network phenomenon such as facebook) (Creswell, 1997). In this method, the "essence" of the experience is captured by the first-hand contribution of the researcher as a member of the group experiencing the phenomenon; in this study this would comprise the experience of being a newly-graduated language teacher while wrestling questions about teaching language communicatively.

Thus, the current study is not a phenomenological study in the true sense. That is, the questions being explored in the study relate to the abstract mental constructions of language teachers. Yet, it maintains an aspect of the phenomenological, in that I, as the researcher, partake in the study, and have an interest in becoming a language teacher. Also, the research being conducted is rooted in my interest to understand what language teachers understand of communicativeness in language classrooms.

3. The Study

In this section I will discuss the participants: who they are, why they were chosen and some commonalities and differences among them. I will also provide a table illustrating the background information of each participant. I will then move on to a description and rationale of the methods employed within the two phases of data collection.

3.1. Participants

The participants consist of six Turkish teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). I will refer to them as Respondent Teachers (RTs), or by their assigned pseudonyms: Teacher A, Teacher B, Teacher C, Teacher D, and Teacher E. As explained above, I have included myself as a participant (Teacher H) and reported my findings in a pilot case. All RTs are former classmates of mine; hence their participation was both convenient and useful for me as I was able to tailor the methods to address particular indicators, such as their backgrounds, interests, teaching experience etc. Also, our relationship assisted me in both the data collection and data analysis phases, as my familiarity with the participants facilitated mutual scheduling and accommodations, an important consideration, particularly given the RTs reside in different parts of the world.

The language of communication was determined by the participants, depending on their level of comfort. Only one RT requested to speak Turkish during the interviews, though she used English for her written responses. So, while transcribing the interviews with this teacher, I also translated them from Turkish to English.

Some of the commonalities and differences among all the teachers include: (1) they are female, between the ages of 22 to 26; (2) they have graduated from the same B.A program in English Language Education offered by one of the most prominent universities in Turkey in Spring, 2008; (3) they have undergone more than 10 years of previous learning experience (including their graduate and undergraduate study as the medium of instruction has been English); (4) five of them have undergone a grammar-based learning experience of English while only one reported to have learned English communicatively; (5) all of the RTs have participated in at least one-term teacher training where they observed EFL classes, and they all took part in a year-long training at two private schools where they ran EFL classes; (6) all of them have had part-time teaching or tutoring experiences during their B.A study; (7) three of them are currently teaching at schools in Turkey: two of them at a private school and one at a state school; (8) three are pursuing their M.A degrees either in the U.S. or in North America: two in Applied Linguistics, and one in Speech Pathology, and; (9) four of them had at least one term studying/teaching experience abroad where English is spoken as a first language.

I deliberately selected teachers with such varied background and diverse teaching and studying experiences as this variance contributes to the number of factors that can be explored in terms of what shapes teachers' differing understandings and interpretations of CLT. The table below provides a brief overview of each RT.

Table 3.1 Participants: demographic information

	Teacher H	Teacher A	Teacher B	Teacher C	Teacher D	Teacher E
Age	25	25	25	25	24	23
Degree Attended/Current	M.A in Applied Linguistics	M.A in Applied Linguistics	B.A in Foreign Language Education	M.A in Speech and Hearing Science	B.A in Foreign Language Education	B.A in Foreign Language Education
Current Position	M.A Student at a Canadian University	M.A Student at a Turkish University	EFL Teacher at a state school in Turkey	M.A Student at an American University	EFL Teacher at a private school in Turkey	EFL Teacher at a private school in Turkey
Year of English learning experience	13 years	13 years	11 years	13 years	11 years	11 years
Year of English teaching experience	2 years part-time voluntary teaching 1 year teacher training	2 years part-time voluntary teaching 1 year teacher training	1.5 years teacher training 2 years teaching at a state school	3 years part-time one-on-one English lessons 1 year teacher training	1 term part-time voluntary teaching 1 year teacher training 2 years teaching at a private school	2 years part-time voluntary teaching 2 months full-time teaching in the U.S. 1 year teacher training 2 years teaching at a private school
Experience abroad	M.A study for 2 years, Canada	English Language Course for 4 weeks, England M.A exchange study for 5 months, the U.S.	NA	M.A study for 2 years, the U.S.	NA	Teaching Literature to the native speakers for 2 months, the U.S.

3.2. *Data Gathering Methods*

A number of tools were used for the two phases of the data collection. For Phase 1, with each participant, I distributed a survey and questionnaire, collected the participant's prior teaching philosophy statements, conducted and a semi-structured interview. For Phase 2, I distributed three questionnaires (one for each lesson viewed), and conducted three follow-up interviews (one for each lesson viewed). Below I will discuss the procedures in detail.

Survey

Surveys and questionnaires are not commonly used in case studies compared to methods such as interview and observation (Merriam, 1998; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). However, I opted for the survey and the questionnaires to gather initial reflections upon which I could later return to during semi-structured interviews. Distributing the survey and the questionnaires beforehand provided the RTs with a context for thinking about and reflecting upon themes that would be discussed later in the interviews, thus allowing me to steer the conversations in a direction that would elicit responses to my research questions.

The RTs were contacted by email asking for their involvement in the study. Upon their agreement, they were asked to fill in the initial survey (see Appendix A). At the beginning of the survey, I included a *Background Information* section for them to fill in their demographic information, educational degree and current positions. The survey was divided in two parts: (1) information on their detailed English learning experience; and (2) details related to their schooling in teacher education and teacher training. In each

section, I also asked them to reflect on which experience/schooling they have found most effective and useful. The second part addressed their theoretical knowledge about CLT: what they know about the method and what they think about “communication in class” and “communicative activities”. It also inquired into their application of CLT, or some aspects of it, in their classrooms, and if they find it useful etc. Space was allotted after each question to give the teachers an idea of how much they were expected to write for their answers. Also, for some questions, I included tables to make it convenient for the teachers to enter the information requested.

Questionnaire

There were two different types of questionnaires used in the study for two phases. The first one addressed teachers’ perceptions about the characteristics of the CLT method –Phase 1- and the second set of questionnaires accompanied the video of classroom lessons, which they were sent by mail –Phase 2-. Both questionnaires, like the survey, were used to generate thinking among the RTs before conducting the interview that followed.

The first questionnaire was a follow-up step to the survey discussed above. After participants filled in the survey, I sent them the questionnaire, which did not include questions, but ten sets of scrambled words/phrases that comprise the common principles associated with the concept Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (see Appendix B). I asked them to come up with a sentence for each set by using the words/phrases provided. For instance, in one set, I provided the teachers with the word grouping “*Grammar, teaching, CLT*” and asked them to write a statement that would combine

these concepts. They were informed that they could add other concepts, as long as they included the ones provided. They could also write more than one sentence per set if they felt it necessary. I first piloted this technique with a friend, who is also a language teacher at a private institution in Turkey. The response she gave was “*Teaching grammar is not considered as the focus of instruction in CLT. But I think that this is always misunderstood by people and I do believe that it is not rejecting grammar altogether*”.

By designing the questionnaire in this manner, rather than giving the RTs a set of characteristics attributed to CLT and asking them to "agree" or "disagree", I provided them with the flexibility to articulate their own perceptions about CLT. Thus I tried to avoid “forcing” the participants to take a particular stance on CLT, as the aim of the study was to shed some lights on how teachers develop their own understandings. I also wanted to set the tone for the follow-up interviews, to encourage them to construct their own definition of CLT and its attributes.

The second questionnaire was used to gather RTs responses to the video of the three ESL lessons. A questionnaire for each lesson was prepared in which teachers were asked to reflect on the level of communicativeness they observed (Appendix C, D, E). The teachers were asked to rate the activities, or certain sessions in the lessons, in terms of their communicativeness according to the following scale: *1 – Noncommunicative; 2 – Not very communicative; 3 – Communicative; 4 – Very communicative*. The questionnaires, which were given to the RTs in order to draw their attention to certain activities and issues related to the application of CLT method, were brief, and intended to generate more in-depth discussion during the follow-up interviews.

Videorecorded Classes

I observed an ESLA course taught by a Canadian instructor for 2-4 weeks and recorded video of 3 classes. I chose this instructor and class as I worked with her in 2008/2009 as a Teaching Assistant and also as a part of one of my M.A. courses, and was therefore familiar with her way of teaching and the activities she uses. As the study is shaped around Communicative Language Teaching, I needed a classroom that would demonstrate different types of activities, tasks, and strategies, which may or may not be attributed to CLT. As the RTs did not observe the classes in-person, apart from myself, I felt it important to not edit the videos in any way in order to retain the authenticity of the classroom.

Each class lasted about 1.5 hours and included two main activities or tasks. There were also some brief (2-10 minutes) sessions within the lessons where the instructor discussed some grammar or vocabulary points with the students. The descriptive analysis of the activities is given in Chapter IV. As mentioned in the section above, RTs filled in questionnaires and then participated in interviews for each video. The purpose of providing a classroom context for the RTs to reflect upon was to bring a practical perspective to their theoretical knowledge about CLT. As discussed in Chapter II, the traditional separation of theoretical and practical knowledge in Teacher Cognition is problematic; thus, the videos and the subsequent questionnaires and interviews were intended to highlight instead the interaction between teachers' knowledge *about* (theoretical and verbalized knowledge) and their knowledge *in* (practiced and embodied knowledge) Communicative Language Teaching (see Chapter II).

While it would have been ideal to record the RTs' own classes and ask them to reflect upon their own teaching, due to the fact that they reside in different parts of the world, providing the teachers with another authentic classroom context seemed to be a good alternative. More importantly, I thought that showing them another teacher's approach might produce different "hotspots" (Woods, 1996); by "hotspots" I mean the moments in which teachers' beliefs or ways of teaching are confronted with something that might be unfamiliar. Even if the other teachers' style is similar to their own, they might be more likely to recognize and be able to discuss someone else's actions and motivations, and then refer it back to their own contexts, noting how the goals and consequences relate or differ.

Semi-structured Follow-up Interviews

There were two different follow-up interviews conducted in two phases; the first was held after reviewing the data gathered through the survey and the initial questionnaire on CLT, which lasted about 1 hour for each participant; the second followed the teachers' viewing of the video and completion of the questionnaires corresponding to the three lessons, and lasted 30-45 minutes each. The interviews were conducted on the phone and recorded with a digital device, and with the exception of one teacher, were conducted in English.

With these semi-structured interviews, I wanted to follow up with the participants to clarify some of their answers. I asked the RTs to elaborate on certain issues that I deemed important to the study, and they in turn were given the opportunity to clarify any points that they felt were unclear in the responses they provided in the preceding

questionnaires and survey. The interactive, less structured nature of the interview provided richer data as the teachers could reflect more freely and spontaneously on any issues that arose during the discussion. Thus, the purpose of conducting semi-structured interviews was to establish what Denzin & Lincoln (1998) call "situated understanding" (p. 3); that is letting teachers construct their understandings through the steps of the study. However, there was also a structured aspect of the interviews in which I posed specific questions (e.g. why did you find a certain activity (un)communicative? Which aspect of CLT did you find useful? etc.) based on their responses to the previous data gathering processes. Merriam (1998) reflects on this two-fold approach below:

Usually, specific information is designed from all the respondents, in which case there is a highly structured section to the interview. But the largest part of the interview is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored ... This format allows the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas on the topic.

