

**EXPLORING THE INTERACTIVE AND
EVALUATIVE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS
OF ELT TEACHERS: A MULTIPLE CASE
STUDY**

PhD DISSERTATION

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JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN ETKİLEŞİMLİ VE DEĞERLENDİRİCİ KARAR VERME SÜRECİ: ÇOKLU BİR VAKA ÇALIŞMASI

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Bu çalışma öğretmenlerin etkileşimli ve değerlendirici kararlarının arkasındaki nedenleri incelemiştir. Katılımcılar İstanbul'un Asya ve Avrupa yakalarında bulunan iki özel İngilizce dil okulunda çalışan üç tane tecrübeli İngilizce öğretmeninden oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmada yorumlayıcı nitel yöntem kullanılmış ve veriler açık uçlu görüşmeler, yarı yapılandırılmış bire bir görüşmeler ve uyarıcı hatırlama yoluyla toplanmıştır. Üç katılımcının her biri dört ders anlatımı gerçekleştirmiş ve toplamda altı kategorinin ortaya çıktığı 125 etkileşimli karar vermiştir. Bu kategoriler öğretim ilkeleri, öğretim teknikleri, sınıf yönetimi, kritik olaylar, sebepsiz kararlar ve öğretmenlerin kişiliği olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Katılımcılar, bu çalışmada verilen toplam etkileşimli karar sayısı ile tutarsız olarak, yalnızca sekiz değerlendirme kararı vermiştir. Bu durum öğretmenlerin inançlarını değiştirmeye karşı dirençli olduklarını göstermektedir. Bu sekiz değerlendirme kararının tamamı öğretim ilkeleri kategorisine aittir. Bulgular, önceki öğrenme deneyimlerin, mesleki çalışmaların ve öğretim uygulamalarının katılımcıların etkileşimli kararlarını önemli ölçüde etkilediğini ancak bağlamsal faktörlerin bu konuda önemli bir rol oynamadığını göstermiştir. Katılımcıların öğretim sırasında meydana gelen bazı kritik olaylar nedeniyle birkaç etkileşimli karar aldıkları da saptanmıştır. Bu etkileşimli kararların arkasındaki nedenler, katılımcılar bunları dile getiremedikleri için belirlenememiştir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Değerlendirici kararlar, Etkileşimli kararlar, Karar verme, Öğretmen bilşi.

ABSTRACT

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PhD Program in English language Teaching

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This study examined the reasons behind teachers' interactive and evaluative decisions. The participants included three EFL in-service teachers working at two private English language schools located in Asian and European sides of Istanbul. This study employed the interpretive qualitative method and the data were collected through open-ended opinionnaires, semi-structured one-on-one interviews, and stimulus recalls. The three participants taught four lessons each and made 125 interactive decisions in total from which six categories emerged. These categories included teaching maxims and principles, teaching techniques, classroom management, critical incidents, no identifiable reason, and teachers' personality. The participants made only eight evaluative decisions which were inconsistent with the total number of interactive decisions identified in this study indicating teachers' resistance to change their beliefs. These eight evaluative decisions belonged only to one category which was teaching maxims and principles. The findings also showed that prior learning experiences, professional coursework, and teaching practices affected the participants' interactive decisions significantly; however, contextual factors did not play a significant role in this regard. The participants made a few interactive decisions in respect of some critical incidents which happened while the participants were teaching. This study has some implications for teachers, teacher educators, and school policy makers.

Keywords: Decision-making, Evaluative decisions, Interactive decisions, Teacher cognition.

To my Professor

Ali MERÇ

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This research was aimed to explore in depth the reasons behind teachers' interactive and evaluative decisions. I would like to thank those who helped me enormously to carry out this research.

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Davood SOURİ
Eskişehir 2022

ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

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

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

Davood SOURİ

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CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

In the last few decades, teachers' beliefs and cognitions and their effects on teaching have drawn researchers' attention and many studies have been conducted in this regard. In his review of teacher cognition, Borg (2003) referred to the term teacher cognition as "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching what teachers know, believe, and think (p. 81)". This chapter reviews the shift from behavioristic view to cognitive view in teaching. It also highlights the importance of teachers' beliefs and thoughts in teaching. The aim of the study as well as the research questions are then presented.

1.1. Background to the Study: A Shift from Behavioristic View to Cognitive View to Teachers

Due to the importance of learning languages, in particular leaning English language, EFL teachers, teacher trainers, and researchers have been investigating to find out better and more effective ways, strategies, and methods to teach English. It is no wonder that Second Language Teaching Education (SLTE) has drawn teachers' and teacher trainers' attention for years as an important way of ensuring effective teaching. It is commonly believed that effective teaching is tied closely to teaching behaviors. In respect of this view, teacher trainers have been training inexperienced and even experienced teachers for years to change their teaching behaviors since they believe that changing behaviors leads to better results. In this view, teaching behaviors are seen as causes and student learning is viewed as the effect. In the last few decades, SLTE has been dynamic and taken different shapes alongside with the studies and theories of English language teaching. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, it was believed that teachers needed to master the content which they were teaching. In order to convey the content to their learners, knowledge of teaching methodologies was an important requirement. Pre-service teachers' minds were viewed as empty vessels which could be filled with the required teaching methods and techniques for teaching. In fact, teachers were to transmit the knowledge which they had acquired to learners via some teaching techniques; therefore, learning depended upon teachers' behaviors as well as what they did in their classrooms. In a word, the focus of teaching was on its outcome.

Dunkin and Biddle (1974) came up with a model to study teaching. According to their model, referred to as process-product model, there were relationships between four variables, “presage variables: teachers’ personal characteristics and teacher-training experience, context variable: learners’ personal characteristics, process variables: interactions between teachers and learners in the classroom, and product variables: learning outcomes (p. 38)”. According to this model, teaching effectiveness would increase when teachers were given the findings and knowledge provided from research. The aim of this model was to study teachers’ and learners’ observable behaviors and their relationships to learners’ achievements. In this model, teachers’ teaching behaviors in the classrooms informed learning which was viewed as the product of teaching. The aim of process-product studies was mainly to investigate which of these behaviors could have more significant effect on product or learning outcome. However, this model did not take the teachers’ minds and cognitions into consideration.

In the late 1960s, scholars and researchers had already started to view teaching from a completely different perspective. Researchers aimed to investigate and probe teachers’ mental constructs in teaching. Teachers were no longer regarded as passive conduits. Teachers’ mental lives, first called by Walberg (1977), and their effects on teachers’ behaviors as well as decisions came into focus due to the developments in cognitive psychology. In fact, studies on teacher cognition initially were psychological rather than educational. Two important names in this regard were Shulman and Elstein (1975) who investigated psychological studies on decision making, judgment, and problem solving in relation to teaching. Shulman and Elstein (1975) focused on teachers’ thinking and mind. They viewed teachers as physicians in terms of their roles. According to them: “The teacher role can be conceptualized like a physician’s role-as an active clinical information processor involved in planning, anticipating, judging, diagnosing, prescribing, problem solving (Shulman & Elstein, 1975, p. 35)”.

Teachers were regarded as individuals who thought, planned, and made decisions in the classrooms, and their decisions were affected by a wide range of factors such as the context as well as the teachers' prior experience of learning which Lortie (1975) aptly named it “apprenticeship of observation”. Researchers had become more interested to investigate the reasons behind what teachers did in their classrooms rather than only examining their

teaching behaviors. Observing and investigating only teachers' behaviors were replaced with exploring the psychological reasons why they performed such behaviors. From then on, studies on teachers' thoughts and minds began to draw researchers' attention more and more. Researchers started to depart from traditional studies on teachers' behaviors and their effects on learning outcomes. They focused more on teachers' thoughts, planning decisions, spontaneous decisions as well as their judgments in the classrooms (e.g., Busch, 2010; Debreli, 2012; Özmen, 2012; Öztürk, 2015; Urmston, 2003). According to Clark and Yinger (1977) "a relatively new approach to the study of teaching assumes that what teachers do is reflected by what they think. This cognitive information processing approach is concerned with teacher judgment, decision making, and planning (p. 1)". They also reviewed four areas of teaching namely, teacher planning, teacher judgment, teacher interactive decision-making and teachers' implicit theories.

2. Teachers' Thought and Decision-Making

Shavelson and Stern (1981) in their review of the importance of teacher cognition in teaching claimed that teaching was a non-linear and a circular process in which so many factors and variables such as teachers' knowledge about their students as well as school policies were involved, and these factors could affect teachers' judgments and decisions. It should be noted that these decisions and judgments are based on teachers' behaviors and beliefs on teaching and learning. There are four factors which should be taken into consideration in order to understand teachers' behavior. First, the goals which teachers set for their lessons should be identified. Second, the nature of the instructional tasks and classroom environment, such as subject matters and extra class-pressures which confront teachers should be taken into account. Third, the capabilities of teachers to process information should be considered. Processing all of the information and all of the factors informing a specific situation in a given environment is difficult because the capacity of our memory, in particular our short-term memory, is limited. Therefore, teachers tend to process information step by step which takes time. The more predictable the environment, the easier processing will be for teachers since they can put the information in bigger abstract chunks which in turn helps them process the information faster. It should be noted that the prior information which is stored in teachers' long-term memory can also help teachers to process

information in short term memory faster. Upon confronting a new situation which requires spontaneous decisions, if teachers have prior information which is related to the new situation, they can process it faster and more efficiently. Teachers in general tend to interpret the environment and selectively process the information which is related to their goals. Therefore, teachers make decisions based on their own interpretations of the environment and implement their decisions based on their own psychological model of reality. Finally, the relationships among all the above-mentioned three factors should also be taken into consideration. To sum up, as Shavelson and Stern (1981) stated “the figure is circular in order to show that the conditions in order to inform a decision will, in all likelihood, be changed somewhat by the consequent behavior of the teacher (p. 460)”. Figure 1. 1 shows how information about students, instructional tasks, and classroom environment is integrated by teachers to make instructional decisions and judgments.

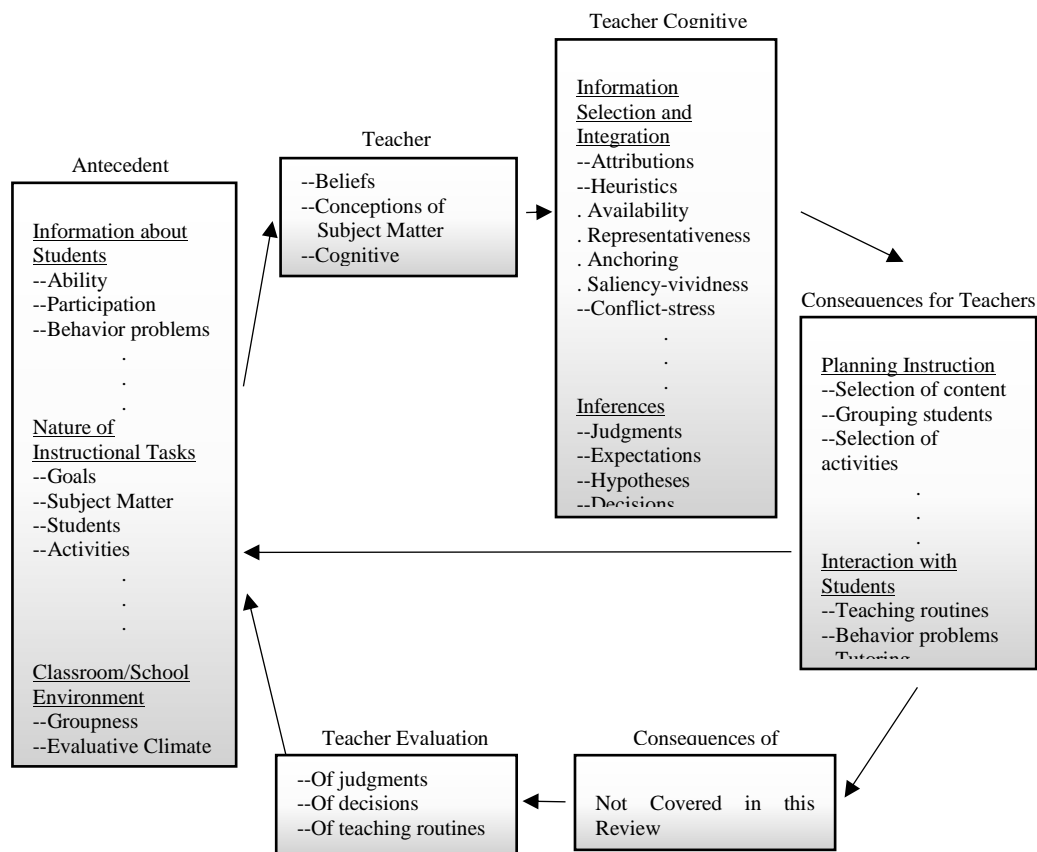


Figure 1.1. Overview of the domain of research on teachers' judgments, decisions and behavior (Shavelson & Stern, 1981, p. 11)

It should be noted that prior to the emergence of teacher cognition studies, teachers were trained to have a wide range of instructional options and routines in hands to choose in their classrooms; however, teacher cognition studies revealed that teachers were not that keen on choosing the most appropriate instructional routines when it came to making interactive- or spontaneous decisions. Instead, they preferred to stick to the routines even if they were not working well because they thought a new or alternative instructional routine would disrupt the flow of their lessons.

Shavelson and Stern (1981) in their review about teacher cognition discovered that teachers did not follow traditional planning design by setting their objectives and goals, and creating step-by-step procedures through which they could help their learners move towards the objectives and goals they had already set. Instead, they planned their lessons based on the activities which they had selected, and they tended to maintain the flow of the activities during their lessons through constant monitoring in order to create an interactive teaching atmosphere. As far as interactive teaching is concerned, students' participation in the selected activities makes their behavior predictable in general which makes it easier for teachers to notice when an activity is not going well. When teachers notice that an activity is not going well as planned, they are likely to make spontaneous or interactive decisions to handle the situation.

Based on the findings of the studies on interactive decision-making, Shavelson and Stern (1981) proposed a model, which indicated that teaching was the application of some routines which helped teachers seek for cues in learners' behaviors, and based on the cues, teachers decided if they needed to use alternatives for the established routines (See Figure 1.2). However, taking into account only learners' cues and behaviors as the sole factor and determinant of using alternative routines seemed to be insufficient since other variables such the curriculum of the school as well as school policies which could simply affect teachers' decisions and judgments were neglected by Shavelson and Stern's model (1981).

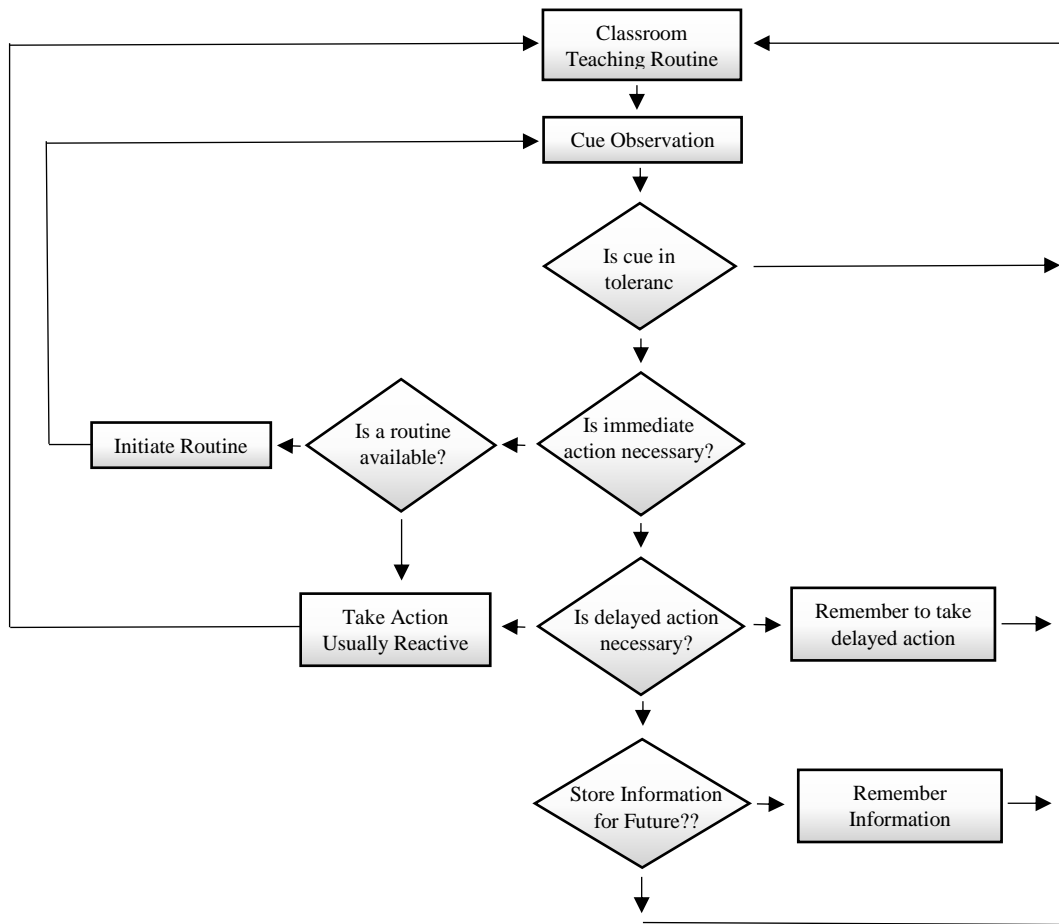


Figure 1.2. *A model of interactive decision-making (Shavelson & Stern, 1981, p. 48)*

The model of interactive decision-making by Shavelson and Stern (1981) influenced many researchers to further study teachers' interactive decision-making in relation to teacher cognition (e.g., Byra & Sherman, 1993; Johnson, 1992; Livingston & Borko, 1989; Nunan, 1992). Since learners' cues and behaviors are not the only reasons why teachers make interactive or spontaneous decisions in classrooms, and the existing models in the literature are insufficient to help researchers and teachers understand fully the complexity and dynamic of interactive decision-making process, more in-depth studies need to be carried out to explore the complexity of decision-making process and the factors informing it which in turn will make a contribution to teacher cognition.