(Merriam, 1998, p. 76)

Teaching Philosophies

In order to supplement the survey and the questionnaire on what teachers know about CLT gathered in Phase 1, I requested that each teacher provide their teaching philosophies that they prepared during the second year of undergraduate study as a partial requirement of a methodology course. I requested their consent when asking them to participate in the study and all of the RTs agreed to send me their documents.

I wanted to include the 'teaching philosophies' as they provide insight into what teachers have learned about different language teaching methods, CLT being one of the most favorable methods cited. Also, in that assignment teachers were not only supposed

to discuss different methods, but they were also asked to generate their own teaching philosophies reflecting on what they found useful or note about each method and methodological discussion throughout the course.

Also, according to some, the use of participant documents as a mode of data collection may contribute to the credibility of the study. According to Merriam (1998):

Interviewing and observing are two data collection strategies designed to gather data that specifically address the research question. Documents, however, are usually produced for reasons other than the research at hand and therefore are not subject to the same limitations. The presence of documents does not intrude upon or alter the setting in ways that the presence of the investigator often does.

(Merriam, 1998, p. 112)

3.2. *Data Analysis Approach*

In this section I discuss how I undertook my data analysis. Firstly, my analysis did not unfold in a linear manner, but rather took shape within an ongoing interaction with the data. In relation to this, Stake (1995) argues that “[t]here is no particular moment when data analysis begins. Analysis is a matter of giving meaning to first impressions as well as to final compilations” (p. 71). Here Stake reveals that although the researcher plans and describes the analysis of the data in terms of stages, there is always “a constant moving back and forth between the data and the evolving ‘construction of an understanding’” (Woods, 1996, p.35).

Secondly, while undertaking the analysis, I aimed to identify recurring themes in the data gathered and their relationships to one another. That is, upon the initial review of the separate cases, the emergent patterns actually provided the blueprint for my analysis, as they signaled issues of particular significance for the RTs. Stake (1995) refers to these recurring themes as *patterns*, *consistency* and *correspondence* (p. 78) as they reappear

over and over again. Woods (1996) explains the key point to keep in mind while examining participants' responses in the following quote:

The importance of the issues to the teachers is signaled by the frequency of their occurrence, their centrality with regard to other issues, and by explicit mention, by tone of voice and other signals of highly loaded issues, and other means of evaluation. The relationships among themes are signaled and can be deduced by the way in which the themes are embedded in sentences and contexts which include mention of other themes.

(Woods, 1996p. 32)

For each RT, I ran a separate analysis. As mentioned earlier, there were two different sets of questionnaires and follow-up interviews for two phases of the data collection: the first set inquires into the method of CLT in general and the other elicits responses based on its application in the recorded classes. The approach for each was similar, but as they deal with different types of questions and information, I will explain them separately below.

In *Phase 1*, upon reviewing the data from the initial survey, the questionnaire on CLT (Appendix B), and teaching philosophies, I first read the responses carefully and then color coded them based on whether the teachers were referring to their beliefs and opinions about the aspects of CLT (subjective, personal aspect of knowledge) or to the informational "knowledge" about CLT that they learned in the literature (consensual and public sense of knowledge on the first cline in Chapter II, page 12). I then sorted those coded sections according to the source of the information that the RTs originate from and to the factors that may lead the teacher to a certain belief or attitude, which helped me to identify the recurring themes and in the data. After that, using the track changes feature in Word, I entered some comments and questions on those coded and sorted parts of the

data that I wanted the RTs to elaborate on during the interviews. Also, if a particular statement seemed important in terms of how it articulated the participant's informational knowledge or personal beliefs about the CLT method or about the factors that might have shaped their understanding of it, I coded these in a different color so that I could easily refer to it when writing the results for that particular teacher.

In *Phase 2*, I read the RTs' responses to the video questionnaires and made note of their rating for each activity. I attempted to interpret which aspects of the activities the teacher found communicative and which they found uncommunicative based on their rating. Then, I color-coded what they considered communicative and what they deemed uncommunicative, in order to identify any similarities between the RTs' responses. Again, using the track changes application, I entered some comments and questions to be clarified and/or elaborated on in the follow-up interviews.

For the first round of follow-up interviews in conducted Phase 1, which questioned the RTs on their theoretical understanding of CLT, I listened to the recorded interviews, carefully paying attention to (1) what was supporting what recurred from the understanding of CLT expressed in the initial survey, questionnaire on CLT, and teaching philosophy document; (2) what was revealing about the evolution of and the factors influencing teachers' knowledge. For the second set of interviews conducted in Phase 2, I was interested in discovering (1) whether the RTs would change their evaluation of the activities as expressed in the questionnaire; (2) what guided them in their assessment of the level of communicativeness; (3) what points were emphasized or repeated in terms of their interpretations of communicativeness.

As stated previously, although I took the above-mentioned steps in approaching my analysis, anything unforeseen that emerged during both the data collection and the data analysis phases was taken into account and hence the direction of the results was constructed by the data itself. Before and during the drafting of the findings for each participant, I returned repeatedly to the data to ensure I was not overlooking any important themes that ought to be raised in my findings.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

In this chapter, I will present the results that emerged from the study. My analysis has been guided by two aims: to explore language teachers' theoretical knowledge *about* communicative language teaching (CLT) as a method and their practical knowledge *of* communicativeness in language classrooms. The results show that teachers' reflections on practice bring to the surface the differences between the knowledge that they developed "theoretically" (as they have done in most of their teacher education courses) and the personal "knowledge" that they developed "practically" through their experiences. In the former case, they articulate a more method-based concept of CLT; in the latter case, their discussions reflect a postmethod conception of "teaching language communicatively".

This chapter consists of three main sections. The first section briefly introduces the activities conducted in three videorecorded lessons, and provides "etic" and an "emic" evaluation of the activities. The second section provides the detailed results of the investigation of the participants. The third section synthesizes and discusses the findings of the participants in relation to one other.

1. Activity Analysis

Three lessons of an EAP (English for Academic Purpose) course offered at Carleton University were videorecorded. The course is organized around different academic projects and thematic units. The lessons videorecorded in this study are based on the unit themed "P2P (Peer-to-Peer) File Sharing". The activities that are carried out, which are also described below, are related to the overall theme of the unit. Also, the

activities are spread over several weeks and lessons with assigned work between lessons. In each unit, there is a major task that is carried out through the activities as well as some individual exercises and small-range tasks. In the lessons videotaped, the major task is creating a classroom survey and writing a report paper on that survey (Activities 1, 4, 5, and 6). Each class was divided into two main sections, each involving a major activity. Below, I provide a synopsis for each activity.

Activity 1: Developing a questionnaire (Lesson 1/Part 1)

As homework, the students (Ss) prepared two questions for the survey that they are developing as a class on the topic “Peer to Peer (P2P) File Sharing”. At the beginning of the lesson, the teacher (T) explains what they will do with the survey and the survey results. Students are told they will have to write a report on the survey and they will use the results in their final writing. T gives the instructions for today’s activity. Ss are put into groups and asked to exchange their questions in their groups and agree on the two best questions from their table and write them on cards provided by the teacher. However, T states that they must first edit the questions for grammar and correct format to go into the survey, and that she is available to help them correct their errors. The groups complete their task at their tables. Then, T merges the groups so that each group has two sets of best questions. From the four best questions, the new groups are asked to choose the best two. After groups are done with the questions, the teacher picks up the cards and tells the students that she will do the final editing and put the survey up on their class website for them to answer.

Activity 2: Reading Activity (Lesson I/Part II)

In the previous lesson, Ss have read an article about file sharing. In this activity, students are given a set of questions on that reading and they are asked to discuss and respond to them in groups. The questions necessitate students to write their own inferences and understandings from the information the article presents. So, students need to write full sentences instead of circling the correct answer in the text. Also, students are told that they will need the answers to the questions for their unit tests and quizzes that they will have at the end of the unit. Ss start to answer the questions in groups in class but since they run out of time, they are asked to complete it at home as homework.

Activity 3. Sentence Combining Activity (Lesson II/Part I)

As homework, students are given some sets of sentences about the topic, file sharing, and they are asked to combine the sentences using the appropriate conjunctions and reducing extra elements in the sentences. In class, each group is assigned a set of sentences and asked to work on the grammaticality and coherence of it. After the groups get done with their assigned sets, they put the correct form of their set up on the board. Each set of sentences to be combined is assigned to two different groups so that the teacher can choose the stronger one for each set. While deciding and choosing the best option for each set, the teacher provides a short evaluation of the grammaticality of the combined sentences. She doesn't explain the grammatical points in detail but she points out any errors in the sentences and tells the students that it is a good activity to build up their grammar and language structures.

Activity 4: Group Debate Activity (Lesson II/Part II)

The teacher starts with brainstorming on “doing a debate” and elicits some vocabulary and language structures from students that are related to the task and that they may use during the debate. With questions, she sets the stage for a classroom debate and introduces the two sides of file sharing: “losers” being the music industry and the artists and “users” being the people who download music without paying for it. She assigns a side for each group and then distributes a sheet to each table that has some points to help students develop their argument for their group. The groups, within the allotted time, build on their discussion and argument helped by the sheet distributed in order to be more persuasive. Then, each group is merged with another group that has the opposite side. At the beginning of the discussion, a member from each side makes the opening statement and represents the side of the group. Then, the groups have turns to discuss their points. At the end, again a member from each side makes the final stance for the group. At the very end of the debate, Ss are asked to come up with some solutions to the problems that the teacher identifies related to the topic in general. All the groups complete the task. So, the students are taught the idea of how to run a civil and convincing debate and come to a “compromise” at the end. Also, the teacher wraps the task up by reflecting on some of the vocabulary items that she heard from students. She briefly focuses on the correct use of those lexical bundles with the class.

Activity 5: Discussion of the Survey Results (Lesson III/Part I)

The teacher brings the results of the survey (the students answered the survey that they had prepared in the previous lessons) and distributes the reports to each table. The

students are asked to go through the reports in groups and look for anything interesting, surprising, anticipated or related to what they have been learning about the topic. Before, the groups review the results at their tables, they look at some of the answers together as a class and the teacher demonstrates how to review the results and come to conclusions. Then, she asks the students to come up with at least two questions that are related in some ways and make relevant claims about them. While the groups are working, the teacher walks around and helps them by answering the questions and clarifying the instructions. At the end of the activity the teacher calls “a time out” and reflects on some of the sentences and vocabularies that she heard from students while walking around. She puts them on the board and works on them with the students by eliciting more of those structures from the students.

Activity 6: Report Writing (Lesson III/Part II)

The teacher distributes an example of literature review of a research article. She introduces the idea of “doing a research” and then she points out the smiley faces on the text that she put after each research being referred by the authors. She draws the attention to Ss own survey and tells the students that they actually did a small scale research together and they can write a report on what they have found. She then focuses on “writing a report” by eliciting some key elements of writing a report from the students. By prompting the students, the teacher lays out the format of a report on the board and discusses how to order each section of the report. Then, the teacher asks students to write a brief report on their survey following the format they generated together. By then, the teacher introduces some lexical bundles and expressions (such as reporting verbs,

conjunctions etc.) that are commonly used in academic writing. She writes them on the board and asks students to note them down as they will need those lexical bundles while they are writing their reports. Ss start writing the report in class and they work in small groups or pairs (depending on the seating) but as they run out of time, they are asked to finish their reports at home as homework.

2. Etic and Emic Analysis of the Classes

This section first provides an “etic” or outsider’s analysis of the activities according to a list of characteristics of or criteria for CLT taken from the literature (see Chapter I). Then, the activities are analyzed from an “emic” or insider’s point of view – the view of the actual teacher’s who taught the class. The purpose in this prior analysis of the activities is to provide a framework of the different evaluations of what is considered in and out of CLT. By so doing, it is aimed to shed some light on the certain manners of each RT in applying the communicativeness criteria on the activities, which will be given in the subsequent section.

In the tables below, each criterion is given on the left column and each activity (Act.) is evaluated separately either the tick mark (\checkmark) meaning the criteria is fulfilled or the cross mark (X) meaning that it is not. The marks are put in the cell together where the distinction is not clear. The purpose of this section is to provide the reader with two different assessments of the class in terms of its communicativeness, which will serve the purpose of a springboard for making sense of the participant teachers’ interpretations of the activities. It also shows how the interpretations and conceptions of CLT may differ from what has been considered as communicative in the literature.

Etic Analysis:

	Act.1	Act.2	Act.3	Act.4	Act.5	Act.6
Focus on authentic and contextualized interaction (not staged, manipulated, predetermined)	√	X	X	√X	√	X
Focus on meaning not on structure	X	√	X	√	√	X
Grammar and vocabulary situated within the activities without any deliberate focus	X	NA	X	√	√	X
Teacher as facilitator, not as transmitter of knowledge	√	√	√	√	√	X
No focus on error correction	X	√	X	√	√	√
Culturally and linguistically authentic resources	√	X	X	√	√	√
Use of group work	√	√	√	√	√	√

Table 4.1 *Etic analysis of the activities*

The first thing to be highlighted is the fact that the evaluation of the activities based on the criteria taken from the theory (even though the list is prepared carefully and in harmony with different conceptions of CLT) can hardly be done without any ambiguity. The source of this fuzziness is the mismatch between the static and prototypical principles that are laid out in theory and the dynamic nature of the classroom practice. In fact, the “set in stone” characteristics of CLT are afflicted by indiscriminate use and attribution that they are given during different configurations of what communicative teaching is about. In a sense, the attempts to create the ideal method under the title of CLT render it unfeasible to realize them in a classroom. This rather superficial dichotomy between the theoretical premises and classroom practices of CLT

is evidenced and ironically reinforced by many empirical studies that are mentioned in the first Chapter.

In the present study, however, the focus is precisely on the very dynamic interpretation and understanding of those prepackaged principles. Further it is believed that the actual teacher's purposes and intentions in the activities she implements provide more of an insider look and elucidation of the categories, which will be explained now.

Emic Analysis:

	Act.1	Act.2	Act.3	Act.4	Act.5	Act.6
Focus on authentic and contextualized interaction (not staged, manipulated, predetermined)	√	√X	√X	√X	√	√
Focus on meaning not on structure	X	√	√X	√	√	X
Grammar and vocabulary situated within the activities without any deliberate focus	√X	NA	√X	√	√	√
Teacher as facilitator, not as transmitter of knowledge	√	√	√	√	√	√
No focus on error correction	√	√	X	√	√	√
Culturally and linguistically authentic resources	√	√	√	√	√	√
Use of group work	√	√	√	√	√	√

Table 4.2 Emic analysis of the activities

It should be clear from the table that the teacher's answers bring together the two bipolar purviews of the statements together (e.g. authentic vs. staged, meaning vs. structure). For instance, according to the teacher (T), the interaction between the students can be both authentic and planned in the sense that the seeming manipulation or predetermination of an interaction may be part of the teacher's scaffolding, which is very

important in guiding and supporting students' learning. The fourth activity where students engaged in group debate according to the assigned roles and points exemplified the T's point. She states that "my hope was that if I gave them a few reminders about the content, then they would be able to elicit the language that would make it forceful or persuasive or argumentative".

Also, according to T the focus being on meaning or on structure is not necessarily one way or the other but the focus can also be on both. The sentence combining activity is a good example of this. T explains her point saying that:

The focus was on meaning and structure because my expectation was that the meaning would remain the same and so if they were deleting anything they weren't losing any meaning and if they were adding transition words it was not impacting the meaning in the wrong way. And yes there was definitely an emphasis on using the transitions because that is what we have been working on.

Another point emerging as a difference from the tables is "authenticity of the resources". Although there are various interpretations about what makes materials authentic in language teaching, the common assumption is that the authentic materials are those that are not designed or changed for pedagogic purposes but rather they are found outside of the classroom in real life. The most typical examples of authentic materials are newspapers, magazines, movies, TV shows etc. According to the teacher, however, cultural authenticity depends on whether or not the resources are appropriate and attuned to academic settings as the course is designed for English for Academic Purposes (EAP). She argues that the article that the students read was culturally authentic "in terms of the university culture because it was a resource from the database and linguistically authentic as it was academic English".

As a final point, when the teacher is asked how much she feels she teaches according to the principles of CLT, she states:

I don't go into every class 'Oh I am going to be a communicative teacher this year' or 'does this lesson plan fit under the guidelines of communicative teaching at all? No, I don't think like that at all ... It is just part of my knowledge now as a teacher ... somewhere in my brain I have this notion or understanding of what communicative teaching is and I have accepted what I believe in or what is important to me. And, that now has just become part of my teaching or who I am as a teacher. But I don't think I am exclusively communicative. I'd have to look up the definition of communicative teaching. But yeah I definitely focus on, as I am seen here, that I am more focused on facilitating communication rather than transmitting knowledge. Most of them know more than I do about many academic topics. What I am trying to do is facilitate their language learning... You have to be very creative and very adaptable as a teacher. So, I mean if I have planned something, an activity that is communicative and it doesn't work, then I would have to adapt or make changes, you know, depending on the students' moods, their level of comfort working in a group, the people that are working with, their first language. There are all kinds of elements that will affect their communication ... There is all kinds of things that you have to be able to adapt to all the time and just being sensitive to the students needs; their emotional needs as well as their linguistic needs.

As has been stated at the beginning of this section, with the etic and emic analysis of the activities it has been aimed to provide a cooperative framework of different conceptions of communicativeness in practice. Better still, this prior analysis generates a backdrop for idiosyncratic assumptions and evaluations gathered from RTs about what is (un)communicative in a real classroom context, which is revealed to be filtered through the teachers' personal and practical understandings of the method.. Thus, this should be considered as an enriching aspect of the emergent type of research methodology employed in the present thesis.

3. Analysis of Respondent Teachers' Theoretical and Practical Knowledge

In this section, I discuss each participant one after another. I first present the “pilot case” of myself – referred to as Teacher H – and my own results of actually carrying out the same data elicitation as the other participants. Then I follow with the cases of the other five respondent teachers (referred to as Teachers A to E). In each case, the first part of the discussion for each teacher focuses on Phase 1 of the data collection process, i.e. the data collected prior to their viewing the videorecording -with the initial questionnaire, the survey, the follow-up interview and the participants' teaching philosophy documents- intended to elicit their theoretical knowledge *about* CLT as a language teaching method. The second part of the discussion for each teacher focuses on Phase 2 of the data collection process – i.e. while they were viewing the videorecording and afterwards –with the questionnaires completed for each video and the interviews done after each questionnaire- intended to elicit their practical knowledge *of* teaching language communicatively.

Pilot Case: Teacher H

Phase 1

Teacher H, on the initial survey gives a rough account of how she has learned about CLT in theory. She states that the first time she learned about CLT was during her university study in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). She notes that in the methodology course she was introduced to all the language teaching methods, with a focus on CLT. The clearest memory, as she reports, was about the methodology course when they used to watch short educational clips by Larsen-Freeman for each method

prepared, where the teacher in the video demonstrated the application of the method in a simulated classroom context. The class then was told to discuss the positive and negative aspects of the method in question. She claims that all the methods except CLT were said to have drawbacks.

Her answers to the first questionnaire reveal the ideal premises of CLT that she states she has learned: the meaningful interaction, importance of tasks, group work, no deliberate focus on grammar or vocabulary, authentic resources etc. Also, in her teaching philosophy paper that she wrote in partial fulfillment of the methodology course, Teacher H favoured CLT for various reasons: the method highlights production of language in an authentic way in meaningful and student-fronted contexts; it promises the development of oral fluency as well as grammatical accuracy; it commits to the authentic purpose of language learning which deems real life activities and tasks as important. However, she mentions an “eclectic method” where she highlights the importance of grammar and vocabulary in addition to the oral production emphasized within CLT. It seems that although she states that they, as student teachers, had read and were informed about the “misconceptions” of CLT during their methodology courses, it is evident from her paper that her underlying impression about the place of grammar and structure in CLT was not very different from what has been “misinterpreted” about CLT.

The fact that Teacher H drew a distinction between her “eclectic method” and CLT, rather than conceiving of CLT as being possibly realized in the form of her eclectic method, may be accounted for by the following reasons. First of all, she reports that except for the simulated classrooms that addressed each method, there was no real-life example of CLT in practice for her to think of CLT as a way of organizing language

instruction to facilitate developing communicative competence. Her own experience in learning English, for instance provided the influence on the manner in which she interpreted the principles of CLT. She states that she was taught English in formulas and rules written on the blackboard, as well as through repetition drills that rendered the language utterly meaningless. Until high school, when the method of instruction changed somewhat, she informs that she hadn't considered English as a way of communicating with others, but rather a thorny and distressing part of her schooling. Thus, for her, although learning about CLT was claimed to be exciting, it was also difficult to reconcile what she learned with her existing conceptions, perceptions, knowledge, and interpretation of language and language learning/teaching.

The second reason, as she notes, is because the attempts to successfully incorporate all of the principles of CLT in practice were discouraging, as they seemed to indicate that such a task was impossible. In explaining her point, she refers to the "bar" that was set very high for communicative method of teaching during the practice-oriented courses in university. She reports that the student teachers in the program were introduced to different types of activities and tasks that could be used in communicative classes. They were also asked to prepare sample lesson plans and carry out those activities in a classroom setting with their peers. A discussion on the communicativeness, usefulness and successful implementation of the activities would be lead by the professor. She notifies that the bar of what was considered to be 'communicative' was set very high. That is, for an activity to be deemed communicative, many factors were evaluated: were all of the students speaking; did they pay attention to the task; was the class fun and lively; did students improve their level of language proficiency; were the materials

authentic and meaningful to the students; was the interaction between the students genuine. She finds this way of learning about the method CLT impeding.

Overall, Teacher H expressed mixed feelings about CLT as she learned about it theoretically in her studies. On the one hand, despite the fact that CLT brought a new and exciting definition for language learning/teaching, the principles of the method were said to be at total odds with the “practical reality” of the traditional culture of teaching language, which aroused questions as to how the method could penetrate existing ideas about what it means to teach, both from an individual and institutional perspective. On the other hand the idealistic view of CLT led to doubts that it could work in a real-life classroom. That is, misinterpretation concerning the promises of CLT – that it could guarantee native-like fluency in students, inevitably led to disappointment; thus, it was the unrealistic expectation of the method being the 'be all and end all' of teaching methods that contributed to it being dismissed.