1.3. Statement of Research Problem

Quite a large body of research regarding what teachers know, think, and believe has been carried out (e.g., Öztürk, 2015; Erkmen, 2014; Debreli, 2012; Borg, 2011; Inceçay, 2011; Peacock, 2001; Johnson, 1994). However, not much has been done to yield insights into the role of in-service teachers' cognitions in interactive decisions as well as evaluative decisions. Although researchers have aimed to find answers to questions such as how teachers come up with the interactive and the evaluative decisions they make during and after their lessons and what factors play a role in making these decisions, limited progress has been made and much more needs to be done to deepen our understanding in this regard. Besides, there is a paucity of research to be done to examine the role of Turkish EFL teachers' cognition in their interactive and evaluative decisions in a new context to deepen our understanding of the reasons behind their decisions.

Shavelson and Stern (1981) provided two justifications based on their review of research on teacher thinking. First, a behavioral model which does not take teachers' cognitions into account is incomplete, and it only views teachers as passive conduits whose roles are only to transmit knowledge to students via strategies and techniques which they have learned. Second, research concerning the role of teacher thinking in interactive and evaluative decision-making can illuminate, inform, and increase understanding of teachers, teacher trainers, and school policy makers of the reasons behind such decisions. Clark and Peterson (1986), after reviewing the studies on teachers' interactive decisions, concluded that the early studies on interactive decisions only focused on teachers' judgments about learners whereas studies done on teachers' interactive decisions in mid-1980s revealed that only focusing on teachers' judgments about learners was not enough and that other factors needed to be investigated as well.

While a large proportion of teacher's interactive decisions seem to occur as a result of a teacher's judgment about student behavior, a model that focuses only on student behavior as the antecedent of teacher interactive decision....does not accurately portray the processes involved in teacher interactive decision-making (Clark & Peterson, 1986, p. 277).

In-service teachers, teachers who have graduated from their universities and already are teaching, are more aware of their contextual limitations in which they are working. Moreover, they are more familiar with, students' needs, books, teaching strategies as well as

curriculum of the schools which they work for. This knowledge may inform the interactive decisions which they make in their classrooms. This knowledge, according to Berliner (1987), is gained from “thousands of hours of instruction, and tens of thousands of hours of interaction with students (p. 64)”. One of the most important justifications of studies on teaching cognition with regard to interactive and evaluative decisions is to gain more profound insights into the complex process of making these decisions which in turn may help teachers, teacher trainers and educators as well as researchers better understand the complexity and the range of possible reasons behind these decisions. Borg (1998) conducted an interpretive case study to investigate the role of personal pedagogical systems on instructional decisions with regard to teaching grammar. The participant was a 40 year-old native speaker of English with more than 15 years of teaching experience who was working as an English teacher in a school in Malta. Through an idiographic conceptual framework, he investigated the way the participant approach teaching grammar in his work. Through observations and semi-structured interviews, the data was collected. The analysis of the data revealed that the teacher’s instructional decisions regarding teaching grammar revolved around some factors including error analysis, reference to students’ L1, grammatical terminologies, explicit discussions of grammar rules, and practicing grammar. The findings also revealed the interaction of three factors namely, pedagogical system, educational and professional experiences, and the context of instruction affected the teacher’s cognition to make instructional decisions regarding teaching grammar.

Berliner (1987) believed that pre-service teachers, teachers with no formal teaching experience, compared to in-service teachers had less knowledge regarding the context in which they taught as well as the subject matter. Due to this, Berliner (1987) maintained that pre-service teachers “lack the repertoire of mental scripts and behavioral routines (p: 72)”.

Pre-service teachers may make different kinds of interactive decisions compared to in-service teachers due to the lack of routines at hand. Calderhead (1987) came to the conclusion that “teachers make few decisions in the classroom (p. 714)”. However, based on the literature review done by Clark and Peterson (1986), teachers make an interactive decision once in every two minutes on average. Bearing this high frequency in mind, exploring the reasons why teachers make interactive decisions can give more depth to our understanding of these decisions and in turn provide more detailed explanations of teacher cognition role in

interactive decisions which inform teaching practices in general. In the last two decades, studies on teachers' beliefs and cognitions in Turkey and other countries were mainly aimed to investigate the impact of teacher training programs' on teachers' teaching behaviors and beliefs (e.g., Borg, 2011; Dikilitaş, 2013; Özmen, 2012; Personn & Yigitoglu, 2015). The findings of these studies have been contradictory. Some findings revealed that training programs informed teachers' beliefs and cognitions and changed their teaching behaviors (e.g., Borg, 2011; Debreli, 2012; Dikilitaş, 2013; Özmen, 2012). However, some other findings showed that training programs' did not play significant roles in changing teachers' teaching behaviors and beliefs (e.g., Richter & Houde, 2017; Urmston, 2003). There is still a paucity of research in the literature about the role of teacher cognition in interactive and evaluative decision-making in new settings.

1.4. Aim of the Study and Research Questions

Using a qualitative approach, this study aims to deepen and contribute to our understanding of teacher cognition's role in making decisions in general and to find out the extent to which teacher cognition can influence EFL teachers' interactive and evaluative decisions in particular.

This study aims to explore answers for the following questions:

1. Which factors play roles in teachers' interactive as well as evaluative decisions?
2. How consistent are the teachers' interactive and evaluative decisions to their beliefs written in their teaching autobiography? In other words, do the teachers apply the rules they believe are right in their lessons?
3. On reflection in the stimulus recalls, would the teachers make the same or different interactive decisions if they were to teach the same lessons?

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter initially reviews the key terms on teachers' decisions, beliefs, and cognitions. Then, it provides an overview of the studies conducted on pre-service and in-service teachers' teaching cognitions and beliefs both in Turkey and outside Turkey.

2.1. Explanations and Definitions of the Terms

The detailed explanations and definitions of the terms and concepts related to teachers' cognitions and beliefs as well as their decisions prevent ambiguity and make it easier to understand the study.

2.1.1. Decision types

Teaching is a thinking process and teachers spend quite a lot of time thinking about what to teach and how to teach, including planning their lessons and choosing activities which fit their lessons well. Teachers need to think actively before, during and after their lessons. One of the most important challenges which teachers face constantly is decision making. Calderhead (1987) believed that the active thinking was a response to the behaviorist approach to language teaching laying emphasis on the importance of mastering a series of effective teaching behaviors. Teachers throughout their careers as active thinkers develop their own workable theories in teaching rather than just mastering some principles and theories of teaching English. Therefore, teaching is regarded as a dynamic process since active thinking is an indispensable part of it. During lessons, teachers are constantly confronted with options to select. Wilen, Ishler, Hutchison, and Kindsvatter (2000) referred to such options as decisions. The decisions which teachers make can be classified into three main categories.

Some decisions are made before a lesson. These are called planning decisions. Planning decisions can also be classified into two sub-categories; macro and micro plans. The former is related to the overall goals of a lesson and the latter is related to a day- to-day basis. Teachers tend to use both macro and micro plans to achieve their goals. In general, inexperienced teachers tend to make their plans on a day-to-day basis while more experienced teachers take the overall goals of a class into consideration. Setting objectives is also an

indispensable part of lesson plans. In other words, the foundation of a lesson plan would be shaky if the teacher's objectives were not set. Brindley (1984) conducted a study on teachers' use of objectives. The results revealed that the teachers set their objectives based on the language content, and what they wanted to do in their lessons.

Although planning decisions are great assistance to teachers to achieve their goals in their classrooms, unexpected situations can make teachers depart from their plans. Due to the unpredictable nature of lessons, teachers tend to make decisions spontaneously during their lessons. In the literature, such spontaneous decisions are called interactive decisions. Parker (1984) believed that teachers could not find their best ways to behave in their classes due to the dynamic nature of classes, and what they needed to do was to change their behaviors based on the unexpected situations which often arose in their classes. Clark and Yinger (1979), Shavelson and Stern (1981), and Clark and Peterson (1986) made an analogy of teaching and improvisation performance highlighting the important roles of interactive decisions in lessons. Shavelson and Stern (1981) labeled interactive decisions as “routines” which indicated moment-to-moment processes of teaching. When it comes to making an interactive decision, teachers need to take four things into consideration. First, they need to monitor their teaching and evaluate what is going on, and then based on this moment-to-moment evaluation new decisions, if required, should be made. Second, they should think of different courses of action. Third, they need to select one of them. Finally, they should evaluate their choice to see if they made an appropriate one. In a study conducted by Johnson (1992), six pre-service teachers' lessons were videotaped to be later analyzed in terms of their interactive decisions. The results revealed that the most frequent decisions made by the teachers were the ones which targeted student understanding at 37% while the least frequent ones were related to students' affective needs at only 6%.

The third type of decisions are class evaluative decisions. These are the decisions which teachers make once they have taught a lesson. Teachers' evaluative decisions and their beliefs on teaching are inextricably intertwined. In a study, Woods (1991) came to learn that teachers' beliefs about teaching as well as learning were related closely to their evaluative decisions. In another study which was conducted by Richards, Fong, and Giblin (1992) on decision makings of some teachers-in-training who aimed to get UCLES/RSA Certificate in English teaching in a ten-week time period, it was found that the teachers' evaluative

decisions changed throughout this time period. Initially, their evaluative decisions were more about effectiveness of their teaching techniques, then they gradually became more of holistic evaluation focusing on learners' participation and structuring of their lessons. Woods (1991) conducted a case study on two ESL teachers teaching in the same program. Although they were both teaching in the same program, they had different approaches towards teaching. One of them had a curriculum-based approach while the other one had a student-based approach. After the data was analyzed, it became evident that the evaluative decisions made by the teacher who had a curriculum-based approach were related more to the accomplishment of the planned curricular content and whether the learners had understood the materials, however, the second teacher's evaluative decisions revolved around whether the students' needs had been met during his lessons laying emphasis on the relationship between teacher's belief systems and the decisions they make.

It should be noted that in this study the term evaluative and reflective decisions mean the same and hence have been used interchangeably.

2.1.2. Maxims and Principles

Through observing lessons and speaking to teachers on how they teach their lessons, we may find out that teachers have their own principles or maxims which function as guides to make instructional choices in their professional career. These maxims and principles may stem from a wide variety of sources such as teachers' beliefs, knowledge, sociocultural backgrounds, and training programs. With regard to appropriate maxims, teachers' choices vary considerably since they have their own personal priorities. The selection and implication of maxims can affect teachers' practices which explains why so many researchers have been exploring teachers' minds to deepen their knowledge on teacher cognition. Shulman (1987) stated: "The final source of the knowledge base [of teaching] is the least codified of all. It is the wisdom of practice itself, the maxims that guide (or provide reflective rationalization for) the practice of able teachers (p. 11)". The environment which teachers create in their classrooms reflect their beliefs and values on teaching to a great extent. Teachers' descriptions of teaching approaches which they use in their classrooms come in forms of beliefs and principles which inform their teaching practices, planning and decisions. Richards and Lockhart (1994) referred to these beliefs and values as the culture of teaching. As

opposed to a behavioristic view to teaching, beliefs, principles and maxims are observable. Teachers can articulate their beliefs and maxims, and researchers can analyze their articulations. Teachers throughout their careers build up a belief system. This system includes principles which act as rules when it comes to planning their lessons, principles which make them depart from their plans, and principles which are the result of reflecting on their lessons. In fact, teachers' principles or maxims inform their actions constantly. Tsang (2004) in a 28 week long case study examined the role of teachers' personal practical knowledge in interactive decisions. The participants were three pre-service ESL teachers who were asked to write their teaching autobiography and later Tsang through content analysis discovered their maxims and beliefs on teaching. This was triangulated with interviews and observations. The results revealed that some parts of the participants' practical knowledge were conditional and competitive in some particular contexts. The findings also showed that the teachers shaped some new maxims during their teaching practices indicating the dynamic nature of teacher's principles.

Teachers are unique in terms of their teaching style. Teachers who have graduated from the same university and have worked in the same school do not necessarily share the same maxims and beliefs about teaching. Teachers have a wide variety of maxims and principles which they use based on the context, student's proficiency levels, and aim of the lessons they teach. For example, if the aim of a lesson is grammar, the maxim of accuracy plays the central role. However, different teachers may have different maxims when it comes to teaching the same lesson. For example, Yim (1993) in a study on L2 teachers in Singapore who had expressed their strong preferences for communicative approach and meaning focused activities in teaching discovered that many of the participants focused more on accuracy as opposed to their teaching maxims and principles which they had already articulated. The reason for this shift was that the teachers thought the accuracy-based activities benefited the students more for their exams. In another case study, Ulichny (1996) audiotaped an ESL class with the total number of twenty hours to explore the participant's maxims. She also interviewed each student once, but she conducted interviews with the teacher for fourteen hours in total because the focus of the study was on the teacher's principles and maxims on teaching. For the interviews, the researcher and the teacher listened to the tape which she had recorded from the lesson, and whenever the teacher needed to comment, she would stop the

tape and then the researcher would probe the teacher further on her comments. Through the interviews, the researcher elicited different aspects of the teacher's beliefs and maxims about herself as a teacher and the way she viewed teaching, her students, and her class. Her method of teaching was eclectic but her focus was more on communicative-competence approach. One of the lessons which the researcher observed and audiotaped was focused on reading. The teacher had already given reading homework to her students. The homework was part of a chapter which had been broken down into its comprehensible parts to make it easier for the students to comprehend as she believed in a meaning-based approach. To achieve this goal, she gave a simplified lecture related to the reading passage. In her lecture, she talked about five advantages of nuclear families in industrialized societies. Then she gave a task to her students to locate the five advantages mentioned in her lecture in the reading text. After the lecture, which was in the form of a dictation, she asked the students to rephrase the five advantages, but she found out that the students had not comprehended the lecture fully. As a result, she decided to adjust her plan, and tried to help create comprehension of the text which she had not expected. The new maxim which was about creating a text with appropriate level of difficulty was shaped. This study shows that teachers encountering an issue may depart from their old maxims and create new maxims to achieve their goals.

2.1.3. Interactive decision-making

Richards and Lockhart (1994) claimed that decision-making played a key role in investigating the reflective teaching in second language classrooms. The interactive decisions as Schon (1987) labeled them as reflection-in-action are related to unexpected and unanticipated events that arise during lessons and need impromptu solution. When teachers make interactive decisions, they tend to reflect on the actions taken by them rather than reasons behind the actions (Lange, 1990). It should be noted that some teachers are unable to give reasons for some of their interactive decisions.

In general, experienced teachers deal with unexpected events more openly than novice and inexperienced ones. Byra and Sherman (1993) conducted a study to investigate and compare the pre-active decisions, decisions made on selecting teaching methods and materials before a lesson, as well as interactive decisions made by experienced and novice teachers. The results revealed that experienced teachers made adjustments and departed from

their lesson plans when they were not progressing while less experienced teachers tried to stick to their lesson plan with little or no adjustments. Signaling to start and finish lessons, recording the attendance, and checking homework are referred to as routines in the literature, and when it comes to routines, novice teachers seem to lack routines in their stores, while experienced teachers use enough and well-established routines during their lessons to deal with moment-to-moment processes of teaching their lessons. In a study conducted by Berliner (1987) on how experienced and novice teachers opened their lessons by reviewing their students' homework, it was found that the experienced teachers were quick and brief and the reviewing took one-third less time than the inexperienced teachers. Similarly, in another study conducted by Livingston and Borko (1989) on experienced and inexperienced teachers on their interactive decisions, the findings showed that the experienced teachers departed from their plans in a more cohesive and flexible way while the less experienced teachers' interactive decisions were less cohesive and more fragmented. The experienced teachers provided their students with examples more quickly, and they were able to make a connection between their students' questions and the lesson objectives underlying the availability and accessibility of schemata, strategies and routines to the experienced teachers.