Phase 2

Teacher H's mixed feelings about CLT as a method also emerged in her responses to the viewing of the recorded lesson, in which case she points out a “contradiction” between what is communicative and what is useful. She noted that at the end of one of the classes recorded for this study, the teacher taught the lesson made a short evaluation of it that the lesson was really 'communicative.' She stated that this seemed to her like an interesting claim, because while observing the class, she was still not clear on the meaning of 'communicative'. Upon viewing the videos and filling out the questionnaires, as she reports, she realized that although she didn't find all of the activities very

communicative, she found almost all of them very useful and meaningful for that context of teaching. So, she states that she needed to decide whether she should consider the seemingly uncommunicative activities as communicative, since she thinks they achieved the particular goal behind them, and similarly, whether she ought to consider those that were technically communicative as uncommunicative, as, for her, they did not serve the intended purpose.

She offers some examples from the classes to support the idea that the evaluation of the classrooms as “communicative” or “uncommunicative” requires more than a superficial assessment whether or not the criteria in the literature are fulfilled. She refers to certain points when the teacher was focusing on certain structures and vocabulary, where the teacher made an explicit distinction between the two words ‘convincing’ and ‘persuasive’ when drawing the students’ attention to two different ways of adjective formation, i.e. adding suffixes “ive” or “ing” to the verb. She notes that she would argue that this does not reflect the principles of CLT, and yet she at the same time recognizes that students needed to learn this for their upcoming tasks and assignments; and more importantly, she claims, it was evident the students were open to learning those lexical bundles, as they were adding new vocabulary to the list from their repertoire.

Conversely, according to her, another activity in which the teacher asked the students to discuss the questionnaire results, might be considered communicative as it included an authentic resource and a real-life situation that was not predetermined or staged, in which the students could interact and exchange ideas, She acknowledges that the activity didn’t generate as much discussion as it was supposed to, as the students needed more guidance and help to be able to come up with relevant relations and

conclusions about the questionnaire report. The actual teacher who taught the lesson also pointed this out stating that the task was above the students' level of academic and analytical skills and she was surprised with how much help students needed in order to complete the task.

Based on examples like this one, she argues that it needs to be rethought in assessing whether or not a particular act is “communicative” in practice. In other words, she claimed to have observed that something that is useful and functional may not by definition be considered communicative, while something that is neither useful nor functional can be ‘communicative’. This contradiction pointed by Teacher H between what the literature says about CLT, and what it actually means to teach language communicatively in practice lies at the heart of all the methodological discussions in language teaching (see Chapter II, Section 2) and it constitutes the reason to conduct the study in hand.

Finally, Teacher H, having observed the contradiction in the videos she watched, reflected on different factors that may have influenced her attempts to unpack this contradiction. The origin of her interest in the communicative aspect of language teaching/learning, she states, is her experience in Canada as a graduate student, during which time she says she realized the importance of being able to communicate in English, both for academic success and social integration. In addition, throughout her graduate study, she reports, she concentrated on (1) implementation of Turkish Communicative Oriented Curriculum initiatives; and (2) teacher perceptions about Communicative Language Teaching and communicative activities. These two concentrations are interrelated in that the success or failure of curriculum initiatives is related to how

teachers understand and bring them into their classrooms. Teacher H, as researcher in the present study and author of this thesis, notes that in reviewing the background literature, she was influenced by writings on the importance of teacher cognition, particularly in the postmethod era where the death of methods - and so CLT was proclaimed. As her current attempt to understand this contradiction, she points to the present study in hand.

Teacher A

Teacher A is currently doing her master's degree in Applied Linguistics with a focus on pragmatics, and specifically on speech acts.

Phase 1

There are two main points that emerged from her theoretical knowledge *about* CLT. Firstly, when asked directly about CLT, she listed its main principles the way they are listed in the literature and she indicated that she is fond of this method. Secondly, a more in-depth assessment of her responses reveals, based on her emphasis on particular features of CLT, that she has not limited herself to how the method has traditionally been defined and prescribed. The way she interprets the method, seems to be rooted in her language learning experience and her research interest, i.e. what she has been studying and reading in the field.

In the first two questionnaires and follow-up interviews her responses reflect what has been said about CLT in the literature. For example, she states that CLT has been put forward as a reaction to the methods privileging grammar and structure over the authentic use of language. She refers to the necessity of authentic materials, meaningful interaction among students, communicative activities and tasks, teacher as facilitator, etc. Also, she

describes the misconceptions about CLT as they are discussed in the literature. Yet, a closer analysis of her statements reveals some recurring patterns in her own understanding of CLT. For her, CLT is a way to fulfill two main aims of language learning which I'll elaborate upon below: communicative competence and the transfer of skills learned in the classroom to the real world.

For the first one, she defines communicative competence as “[learners’] ability to use the language functions in socially appropriate ways”. The necessity for real life-like interaction and use of “socially appropriate” language is emphasized in her arguments. In almost every discourse gathered from her, she stresses that students need to be supported to develop their language skills in order to “be active users of the language in real contexts” and “feel that it is real life-like (not absurd)”. On the point of transferability, she points out that language learning cannot be restricted to classrooms and that students must apply what they learn in the real world. She argues that “students are expected to create connections between the language taught in the classroom and the language used outside the classroom”. According to her, these two issues are crucial in learning a language and they can only be accomplished through the use of activities and tasks proposed in CLT.

When I asked her about the importance she places on these two aims of language teaching, namely developing “socially appropriate” language and facilitating real life-like interactions, she admits that she was not even aware that she focuses on those points. After reflecting on this realization, she attributes two potential reasons to explain why she, even unknowingly, focuses on these kinds of activities. Below, I will explain these factors one after another referring to the data gathered from her.

The first reason is that during her stays abroad, besides the educational programs she attended, the most valuable experience was having native speaker friends and participating in social events. She explains that the reason she went to study at Georgia State University in the U.S. this year, and the reason she attended a summer course four years ago in Brighton, England, was in large part because she wanted to improve her speaking skills.

The English we were learning and practicing at school in Turkey, it was academic English and when you start using that same English while just communicating with normal people, it doesn't sound right. And so part of my purpose going there was to improve my communicative competence in social context ... What I mean by socially awkwardness is what I told you, you say something but it just doesn't feel right. And as far as I know or as far as I remember communicative competence is one of the major points that CLT makes ... It is important and it should be in CLT. And well, teachers should somehow try to apply it in their classrooms.

The second factor is her educational background, and specifically her M.A. program where she concentrated on pragmatics and speech acts. In her thesis she compared speech acts across languages and explored whether they would be teachable in different languages and cultures. She argues that speech acts are teachable in English and that CLT supports her hypothesis. It is interesting that she finds CLT and pragmatics very related and claims that they inform each other. She admits that since she started to read more about pragmatics and speech acts, she has been looking at things from that perspective and she finds ways to relate things to what she has been studying. This disclosure of her may indicate the importance of the proximity and the currency of the factor that may have an influence in her understanding of CLT. In summary, her points she raises with regard to how language learning should be, and how CLT contributes to this, are tied in with her own experiences with language and language learning, as well as

her current schooling and occupation. In the next section I will discuss how she situates her understandings about CLT based on her observation of the recorded classroom lessons.

Phase 2

As has been stressed in the previous chapters as well as this one, there is always an interaction between teachers' theoretical knowledge and knowledge that is practically constructed, and related to situated action. Teacher A demonstrates this point when she reflects on Sentence Combining Activity she has watched. She states that:

The activity was very communicative. I would not consider the exercise so called 'sentence combining' as a communicative one ever. And I would think of it as an individual work and imagine it done in a noncommunicative way: students are combining the sentences and the teacher is checking them. But when I saw it done in a real classroom context I get to understand that an activity that might sound or feel noncommunicative can be turned into a communicative one.

There are two points that emerge from the quote above by Teacher A. As for the first point, referring to the interaction between theoretical and practical aspects of teacher knowledge, the quote explicates how Teacher A's "theoretical" understanding of a "communicative" activity was altered after viewing and reflecting on a practice carried out in an authentic environment. The second point is that although she claims during Phase 1 that she doesn't have a preconceived definition of CLT as she states that "I think of CLT as how it should be and it is true that you can make any activity communicative by your own way of implementing it", from her quote above, it seems as if she implicitly reveals a preconception of communicative activities as she reconstructs her knowledge as she expresses her reflections on the practice that she observed in the recorded lessons.

Another example of her constructing her practical knowledge through the steps of the study is evident in our interview on the lessons she watched. The superficial distinction she initially makes between grammar and function and structure and meaning becomes increasingly blurred as she reflects on the videorecorded practice. That is, she focuses on the moments whenever the actual teacher integrates those seemingly dichotomous elements into her activities, and indicates a fondness for this approach:

I just loved the way she integrates grammar and vocabulary into her classes. To me, the most important thing in grammar or vocabulary teaching is the context. If they are given or integrated in a context then they are learned and remembered easily. Here the teacher uses elicitation, tries to trigger other words related to the context of the main activity, uses a mind map to activate their vocabulary and trigger it”.

She makes this point more explicit stating that she hadn’t even realized that she had developed a more “integrative and insightful” understanding *of* CLT until she participated in the current study and discussed it with the researcher. This demonstrates that even being a participant in this research study contributed to a change in and reconstruction of her Knowledge *about* and *of* CLT.

Teacher B

Teacher B has been teaching at a state school in Turkey for two years.

Phase 1

From the initial data gathered from Teacher B, she seemed already to have a more “practical” view about CLT. Even when asked about the implications of CLT for language learning and teaching, she focuses more on what is possible and what is not among what CLT proposes. For example, in the initial questionnaire (see Appendix A),

she is provided the phrase “grammar teaching & CLT” and asked to come up with a sentence that for her would accurately define them. In responding to this question, most of the teachers reflect on their view of the place of grammar in CLT. Teacher B's answer is interesting in that it reveals her understanding of what is feasible: “Although the main focus in CLT is not on grammar teaching, sometimes-especially when the level of the students is low, it is inevitable”.

In her answers, she reveals that her approach to CLT is grounded in her experience as a teacher at state schools, which may shed some light on how her “realistic” view about CLT has been developed. As an indicator of how her conception of CLT is rooted in the context where she teaches, she notes that, although she would prefer a CLT classroom to one that is more traditional, there are barriers, which inspires her to come up with her own ways of attempting to integrate CLT in her lessons. She lists various reasons related to the school she is teaching in to explain why she feels she cannot make use of most of the CLT principles in her classroom.

Firstly, the proficiency level of students in state schools is quite low, which makes it difficult for them to communicate in the target language. Furthermore, the curriculum she has to teach is intensive and inflexible, leaving no time for less structured games and activities. This is largely due to the nationwide tests that students need to write, which do not evaluate students' speaking skills but instead are comprised of multiple-choice questions that assess students' structural knowledge and reading comprehension. She explains that it is very challenging to teach in the target language, as sometimes the students do not understand her and she needs to switch to Turkish. Thus, she reflects

somewhat dejectedly that she cannot implement what she has learned at university about how language teaching should be.