In a study conducted by Nunan (1992) on nine ESL teachers in Australia with regard to their interactive decisions, it became evident that the majority of the decisions made by the teachers revolved around classroom management and organization, however, it should be noted that the teachers' pre-active decisions had provided them with a framework for their interactive decisions. Johnson (1992) investigated and examined the interactive decisions made by six ESL preservice teachers. The data was collected through videotaping of the lessons as well as stimulus recall reports. The results revealed that promoting student understanding accounted for 37% while promoting student motivation and involvement accounted for only 17%. The mentioned studies on pre-service and in-service teachers with regard to their interactive decisions indicate that experienced teachers' interactive decisions tend to be different from inexperienced counterparts, however, more work needs to be done to deepen our understanding concerning the reasons behind these decisions.

2.1.4. Reflection

Reflection is thought to be a form of problem solving which requires knowledge and beliefs about the issue. Since the mind plays a central role in reflection, and the person who reflects needs to actively process and relate the ideas, beliefs and knowledge underlying the issue, reflection can be regarded as a cognitive process. Dewey (1997) was the first to pose the question whether reflection is only a matter of thought process or is it bound with action. Schon (2017, 1987) believed that reflective thinking and reflective action were intertwined, and reflection was bound with action. He distinguished reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Reflection-in-action refers to changes the teachers make about an issue while they are teaching. To illustrate, spontaneous decisions that teachers make while teaching can be regarded as reflection-in-action since teachers actively and constantly try to resolve the unanticipated issues they encounter in their classrooms through modifications.

Reflection-on-action, on the other hand, is a retrospective thinking which is done about a teaching practice in order to review what happened in the classroom and to discover the beliefs and reasons underlying the teaching practice which took place earlier in time. In teacher training programs, reflection is seen as an indispensable part of teaching. For example, in CELTA courses, after each teaching practice, student teachers are required to write their reflections on their lessons which can be regarded as reflection-on-action. Some scholars such as Pearson and Smith (1985) believed that problem solving was not necessarily an indispensable part of reflection. Based on their arguments, reflection might involve debriefing teachers after their lessons in order to deepen teachers' understandings of the aims, difficulties, and unanticipated problems within broader professional perspectives. In this case, it should be noted that the aim is not finding solutions for specific problems but encouraging teachers to think more critically on the events which took place in their classrooms.

Van Manen (1977) proposed three levels of reflections. The first level is called technical reflection which is related to the effectiveness of the use and application of educational knowledge through which teachers attempt to achieve certain goals. At this level, students should be made aware of the fact that there is not only one true way of learning and teaching, but there are a variety of ways through which teachers can teach their lessons. The second level is called practical reflection which focuses on the goals and outcomes. Teachers

in this level need to reflect on the value of their goals and to find out if their goals are moral and ethical in the educational settings in which their lessons take place. The third level is called critical reflection which focuses on the way the goals in the second level can be changed systematically due to constraints which are imposed on teachers by educational settings. Reflections often stem from prior experiences on teaching and learning.

Teachers tend to reflect on the problems they encounter in their classrooms to find solutions for them and respond to them appropriately. Dewey (1997) defined reflective action as “behavior which involves active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or practice in light of the grounds that support it and the further consequences to which it leads (p. 87)”. According to Dewey (1997) teachers needed to have three qualities to perform reflective actions. First, they needed to be open-minded to be able to consider their colleagues’, teachers’, and teacher trainers’ rational ideas even if their ideas were opposite to their beliefs. The other reason for this open-mindedness was that teachers needed to consider students’ culture and background and planned their lessons accordingly. They also needed to be responsible for the behaviors and actions they chose for their lessons. In a word, teachers’ actions and decisions in the classrooms needed to have a purpose. Finally, teachers needed to maintain the two mentioned qualities, being open-minded and responsible, wholeheartedly throughout their careers. This whole-heartedness did not mean that teachers could easily ignore meeting school policies and expectations with which they did not agree, but it meant that they always needed to make sure that the other two qualities namely open-mindedness and sense of responsibility were in place and present. They also needed to pay attention to the needs of all of their students rather than some and try to widen their teacher zones.

Some argue that becoming a reflective teacher is rather unrealistic due to lack of enough time for reflection, heavy workload, school constraints and expectations such as having another responsibility apart from being a teacher. In a study which was done by Valli (1997) to encourage reflection among teachers, the findings revealed that one of the main problems which hindered reflection was teachers’ persistence in their own beliefs and conceptualization of teaching.

Some school limitations and constraints do not allow teachers to take actions which are against the schools' policies. In this case, even if teachers spend time on reflection, they eventually have to accept the constraints and leave their own choices.

2.1.5. Cognitive psychology

Behaviorist psychologists believed that human behaviors could be acquired only through conditioning. Behaviorists were only concerned with external behaviors which were observable. In their views, humans could be taught and trained to perform any task through right conditioning regardless of their internal mental processes, emotions, and personality traits which were considered too subjective by behaviorist psychologists. In a nutshell, behaviorist psychologists claimed that human behaviors could be explained by stimulus-response associations. Watson and Rayner (1920) stated the aim of psychology as: "To predict, given the stimulus, what reaction will take place; or, given the reaction, state what the situation or stimulus is that has caused the reaction (p. 11)". According to behaviorists, language learning could occur through establishing a set of habits. Postman (1971) believed that adults rarely learnt anything completely new, and when they faced unfamiliar tasks, they relied on their information and habits they had already built up and tried to transfer them to deal with the new situation which eventually led them to establish new habits in learning. One of the positive points of behaviorism was that it could objectively measure the changes of human behaviors, however, it failed to portray a full picture of humans' behaviors. The picture was incomplete, since unobservable features such as thoughts, emotions, and motivations were simply not taken into consideration. Due to this main drawback, behaviorism fell out of favor with psychologists in the late 1950s which was marked with the birth of cognitive psychology.

Unlike behaviorist psychology, cognitive psychology studied the mind and viewed it as a processor through which information was received, organized, stored and retrieved. Cognitive psychologists studied how the mind affected human behaviors. The mind was seen as a computer through which information was processed, organized, stored, and retrieved. According to cognitive psychologists, between the input which humans receive and the output which they produce, there is a mediational process rather than an empty box. This mediational process includes memory, problem solving, perception, reasoning, judgment,

decision-making and attention all of which can be studied scientifically in labs. This was opposed to what behaviorist psychologists had claimed. They believed the mediational process was too subjective to be studied scientifically. It should be noted that there have been many studies and experiments in labs on working memory and attention blinking for instance. Neisser (1967) known as the father of cognitive psychology defines cognition as:

The term 'cognition' refers to all the processes by which the sensory input is transformed, reduced, elaborated, stored, recovered, and used. It is concerned with these processes even when they operate in the absence of relevant stimulation, as in images and hallucinations ... Given such a sweeping definition, it is apparent that cognition is involved in everything a human being might possibly do; that every psychological phenomenon is a cognitive phenomenon (Neisser, 1967, p. 4).

According to cognitive psychologists, knowledge consists of three different units; concepts, prototypes, and schemas. A concept is a broad category which encompasses similar items which are grouped together such as concrete names of kitchen utensils or abstract ideas such as personality traits. The first example or word which crosses one's mind when he/she hears a particular concept is called a prototype. What comes to your mind when you hear the word "Internet"? The answer to this question is an example of a prototype. A schema is regarded as a mental framework which is often constructed by concepts. We use schema to make sense of things around us, in other words, humans make sense of their world through schemas. Findings of cognitive psychology have been applied in many different fields and areas including Second Language Acquisition and Language Teaching and Learning due to the fact that cognitive psychology, as mentioned above, concerns decision-making, problem solving, attention, memory and emotions which can inform teaching and learning. McLaughlin, Rossman, and Mcleod, (1983) in his Information-Processing Model pointed out that learning was a cognitive process which was dynamic and as learners improved, they constantly restructured and reorganized information through integrating their new piece of information into their developing system. In his view, learning was not viewed as a linear process but rather complex and mental. In cognitive psychology, memory plays an important role. Regarding short-term and long-term memory Shiffrin and Schneider (1977) highlighted that learning would take place when controlled processes became automatic. According to them, short-term memory was in charge of controlled practices and once they were automatic, they were stored in long-term memory allowing space for the new controlled practices in

short-term memory because it required a lot of attentional control. Regarding the importance of information processing in cognitive psychology, Pienemann and Lenzing (2007) in his Processability Theory stated that comprehension and production of forms of a second language could only be possible if and only if these forms were managed by the linguistic processor.

In addition, connectionists see the brain as a computer with so many networks and links which become stronger and stronger if associations continue to happen over and over. Learning in a connectionist view is based on constructing associative patterns rather than rules. Based on the above-mentioned theories and models, studying and examining only the observable behaviors of teachers regardless of their minds and cognitions seem defective and will not portray a complete picture of teaching and learning.

2.1.6. Teacher cognition

In the 1980s, due to growing and mounting criticism of the process-product paradigm in terms of its inefficiencies and inadequacies in portraying the nature of teaching, researchers and scholars directed their attention toward more qualitative studies in teaching and learning. Research began to be more done on teachers' mental processes and teacher cognition. Consequently, teacher education programs were directly affected by such a shift in the research paradigm. The growing recognition of the important role of teacher mental lives in teaching finally led to the birth of a new research orientation known as language teacher cognition. Researchers came to realize that understanding teachers and teaching would be incomplete if teachers' beliefs and thoughts were not taken into account. In general, the term teacher cognition revolves around teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and thoughts about teaching and learning.

Teacher cognition drew researchers, teachers, and teacher trainers' attention to itself due to the fact that teachers were no longer passive conduit, but they played active roles in their classrooms. In fact, teachers make decisions before, during, and after their lessons regarding instructional choices, practices and choosing the materials and so on. They also have their own beliefs on teaching and learning. They have knowledge about their students in terms of their age, sex, educational, cultural and social background which are important

factors when it comes to planning and decision making. In a word, teacher cognition encompasses all aspects of teachers' work.

Studies on teacher cognition have aimed to delve deeply into teachers' mental world rather than their teaching actions in the classrooms. Researchers such as Clandinin (1985) and Elbaz (1981) viewed teaching as a complex rather than a linear act. Johnson and Golombek (2002) claimed that teachers were viewed as passive recipients of research findings who were supposed to put such findings into practice and achieve satisfactory outcomes regardless of who was teaching. Studies on teacher cognition revealed that teachers' practices were affected by a wide range of factors rather than just the education they received. Teachers' educational experiences, the context in which they teach, and their prior experiences as learners are some of the factors informing their teaching, highlighting that teaching is a complex profession.

The studies which have been done on teacher cognition and its relationship with the decisions that teachers make before, during and after lessons have all aimed to explore and investigate the complex and complicated thought processes of teachers. According to Shavelson and Stern (1981) teachers are "rational professionals who make judgements and decisions in an uncertain and complex environment (p. 456)". Elbaz (1981) also laid emphasis on the central autonomous role of teachers in classrooms by saying that a teacher is not merely "a cog in the educational machine (p. 45)". Based on the findings of previous studies, there is sufficient evidence that four major factors including schooling, professional coursework, contextual factors, and classroom practices inform teachers' cognitions. Borg (1997) in a diagram showed the relationships of the aforementioned four factors with teachers' cognitions (Figure 2.1).

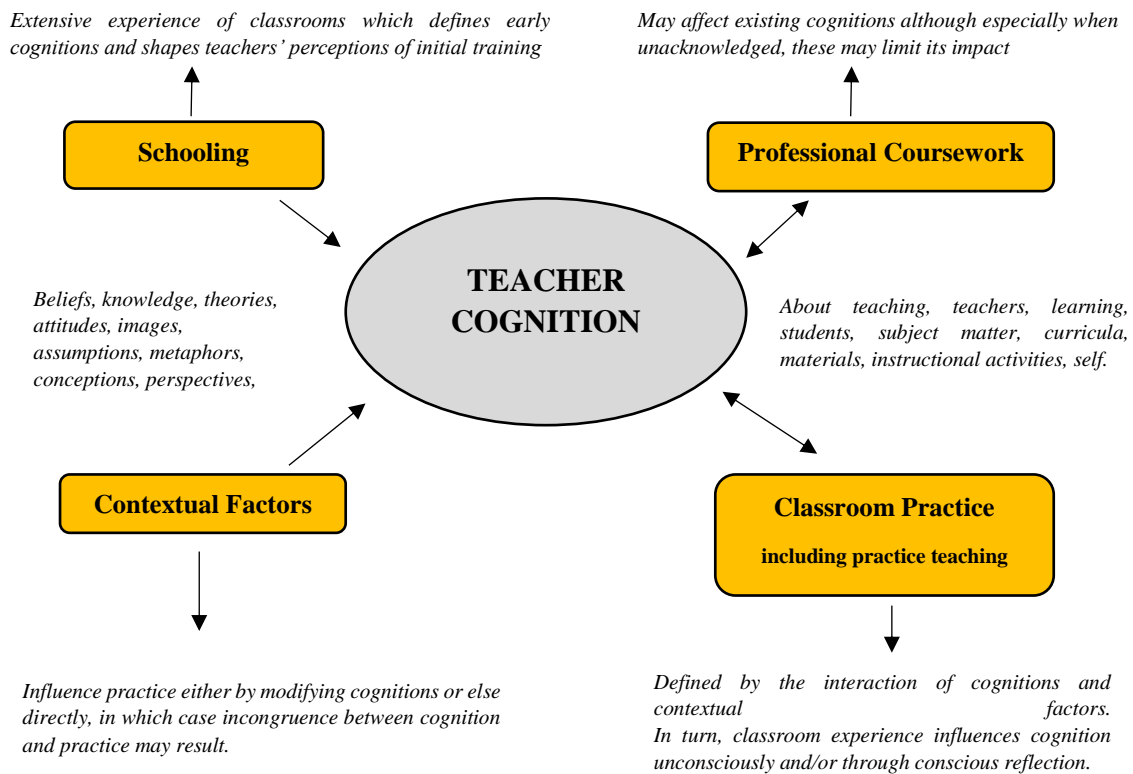


Figure 2.1. Teacher cognition and its relationship with schooling, professional education, contextual factors, and classroom practice (Borg, 1997).

Figure 2.1 shows that teacher cognition includes a wide range of interrelated factors. It also shows the relationships between teacher cognition and teacher learning. There are four main factors which affect teacher cognition. Schooling and prior learning experiences of teachers shape some of their core and peripheral beliefs and cognitions on teaching. The findings of many studies have revealed that teachers' experiences as learners during school time can affect their cognitions on learning and teaching and this impact can continue throughout their teaching careers (e.g., Holt Reynolds, 1992). There is enough evidence which shows that teacher training programs which ignore their candidates' prior learning beliefs are less effective at shaping their trainees' cognitions. (e.g., Kettle & Sellars, 1996; Weinstein, 1990). Regarding the second factor, professional coursework, it should be noted that there is ample evidence that teacher training programs and academic studies can affect teacher cognition and shape trainees' new cognitions. (e.g., Busch, 2010; Debrel, 2012).

During input sessions, candidates may learn some new teaching principles, techniques, methods which can contradict their prior learning and teaching beliefs. This contradiction may lead them to reflect on their beliefs about teaching and learning which eventually may cause new cognition to shape. However, the findings of other studies show that professional course work and teacher training programs are not effective in changing teachers' beliefs and cognitions and teachers show resistance to change their beliefs which are derived from teacher's experiences as learners. In brief, some claim that professional course work and training programs can inform teacher cognition, but some others doubt about the effectiveness of these programs. The next factor which affects teachers' cognitions is the context and setting in which they work. According to Borg (2006): "The social, institutional, instructional and physical setting in which teachers work have a major impact on their cognitions and practices (p. 275)". There is ample evidence which shows contextual factors can constrain teachers' teaching practices. In Borg's (2006) view, contextual factors can have an impact on teachers' cognitions in two ways. First, these factors may cause changes in teachers' cognitions. Second, teachers may change their practices due to the contextual factors, but they may resist changing their cognitions which can lead to incongruence between teachers' stated beliefs and what they actually practice in the classrooms. It should be noted that the relationship between teachers' practices and their cognitions as well as stated beliefs is non-linear and multidirectional. Sometimes, teachers' practices do not concur with their cognitions due to many variables such as contextual factors. The relationship is multidirectional because teachers' cognitions can change in response to the events which may occur in their classrooms which indicates the dynamic nature of teaching and the relationship among teachers' cognitions, the setting in which they work, and the experience they gain.

Given the fact that teachers' thought processes play the central role in teacher cognition studies, three categories including teacher planning, teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions, and teachers' theories and beliefs were proposed by Clark and Peterson (1986). It should be noted that different scholars and researchers have coined different terms and names in the realm of teacher cognition studies. Sometimes, two different terms mean the same thing in the literature while two identical terms convey different messages. Regarding this ambiguity, Eisenhart, Shrum, Harding, and Cuthbert (1988) came up with a term and labeled

it as “definitional confusion”. For instance, Walberg (1977) introduced the notion of “teachers’ mental lives”. Burns, (1992) and Richards (1998) both coined “teacher beliefs”. Freeman and Richards (1993) used the term “conceptions of teaching”. Lee and Woods (1998) introduced the notion of “beliefs, attitudes and knowledge”. Borg (1999) used the term "teachers' theories", and the term “Teacher knowledge” comes from Freeman (2002). Although the written terms seem to be different at first glance, they collectively refer to teacher cognition which is a multidimensional concept in nature.

2.1.7. Conceptions of knowledge and beliefs

The term knowledge has created a sense of confusion in teacher cognition studies since it is difficult to be defined clearly. Fenstermacher (1994) was among the first scholars who focused on teacher knowledge with a philosophical perspective. He aimed to investigate “How notions of knowledge are used and analyzed in a number of programs that study teachers and teaching? (p. 3)”. He made a distinction between formal teacher knowledge and practical teacher knowledge. By the former he meant “the concept of the knowledge as it appears in standard or conventional behavioral science research (p.5)”, and by the latter he referred to knowledge that teachers gain by virtue of experience. In order to find out an answer for his question, written above, Fenstermacher categorized three types of research in relation to teacher cognition. First, process-product studies which were concerned with formal teacher knowledge. Second, practical knowledge studies which focused on practical teacher knowledge. Third, subject-matter studies which focused more on formal teacher knowledge yet were ambiguous. Based on his analysis of the term knowledge which is used in teacher cognition studies, Fenstermacher underlined two senses of knowledge which were used in teacher cognition studies. First, the knowledge under which other constructs such as beliefs and conceptions can be grouped and added. Second, the knowledge which is used to refer to “epistemological status of an entity”. To elaborate further, the terms ontology and epistemology need to be defined and explained. The former, according to Hudson and Ozanne (1988), is concerned with the nature of reality. In fact, ontology is about the study of the existence of a phenomenon. Ontology seeks to answer questions such as what things exist, to what categories those things belong to, and how they are related. The focus of ontology is on the nature and structure of things per se. On the other hand, epistemology is

concerned with knowledge. It seeks to answer the question: “How do we know that something exists?” Therefore, epistemology unlike ontology is internal and deals with the way we see and discover the world around us. With regard to answering questions, it should be noted that some answers to some questions are dichotomous. Yes or No answers are among such dichotomous responses. However, answering some other questions might not be as easy as the dichotomous ones. For example, “Interactive and evaluative decisions of teachers are related to their teaching knowledge. Is it right or wrong?” To some, the answer is yes, and to some others it is No. However, there are some who would say: “well, it depends”. This interpretive way of viewing an existing phenomenon maintains the position that some phenomena are multifaceted and complex and require detailed and careful studies. Richardson (1996) reviewed the literature with regard to the role of beliefs in learning, teaching and teacher education programs. In his review which was published in the second edition of *The Handbook of Research on Teacher Education*, he defined beliefs as “a proposition that is accepted as true by the individual holding the belief (p.104)”. Richardson also studied the role of experience in teacher education. According to him, there were three types of experience which influenced students’ knowledge and beliefs about teaching in teacher education programs; personal experience, experience of schooling as well as instruction, and experience of formal knowledge.

From the constructivist point of view, student teachers bring beliefs and experience to teacher education programs which in turn inform learning. A large proportion of beliefs which are brought to teacher education by learners has already been established, hence, they tend to be resistant to change their beliefs which is why teacher education programs and teacher trainers have found it difficult to change some learners’ beliefs, and their interventions to change learners’ beliefs to teaching have been limited. Nisbett and Ross (1980) stated that beliefs which were well-established, particularly early in our life, would tend to persist even if we encountered evidence which was contrary to our established beliefs. Calderhead (1987) was another important figure who examined studies on teachers’ beliefs and teachers’ knowledge between 1985 and 1995. Calderhead also made a distinction between knowledge and belief and placed a number of headings under each term to provide a detailed rather than a generic analysis regarding knowledge and beliefs in teacher cognition. Subcategories under knowledge included subject knowledge, craft knowledge, (knowledge

gained through classroom practice enabling teacher to use strategies, routines and tactics in teaching), personal practical knowledge, case knowledge (knowledge gained by teachers experiencing an important or unexpected events requiring investigation and action), theoretical knowledge and metaphors and images. Under teachers' beliefs, there were beliefs about self, learners, teaching, learning to teach, and teaching role.

It should be noted that there are three domains of research in teacher cognition. The first domain is about decision-making. The second domain is concerned with perception, evaluations, and related issues, and the third one is related to knowledge and beliefs. Despite the growing interest in studying teacher cognition in the last three decades, there are still tensions and confusions among researchers and scholars in terms of defining teachers' knowledge. Munby, Russell, and Martin (2001) reviewed the literature on teachers' knowledge when they came to notice this tension.

The legion of interpretations not just of teachers' knowledge but also, importantly, of knowledge itself... the literature seems characterized by a root tension: different views have developed about what counts a professional knowledge and even how to conceptualize knowledge (Munby, Russell, and Martin 2001, p.878).

Some scholars and researchers such as Reynolds (1989) viewed teacher knowledge as propositional which was gained from findings of studies that teachers read, learned and applied. However, some others such as Munby et al. (2001) viewed teacher knowledge as largely practical which was gained from teachers' work in classrooms. Verloop, Van Driel, and Meijer (2001) proposed a broad definition of teacher knowledge as "the whole of the knowledge and insights that underlie teachers' actions in practice (p. 446)". Based on the constructivist point of view, knowledge is not gained in a vacuum. Gaining knowledge is a gradual process through which a new piece of knowledge is built upon the existing one. Dewey (1997) believed that gaining experience was a continuous process in which knowledge was constantly built and rebuilt through quality experience.

Drawing a distinction between teachers' knowledge and teachers' beliefs seems to be of little use and benefit since teachers do not view them separately but rather intertwined and interrelated, and they tend not to make a distinction between them. Grossman, Wilson, and Shulman (1989) studied teacher knowledge, and they came to a conclusion: "While we are trying to separate teachers' knowledge and belief about subject matter for the purpose of

clarity, we recognize that the distinction is blurry at best (p. 31)”. Similarly, Alexander, Schallert, and Hare (1991) in their review of the literature on teachers’ knowledge reached the same conclusion. It should be noted that in the present study, teacher cognition encompasses teachers’ knowledge and teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning. In general, teachers make use of two different dimensions of knowledge in their classrooms to achieve their goals. One dimension is concerned with the subject matter knowledge which is related to the way teachers conceptualize their lessons. This conceptualization, according to Lee and Woods (1998), has four levels. First, teachers consider the general aim and purpose for the lessons which is referred to as ‘overall conceptual goals’. Second, under the first category, there are some subcategories of the curriculum such as the skills and systems of a language that teachers teach (writing, listening, reading, speaking, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation). They named such subcategories ‘global conceptual units’. Third, in order to put the first and second levels into practice, teachers need a variety of activities. This level is referred to as intermediate conceptual units. Fourth, for producing positive effects about particular practice or instruction, teachers tend to use specific things which are called ‘local conceptual units’. These four conceptual units are interrelated and intertwined. In addition to the mentioned conceptual units which are related to the content of lessons and curricular goals, there is another dimension which is individual and personal. Zeichner, Tabachnick, and Densmore (1987) named this dimension ‘perspectives’ highlighting that teachers have their own personal views and beliefs on teaching. Perspectives are about teachers’ personal understandings and interpretations of the environment, and the ways their understandings guide them to achieve their instructional goals. Teachers have personal values about their roles, teaching, and goals. Halkes and Deijkers (1984) called these values ‘teachers’ teaching criteria’. The above mentioned two types of knowledge, subject matter knowledge and teachers’ personal knowledge, inform teaching indicating that teaching is multifaceted, and there are many variables which inform teaching in general.

2.2. Studies on Teacher Cognition

This section reviews in detail the studies which were conducted on teacher cognition both on pre-service and in-service teachers. It also concerns the studies which were done in and outside Turkey to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the present study’s results.

2.2.1. The cognitions and beliefs of pre-service language teachers

Pre-service language teachers are those who lack formal teaching experience and attend teacher education programs to prepare themselves for teaching in language schools and institutions. It is believed by many teachers, teacher trainers, and researchers that such programs help pre-service teachers make a connection between theory and practice in teaching. Johnson (1994) in a study, examined the beliefs of four pre-service ESL teachers in the United States on second language teachers and second language teaching as well as their perceptions of instructional practice. The focus of this study was on the participants' perceptions of their experiences during the practicum. The participants had no prior teaching experience. The study took 15 weeks. Observations, interviews, and journal writing were the means through which the data was collected. The data was analyzed based on the principles of ethnographic semantics. Based on the teachers' descriptions, four main categories were found. These categories were the participants' images of their formal and informal language learning experience as well as their images of themselves as language teacher and the program. Positive and negative experiences in relation to the first two categories were found to have had significant influence on their beliefs about second language teachers and second language teaching. In terms of the participants' images about themselves as teachers, it became evident that the participants were unrealistically optimistic about the type of teacher they would become. The participants' beliefs on the program and the extent to which they agreed with the teaching methodologies and instructional materials were found to be related to their formal and informal language learning experiences. To sum up, the results obtained from this study revealed that the participants' prior experiences as L2 learners played an important role in their perceptions of language teaching and learning.

Peacock (2001) in a longitudinal study on 146 ESL student teachers examined whether their beliefs would change during their three year TESL programs or not. In the first part of the data collection process, the data regarding the beliefs of the first year student teachers on language learning was collected using Horwitz's Beliefs on Language Learning Inventory. During the subsequent years, the trainees' developmental changes were closely monitored and the data regarding such changes was subsequently collected. The results revealed that the student teachers' beliefs on teaching grammar and vocabulary changed slightly, however,

when it came to the influence of methodology courses on the student teachers' beliefs, no significant changes were found.

Teachers' prior positive and negative experiences can play important roles in their teaching. Numrich (1996), in a study, examined diaries of 26 ESL student teachers who were part of a master's degree program in TESOL. These diaries included a personal language learning history, diary entries noted down by the participants during a 10-week teaching semester, and the participants' analysis of their own diaries. The results showed that the teachers' prior positive and negative experience as learners had significant influence in avoiding or promoting specific instructional strategies. For example, 23 percent of the participants had written in their diaries that the students needed to be given opportunities to communicate and 27 percent of the participants had rejected the idea of correcting errors of the students.

Teachers may show resistance to change their beliefs due to their prior learning experiences. Urmston (2003) conducted a longitudinal study to investigate changes in 40 student teachers' beliefs in Hong Kong. The participants of this study had been enrolled on the BA course to learn how to teach English as a Second Language. The student teachers were given a detailed questionnaire to complete at the beginning of the course, and three years later they were asked again to complete the questionnaire so that the researcher could compare their responses to find out if the training course had any impact on changing their beliefs on teaching. The findings showed that the student teachers showed resistance to change their views and beliefs on teaching due to their prior experiences as students in the Hong Kong education system. The results of the above written studies show that teachers can be resistant to change their beliefs on teaching and learning and teachers' prior positive as well as negative teaching and learning experience can also inform their teaching. There have been quite a number of studies aiming to investigate the role of second language teacher education programs and their effects on teachers' beliefs and teaching. Richter and Houde (2017) in an exploratory-descriptive study, examined the effects of second language teacher education (SLTE) on the development of 60 student teachers' beliefs. This study was focused on the impact of SLTE program on the student teachers' views on reflective practice. Two different instruments were used for collecting the data; a questionnaire requiring the participants to rate the impact of thirteen factors on their beliefs in relation to teaching and

the repertory grid technique which is basically an interview combining both qualitative and quantitative techniques and is mainly used in the field of Personal Construct Psychology. The results of this study revealed that the second language teacher education program played a minor role in encouraging reflection among the student teachers.

Teachers have different interpretations about teaching and learning most of which are derived from their prior experience as learners. Calderhead and Robson (1991) studied twelve student teachers throughout their first year of their teacher education program in England to explore and compare their understandings and beliefs of teaching and learning before, during and after the course. The student teachers were interviewed four times during the course of the study which took one year. The interviews took place a few days after the course had begun and on three other occasions through and towards the end of the course. The aim of the interviews was to elicit the participants' ideas and beliefs about teaching and learning. After the analysis of the data, it was revealed that the student teachers had particular images in relation to learning and teaching which stemmed from their prior experiences as students in schools and such images played a significant role with regard to their interpretations of the course and classroom practices. Based on the findings of many studies on pre-service teachers' beliefs on teaching and learning, it has become clear that prior experiences as students influence student teachers' initial conceptualizations of teaching and learning. In fact, student teachers bring their prior experiences as learners to teacher education programs and gradually build up new knowledge which is obtained from such programs. Based on such a constructivist view, Loughran and Russell (1997) defined the student-teacher as "The student-teacher is a learner who is actively constructing views of teaching and learning based on personal experiences strongly shaped by perceptions held before entering the program (p. 165-6)". In another study, Johnson (1992) investigated the instructional decisions of six pre-service teachers during the initial teaching experiences over the course of two semesters. Stimulus recalls were used as a means of collecting data. The data regarding the pre-service teachers' instructional and interactive decisions revealed a list of reasons influencing their decisions including student motivation and involvement, instructional management, curriculum integration, student's social needs, subject matter content, student understanding, and student language skill and ability.

The analysis of the data showed that unexpected students' questions during the lessons as well as the pre-service ESL teachers' concern to maintain the flow of instructional activities were the main causes for the teachers' instructional actions and decisions. Johnson (1992) highlighted the importance of L1 literature review to deepen our understanding of different cognitive dimensions of ESL teachers. He believed that "the field of second language teacher education can, and should, look to L1 educational literature as it continues to explore the cognitive dimensions of second language teaching (pp. 527-8)". The above-mentioned studies and their results outlined the significant role of the student teachers' beliefs and cognitions which stemmed from their prior experience as learners in teaching and learning. Also, the result of these studies highlighted that education programs had little effect on changing pre-service teachers' cognitions and beliefs on teaching.

However, some other studies claimed the opposite and their findings revealed that teacher training programs were successful in changing pre-service teachers' cognitions and beliefs to a great extent in some areas. Debreli (2012) conducted a qualitative research study on three pre-service English language teachers receiving training in a university in Northern Cyprus to examine the extent to which the program could change the teachers' beliefs. The study took nine months and in every three months, the teachers were interviewed. They were also asked to write diaries throughout the training program. The findings indicated that the participants' beliefs on teaching and learning were initially derived from their prior experience as learners, however, these beliefs changed to a great extent from the second half of the program. The pre-service teachers came to realize that their theoretical beliefs which they held on teaching were not always applicable in the classrooms. The training program had helped the teachers become more aware of the ways they could put the theoretical beliefs which they had already known into practice in real classrooms. Busch (2010) also conducted a longitudinal research study on 381 pre-service English teachers who had enrolled in the introductory second language acquisition (SLA) course in a state university in California. Using a paired sample t-test, Busch (2010) initially collected the data on the teachers' beliefs about language learning using an inventory called TBALLI, made by Horwitz (1988), prior and after the course. The post test was also conducted. The findings revealed that most of the beliefs of the participants before the course, which had been derived from their experiences

as learners in high school, changed significantly in a number of areas such as the role of culture and error correction as well as the importance of grammar.

2.2.2. The cognitions and beliefs of in-service language teachers

In-service teachers are those who are already teaching and have completed their training programs. They also have received certification indicating they are qualified to teach. There have been numerous studies on the cognition of in-service teachers, however, more studies need to be conducted to provide us with a clearer picture on the sources of teachers' cognitions. Richards, Ho, and Giblin (1996) conducted a study on five EFL in-service teachers with various experience of teaching who had enrolled in a short training program called TEFLA. The aim of the study was to investigate the participants' responses to the program, to find out which aspects of the teaching the teachers found most problematic, and to discover how the teachers' beliefs on teaching developed and changed. For the purpose of data collection, the discussions between the teachers and their tutors were audio recorded and the teachers were also asked to write self-reports which were in forms of questionnaires after each teaching practice. The results revealed that encouraging the students to participate, arousing their interests in the lessons, managing time, and following the stages of their lesson plans were found to be among the most important concerns of the participants in order to achieve continuity throughout their lessons. Furthermore, timing, eliciting, handling of materials and explaining clearly were among the most problematic areas that the teachers had found in teaching their lessons. It should be noted that the teacher participants' beliefs on three perspectives of teaching namely teacher-centered, curriculum-centered and learn-centered perspectives varied from one another. For example, one teacher focused more on teacher-centered perspective while the others used all of the perspectives in the classroom. One of the teachers stated that her performance in her lessons was the most important factor to evaluate the success of her lesson, on the other hand, another teacher believed that the success of his lesson depended on the performance of the students. The findings indicated that although the training program had changed some of the teachers' beliefs, the changes varied significantly among the participants.