To this end, she refers to the importance of “being challenged” as a teacher to incorporate CLT in her classroom as an important factor in searching for a balance between what the teacher perceives of the “ideal” – the theoretical principles of CLT- and how s/he actually teaches in practice. Although she reflects with some frustration on the fact that context in which she teaches does not allow her to use much CLT and although she has to sacrifice what she believes while preparing her classes, she finds it important to challenge herself as much as possible to make CLT a part of her classroom. And she finds that even her minimal capacity to incorporate CLT has had an impact on the perceptions of her students and even those of their parents with regard to what language and language learning should be. She notifies that this, in turn, adds to her faith and ambition in carrying her attempts to incorporate some aspects of CLT into her lessons within all the contextual factors she has to deal with.

She continues her positive considerations about her position at the state school noting that it is very rewarding in that everyday is a struggle to find ways to integrate some CLT activities into her teaching. She mentions that, for instance, the first thing she changed in the classroom is the traditional greeting that takes place at the beginning of each class. She chooses instead to show the students new ways to greet each other and the teacher. She also attempts to enrich the classroom environment with some weather condition boards and vocabulary cards posted on the walls which, she claims, create some communication in classroom. Finally, she encourages students to speak in the target language whenever possible.

Phase 2

From her evaluations of the videotaped lessons, it may again be inferred that she finds contextual factors of where the teaching is implemented as very important. For her context is a crucial determinant for what is communicative and what is not. She begins her evaluation of the videotaped lessons, explaining that had she observed these classes and reflected upon them when she was at university, her answers would have been much different and she would have labeled most of them as uncommunicative. She recites the micro teaching activities and presentations they had in methodology courses she has taken at university. As pointed out in the Pilot Case, she also notes that the criteria for assessing the communicativeness of the activities were set very high, She is of the opinion that the context was being ignored because they were simulations and not real classrooms, which rendered it impossible, according to her, to evaluate what is realistic and what is not in those evaluations.

In the recorded videos, she concentrates mostly on the contextual factors that she believes are affecting the teacher's instructional decisions. Thus, she assesses the activities from the perspective of what is plausible for the level, age and needs of the students as well as with regard to the topic and the aims of the lesson. There are moments in the video when the teacher interrupts the activities to turn students' attention to and engage them in a discussion of some structure and vocabulary issues. Teacher B finds these sessions very effective and she argues that:

As regards to communicative aspects, integration of vocabulary expressions and structures are necessary and inevitable. To communicate fluently, we need to know and use them correctly. The teacher tried to integrate all these elements in the activity. She tried to elicit words related to the topic in question and she focused on similarities and differences between words and so forth. I liked the

way that while debating on the topic, she focused on the language use implicitly without distracting [students] from the topic in question.

She notes that some of the activities in the videos, such as the one mentioned above, may not work in her own classroom because all of her students speak Turkish as their first language and whenever they are challenged they tend to revert to Turkish. She observes that the students in the video are good at being challenged and as English is the only medium they can communicate, they have to use it whatsoever. Also, she points out that she found some aspects of the teaching in the videos she watched “boring” or uninteresting, but acknowledges that this may be due to the students’ age and level, and the context. Below, she explicates her point.

She didn’t have an interesting start, but she tried to elicit some ideas or answers from the students at the beginning. Actually, I don’t argue that there should always be an interesting start or warm-up and from my teaching experience too, it is not always possible”.

Following from this observation I ask her whether or not beginning a lesson in an interesting and lively manner is deemed important according to CLT principles. She responds that it is more essential for a teacher to come up with his/her view of what is useful and what is important, as opposed to strictly following prescribed methods. She explains that after a certain time, the teacher has to “leave” what theory and CLT argues and s/he has to focus on “his/her [own] theory of CLT”. In this sense, pursuant to the point made at the beginning, Teacher B points out that she would probably again have a different view of the classes after another few years of teaching as she will have developed further insights about the best ways of making a class communicative. This view offers further evidence of the ongoing and dynamic nature of teacher Knowledge.

Teacher C

Teacher C is currently doing her master's degree in Speech Pathology at the University of Illinois, in the U.S., which she will complete in two years.

Phase 1

Teacher C explains, right at the beginning, that due to her current career path, it has been two years since she was last exposed to CLT and hence does not remember much about it. Yet in fact, in her responses she reveals extensive knowledge, perhaps the most displayed among all participants. Her answers seem to reveal more of the “true” theoretical knowledge *about* CLT, as her knowledge about CLT is not colored much with experiential interpretations or understandings because of her shift to a fairly different professional and research path. As it is highlighted in Chapter II, however, that teachers' knowledge, although it may be developed and retained “truly theoretically”, may have shadings of personal aspects (“beliefs”) as well as consensual ones (“knowledge”). Related to this point, she refers to certain personal factors such as her own language learning experience and her current studies, which seem to have influenced her understanding of CLT. Below, I will discuss each of these points.

First of all, her description of CLT seems to closely resemble the definition that is found in the literature. She defines CLT as “the method where language is not only seen as the end/ ultimate goal, but it is more like a means to communicate the ideas, needs or experiences”. She stresses the necessity of the incidental, implicit and inductive ways of language learning. To this end, she gives high importance to authentic and meaningful communication among students. In this sense, she considers ‘tasks’, which were not

mentioned heavily before by other participants, as an indispensable part of CLT. She notes that:

Students are assigned to accomplish tasks, which require them to interact with others in order to complete the task. As they are communicating with others in a meaningful way (not for the sake of learning the language but using the language as a MEANS to complete the task) they get a chance to internalize the importance and meaning of communicating in a language different from their mother tongue.

When I ask her about the role of grammar in language teaching, she notes that she is doubtful about whether grammar should be integrated into the activities at all. She is of the opinion that grammar and vocabulary are byproducts of communicative activities, which is nearly identical to what the literature states about the point. She finds authenticity and meaning more important than grammatical accuracy. Thus, she identifies herself as a “big fan of use of authentic and meaningful activities in language classrooms” and she attributes this to CLT.

As an indication of the personal account of her theoretical knowledge, she refers to two factors; the first one of them being her own language learning experience that she refers to in our discussion of what it means to learn language in an 'authentic' way. She points that CLT has to do with the learner as much as, if not more than the teacher. Although she was taught English according to very traditional methods, with a focus on grammar and structure, as opposed to via authentic or meaningful communication, she attributes her proficiency in English to the different activities she engaged in outside the classroom. She explains that as the city where she grew up and studied was filled every summer with foreigners from all over the world, she had plenty of opportunities to practice her English. She explains she used to make foreign friends during the summer and practice her English with them. Thus, for her CLT is an attempt to bring these outside

classroom-situations to the classroom via different methods and techniques. Clearly, her own experience in her hometown and the initiative she took to develop her language skills has had an impact on how she frames communicative language teaching.

As the second factor, she discusses how her exposure to readings in her current field of study has shaped her ideas *about* CLT. Having taken courses on brain and language during her bachelor's degree, and based on her present concentration on speech disorders, she points out the importance of brain function in learning a language and argues that the ways the brain is wired and the networks formed are significant. She refers to the different types of memory and how information is stored in different memories. She lists them as explicit memory, implicit memory, declarative memory, and procedural memory, and claims that these should also be taken into consideration in language teaching.

When students are presented the grammar rules of the target language and are asked to use them in unauthentic contexts, the human cognition takes the material as factual information- just like the material from history or geography classes (e.g. The date of Waterloo War, or How cumulonimbus formation occurs?) and they store the information in a similar way. Therefore, in theory, they would swear that they know all about Present Simple Tense, or Past Perfect Tense, which they certainly might, and when it comes to communication, they experience a huge failure. On the other hand, when they use the target language as the MEANS to communicate, they learn the rules, incidentally, and may not even recite what the rules of Passive Voice were, which is the natural way of language learning, as even the native speakers have difficulty telling the rules of their languages.

Phase 2

Teacher C tends to base her evaluations of the activities on her criteria that are very similar to the criteria in the literature. It may probably because she has been neither experiencing any language teaching nor reading about the issues of language teaching

since she shifted her career path to a fairly different area that she retains what she learned in her undergraduate study to a large extent. Although she finds most of the activities she views as suitable in the contexts they are used, she tends to be quite critical about the communicativeness of the activities. She does not hesitate to openly point out that some of them do not meet the criteria of CLT. For instance, according to her, the activity on developing a questionnaire is uncommunicative “because there is an explicit emphasis on the structural formation of the questionnaire questions”. She explains her understanding of communicativeness stating that “[j]ust because you make students discuss the grammar of sentences does not make it communicative in CLT framework. Grammar should be understood implicitly, more indirect emphasis would have fitted in the CLT framework better”. Also, she criticizes the sessions where the teacher calls timeout to elicit some discussion of vocabulary and structure from the students and introduce new concepts to them related to the theme they study.

Even though the students are coming up with the vocabulary, the teacher has a major role, and the way she is presenting vocabulary is very traditional- very explicit. Also she is making the grammar structures very explicit, too (convincing- ING, persuasive- IVE). In an ideal CLT classroom, students would figure out these rules implicitly, by being exposed to them in the class, via reading materials, discussions, and activities.

On the other hand, as mentioned above in Phase 1, her theoretical knowledge also seems to be shaped by her personal experience. This point is revealed in Phase 2 too, since when she evaluates the communicativeness of actual practices, her current involvement in the field of speech pathology emerges as a factor that seems to have an influence on her assessments. This adds support to the importance of the proximity and currency of the experience in affecting teacher’s understanding of CLT (refer to Teacher 2). As an indication of this, she explains what she means by 'communicative activity'

offering some examples from the therapy sessions she conducted with clients during her clinic training, where the professor gives a number of materials to the student pathologists and asks them to prepare some activities to encourage clients to speak. She explains that in order to diagnose the disorder in the client's speech, the activities must generate continuous, sustained speech.

For instance, she offers an interesting example from social skills therapy she has carried out with a group of clients. In this context she needs to prompt the clients to speak and interact around the goals of the session. She explains that she cannot teach them how to tell jokes appropriately, for instance, but she can guide and facilitate the group to tell as many jokes as possible during the sessions. She considers the classroom very similar to a therapy session and even anticipates seeing what she has been doing in her therapies in the language classroom she watches on the video. However, instead she observes many differences, which may be speculate as the reason why she didn't find most of them communicative. The quote below about Developing a Questionnaire activity explains this point further.

Teacher is the boss. They depend on her too much. They waited for her to come and approve their questions, until then, they did not interact as much w/in their groups. I don't find her monitoring or facilitating as enhancing the communication between the group members. Just b/c the teacher does not directly tell the correct answer first, but uses a Socratic method- asking questions for them to get to the correct answer (e.g. do you think we would wanna find out xx? How do you think we ask that?) does not make the lesson very communicative.

Lastly, it is noteworthy to point to the activities in the videos that Teacher C finds communicative in order to clarify further what she understands from "very" and "less" communicative. As would be expected, she is fond of the ones where students engage in

group discussions. Below, she discusses the Group Debate Activity in terms of its communicativeness.

The teacher is definitely the facilitator. The activity is a great one that requires the students to communicate with each other and use the language meaningfully. The students were definitely engaged in a good discussion in order to come up with a good final argument about the discussion topic in hand. The students from different groups came together and discussed their stance in the discussion. The activity in general appeared very communicative. The teacher ended the activity by a wrap up of grammar and vocabulary- although it seemed a less communicative way of ending the activity, it was very relevant, because she made very specific references to the context and the discussions made in each group.

Teacher D

Teacher D is currently teaching at a private school in Turkey.

Phase 1

In the data gathered from her, she initially indicates that she is not quite sure about what CLT is. She claims that CLT does not seem to have a focus and that is why she can never be certain about what exactly it is proposing and how it can be implemented. However, when she starts talking about the method, it is evident that she is quite knowledgeable about it. That is, she can tell premises of it to a good extent. The reason why she states that she doesn't know much about the method may be related to some ideas she expresses that seem to contradict the optimistic ideas she holds about the method. Below, I explain these points in detail. She articulates her lack of knowledge about CLT explicitly below:

Personally, I don't really remember much about CLT from my methodology classes. When you ask me the definition of direct method, audio-lingual method or grammar translation I would easily explain. However, what CLT really is is vague in my mind. I can just talk about my perceptions if this is what you need.

However, she can discuss the essential characteristics of the method such as teacher as facilitator, meaningful and real-life interaction among students, use of authentic materials, students as active learners, focus on group and pair work, contextualized grammar, and vocabulary, etc. She also mentions different activities to be used in communicative classrooms. She refers to Vygotsky and argues that:

Learning happens with social interaction as Vygotsky says. Traditionally we think that children's minds are blank and we, as teachers, have to fill them in with our knowledge. However, the main purpose should be making this information meaningful and useful in their minds. Language becomes meaningful when it is used. With the use of communicative activities teacher creates a reason for the students to communicate.

She also relates the method to what she has been learning in the creative drama leadership courses she started to take this year. In the quote below, she explains how her interest in drama has broadened her approach to language teaching, and how it relates to CLT.

One of the first articles on why it is helpful to use drama as a teaching method was its being based on the interaction between the participants and this interaction is based on their previous life experiences. 'Experience is the impression caused by the individual's interaction with other individuals, the environments around him. Learning based on experiences shows that education is not dependent on a certain period of time, a plan or a place and it provides permanent learning in the individual and active participation is required for this' says Adiguzel in his article. As he clearly stated, this interaction makes the learning meaningful and permanent. This is what makes CLT useful and valuable.

Although she seems to have a lot to say about CLT and its contribution to the language classroom, she notes some ideas that seems to contradict to her optimistic ideas about CLT. She states that despite the fact that communicative and interactive activities are useful for students, it is always hard to manage the groups and classroom as a whole during those activities. She further argues that some of the students may sometimes be reluctant to participate in the group activity or they may switch to Turkish whenever they

feel they are not being watched. In other words, she considers the application of CLT easier said than done and argues that unless the conditions and the proficiency level of the students are ideal, the fulfillment of this method is almost unachievable.

These seemingly conflicting opinions she has about the method are more obvious when she refers to her experience as a language teaching. Although she teaches at a private school, she explains that her students' low level of proficiency in English hinders her ability to employ communicative aspects in her classroom; during the interview she expresses much frustration over not being able to do what she believes in as a teacher. Because her lessons do not embody CLT according to the standards stipulated in the theory, she is not satisfied with how she has been teaching English, and struggles with this ever present conflict. She is considering going back to university to pursue a master's degree in the near future. She mentioned during the interview that she is looking forward to reading the results of the present study in the hope of gaining a clearer idea about CLT. In the next section, in which I discuss her assessment of the video-recorded classes in terms of their degree of communicativeness, it becomes apparent from her own data that there is not only one clear and definitive way of characterizing and understanding CLT, nor a single way of applying it in the classroom.

Phase 2

The conflicting opinions of Teacher D about the method CLT and its application in language classrooms are disclosed once more in Phase 2. Teacher D is quite critical of the activities shown in the video, and she does not consider most of them to be communicative. One such activity is the session in which the teacher worked with

students on some grammar and vocabulary structures in a contextualized way. The conflict becomes more apparent when she admits that these sessions are helpful in that students come up with different phrases and new vocabulary and they use them in the subsequent activities. But, she further argues that “I don’t think it is very communicative though; It is something what I always do in my lessons”. The teacher, according to how she defines CLT, does not consider the teaching she has carried out in the last year to be communicative; and as she observes similarities between her methods and those of the teacher in the video, hence she concludes that the lessons she observed were not communicative. Thus, the perception she has of herself seems to affect how she perceives the teacher and the activities in the video. This factor, namely the teacher’s perception of herself seems to add to her perplexity about the definition of CLT.

When we attempt to discuss the activity in terms of what is missing that renders it uncommunicative, she becomes even more confused, as she believes that she does not have a clear picture of CLT in her mind, and is therefore unable to distinguish what is communicative and what is not. I then try to challenge her by asking about her own understanding of communicativeness, forgetting the description given in the literature on CLT. She finds this difficult, admitting that she strives to implement its principles according to their strict definition. Thus, Teacher D reaches a metacognitive stage in her thinking, in which she becomes conscious of her own understanding of the method, stating “I think I am looking for an exact definition of it [CLT]”.

Of all the activities presented in the video, Teacher D found the first activity, *Developing a Questionnaire*, to be the most communicative, and she rated it a 3 (out of 4). She describes her rationale below:

The teacher briefly talked about the homework and answered students' questions if they had any. (There was just one.) She explained why they need to do that (choose questions and make them grammatical). That was great because it created a good reason for the students to complete the activity. She was the facilitator of the lesson. Students revised their friends' questions and asked their friends if the question was not clear. This obviously created some discussion among the students in a group. Then, they moved to different tables with their own questions and chose two out of four. They had a lot of discussion in that part. Even the teacher herself said: "Everyone is in good discussion so I shouldn't rush it."

This response reveals the abstract nature of CLT according to her own understanding of it. While she finds the activity effective, as discussed above, her rating indicates that she does not consider it to be "very communicative". When I ask her the reason, she explains that nothing can be really perfect and thus an activity that is deemed 'very communicative' must be exceptional. She is unable to think of an example of an activity that would be 'very communicative' when prompted, but explains that it should stand apart from what she has seen so far.

Teacher E

Teacher E is currently teaching at a private school in Turkey.

Phase 1

When initially questioned about her conceptions about CLT and communicative principles, a "balanced view of CLT" seems to emerge. That is, according to her responses, she does not favour any particular method or technique of language teaching over others. She considers CLT as a framework or guide to be adapted in order to maintain a productive and desired process of language learning and teaching. When asked about the characteristics of language instruction according to CLT, she lists the following: the meaningful nature of the classroom interaction; the contextual and

functional aspects of communication, the importance of authentic resources; the role of the teacher during the activities. Yet, she does not fail to acknowledge that “[t]here is no certain limit to the type of activities utilized in CLT”. For example, counter to traditional views of what constitutes a "communicative" activity, for her grammar and vocabulary can be taught in a manner that is “communicative”. She argues that “[h]aving a larger “kit of language forms” in hand helps the learners to be more expressive in the target language; therefore, grammar teaching should be a part of the curriculum in a CLT context”.

Another feature of her understanding of CLT, it may be argued, is that it is contextual; that is, for her, CLT must respond to students’ needs and tendencies, and to the characteristics of the classroom, which are always changing. For instance, she thinks that meaningful interaction among students, including the exchange of ideas and opinions is crucial since students like to express their stance toward an issue in front of their peers. She knows from experience that students love to assert themselves among their peers, which contributes to their intrinsic motivation to use the language as much as possible. She elaborates further on this point, offering some examples from what she has been doing with her own students.

My students found the last book we studied in my Intermediate English Main Course Class – *Walk Two Moons* by Sharon Creech - so gripping that we had such discussions when the students were too impatient to wait to say what they thought or ask about the question in their mind. When we finished studying the novel, they said they had a huge empty space in their heart now that we would not be studying it any more! That shows how motivated they were and how much they were into what we were doing.

It should, however, be noted that Teacher E acknowledges the importance of her teaching context, namely the school where she is now working, as a factor, which enables

her to think and teach according to the principles of CLT. The school, she states, has equipped her with critical knowledge and experience in teaching. She maintains that in this school, which is regarded as one of the most well established private schools in Turkey, the English language education program is based on the principles of CLT. She offers some examples from the curriculum and the lesson plans they run in their department to demonstrate this. She explains that every opportunity is provided to encourage students to function in the target language. She adds that the school endorses content-based language teaching and adapts it into their curriculum. For example, although she is working as an English teacher, she incorporates English Literature as a means of further inspiring students to develop their language proficiency. She emphasizes that this wealth of experience has shaped her views about how language teaching should be and how CLT can foster it. Referring to the quote above, she argues that most of the students she is working with have the resources and opportunities to become self-confident and assertive individuals. For her, it is very important to assess the social and psychosocial dynamics of the teaching context in order to be able to customize her teaching style.

There are various other factors that have contributed to her understanding of the CLT method. Notable among these is her previous language learning experience, in which, as she explains, she learned English in an “ideal” environment with various authentic resources, communicative activities and both native and nonnative language teachers. She is the only one among all of the participant teachers who learned a second language through means other than the traditional method of grammar-focused instruction.

Her current understandings of language teaching were also influenced by the numerous official and non-official language teaching opportunities, both during her formal teacher training internship and the informal voluntary teachings, she was exposed to during her university years. One of those experiences was teaching literature to native speakers of English in Iowa, USA for about two months. She looks back on it as a valuable experience as it gave her the chance to practice teaching in a context that she had not taught in before. Further, she was able to employ the techniques she had learned in a context where the purpose was not to teach language but content.

Although there are a number of factors that seem to have a positive impact on her conception of incorporating CLT in her teaching, Teacher E's teaching philosophy, which was written during her early university years, seems to reveal that she has always regarded as important the teacher's being sensitive and attentive to the psychological comfort and readiness of the students; there is a whole section in her philosophy devoted to this, entitled "*Dealing with the Feelings of Students*". This concern for students and their needs come from her dedication and devotion to being a good teacher. Since her childhood, she has always wanted to become an English teacher and has never considered any other profession. Her mother, who has never taken any English classes or studied in a formal setting, has a natural aptitude for learning languages, and is known for her exceptional speaking abilities among her daughters' friends and colleagues. Teacher E recognizes her mother's influence on the development of her passion for learning and teaching language, which she tries to instill in her own students. This touches upon the role of emotions in teacher cognition, an issue that has not yet been mentioned in this paper, but which the author wishes to highlight as an important area for further study.

Phase 2

As Teacher E's work setting is an “ideal” place to teach language communicatively, to “ideal” students who have every opportunity to succeed in a CLT environment, it was expected that her interpretations and evaluations of the activities presented in the video, informed by such a background, would be critical. Interestingly, her responses reveal that she finds almost all of the activities very communicative. Still she offers some suggestions for improvement noting that “you develop a critical eye after a certain time in teaching”. Despite some identified areas for improvement, Teacher E makes it very clear that she finds all of the activities effective means of fostering students' ability to function in the target language. I will now discuss some of the elements that she captures and highlights in her reflections on the practice she views as particularly good examples of CLT.

She considers the meaningful integration of grammar crucial, and finds the first activity a good example of how to teach structure through communicative methods:

In order to practice the correct question structure, [students] are preparing questions that should make sense. They have a meaningful context and they have a communicative purpose- the survey. The basic purpose is to practice a grammatical form, yet the students do not work on the form by drilling or working on questions out of context.