Regarding the success of teacher training programs in changing teachers' beliefs, Borg (2011) in a longitudinal study which took eight weeks, examined the effects of the DELTA

training program on six in-service teachers' beliefs. The teachers had all British nationality and were working in private English language schools. For data collection, the teachers initially were asked to complete a questionnaire which was about the reasons why they had enrolled in those programs, and what they were hoping to learn from the program. The questionnaire also asked about the teachers' background. Semi-structured interviews with teachers were conducted six times throughout the course all of which were audio recorded. In addition, coursework including lesson plans, written assignments and reflections as well as tutors' feedback were used as another source of the data to be analyzed. The result of the study showed that the impact of the DELTA course on the teachers' beliefs was significant. The teachers had moved from limited awareness of their beliefs on teaching and learning to a state of awareness in a way that they could clearly articulate their beliefs. Also, the impact of the DELTA course was evident in the teachers' classroom practices.

Hoover-Dempsey, Walker, Jones, , and Reed, (2002) conducted a study to examine the impact of an educational training program on enhancing in-service teachers' beliefs with regard to the role of parental involvement in helping children learn. The focus of the training program was on improving the outcomes of high-risk students in two schools in the USA. From both schools, 30 teachers were chosen to participate in the training program. 22 teachers volunteered not to participate in the program. The latter group was labelled the comparison group. The program took eight weeks and included six modules.

To collect the data, questionnaires were given to both groups to complete, once before the training program started and once after the program finished. The participants were also asked to give demographic data on the levels they taught, their gender, their number of years they had taught, degree levels, and ethnicity. In addition, at the end of each session only the first group participants were asked to evaluate the session and speak about the best feature of the session for two minutes. The results showed no significant difference between both groups in terms of demographic characteristics. The two variables namely teacher efficacy and teacher beliefs about parents' efficacy were quite similar between the groups before the program started, however, after the program finished, the results showed a significant increase in both variables only for the first group, but not for the comparison group indicating the significant impact of the program on the participant teachers. The studies conducted on both pre-service and in-service teachers have shown contradictory results on the role of the

training programs on teachers' cognition and beliefs, hence, more research needs to be done in this regard to deepen our understanding of teacher cognition and other variables informing teachers' beliefs and cognitions.

2.2.3. Studies on teacher cognition in Turkey

There have been quite a large number of studies on pre-service and in-service teachers regarding their teaching cognitions in Turkey. These studies demonstrate contradictory results regarding the impact of teacher training programs on pre-service and in-service EFL teachers. In a study on the effects of the in-service education program of EFL teachers on their efficacy as well as their classroom practices, Ortaçtepe and Akyel (2015) investigated the relationship between the efficacy of EFL teachers in Turkey and their self-reported practice on CTL, communicative Language Teaching. Besides, they aimed to explore to what extent an in-service teacher education program affected their participant teachers' efficacy and self-reported and actual practice of communicative Language Teaching. Fifty participants were selected from eight schools located in a large city in Turkey. Among these fifty teachers, only 20 teachers volunteered for observations. The data collection was in pre-test-post-test experimental design. The data collection tools included Teachers' Background Questionnaire, English Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale, Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching, and the questionnaire version of COLT. The questionnaires were administered twice, and the participants were observed twice as well; once before the program started and once after the program was over. The results of this study revealed that the in-service teacher education program had a significant positive effect on the participant teachers' efficacy. The findings also showed that the participant teachers had improved their practices on CLT.

Similarly, in another study which was conducted by Özmen (2012), the findings revealed the significant role of teacher training programs on teachers' beliefs and cognition. In a four-year longitudinal study, Özmen examined the beliefs of 49 student teachers on language learning and teaching. The aim of the study was to explore the possible changes in the teacher students' beliefs over the course of a four-year ELT pre-service program. Semi-structured interviews and questionnaires were used for collecting the data. The questionnaire was used to gather the data on demographic features which showed that the participants were

quite homogeneous with regard to their educational and socio-demographic background as well as their motivation for the program. The findings highlighted that the student teachers at the beginning of the program had traditional views and beliefs on language teaching and learning. To them, teachers were the only source of knowledge and authority in the classroom. However, in the third year of the program, the findings revealed significant changes in the student teachers' beliefs regarding language teaching and learning highlighting the effects of practicum on the student teachers' beliefs.

In another study, Dikilitaş (2013) examined the effects of an in-service teacher training, which took four weeks, on the participant teachers' beliefs and classroom practices about teaching English grammar. Four novice teachers participated in this study. Before they participated in the program, their lessons were observed by the researcher in order to identify their existing grammar teaching practices. After the program was over, the participant teachers were interviewed and their teaching grammar practices were observed again. Moreover, six months after the first interview and observation, the participant teachers were interviewed and their teaching grammar was observed for the second time. The findings of this study revealed that the training program, which was knowledge-based, informed the participants teaching grammar practices significantly. The participants maintained that they changed their teaching behaviors and beliefs regarding teaching English grammar even six months after they had been observed and interviewed.

However, the results of some other studies showed that the teacher training programs were not completely successful in changing the participants' beliefs and cognition. Personn and Yigitoglu (2015), in a fifteen-week case study, examined the role of an in-service training program on two novice teachers' professional development and classroom practices, which took place at a university in Turkey. The participant teachers, teaching at foreign languages department of a university, were teaching English to those students whose English proficiency levels were low and insufficient to pursue their undergraduate studies at the university. The data collection tools for this study included classroom observation, semi-structured interviews and stimulus recalls. The findings showed that the in-service training course had only affected the participants' teaching in only two ways; designing instructional activities and developing student autonomy. The results revealed that the training course's effect on the participants' teaching was not significant. The in-service training course had an

impact on the teachers' knowledge in terms of giving instructions, techniques and classroom activities. However, the participant teachers criticized the course on a number of aspects such as teacher talking time, assessed observations, and tutors' feedback since they had found these aspects contradictory to classroom reality.

With regard to the role of prior learning experiences and teacher training programs, Gülden (2013) conducted a study to explore the interaction of past language learning experiences and the input teachers received in teacher education programs as well as their influences on teachers' teaching practices. To collect the data, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. In the quantitative part of data collection, 207 pre-service teachers completed a questionnaire on three aspects of English teaching and learning including grammar teaching, error correction, and use of L1 and L2 in the classroom. In the qualitative part, classroom observation, semi-structured interviews, stimulus recalls, and autobiographical accounts were the data collection tools. Regarding teaching grammar, the participants believed that teaching grammar in isolation was not beneficial for learners. Participants also highlighted that immediate error correction was not a good way to correct learners' errors. Concerning the use of L1 and L2, the majority of the participants believed that it depended on the level of the students. The findings also revealed a number of factors informing the teachers' instructional decisions in the classroom. Some of these factors included past learning experiences, teacher education programs, experienced co-workers, the organizational atmosphere, and the course book.

There are numerous variables which shape teachers' cognitions and affect their classroom practices. Öztürk (2015) conducted a study on three in-service EFL teachers working at English preparatory programs at different state universities in Turkey to find out the main sources of the participant teachers' cognitions, their classroom practices and the influence of institutional context on their teaching practices. The tools used to collect the data in this study included semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, stimulus recalls, field notes, and reflective journals. The findings revealed that the participants' prior language learning experiences, the pre-service education they had received, the atmosphere of the institutions in which they had worked, the communications they had with their experienced colleagues, the number of years they had spent as novice teachers were the main sources of their cognitions as well as their classroom activities. It should be noted that some other factors

such as curriculum policies, course books, and the students' profiles also played roles in shaping the participants' teaching cognitions indicating that there is no single factor informing teacher cognition, but a wide variety of factors throughout years of learning and teaching influence and shape teachers' cognitions.

With regard to teachers' practical knowledge, Ariogul (2006) conducted a multiple case study on three Participant teachers' practical knowledge and the sources that influenced their knowledge and classroom instructions. Classroom observations, audio and videotaped lessons, stimulus-recalls, interviews, both formal and informal field notes, and curriculum documents were the data collection tools. After analyzing the data, the researcher came to three conclusions. Firstly, the practical knowledge is not static but dynamic, that is to say teachers' practical knowledge develops constantly throughout their professional and educational experiences, and teachers adapt and readapt their practical knowledge based on their learners' needs and expectations. Secondly, when an encounter takes place in the classrooms, it should be considered as something unique by teachers. Finally, studies on teacher practical knowledge help teachers increase awareness of their practical knowledge.

Concerning teachers' beliefs, Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) conducted a year-long study to explore the development of the belief system of 20 student teachers about language learning and teaching. Through language learning autobiography, in-depth interviews, and questionnaires the data were collocated. The findings revealed that of the 20 participants, only one participant's beliefs regarding teaching and learning remained unchanged, highlighting that beliefs are flexible and can develop throughout the time. With regard to the role of teachers' beliefs on teaching practices, Inceçay (2011) conducted a study on two pre-service teachers' language learning beliefs on their teaching practices. Field notes, classroom observations, structured interviews, philosophy statements and the participants' reflective journals were used as data collection tools. Regarding the participants' beliefs of foreign language learning, five categories namely, ideal English learner, ideal English teacher, ideal English classroom, difficulties in language learning process, strategies of learners to overcome difficulties were identified. The analysis regarding the effects of the participants' beliefs on their practice teaching revealed that their beliefs had a significant impact on their teaching practices in terms of teachers' and learners' roles, classroom environment, and devising necessary strategies for the learners who had difficulties in the language learning

process. The findings also showed that some other factors including the number of students in the classrooms, the level the participants taught, the learners' competencies, and the theories they received informed their teaching practices.

Studies have shown that prior experiences of teachers inform their teaching behaviors to a great extent. Erkmén (2014) in a study on nine novice EFL teachers examined their beliefs on teaching and learning as well as the relationship between the participants' beliefs and their classroom practices. The participants were all working at a private university in Northern Cyprus. The study took nine months, and through semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, post-lesson reflections, and stimulus recalls the data was collected. The findings revealed that the participant teachers' prior experiences as learners had an impact on their beliefs on learning and teaching. The findings also showed that although all of the participant teachers held constructivist beliefs and aimed to have a student-centered classroom atmosphere, some of them were sometimes unable to put their beliefs into practice. It should also be noted that the participants responded to their students' demands and expectations positively although they did not agree with them. For example, when their students asked them to use their mother tongues, they did so which was contrary to their beliefs.

2.2.4. The Significance of the Literature on the Current Study

Studies on the cognitions of pre-service teachers mainly focused on the extent to which they would change their beliefs on teaching and learning after the training programs (e.g., Peacock, 2001; Urmston, 2003). Although the findings of the studies on pre-service teachers' cognitions revealed contradictory results, teachers' learning experiences were found to play a key role in shaping their teaching cognition. In fact, the prior learning experiences of the teachers in these studies were one of the main reasons why they showed resistance to change their beliefs on learning and teaching.

The findings of many studies on in-service teachers' cognitions showed that the training programs' effects on their beliefs and cognitions varied from one another (e.g., Richards et al., 1996). The studies which were conducted in Turkey on teachers' beliefs and cognitions were similarly focused on the effects of training programs and their results were also contradictory (e.g., Özmen, 2012; Personn & Yigitoglu, 2015). Not much has been on

the role of in-service teachers' cognitions on their interactive and evaluative decision-making process in new and different settings in the literature. This study was conducted in the hope of making a contribution to our understanding of the role that teacher cognition plays in making interactive and evaluative decision-making processes in a new setting.

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the research design, detailed descriptions of the three teacher participants, data collection tools, and the analysis of the data analysis procedure. It also discusses the measures which were taken to increase trustworthiness of the study.

3.1. Research Design

Conducting research on teachers' minds and cognitions seems to be hard since researchers cannot read the participant teachers' minds, nor can they see and observe their minds. Therefore, researchers depend entirely upon their participants' words and articulations about their thoughts and beliefs. Through different data collection tools such as interviews, researchers are able to convert the unobservable data into observable information to be later analyzed. Therefore, the task of researchers is to find meanings which are either directly expressed or implied in the participants' words and voices. In fact, the primary task of researchers is the interpretation of the transcripts. This interpretation varies from one researcher to another since researchers bring their own viewpoints to the task of interpretation. No wonder, some claim that the interpretation of meaning from texts and transcripts is highly subjective. Since this research relied heavily on linguistic data, words of the participants, as well as the researcher's interpretations of the linguistic data, it followed a hermeneutic paradigm due to its nature to create meaning subjectively and employed the interpretive qualitative method assuming that reality is socially shaped and people's experiences and the social contexts play roles in this construction. According to Thiselton (2009) hermeneutics examines "how we read, understand, and handle texts, especially those written in another time or in a context different from our own (p. 1)". According to this paradigm, the researchers can only make sense of the reality based on their interpretations. It also highlights that reality cannot be separated or abstracted from its social context to be investigated objectively through objective techniques. This is in contrast with the positive or deductive paradigm which regards reality as independent of its context and assumes that it can be studied objectively such as laboratory experiments. As a matter of fact, researchers' task in interpretive qualitative research is to make reality known (Cavana, Delahaye, & Sekaran, 2001); Walsham, 1995a; Walsham, 1995b). This can be done through interactions

of the researcher and the participants in social contexts and interpretation of meanings which are lied in the collected linguistic data. Therefore, interpretive qualitative research is socially bound.

In order to collect the detailed data regarding the central phenomenon of this research, the collective case study was used. This study was based on multiple cases through which the researcher collected detailed and extensive linguistic data on the central phenomenon of the study. It should be noted that when the number of cases in a study exceeds a single case, the collective case study is used (Figure 3.1). The design of this study enabled the researcher to achieve a deeper understanding of the central phenomenon through comparing similarities and differences between the participant teachers' cognitions on interactive and evaluative decisions. Since the participant teachers of the study were EFL teachers who were working in two English language schools located in two different settings, the collective case study fitted best for the study and gave reassurance to the researcher that the processes of decision-making in one case were not as Miles and Huberman (1994) labeled "wholly idiosyncratic (p. 172)".

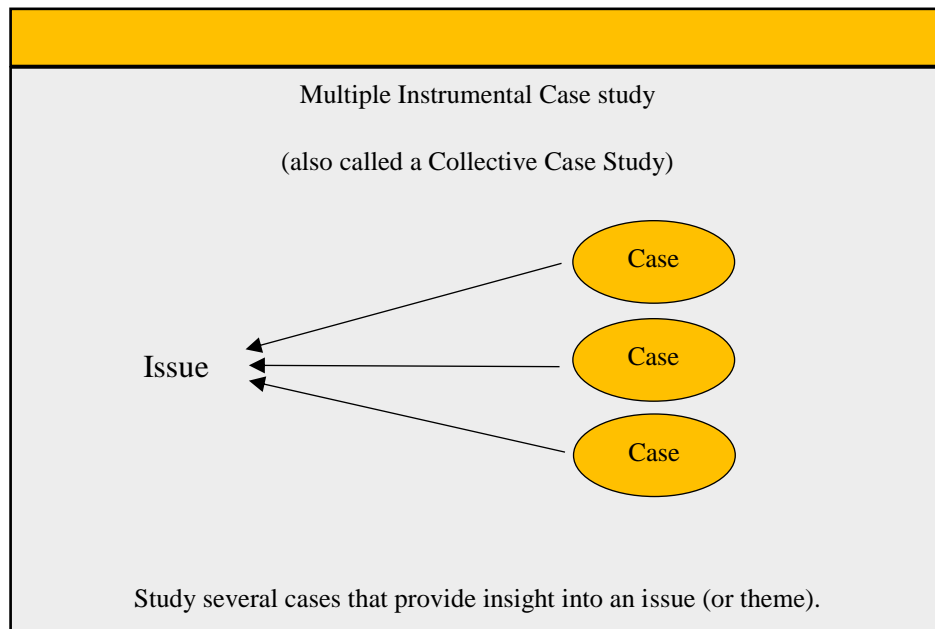


Figure 3.1. *Collective Case Study (Creswell, 2011, p. 237)*

3.2. Participants

The main aim of a qualitative study is gaining an in-depth understanding of a central phenomenon rather than overgeneralizing its findings to a population. With regard to sampling in qualitative studies, three cases were selected in this study since a large sample size could have decreased researchers' ability to deeply explore the central phenomenon. This study employed purposeful sampling, and the researcher intentionally recruited three participants who were believed to be exemplars of the research concept and as Patton (1990) stated they were "information rich (p. 169)". According to Dornyei (2007):

Qualitative inquiry is not concerned with how representative the respondent sample is. Instead, the main goal of sampling is to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximize what we can learn (p. 126).

According to the mentioned points regarding subject selection procedures, the researcher followed a concept sampling in this study. Creswell (2011) defines concept sampling as "a purposeful sampling strategy in which the researcher samples individuals or sites because they can help the researcher generate or discover a theory or specific concepts within the theory (p. 208)". Moreover, the researcher purposefully selected the sites, two private English language schools in which the study was conducted. The participants of this study met the following criteria:

- Having at least three years of English language teaching experience
- Expressing willingness to participate in the study voluntarily
- Being an ELT graduate
- Having a full-time teaching position

The researcher visited the sites in order to have a meeting with the teachers who were selected for the study. The selected participants were the ones from whom the researcher could gather a great deal of data to understand the phenomenon and eventually discover the categories related to the phenomenon. The participants were rest assured that their anonymity would be preserved, their beliefs would be adopted, and no comments would be made on their beliefs.

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

Prior to the data collection, all the required permissions were obtained from Anadolu University (Appendix-1). In order to behave in accordance with scientific ethical principles, a number of steps were taken. First, the informed consent was obtained, and the researcher explained the purpose, the length, and benefits of the study to the participants in detail. The participants were informed that they were free to participate or withdraw from the study at any point in time. Second, pseudonyms were given to the participants as well as the external auditors to protect their anonymity. Third, the researcher ensured to cite the sources of all the collected data and include them in the reference list.

Three different data collection tools were used in the study: an open-ended opinionnaire, semi-structured one-on-one interviews, and stimulus recalls. Initially, the participants were asked to write their teaching autobiography based on four broad factors shaping teacher cognition (Appendix-2). These four factors include schooling, professional education, contextual factors, and classroom practice which are interrelated and inform teacher cognition. The model was first proposed by Borg in 1997 (See figure 2. 1). The teachers' autobiographies were in the form of written open-ended "opinionnaires" (Aiken, 1997). The difference between "opinionnaires" and questionnaires is that the former do not contain questions ending with question marks while the latter do. According to Brown (2001) "Questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers (p. 6)". Through the 4-page long open-ended opinionnaires, the researcher collected factual (age, gender, years of experience, and university etc.), behavioral (educational background), and attitudinal (beliefs, thoughts and values) data about the participants. According to Bradburn, Sudman, and Wansink (2004):

Perhaps the most common mistake of the beginner in questionnaire construction is to crowd questions together in the hope of making the questionnaire look short.... A less crowded questionnaire with substantial white space looks easier and generally results in higher cooperation and fewer errors (Bradburn et al., 2004, p. 308).

Due to the researcher's aim to explore the participants' cognition on teaching, collecting as much first-hand information as possible from the participants on teaching and learning through the open-ended explanatory opinionnaires was of paramount importance.

The opinionnaire was piloted before the study in order to resolve any possible word ambiguity, evaluate clarity of the instructions, and determine the average length of time necessary to complete it. Also, prior to giving the opinionnaires to the participants, clear instructions about the statements as well as some prompts about the terms in the opinionnaires were given to the participants in a face to face meeting in order to carry an in-depth analysis of their cognition and beliefs on teaching and learning. In the face-to-face meeting, the researcher spoke to the participants individually about the aims of the opinionnaire and elaborated the statements written in it and then gave the opinionnaire to the participants to complete. The participants were given enough time, one week, to complete the opinionnaires since the aim was to collect as much detailed data as possible and relieve the stress of the participants for completing the opinionnaires. Based on what Oppenheim (1992) said: “In fact, every aspect of a survey has to be tried out beforehand to make sure that it works as intended (p. 47)”.

The second data collection instrument of this study was semi-structured one-on-one interviews with open-ended questions which were conducted before each teaching practice of the participants (Appendix-3). Four teaching practices of each participant and in total twelve teaching practices were videotaped in this study. The interviews were about the participant teachers’ mental lesson plans. Before each teaching practice, the participant teachers explained and articulated their mental lesson plans which they had in mind for the lesson in detail. These meetings were all recorded to be later transcribed to better compare them with the actual lessons in order to spot the possible interactive decisions. The researcher also probed the participants to elaborate the reasons behind selection of the particular stages of their mental lesson plans, overall aim of the lesson, classroom activities, and materials. Although course book writers plan the lessons of the books they write, teachers tend to plan their own lessons based on their students’ needs, interests, motivations, and problems, schools’ policies, and availability of some teaching technological gadgets such as smart boards. When it comes to planning a lesson, the first thing that comes into many pre-service teachers’ minds is a written lesson plan in which the different stages, timing, objectives, and activities have been carefully thought of and written. However, for most experienced and in-service teachers, a lesson plan does not necessarily have to be in a written format. According to Richards (2002):

Many teachers teach successful lessons based on mental plans or on brief lesson notes. What is important is not the extent and detail of the teacher's plan but the extent to which the teacher has developed ideas for turning a potential lesson (such as a textbook lesson) into the basis for an engaging and effective lesson (Richards, 2002, pp. 27-28).

Through these interviews, the researcher aimed to find out to what extent the participant teachers would depart from their lesson plans. Although one-on-one semi-structured interviews were time consuming, they provided the opportunity for extended probing. Creswell (2011) stated "In qualitative research, you ask open-ended questions so that the participants can best voice their experiences unconstrained by any perspectives of the researcher or past research findings (p. 218)".

The first and second data collection instruments were triangulated with video-recorded classroom observations and follow-up stimulus recalls. After gaining the permission from the school manager, the students, and the participant teachers, their teaching practices were videotaped. In general, observations provide researchers with firsthand information. It should be noted that video-data collection has some advantages over traditional observation. To begin with, it is less intrusive, and the observer effect does not exist in video-data collection. Moreover, the recorded video can be replayed multiple times for more detailed analysis. Last but not least, teachers' and students' behaviors and conversations can be captured simultaneously which in turn makes it easier for researchers to analyze the data in the context.

A day after the recording, the researcher and the teacher sat together again and watched the recorded video of the lesson. Through the stimulus recalls the researcher aimed to delve into the participants' cognitive process by getting them to retrieve their memories and articulate their reasons behind their interactive as well as evaluative decisions in their classrooms. According to Lyle "stimulus recall is a family of introspective research procedures through which cognitive processes can be investigated by inviting subjects to recall when prompted by a video sequence, their concurrent thinking during that event (Mackey & Gass, cited in Lyle, 2005)". Prior to watching the recorded video, the researcher made sure to let the participant teachers know that they also had the liberty to pause the video when they noticed an interactive decision i.e., the researcher was not the only person who could pause the video upon noticing interaction decisions. After each pause, the researcher probed the participant teachers to elaborate the reason/s behind their decisions. Following

that, the participant teachers were asked to reflect on the specific interactive decision which they had made and explain whether they would make the same decision or not if they were to teach the same lesson. The aim was to see how different and inconsistent the evaluative decisions could be from the interactive ones and what role their cognition played in both interactive and evaluative decisions.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedure

Through a bottom-up approach which started with in vivo codes and continued with three cycles of open coding, 125 codes were labeled and finally six categories emerged from the codes. In the first round of open coding, in vivo coding, the participants' language was used since they were experienced EFL teachers who were familiar with pedagogical terms. For instance, in his second stimulus recall, Serdar said: "I just do it to make them interact with each other and with me" from which the code "promoting interaction" emerged. The new codes were constantly compared with the old ones and the external auditor evaluated and assessed the whole coding process. The researcher then grouped the similar and related codes into more abstract codes and moved towards categorization. Sometimes, the codes were similar lexically, however, their similarities were often related to their inherent meanings of the words, phrases, and sentences uttered by the participants. For instance, Fazilet, in her third stimulus recall, said: "I tried to make it fun by writing their own jokes even on the board." The code which was derived from this sentence in the second round of open coding was "reducing stress". After the third round of open coding, the researcher put the related codes into six categories. The second external auditor then was brought to the study as the third eye in order to evaluate the accuracy of the codes and the categories. Finally, in order to enhance trustworthiness, triangulation, member checking, external audit, prolonged engagement in the field, and collaboration were used in this study.

3.4.1. Constant Comparison

This study aimed to explore teacher cognition and its role in the interactive and evaluative decision-making process of the three teacher participants. During the study, the researcher purposefully isolated the interactive decisions made during the lessons from other actions and behaviors of the participants and focused only on them to be able to explore the

process of making the interactive and evaluative decisions and ultimately was aiming to give a detailed explanation of the reasons behind the participants' interactive and evaluative decisions.

Analysis of qualitative data follows a bottom-up approach initiating with instances, words, codes, categories, themes and ending with interpretations. In this study, all the video recorded interviews and lessons were transcribed, and then transcriptions were broken down into their salient segments and fragments based on the stages of the mental lesson plans as well as the interactive decisions which were identified during stimulus recalls. The analysis was done by hand and the researcher initially read the transcriptions several times in detail. While codifying the data, memos on the margins were written to assist the researcher better reflect on the written codes. Also, the memos assisted the external auditor to better understand what was going on in the researcher's mind during the codification process which in turn helped him better evaluate and comment on the given codes. Robson (2002) laid emphasis on discovering the messages hidden in the data before interpreting the data. According to him, the implicit messages lied in the data "need careful teasing out (p. 387)".

In the initial coding part, the participants' actual words called in vivo were used. According to (2015) "In Vivo Codes use the direct language of participants as codes rather than researcher-generated words and phrases (p. 48)". This was done due to the fact that the participants were all experienced ELT teachers who were familiar with ELT terms, so there was no need to apply new codes. Another reason why in vivo codes were used was to honor the participant teachers' voices and as Saldaña (2015) said "to ground the analysis from their perspectives (p. 48)". Open coding was the first phase of the analysis in this study. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990) open coding is "the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data (p. 61)". To codify the data, transcriptions of the stimulus recalls were broken down to meaningful chunks. For example, each interactive decision identified by the researcher or the teacher was regarded as a chunk. As mentioned earlier, in the first cycle of coding, the teacher used the teacher participants' words as codes. Then, the codes were constantly compared and contrasted as the analysis moved forward, and through this constant comparison, the old codes were compared with the new ones to better ground them in the data which finally led to the emergence of six categories. Upon the completion of coding the four teaching practices of each participant, the results

were emailed as attachments to the external auditor to be evaluated and assessed. Upon the completion of evaluation and assessment of the codes, they were emailed back to the researcher. Following that, the researcher and the auditor would have a face to face meeting a few days later to discuss all the new changes made by the auditor to the codes. Four lengthy face to face meetings took place in the study: three meetings for discussing the codes and one final meeting for the categories. It should be noted that during the process of codification, the researcher and the external auditor were in constant touch via phone, email, and brief face to face meetings at the school to discuss and exchange ideas on the codes. During the lengthy discussion sessions, the auditor had the liberty to watch the recorded videos to have a better and clearer picture of the situations in which the participant's teachers had made the interactive decisions. Also, the researcher provided the auditor, the full transcriptions of the stimulus recalls for further clarifications. Through this constant comparison of codes and categories, the researcher progressed towards saturation, trying to find more instances and examples of the codes and categories until no new relevant information was provided by the data. Finally, the categories were identified and were shared with the auditor to be evaluated. Once an agreement was reached on the codes and categories between the first external auditor and the researcher, the second external auditor, as the third eye, was brought to the study to evaluate, assess, and comment on the whole codification process. In fact, the process of coding and finding categories is not linear but rather cyclical and recursive. Creswell (2011) calls this process as an emergent design:

The researcher collects data, analyzes it immediately and bases the decision about what data to collect next. This process waves back and forth between data collection and analysis and it continues until the researcher reaches saturation of a category (Creswell, 2011, p. 433).

It should be mentioned that the researcher made sure to take different dimensions of the codes into account. If the participants referred to a certain action with the same word for instance, the researcher made sure to delve into their point of views to find out if they meant exactly the same thing or there were minor variations in what they meant. After three rounds of revision of the codes, they were grouped into six different categories. The Creswell's (2011) Constant Comparison scheme was used in the study.

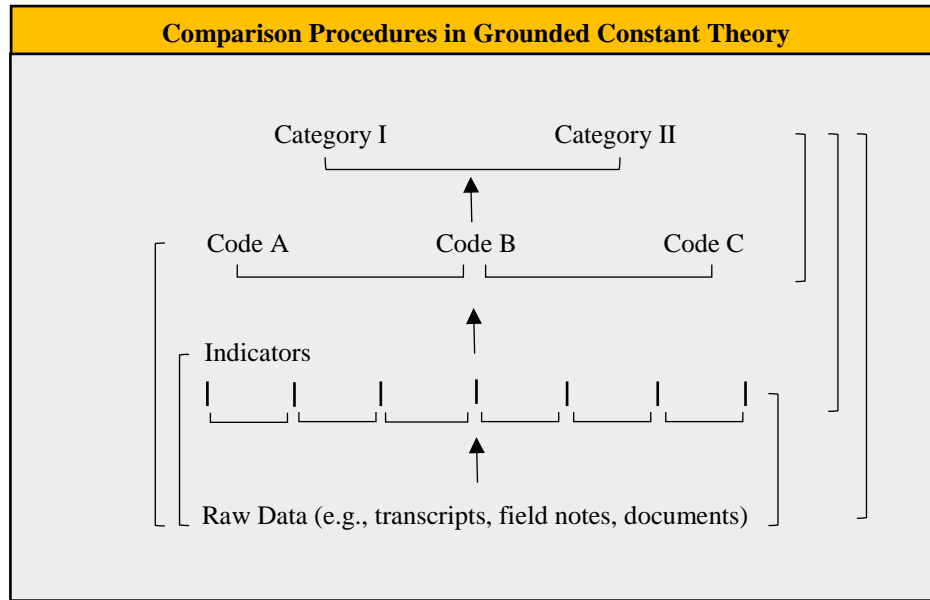


Figure 3.2. *Constant comparison Procedures in Grounded Theory (Creswell, 2011, p.434)*

As the figure 3.2 shows, collecting data starts with raw indicators which are in fact small pieces of information which come from the participants or people participating in a study. Researchers then put these raw pieces into related groups which are called codes. Afterwards, codes are put into more abstract boxes called categories. According to Creswell (2011) “Throughout this process, the researcher is constantly comparing indicators to indicators, codes to codes, and categories to categories. This eliminates redundancy and develops evidence for categories (p.434)”.

3.4.2. Trustworthiness

In general, qualitative research has always been under criticism due to a number of factors such as lack of generalizability, researcher bias, and subjectivity. However, it should be noted that the main aim of qualitative research is to explore a central phenomenon or a personal experience. Through this exploratory path, researchers rely heavily on their participants’ words in order to interpret them. It is no wonder that interpretation is an indispensable part of qualitative research. An important task of researchers, in all qualitative research, is to make sure that their findings and interpretations are accurate. Unlike quantitative research, researchers who conduct qualitative research do not come to

conclusions based on statistical analysis. Their findings rely, as mentioned earlier, on their interpretations of their participants' words. That is why some argue that qualitative research is not well-established in terms of validity and reliability. When the findings of a research represent reality, the research is said to have validity (Hinds, Scandrett-Hibden & McAulay, 1990; Morse & Field, 1995). When the findings of a research are replicable and stable rather than accidental, the research findings are said to be reliable (Kirk & Miller, 1986). Lincoln Guba, and Pilotta (1985) came up with a general term called "trustworthiness" to address reliability and validity in qualitative research. According to their perspective, trustworthiness consists of four parts; credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility in qualitative research refers to the extent to which the research findings are congruent with reality (Merriam, 1998). It also highlights how confident researchers are in terms of their accuracy to explore the central phenomenon. In other words, if findings of a research are credible, the researcher is confident that the research has investigated with careful scrutiny what it is intended to. This can be done through various strategies such as triangulation, member checking, external auditing, selecting the right data collection tools as well as data analysis design, and detailed description of the central phenomenon. Transferability refers to detailed description of the context within which the research takes place so that it enables the reader to make more accurate judgment to transfer the findings to the new context. This can be achieved to a great extent through providing detailed information about the research participants, location(s), as well as the central phenomenon. In fact, it is the responsibility of readers to determine and decide to what extent they can be certain in transferring the research findings to other situations which they believe are similar to the one which is described in the research. Dependability refers to the vivid and detailed description of the study as well as the participants, full documentation of the research design and its implementation, and possible changes of the context within which the research is conducted to allow future researchers to conduct and repeat the research. Finally, confirmability refers to how objectively researchers collect, analyze, and interpret the data. In other words, researchers' personal motivation and bias should play no role during collection, analyzing and interpreting the data. The steps which should be taken to ensure confirmability include triangulation as well as external auditing. In order to enhance

trustworthiness in this study, the following steps were taken which were proposed by Creswell and Miller (2000).