She also thinks that context is important for vocabulary acquisition. On this point, she refers to the sessions where the teacher takes some time out to discuss some vocabulary issues in relation to the topic and activity at hand. She notices that the teacher in the videos uses this technique quite often and she finds the way she does it very effective and communicative. She states that these sessions, where “[t]he teacher

integrates vocabulary work on the spot in context ... work[s] on the meaning of the words in the sentences they are used, and the meanings of some statements” are very useful for students to develop their vocabulary repertoire.

Another aspect Teacher E considers central is “the teacher as facilitator”. She notices that the teacher goes to each group and makes sure everyone understands what they are supposed to do and helps students when they have a question. She adds that the teacher contributes to the students’ motivation to communicate by scaffolding them through the task and not giving them the answers. For instance, she recalls that “after the teacher helps a student with his question to some extent, she tells him that the rest is what his peers can help him with”.

Lastly, she points out that CLT is not all about speaking or oral production but actually the integration of all skills and functions. She elaborates on this insight referring to the very last activity where students develop a report out of what they have done up to that time. She notes that:

As for the report writing, this, I believe is a great way to complement or end or follow up with the unit since we have seen the learners pretty active in terms of oral production so far in this unit through very communicative activities, and in this part of the unit they will find a chance to practice their writing skills in the context of the topic under study, which, I believe is essential, since a communicative language learning curriculum should support the improvement of all four skill since only this may help the learners improve their competence in the language. Thus, this part of the unit being a supplement to support the communicative unit, I still deem it very communicative.

4. Discussion

In this chapter, so far, I have discussed the case of each of the participant teachers separately, referring to their theoretical knowledge about CLT and their practical

understandings of it. Each case reveals the unique and dynamic factors that have shaped each teacher's perceptions and interpretations of CLT. Their responses are insightful and invaluable in the context of the literature on Language Teaching and Teacher Cognition and what has been written with regard to the current shift toward a postmethod era, as they demonstrate, that there is no single definition or way of approaching CLT.

However, when bringing together the results of the analysis of all of the participants, we can come up with both parallels and divergences between the respondents in terms of how their knowledge *about* and *of* CLT has been constructed. In this section, I bring together the major themes and recurring patterns that emerged from the data in an attempt to demonstrate how the dynamic interaction between different accounts of the teachers' knowledge about CLT inform us about the postmethod conception of "teaching language communicatively".

The theoretical framework in Chapter II presented two main areas of research in language teaching. The first is that of teacher cognition, and its central concept, teacher knowledge. The second is Language Teaching Methodology with a focus on the current account of Postmethod Pedagogy in Language Teaching that emerged as a manifestation of the importance of teachers' own interpretations of methods and language teaching in general. The analysis of the data of the participants in this study explores language teachers' different ways of knowing and, more specifically, to contextualize these different ways of knowing in relation to communicativeness in language teaching methodology.

The findings of the present study contribute support to the literature in both fields. Teacher knowledge is observed to be constructed and reconstructed within an on-going

and dynamic interaction between the ends of both clines: personal and consensual sources, and “theoretical knowledge in head” and “practical knowledge in action”, in which manner, knowledge can never be said to exist apart from the knower. And, the results of the study provide some illumination on why a post method conception of CLT is considered necessary in Language Teaching and how post method conception is constructed through these ongoing dynamic interactions in the cognitions of participant teachers.

In *Phase 1* of the study, it was my intention to explore what the teachers have learned and also retained about the method. As I have learned from the literature that knowledge, beliefs, and assumptions do not exist apart from each other, I purposely did not provide the participants with a set of characteristics to direct their responses. Instead, I asked them to offer their own ideas regarding the principles of CLT, and accordingly when discussing the method they did not draw exclusively from the theory that they have learned throughout their schooling, but referred to their own experiences and stories. As has been detailed for each participant above in the Results section, the teachers all refer to - almost “reciting” - characteristics of CLT as they have learned it from the literature during their studies. They retain this “abstract” knowledge when they discuss the concept of communicativeness in language teaching. However, there is an important element of their own personal beliefs that plays a role in each of their theoretical discussions: they each choose different aspects of communicativeness to emphasize. As well, they talk about ways of teaching communicatively that are more “balanced”, more “contextual” or more “realistic”.

For instance, for Teacher A, CLT should foster, in her own terms, “socially appropriate language” production while for Teacher B, who highlights the somewhat impractical aspects of the method in her school, CLT is for the most part considered as a way to shake the traditional view of language learning and create an awareness of the different ways of studying language from students’ perspective. For Teacher C, although CLT, as the name implies, is intended for teachers, it concerns the learner as much as, if not more than it does the teacher as she points that the learner plays the key role in taking the responsibility to develop his/her language competence. Teacher D relates the method to using drama in language teaching pointing out their common ground which is interaction. Teacher E, on the other hand, seems to present a more “balanced” and “contextualized” views of the method in the sense that she seems to avoid from making predisposed claims about the standard premises of CLT and rather draws the attention to the importance of the contextual factors –such as students’ needs, characteristics of classroom- that, she claims, CLT should respond to.

There were several factors that play a role in having them develop their theoretical knowledge *about* CLT, including the drama courses they had taken, the studies and readings they currently carry out, their thesis topics, the experience they gained abroad, the type of instruction they had received when learning English, the contextual factors of the school they currently teach in, their personality type, etc. The point to be noted about this list of factors is the range that includes different backgrounds of participant teachers.

In *Phase 2* of the study, when the respondent teachers produced more spontaneous reflections on practice while viewing the recordings, two points emerge as

important in regards to the teachers' developing their knowledge *of* CLT, which sheds light on how they construct their own conceptions of "teaching language communicatively".

Firstly, during Phase 2 of the data collection, a number of instances occur that demonstrate a dynamic and constant interaction between teachers' theoretical and practical knowledge. This interaction that occurs during their observations of the recorded practice allows the teachers to face some of their predispositions about the principles of CLT, and thereby it induces them to explicitly change and develop their theoretical knowledge they articulated in light of their reflections on the observed practice. Below, I explain these steps of the interaction by referring to some examples from the RTs.

Teacher A seems to disagree to base her understanding only on the predetermined principles of CLT and she sounds as if she doesn't hold any predisposition about the method. Yet, as explained in detail in the corresponding section, she doesn't conceal her surprise when she views a grammar focused "exercise", as she labels it, being implemented in a very communicative way. During the follow-up interview about that lesson, she explicates this interaction saying that:

Teacher A: Before watching the videos, I was still keeping using those terms, ... ok someone has asked me what CLT is and I would say 'Oh, teacher should be the facilitator, and the monitor, and the guide; and there should be some fluency, communication groupwork... But now I can make a real connection between the terms, the terminology and the actual practice.

Another example of the interaction is observed with Teacher C. In her theoretical understanding, she draws a lot from the literature about what CLT recommends for language classrooms. As explained in detail in the relevant section, she sounds quite

critical about some of the lessons she views. Yet, after viewing the first lesson and answering to the questionnaire, and participating in the follow-up interview, she took the initiative to ask to re-evaluate the lesson and re-answer the questionnaire. Since it is not part of the original data, I did not use this second version of her evaluation in my analysis. However, I was happy to let her do so. When I asked her about the reason, she stated that she began to realize that she was too “theoretical” and therefore too critical in her first evaluation of the lesson and wanted to reconsider her criteria. She changed her rating of the first activity in the lesson from 2- not very communicative to 3 - communicative although she left the rating for the second activity unchanged.

The second point deals with some factors that affect the RTs to build up their “own theory” of teaching language communicatively. This point, in fact, relates to the postmethod conceptions in language teaching in that it may contribute to the drives that lead the authors in the field to the realization of the importance of teacher perceptions in language teaching. One of the factors, in the case of Teacher B, may be argued as the contextual constraints that the teacher has to cope with. That is, in order Teacher B to be able to maintain a balance between the ideal premises of CLT and the contextual realities of the school, she seems to be compelled to develop a more realistic conception of CLT. Interestingly enough, Teacher E, who sounds as if she has the ideal context for CLT to be implemented in a form more closely connected to its theoretical criteria, also seems to develop her own theory of teaching language communicatively. Among her other teaching experiences, the contextual merits surrounding her teaching are said to provide her “a wealth of experience and expertise” she can get inspired to constantly re-form her own attitude of communicative teaching.

As another factor, the teachers' "noticing" seems to guide them to shape their understandings of communicative teaching. Teacher D mentions her frustrations about the fact that in her classrooms she cannot apply truly what she has learned important for communicative teaching. The tension between her theoretical knowledge with her actual practice –knowledge in (see Chapter II) makes her consider some other teaching or studying experience that she plans to realize in the near future.

Overall, the teachers' attempt to theorize "teaching language communicatively", as "opposed" to the method CLT, in their unique ways results in a more flexible and context-driven notion that teachers can adapt according to the various factors they go through. The most distinct feature of this standpoint in contrast to 'method-based' is that it does not possess predetermined characteristics that can be applied in every context. In the literature, yet, some authors (e.g., Savignon, 2007) attempt to relate everything that is functional to CLT and they argue that the notion CLT should be known an approach rather than a method.

However, due to its popular history as a method, better to put as a method that couldn't find its echo in classrooms, the method-based pedagogy behind CLT still interferes in teachers' ways of understanding communicative teaching, making it problematic in distinguishing the two versions of CLT. These explanations and arguments lead me to come up with a new notion termed Teaching Language Communicatively (TLC), which is different from CLT in that it addresses different conceptions and understandings of it from a postmethod pedagogy point of view.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

The results of this study argue for the importance of a postmethod conception of “teaching language communicatively”, in contrast to a more “method-based” conception of CLT that has existed in the literature and is evident in teacher education programs. A postmethod conception implies an interpreted, dynamic, interactive and practical construct that emerges in different ways in different contexts in the cognitions of different teachers. It can be considered as a form of teacher’s pedagogical competence in adjusting the strategies, activities and teaching opportunities specific to the characteristics of their particular teaching environment informed by and accorded with the theoretical background in the field

The static and abstract principles and characteristics of CLT may play a role in the interpretations that are made by different teachers in different contexts, but their competence is not judged by adherence to these characteristics, but rather by in light of their emerging practical understandings of teaching language communicatively. At the risk of creating another “theoretical” concept, I will posit the acronym TLC to refer to teaching language communicatively –the postmethod conception of teachers’ practical understandings, as emerging from the results of this thesis- as opposed to CLT –the theoretical method-based conception that the teachers in this study were exposed to during their teacher education programs. I understand, however, that as communicative approaches to teaching language first developed in the 1970s, there was also an attempt to keep them from falling into the status of a “method” (Woods, personal communication). The difference between then and now is our current constructivist understandings of the importance of teacher cognition and teacher interpretations in

creating classroom events: methodological principles are only one part of this creative process, teachers' own experiences of "practice" (whether teaching practice or experiences in other areas of their lives, and whether observed and reflected on as in this study, or actually carried out by the teachers) seem to be the crucial aspect of this interpretive process.

I acknowledge that I do not wish to define and describe certain tenets of the new concept that I introduce in this study. The reason is rooted in what I have attempted to discover with this study: we can't predict and predefine how teachers should be teaching language communicatively without referring to the cognitive and contextual background of the practice. The primary conclusion we can come to is that we can't come to a single absolute conclusion about the certain ways in which teachers *should* be teaching language communicatively. What remains significant is the need for deeper and further investigation in changing and developing conjectures about language teaching and teachers' perspectives of their own profession.