3.4.2.1. Triangulation

As a validity procedure, researchers tend to mix data or methods to shed light on the central phenomenon under investigation from different viewpoints with the hope of providing a clearer picture of the phenomenon. Creswell (2011) defines triangulation as

The process of corroborating evidence from different individuals (e.g., a principal and a student), types of data (e.g., observational field notes and interviews), or methods of data collection (e.g., documents and interviews) in descriptions and themes in qualitative research (Creswell, 2011, p.259).

In this study, the first and second data collection instruments i.e., the participant teachers' autobiographies and semi-structured interviews, were triangulated with video-recorded classroom observations and follow-up stimulus recalls.

3.4.2.2. Member checking

Validity is not necessarily in the hands of researchers. It can be shifted from researchers to subjects in a study through member checking. Member checking takes place when the researcher returns the interpreted data to the participants of the study to confirm the credibility of the interpretations and narrations and check if the codes which have been applied are accurate and make sense from the members' perspectives. According to Lincoln Guba, and Pilotta (1985) member checking is "the most crucial technique for establishing credibility (p. 314)". In this study, the researcher initially asked every one of the participants to check the accuracy of the raw data including transcriptions for their accuracy. After collecting and coding the data from each participant, the participants were asked to comment on the codes and categories. Also, the participants were asked to read and comment on their full descriptions with regard to their teaching cognition based on their written autobiographies.

3.4.2.3. External audit

Bringing external experts to a study to examine carefully and evaluate the process and the product of the study can enhance the trustworthiness of its findings. Two external auditors who were both ELT experts were brought to the study to examine, assess and evaluate if the codes and categories had been correctly applied. Once a lesson was transcribed and codified in terms of interactive decisions, the analysis was sent to first the auditor to be examined. Later the changes and the comments made by the first external auditor were discussed in a series of prolonged face to face meetings. In fact, there was constant communication between the researcher and the first auditor during the codification process. It should be noted that the codification process took more than seven months, and during this time the researcher and the first auditor were, as mentioned earlier, in constant touch to discuss, evaluate, and comment on the codes and the categories. This prolonged and constant communication and engagement with the first external auditor could have resulted in an unconscious agreement on the codes and categories by both sides which could have adversely affected the trustworthiness of the study. For this reason, the second external auditor was brought to the study as the third eye to check and evaluate the accuracy of all codes and categories. The description of each auditor is given below. To protect the external auditors' anonymity, pseudonyms have been given to them. According to Creswell and Miller (2000) "the goal of a formal audit is to examine both the process and product of the inquiry, and determine the trustworthiness of the findings (p.128)". The description of each auditor is given below. To protect the external auditors' anonymity, pseudonyms have been given to them.

Albert, the first external auditor, was 38 years old and had been an English teacher since the age of 20. He did his bachelor's degree in English studies and translation in 2004 and he finished his master's program in ELT in 2008. He had been teaching all English proficiency levels from children's level to exam preparation courses such as IELTS and TOEFL to different age groups for years. He had also taught ESP as well as EAP courses in different language schools in different countries including Iran, Lebanon, Georgia, and Turkey. Albert also held the CELTA certificate from Cambridge University, and he was doing the DELTA module one. He had been teaching English in Turkey for a year when he accepted to be the external auditor of the study. Throughout the codification process, the researcher and Albert were in constant touch either through emails, text messages, or face to

face meetings whenever they thought of different codes for a single situation until they agreed on every single code through elaborate and at times lengthy discussions.

Michael was 42 years old and held an M.A. in TEFL. He was planning to do his Ph. D in TEFL because he had received admission form a university. He had completed several courses including the CELTA course in 2011, Training of Trainers Course in Istanbul (T.O.T) at British Council in 2014 and IELTS Training Course at IDP IELTS center in 2016. He had been teaching English in different English language schools for more than 20 years when he accepted to be the second external auditor of the study. He had taught all English levels and several English course books including Interchange, Top Notch, Summit, Spectrum, Move up, Passages, English Result, Market Leader, Business Result, American English file, Cutting Edge, Headway, touchstone. During his tenure as Director of Studies for an English language academy which took 7 years, he was in charge of mentoring both teachers and learners, observing classes, material development, syllabus design and curriculum development, preparing midterm and final paper exams, running teacher training course for pre-service and in-service teachers, and organizing English classes for private and governmental companies. He had also taught English at Elmi–Karbordi University in Tehran. Michael had attended many EFL/ESL seminars to foster his professional development. Moreover, he had conducted several EFL webinars – one of which was titled “Reflective Teaching” for in-service teachers - and teacher training courses online due to covid19 pandemic.

3.4.2.4. Prolonged engagement in the field

As the researcher had been working with the participants in the language schools in which the study was conducted, they obviously spent sufficient time together at the school which gave the researcher and the participants an opportunity to discuss the study which was their phenomenon of interest.

3.4.2.5. Collaboration

In this study, the teacher participants helped with open hands. For example, they accepted the researcher’s request with regard to the interview date without any hesitation.

The participant teachers also assisted the researcher to find the best location for placing the camera to videotape their lessons. They willingly agreed to read the codes and categories as well to examine if they matched with the interactive decisions they had made. This close collaboration of the participants and the researcher throughout the process of research added to the credibility of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. FINDINGS

This chapter, initially, presents a full description of the participants and then reviews a detailed analysis of interactive decisions which the participants made by presenting the categories and the codes emerged from the collected data through constant comparison. It should be noted that some excerpts, given in this chapter, included utterances produced in Turkish by the students which were translated into English by the researcher. To reach deeper understanding of the reasons behind the teacher participants' interactive decisions, a top-down analysis approach has been used which starts from the categories and ends up with each single code including excerpts from the stimulus recalls for further clarification. Finally, this chapter reviews the reasons behind the participants' evaluative decisions.

4.1. Participants

To better know the participants, a full description of the participants has been given below. To protect the participants' anonymity, pseudonyms were given to the teacher participants.

4.1.1. Leman

Leman was a 25-year-old female teacher who had been teaching English for three years. She graduated from the Faculty of Foreign Languages, English Language Teaching department. She also studied in Austria for one term with Erasmus+ student exchange program. Before working for the English language school where the study was conducted, she used to be a preschool teacher. During the data collection process, she was teaching elementary and pre-intermediate level students. She also conducted a research study about the Efficiency of Teaching Prepositions in English Inductively.

Leman believed that teachers needed to plan their lessons ahead so that maximum learners' involvement and interactions both with their peers and teachers could take place in classrooms. She also believed that a process-oriented syllabus had a more beneficial effect on learners. As far as the classroom atmosphere was concerned, Leman maintained that teachers needed to do their best to create a stress-free classroom atmosphere in which learners

could freely express themselves and get involved in different activities with low levels of anxiety.

I believe as a student I really liked to be involved in activities and games so I could say that a process-oriented syllabus seemed more fun to me rather than a product oriented one. Personally, I would like to feel relaxed and as a piece of a family when I am in the classroom. I wouldn't want to feel anxious to make mistakes and feel free to express my thoughts (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020).

In Leman's point of view, teachers needed to use authentic materials including more real life, comprehensible and attractive contents to promote learning. According to her "As a student I preferred books with authentic content and well-illustrated and up-to-date activities (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". To Leman, it was important for English teachers to be understanding, positive, and motivating. Promoting interactions in their lessons by teachers was also important in Leman's point of view. She remembered having two good English teachers who had completely different styles of teaching. However, they both were encouraging and positive. In terms of personality, the first teacher was an active teacher and he always planned his lessons with different activities and games. During his lessons, the students were always encouraged to take part in those activities, yet there was no pressure on them to participate in the activities. "During lessons students were always offered to take part in those activities but without obligations (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". The second teacher was a kind and encouraging man who followed the Grammar-Translation method all of the time which worked really well for the students who were studying for university entrance exams including Leman. However, it did not help them improve their listening and speaking skills at all. Leman maintained that teachers played a pivotal role in their lessons and learners' improvements greatly depended on the teachers' role and their qualifications. "Teachers are the most essential component of language learning (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". Leman defined the role of teachers as facilitators who could promote discovering learning in the classrooms. "I could state that a teacher should not be a problem solver but a facilitator, enabling students to find their way during the process of learning (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". Leman was not keen on teachers who were strict, arrogant, and extremely traditional in terms of character and teaching style. She described her German classes at school as extremely

tedious since the learners' needs, in her opinion, were not taken into consideration, and the teacher did not teach German in the target language. "My German classes were the worst classes I have taken. Our teacher was far from meeting students' needs and expectations (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". Relying only on the course book, focusing on grammatical structures, giving mechanical drills, and planning the lessons poorly were the other reasons why Leman thought her German class was beneficial for her.

With regard to teaching methodologies, approaches, and techniques, Leman believed that teachers needed to know them really well. However, she believed that teachers needed to have the liberty to choose the methodologies, approaches, and techniques which suited their classes best based on their learners' needs as well as schools' expectations.

Language teachers must be provided with as many methodologies and techniques as possible as well as giving them the flexibility and authority to choose for their own classes. A teacher should have the opportunity to decide whether he/she needs to teach deductively or inductively depending on the topic by taking students' backgrounds and learning styles into consideration (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020).

Leman believed that there was not a single method of teaching English. "I support that no one specific approach or method would be efficient. Every student has his own needs and every class has their own needs depending on a variety of aspects (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". Leman also laid emphasis on the importance of teachers' familiarity with their learners' individual differences which could assist teachers to play their roles more efficiently as facilitators. Leman claimed that she had learned many teaching techniques and activities during her university time. "I've learned activities like drama activities, games like kahoot, hangman, taboo in vocabulary teaching, reading comprehension activities like discussion and open-ended questions and so on (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". As for teaching materials, she stressed that they needed to be entertaining, attractive, and comprehensible to the students to motivate them. "For materials, I've learned that they should be understandable (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". Based on her teaching experience, Leman maintained that some external variables and factors such as institutional and managerial factors, the limitations which teachers faced with regard to schools' expectations and their curricula as well as teacher-management relationship could affect teaching. "The teacher-institution and

especially teacher-management relationship plays a big role here, these may have some negative or positive effects depending on the relationship's quality (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". According to Leman, teachers needed to be given the liberty to choose their own materials and the teaching techniques which suited best for their lessons. She stated that depriving teachers from such liberties could have adverse effects on teachers' teaching. "If you are not given any flexibility to come up with your own teaching ideas or materials of your choice, you are simply a technician operating a machine rather than an engineer designing it (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". Leman also believed that teaching in a culturally diverse classroom could affect teaching. She stated that teaching in such a situation required more effort and attention in terms of selecting the materials to teach since learners' culture and background needed to be taken into account, and the materials needed to be selected accordingly.

According to Leman, the course books and materials provided by schools were quite enough for teachers to plan their lessons, however, teachers needed to be given the independence to choose extra materials from other resources if necessary. Leman claimed that she had changed in terms of her behavior towards her students. She claimed that she had become friendlier and more communicative, and that change had helped Leman promote interactions in her lessons. "I've become more interactive with students (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". To reduce cognitive overload, Leman stressed that the inductive approach worked well. "I generally first give the example and ask for them to realize and explain when they have used the structure (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". She also maintained that teaching was a multifaceted task and many variables such as course objectives, learner needs, learners' learning styles, curriculum and syllabus, assessment methods, appropriate teaching methodologies for course objectives and students were involved in teaching which needed to be taken into account by teachers. Table 4.1 shows Leman's early perceptions and beliefs as a learner at school about learning and teaching. This is the first factor which informs teachers' cognitions according to Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997). The table is divided into two sections, liking and disliking, to make it easier to grasp the factors which she approved and disapproved with regard to teaching and learning.

Table 4.1. *Leman's schooling*

Leman's beliefs as a learner before entering university	
Liking	Disliking
Games and activities	Grammar Translation Method
Completing tasks	Strict, arrogant, and extremely traditional teachers
Relaxed classroom atmosphere	Ignoring students' needs and expectations
Books with authentic, well-illustrated content as well as up-to-date activities	Feeling anxious in the classrooms
Proficient, understanding, positive, motivating, encouraging, active, and prepared teachers	Having no plan and rationale for lessons
Interactive lessons	Focusing only on course book
Process oriented syllabus	
Classrooms with adequate facilities	
Pair and group work tasks	
No pressure on learners to do classroom activities	

As the Table 4.1 shows, Leman, as a young learner, was interested in the lessons which were interactive, fun, and well prepared including many activities, games and tasks since she identified herself as kinesthetic type in her teaching autobiography. "I was in the group of kinesthetic learners and it was quite important for me to be an active one (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22.01.2020)". In general, she enjoyed the lessons with a low anxiety level.

Table 4.2 presents the factors which shaped Leman's teaching beliefs on learning and teaching at her university time. Professional coursework is the second factor which affects teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997).

Table 4.2. *Leman's professional coursework*

Leman's beliefs as a university student
Teacher training programs focusing more on Communicative as well as Task-based language teaching
Misinterpretation of English language instructors about the dominance of communicative aspect of language resulting in a common belief that teaching grammar is no longer needed in the lessons
Becoming aware of the fact that Communicative Language Teaching does not necessarily mean that learners have to speak all the time and do oral exercises
An opportunity to learn various English teaching approaches and methods
Not being a single method to teach English
Having the liberty to choose the method or techniques that teachers think suit best for their classes
Taking into account learners' needs, backgrounds before deciding which approach or method to select
Developing teaching skills through micro teaching practices at university provides real classroom situations and conditions
Becoming aware of the importance of individual differences
Playing the role of a facilitator to put learners on the discovery learning path
Learning various kinds of classroom activities to get students more involved
Learning that only the materials which are comprehensible are useful for language learners

Leman discovered that several variables such as learners' needs and backgrounds alongside teaching methodologies, approaches and techniques played important roles in teaching. Also, she became aware of the fact that she needed to be selective in terms of teaching materials, techniques, and methods since learners' needs and styles were different. It was at her university time when Leman identified her teaching role as facilitator. In general, Leman learned and discovered many things about teaching and learning at university and had occasional chances to put them into practice through micro teaching programs. In a word, Leman was on the discovery path with regard to teaching English.

Table 4.3 shows the contextual and external factors which impacted Leman's teaching based on her teaching experiences. Contextual factors are the third types of factors which shape teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997).

Table 4.3. *Contextual factors affecting Leman's teaching*

Leman's beliefs on the external variables impacting her teaching
Institutional and managerial factors draw line for teachers on what to teach and what not to teach for example,
Some institutions give the liberty to their teachers to choose their materials and some simply do not.
The teacher-management relationship might bring about good or bad results.
Socio-cultural backgrounds of learners affect teaching.
Learners' general knowledge about their world needs to be taken into account.
Learners' individual differences in terms of learning need to be taken into consideration.

According to Leman, contextual and external factors such as managerial factors had always been there and were in fact inevitable. However, she believed that teachers needed to be given the liberty to do their jobs as long as they did not cross the borders which were been drawn by the school managers.

Table 4.4 shows Leman's actual teaching experiences after graduation, and how she has changed through the last three years. Based on the Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), classroom practice is the fourth factor which shapes teachers' cognitions.

Table 4.4. *Leman's classroom practices*

How Leman's teaching has changed throughout the years
Having become more communicative
Planning more interactive lessons
Creating more friendly classroom atmosphere
Having become more resourceful in terms of choosing teaching materials
Focusing on meaning first then on forms
Teaching from examples to rules
Making the best use of the course books due to her familiarity with them
Integrating games into the lessons
Having become more eclectic in terms of teaching methods and techniques
Taking the learners' needs and aims of learning as well as the course objectives into account as when it comes to planning lessons

4.1.2. Fazilet

Fazilet was a 26-year-old female teacher who had been teaching English for four years when she accepted to be a participant of the study. She previously had taught in two different private universities in Istanbul and a private international summer school located in London. During the data collection process, she was teaching elementary and pre intermediate level students for 21 hours weekly. She also held B.A. in ELT as well as the TESOL certificate. She grew up in a bilingual family with a Turkish father and a Bulgarian mother. Her first encounter with learning English dated back to when she was in her 4th grade at elementary school. She described herself as being so interested in learning the English language as well as being polite and courteous towards her teachers. “I was both respectful and obedient towards my teachers and older people which was a requirement governed by the society and rules at school (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)”. According to Fazilet, all her English teachers at school had a common aim to prepare the students for university entrance exams. “They all prepared us for the standardized tests and exams by using the books as tools to achieve that primary goal (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)”. Fazilet maintained that her English teachers at school lacked imagination and creativity and she remembered only one of her teachers with a tinge of creativity who would always put on music and get the students to sing English songs in the classroom. “They never used classroom activities apart from only one teacher who used the Beatles song “Yesterday” on a cassette player when I was in the 8th grade (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)”.