This study and the resulting concept should be seen as a step into this body of investigation. Rather than a packed set of suggestions about how and how not to teach language communicatively, the notion TLC addresses to the teacher educators who are left to teach methodology courses in teacher training programs ironically enough since the recent accounts in language teaching field started to support and advocate for postmethod, methodless or beyond method pedagogies. Putting forward another term while there is already abundance of terminology in the field may not be helpful if it is regarded as an ultimate product of the study carried out. Yet in fact, I consider it as a

beginning. Therefore, below I list what needs to be brought to the attention of further research to be conducted. More research should be undertaken to:

- examine language teacher knowledge more deeply and in relation with its array of components, which renders it possible to construct the notion TLC.
- seek for different ways of amending teacher-training programs so that they educate language teachers who are capable of developing their own TLC.

Limitations of the Study

I begin by describing the research limitations of the study. While this constitutes classroom-centered research in that a classroom context is utilized and focused in order to answer the research questions, it does not attempt to put forward a static picture of the dynamic nature of the classroom. Woods (1996) argues for, in traditional classroom-centered research “perceptions which an outsider observer can only get glimmerings of” (p. 18). Also, the study employs observation and interviewing as the main methods of data collection, which may impede the credibility of the study in that they are “designed to gather data that specifically address the research question” (Merriam, 1998, p. 112).

Furthermore, other than one - the researcher herself- participants do not physically observe the classroom but watch it on the videorecordings, which rendered it not possible for them to be involved in the dynamic atmosphere of the classroom. The duration of the observation is only 4.5 hours of filmed classroom teaching, spread out over two weeks of class time. As mentioned above, the classroom context that is made use of in this study is not the one that the participant teachers taught. The classes are taught by another teacher

and RTs are asked to reflect upon those classes. This may be seen as a limitation or as strength of the research as explained above.

Some steps were taken in order to minimize the potential impact of these limitations on the credibility of the study. First of all, the respondent teachers will reflect on and speculate about the classroom activities facilitated by ‘another teacher’, thus they are expected to be more visionary and spontaneous than they would be if they were the one who was videorecorded and watched. It is to say that, what teachers would be reasoning and speculating while talking over what they did in the classroom may not always be reflecting to their perception at the time of the action but may be at the time of ‘justification’. Woods (1996) emphasizes that “language teachers know a lot about themselves in language teaching situations, but although they have had the experiences, they may not have categorized and labeled them” (p. 27-28). Also, watching another teacher may generate some “hot spots” for the RTs, which may urge them to reflect more insightfully. This is argued above.

As for the generalizability of the results of the study, Denzin and Lincoln (2008) state, “[o]bjective reality can never be captured. We know a thing only through its representations.” For them, “qualitative researchers deploy a wide range of interconnected interpretive methods, always seeking better ways to make more understandable the worlds of experience they have studied” (p. 29). Pursuant to their claims, in this study I don’t attempt to confirm a discovered meaning but provide some additional interpretations of teacher knowledge within the context of postmethod conceptions in language teaching.

In addition to this, I do think that in what Woods (1996) terms the “evolving construction of an understanding” (p.35) is much more complex and intertwined than something that we can seek ways to make better understandings for, let alone the confirmation of. Thus, in the current study, multiple procedures of elicitation such as structured survey, indirect observation, questionnaire, unstructured interview, and analysis of participant documents, constituted an attempt to produce data in different contexts and modes so that the “construction of the understanding” becomes well-built.

As a concluding point, title of the 5th Chapter of the book *Naturalistic Inquiry* by Lincoln and Guba (1985) put it into words the idea that there is no question of objectivity, hence generalizability in qualitative study noting: “The only generalization is: There is no generalization” (p. 110). Therefore, this study does aim to make neither generalizations nor categorizations but it aims to take some initial steps into a better display of understanding teachers from an inner perspective.

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APPENDICES**Appendix A**

Initial Survey

- Phase 1 -

Thank you for participating in this initial survey within a study conducted by Hamide Cakir at School of Linguistics and Language Studies at Carleton University, under the supervision of Professor Devon Woods. If you have any questions regarding the completion of this questionnaire please contact me at +1-613-818-2179 or at hamide_cakir@carleton.ca

Please type your responses in the spaces provided, which will expand as you type

PART A. Background InformationName:Age:Gender:Educational Degree: (You can indicate the one that you are currently enrolled)

B.A in

M.A in

Other.....

Currently teaching at since.....

studyingat..... since

..... (Other)

*As a Learner of English Language*Level of English Language Proficiency: (Elementary/Intermediate/Advanced/Fully Proficient)

..... in reading:

..... in writing

..... in listening:

..... in speaking

How effective, useful and valuable was each experience for you to teach English? Why?

As a Teacher of English Language

List any experiences of teaching English that you have had so far

(You can include teacher training, volunteering, tutoring etc.)

Description	When?	Where?	How long?

How effective, useful and valuable was each experience for you to teach English? Why?

PART B: Communicative Classroom

How would you define a “communicative classroom”? (You can add metaphors, examples or anecdotes)

What are the essentials of a “communicative activity” for you?

What do you remember about the “Communicative Language Teaching” (CLT) method from your teacher education classes? (You don't have to write in terminology)

Which aspects of CLT method do you find *useful* and *valuable*?

Which ones did you/ would you/do you use or apply in your classroom? Why?

Appendix B

Questionnaire on CLT

-Phase 1-

Below are 10 sets of scrambled words/phrases that share the concept *Communicative Language Teaching* (CLT). By using the words/phrases provided, please come up with a sentence for each set that you would **strongly agree**. You can add any other concepts, phrases etc. as long as you make sure that you include the ones provided. You can write more than one sentence per set, if you think that it will make your point even clearer.

1. Teacher, native speaker, CLT
2. Group work, CLT
3. Grammar, teaching, CLT
4. Vocabulary, teaching, CLT
5. Oral production, CLT
6. Error, correct (ion), CLT, teacher, students
7. CLT, authentic materials, such as
8. Tasks, CLT, such as
9. Teacher, student, CLT, talk
10. Purpose, CLT, authentic

Appendix C

Questionnaire on the First Lesson

- Phase 2 -

FIRST CYCLE

Please watch the video-recording titled as “*PeggyHartwick3*”. While and/or after watching it, please answer the subsequent questions by following the instructions provided. Use the scale below when necessary.

- 1 – Noncommunicative
- 2 – Not very communicative
- 3 – Communicative
- 4 – Very communicative

I. Focus on the activity between the times 02.20-40.00

1. Can you rate the activity in terms of its communicativeness using the scale above? Please explain your decision briefly? You can reflect on the ways the teacher integrates **grammar** and **vocabulary** in the activity & **monitors** and **facilitates** the class, and the ways students work in **groups** & **communicate** among themselves.

II. Focus on the activity between the times 42.30-01.02.00

1. Although we couldn't watch the rest of the activity, it is a reading activity with some questions to be answered. Can you rate the activity in terms of its communicativeness using the scale above and explain your decision briefly? You can reflect on the way the teacher **starts** the activity and the **purpose** she uses the reading for.

Appendix D

Questionnaire on the Second Lesson

- Phase 2 -

SECOND CYCLE

Please watch the video-recording titled as “*PeggyHartwick1of2*”. While and/or after watching it, please answer the subsequent questions by following the instructions provided. Use the scale below when necessary.

- 1 – Noncommunicative
- 2 – Not very communicative
- 3 – Communicative
- 4 – Very communicative

I. Focus on the activity between the times 01.50-27.00

1. Can you rate the activity in terms of its communicativeness using the scale above? Please explain your decision briefly? You can reflect on the ways the teacher integrates **grammar** and **structure** in the activity & how she **monitors** and **facilitates** the groups.

II. Focus on the activity between the times 27.25-01.21.07

1. Can you rate the activity in terms of its communicativeness using the scale above? Please explain your decision briefly? You can reflect on the way the teacher handles the activity, monitors the groups, and **ends** the activity.

III. Focus on the parts between the times 27.55-30.15 & 01.21.20-22.40

1. What do you think about the teacher's integrating grammar and vocabulary (language use) into her classes?

Appendix E

Questionnaire on the Third Lesson

- Phase 2 -

THIRD CYCLE

Please watch the video-recording titled as “*PeggyHartwick2of2*”. While and/or after watching it, please answer the subsequent questions by following the instructions provided. Use the scale below when necessary.

- 1 – Noncommunicative
- 2 – Not very communicative
- 3 – Communicative
- 4 – Very communicative

I. Focus on the activity between the times 01.00-25.00

1. Using the scale above, can you rate teacher’s making use of the reports in terms of its communicativeness? Please explain your decision briefly? You can reflect on the ways the teacher **exemplifies** what students are supposed to do & how she **monitors** and **facilitates** the groups.

II. Focus on the activity between the times 30.00-1.03.00

1. What do you think the purpose of the activity is? How does she relate it to their work? How would you rate it in terms of the communicativeness aspects using the scale above? Please explain your decision briefly. You can reflect on the ways the teacher **leads** the activity and how she ends it.

III. Focus on the parts between the times 25.00-29.00

1. What do you think about the teacher's integrating language work (vocabulary, expressions, and structures) in this part in terms of the communicativeness aspects?



Appendix F

Ethics Certificate

Carleton University Research Office
 5th Floor Tory Building
 1125 Colonel By Drive
 Ottawa, ON K1S 5B6 Canada
 Tel: (613) 520-2516
 Fax: (613) 520-2521
www.carleton.ca/cu/research/curo/

Ethics Clearance Form

This is to certify that the Carleton University Research Ethics Board has examined the application for ethical clearance. The REB found the research project to meet appropriate ethical standards as outlined in the *Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans* and, the *Carleton University Policies and Procedures for the Ethical Conduct of Research*.

New clearance

Renewal of original clearance

Original date of clearance:

Date of clearance **5 November 2009**
 Researcher **Hamide Çakir**
 Status **M.A student**
 Department **School of Linguistics and Applied Languages**
 Supervisor **Professor Devon Woods**
 Title of project **Traces of Teacher Perceptions on the "Communicativeness" of ESL
 (English as a second Language) Classes: Implications for Language
 Teacher Education**

Clearance expires: **31 May 2010**

All researchers are governed by the following conditions:

Annual Status Report: You are required to submit an Annual Status Report to either renew clearance or close the file. Failure to submit the Annual Status Report will result in the immediate suspension of the project. Funded projects will have accounts suspended until the report is submitted and approved.

Changes to the project: Any changes to the project must be submitted to the Carleton University Research Ethics Board for approval. All changes must be approved prior to the continuance of the research.

Adverse events: Should any participant suffer adversely from their participation in the project you are required to report the matter to the Carleton University Research Ethics Board. You must submit a written record of the event and indicate what steps you have taken to resolve the situation.

Suspension or termination of clearance: Failure to conduct the research in accordance with the principles of the *Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans* and the *Carleton University Policies and Procedures for the Ethical Conduct of Research* may result in the suspension or termination of the research project.

 Leslie J. MacDonald-Hicks
 Research Ethics Board Coordinator
 For the Chair of the Carleton University Research Ethics Board
 Prof. Antonio Gualtieri