With regard to her teachers at school, Fazilet stated that all her English teachers made the students feel comfortable and secure during their lessons, and she believed that this was crucial for learning to take place. She also believed that English teachers did not need to be completely dependent upon school curriculum.

Being committed to teaching didn’t mean being totally committed to the curriculum and school rules as it showed a lack of independence which is an important part of being a responsible and creative human being and a good teacher (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020).

To Fazilet, teachers needed to be creative and resourceful. Guiding students towards autonomy was the responsibility of teachers in Fazilet’s opinion. “Creating a learning environment which should teach students how to be autonomous learners rather than how to memorize information (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)”.

Fazilet believed that language learning and language teaching were completely two different subjects and the one who knew a language could not necessarily be a teacher unless he/she had knowledge about English teaching methodologies, approaches, principles and techniques. “Knowing a language and teaching a language are totally different (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)”. In addition, in Fazilet’s opinion, teachers needed to know how to put their academic knowledge into practice. She remembered benefiting from teaching practices and receiving feedback from her teachers when she was a university student. “We learnt the applications of these theories and approaches by doing weekly and monthly presentations, micro and macro teaching in real classrooms and getting regular observations and feedback from our teachers (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)”.

Learning about selecting pieces of different teaching approaches to create integrated lessons during her university time played an important role in Fazilet’s career. “Integrating CLT, Grammar Translation, Audiolingual, and Task-based methodologies into our lesson plans were the basics of our education (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)”. In Fazilet’s opinion, teaching was an amalgamation of teachers’ academic knowledge, teaching experience as well as teachers’ self-studies.

Throughout four years of teaching English, Fazilet came to the conclusion that keeping a balance between schools’ and the managers’ as well as students’ expectations and needs was important and necessary. She believed that there were several external factors which could affect teaching and teachers needed to be aware of them. They also needed to learn how to deal with external factors.

I used to believe Howard Gardner’s Multiple Intelligence Theory but now my teaching experiences in various workplaces to many different students from versatile backgrounds and knowledge, changed my perspective to a huge extent. Not only students but also the colleagues and managers had a great impact on how and what I teach in the classroom (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020).

Falizet believed that teachers needed to know and respect the rules of the schools for which they worked. In her opinion, it was also necessary for teachers to take their students’ needs into account. Fazilet disapproved of some rules set by the schools she worked for, however, she stated that she tried to comply with them. “Discipline and modesty are the

criteria emphasized by the managers which I decline but I have to follow rather than focusing on the effectiveness of my teaching most of the time (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)".

Being an experienced teacher, Fazilet maintained that her teaching had changed compared to her early years of teaching. The amount of time she spent on preparing lessons in terms of choosing the activities and tasks for her students was far less than the amount of time she used to spend on them. "I used to spend hours trying to find the correct and suitable exercises and activities for my students but now this process takes shorter time even no time at all (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)". Moreover, Fazilet's decisions in the lessons had become more interactive. "I don't think I'm the same person and a teacher as I was 4 years ago. Activity choices especially have become more intuitive and on-the-spot which was quite different then (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)".

She characterized herself as a communicative teacher who played the role of a guide in her classrooms. "Having had good or bad colleagues and students has taught me a lesson which is to be a clear instructor and an effective guide in the classroom" (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020)". She claimed that she was more in control of her anxiety, and she felt more secure and confident when it came to teaching multicultural classes.

I feel more stable when it comes to my behavior in the classroom or towards my students. The experiences I had helped to overcome my fears of controlling huge or multicultural classes, young and old ones, talkative or silent ones, too (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27.01.2020).

She claimed that her classroom management skills had improved, and she was better able to analyze and assess her students' English levels and needs.

Table 4.5 shows which factors affected Fazilet's early perceptions and cognitions as a learner at school. Schooling is the one of the four factors which shapes teachers' cognitions according to Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997). The table is divided in two sections, liking and disliking, to make it easier to grasp the factors which she approves and disapproves when it comes to teaching and learning.

Table 4.5. *Fazilet's schooling*

Fazilet's beliefs as a learner before entering university	
Liking	Disliking
Being keen on learning languages	Lack of creativity in the classrooms
Being interested in games and fun classroom activities and tasks	Focusing only on grammar to prepare the students for the university entrance exam
Feeling secured, relaxed and independent in the lesson	Lack of interactive classroom activities
Teachers' sense of humor and sarcasm	Rote learning
Feeling autonomous	

Table 4.5 shows that Fazilet as a learner was keen on participating in activities and games and enjoyed lessons in which the anxiety level was low. In a word, the stress-free classroom atmosphere was a step towards autonomy in Fazilet's perspective.

Table 4.6 shows which factors shaped Fazilet's cognition about English language teaching when she was a university student. Professional coursework is another factor which shapes teachers' cognitions according to Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997).

Table 4.6. *Fazilet's professional coursework*

Fazilet's beliefs as a university student
Transition period
Teaching as a demanding job
Learning different ELT methods, approaches, and techniques
Receiving feedback by her tutors for her micro and macro teaching
Teaching as an amalgamation of experience
Observing other teachers
Gaining academic knowledge

As table 4.6 shows, university time was an opportunity for Fazilet to learn different teaching methods, approaches, and techniques theoretically and to put them into practice through Micro and macro teaching practices which made her aware of the fact that teaching was a demanding profession.

Table 4.7 shows the contextual factors which could have effects on teaching in Fazilet's point of view. Contextual factors are the third types of factors shaping teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997).

Table 4.7. *Contextual factors affecting Fazilet's teaching*

Fazilet's beliefs on the external variables impacting teaching
Students, colleagues, and managers
School's curriculum and syllabus

In Fazilet's point of view, colleagues could also affect teaching. This was not mentioned by Leman. However, Leman mentioned other factors such as socio-cultural backgrounds of learners and learners' individual differences which cannot be seen in Fazilet's table. Table 4.8 shows how Fazilet's teaching has changed throughout the years. Based on the Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), classroom practice is the fourth factor which shapes teachers' cognitions.

Table 4.8. *Fazilet's classroom practices*

How Fazilet's teaching has changed throughout the years
Loving and respecting students regardless of their age, level, culture and personality types
Taking the institutions' expectations into account
Learning how to keep a balance between students' and managers' needs and expectations
Putting personal emotions and feelings aside and focusing on work
Planning lessons and choosing activities more quickly
Becoming more confident and stable as a teacher
Fulfilling students' needs easier
Developing evaluation skills
Making more spontaneous decisions in lessons
Overcoming stress and anxiety while teaching
Giving clear instructions

Fazilet became more aware of her teaching as well as the external factors which affected her teaching. She improved her teaching, classroom management, and stress management skills.

4.1.3. Serdar

Serdar was a thirty-one-year old male teacher who had been teaching English for seven years when he accepted to be a participant of this study. He graduated from the Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching department. He used to work for International Blind Sport Association (IBSA) as an assistant for two years. In his first year of teaching, Serdar worked with high school students in Şanlıurfa province in Turkey. A year later, he moved to Istanbul and worked for a language school there. He had experience of teaching young learners and adults from elementary to upper-intermediate levels.

Serdar remembered having his first ELT graduate teacher when he entered high school. Before that, all his English teachers were not ELT graduates and had little knowledge about English language teaching. For example, he had an English teacher who was in fact an Art teacher. “I can easily say that we didn't have proper English classes. We didn't even have an English teacher until high school (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020). When he entered high school, Serdar only knew a few English expressions and words. He was a high school student when he decided to choose English teaching as his future career, however, his teacher tried to talk him out of it by explaining how challenging and difficult teaching English was.

I wasn't very good at English but was really eager to learn it. When I became a second grade, I wanted to become an English teacher and talked to my teacher about that. She discouraged me by saying it would be quite difficult for me and it's better to choose a different job. However, I insisted on my dream job (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020).

In his second year of high school, Serdar had a new teacher who was active, communicative, and friendly, and her lessons were fun including many activities and games. “We did various activities like role playing, memorizing dialogues from the book and performing them in front of the class, playing some games and listening to English songs (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)”. However, she was not good at explaining English grammar rules when the students had difficulty choosing the correct answer in multiple choice grammar question types. “When we asked for the explanation she used to say: This choice sounds better than the others (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)”. Serdar knew that he needed to improve his English grammar in order to be able to pass the university entrance exam. In his last year of high school, he had a new

qualified English teacher who helped him so much in this regard. In the end, Serdar managed to pass university exam to pursue his dream of becoming an English teacher.

Mostly he used grammar translation method and showed us how to do the test in a short time. He showed us a lot of really helpful clues which helped us find the correct answer in a really short time. Thanks to him I went to a really good university just after high school (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020).

As for the classroom atmosphere, Serdar's preference was a classroom in which learners could participate in different activities and tasks well-planned in advance by teachers to help the students move towards discovery learning. "In the classes of the teachers who created a vivid and interactive classroom atmosphere according to process-oriented syllabus I really liked to be there and participate in all activities (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)". Serdar believed that the learners' level of anxiety had to be low in the classrooms, and no pressure needed to be put on learners to do their tasks. "I don't like to be under pressure (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)". As far as good teachers were concerned, Serdar believed that they needed to be well-prepared for their lessons. Also, he maintained that good teachers needed to consider the anticipated problems in order to be able to deal with them more effectively.

For me a good teacher is the one who knows what you will face in a real classroom and helps you be ready for it. The experienced teachers share their experiences with you and create a realistic classroom atmosphere (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020).

Serdar believed that English teachers needed to play the role of guides and facilitators in their lessons. Also, they needed to be responsive to their learners' needs. "A teacher isn't a problem solver only. He helps the students to find the problem by themselves by giving them some clues which students already learned from previous lessons. A teacher is also a facilitator and a guide (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)". Serdar was greatly influenced by one of his university teachers whose classes, according to Serdar, were full of different fun activities and games such as acting out, miming, and card games for building up vocabulary. "He was really active and had a good sense of humor. His lessons were full of different activities (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)".

As for teachers' personality, Serdar believed that it was unnecessary for teachers to be arrogant and strict. Instead, they needed to be friendly and communicative to make the

students feel secure and relaxed in the classrooms which in turn would get them to become freely involved in different activities.

University time for Serdar was an opportunity to learn different teaching approaches, methods, and techniques. It was at this time when he discovered that the approaches and methods were not by themselves enough and other variables had to be taken into account with regard to teaching.

The teachers taught us a group of methods and approaches, from grammar translation method to multiple intelligence theory, have been used to teach languages. Later we discovered that with different age groups and purposes of learning the languages we ought to choose different methods and approaches focusing on the characteristics of age groups and the needs of the learners (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020).

Serdar believed that English language teachers needed to know different English teaching methodologies and approaches well, and based on their learners' needs, they needed to be able to select the appropriate approach and teaching technique to create a stress-free and attractive classroom environment in order to make the students feel secure and eager to participate in classroom activities. Serdar believed that there was not a single method to teach English. He also believed that communication in the target language needed to be the main aim of the lessons. "The main aspect of language teaching is to teach students how to communicate in the target language. To do that, building an interactive classroom in which learners are involved in real communication is the key (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)". Serdar claimed that teacher training programs were mostly based on communicative language teaching, eclectic approach and task-based language teaching.

During his internship, Serdar had a chance to put his ideas and the theories he had learned at university into practice and receive feedback from his tutors through micro-teaching programs. "We could find a chance to practice and see how effective it could be on the student's learning through micro-teachings (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)".

With regard to external factors affecting teaching, Serdar maintained that students' cultural and social backgrounds could affect teaching and teachers needed to plan their lessons according to their students' cultural and social backgrounds in order to better fulfill their needs. "The students coming from different cultural and social backgrounds tend to

develop different characters from each other. Because the circumstances they grow up in are really different from each other. They can be chalk and cheese (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)". Serdar also believed that school policies and rules could at times affect teaching negatively if they restricted teachers to a great extent. "For instance, at some places you have to teach using only communicative language teaching and expect the students to practice the target language only orally (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)". The schools' rules as well as the accessibility of teaching materials for teachers were the other factors which could affect teaching in Serdar's opinion. "The institution you work for and the materials you can reach also affect your teaching practices. If the rules at the institution you work for are really strict, you can't do all the things you want (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)".

Serdar claimed that his seven-year teaching experience had helped him improve his classroom management skills. Also, Serdar mentioned that he had become more aware of the similarities among Turkish English language learners in terms of the errors they made. "The reasons why they make mistakes and what is difficult for them to learn and how their mother tongue can hinder or promote their understanding and also how to help them in the simplest ways (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)". Moreover, Serdar had become more communicative, and his lessons had become more interactive and entertaining compared to the early years when he was a novice teacher. "I have become more interactive and friendly in my classrooms and later in my social life, too (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15.07.2020)".

Table 4.9 shows the factors which affected Serdar's early perceptions and beliefs about teaching as a learner at school. Schooling is the first factor which shapes teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997). The table is divided in two sections, liking and disliking, to make it easier to grasp the factors which he approves and disapproves when it comes to teaching and learning.

Table 4.9. *Serdar's schooling*

Serdar's beliefs and cognition as a learner before entering university	
Liking	Disliking
Communicative and friendly teachers	Lessons with only grammar focus
Interactive lessons which include games and different activities as well as tasks	Unqualified English language teachers
Physical appearance of teachers as well as their appropriate behaviors towards the students	Discouraging English teachers
Stress-free classroom atmosphere	Arrogant and strict teachers

Establishing a rapport and creating a classroom atmosphere in which the students' level of anxiety was low, which in turn led to more classroom participation, were the main factors which Serdar noticed as a learner in his early school time and shaped his early teaching and learning perceptions.

Table 4.10 shows the factors which shaped Serdar's cognition about teaching and learning as a university student. Professional coursework is the second factor proposed in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997) which shapes teachers' cognitions.

Table 4.10. *Serdar's professional coursework*

Serdar's beliefs and cognition as a university student
Enjoying interactive classroom atmosphere
Being active participant in the tasks and classroom activities
Noticing the importance of realia and authentic teaching materials
Enjoying the classrooms in which teachers played the role of facilitators
Enjoying the lessons with low level of anxiety
An opportunity for learning different teaching methodologies and approaches.
Coming to the conclusion that there is no single method to teach English language
Believing in elective approach and task based learning through needs analysis
First teaching experiences at university through micro teaching programs to high school students
Communicating in the target language should come first

University time gave Serdar the opportunity to put into practice what he learned theoretically about language teaching through micro-teaching practices.

Table 4.11 shows the contextual and external factors which affect teaching from Serdar's perspective. Contextual factors are the third types of factors shaping teachers' cognition in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997).

Table 4.11. *Contextual factors affecting Serdar's teaching*

Serdar's beliefs on the external variables impacting teaching
Learners' needs
Learners' cultural and social backgrounds
The institutions' rules regarding the syllabus and curriculum
The teaching materials teachers have access with

Compared to Leman's and Fazilet's contextual factors, Serdar mentioned a new factor which was the accessibility of teaching materials to teachers.

Table 4.12 shows how Serdar's teaching has changed throughout the seven year teaching profession. Based on the Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), classroom practice is the fourth factor which informs teachers' cognitions.

Table 4.12. *Serdar's classroom practices*

How Serdar's teaching has changed throughout the years
Having become more aware of the similarities between all the English learners regarding the mistakes they tend to make and the L1 interference
Having improved the skills required to promote learners' understanding
Having become more communicative and friendly towards the students
Having improved the skills to create a fun classroom atmosphere

Tables 4, 8, and 12, show that all three participants became more communicative and friendly towards their students as a result of the classroom practices indicating that establishing a rapport and promoting interactions played significant roles in their classrooms.

4.2. Interactive Decisions

Through a bottom-up approach, the coding of the collected data started with in vivo codes and followed with three cycles of coding until saturation was achieved, and finally six categories emerged from the codes with regard to the three participants' interactive decisions.

Constant comparison of the new codes with the old ones both by the researcher and the external auditors was made throughout the whole coding process which took more than seven months. The figure 4.1 illustrates the codes and the categories applied to the participants' interactive decisions.

The blue boxes on the outer layer of the flow chart include the codes. These codes were applied after a three-round detailed analysis of the participants' voices. After each round of analysis, all of the selected codes were assessed and evaluated by the first external auditor. Then a face-to-face meeting was set by the researcher to discuss the comments the auditor had made to the codes until agreement was reached on the new changes of the codes.

When some parts of the data regarding the participants' voices were unclear to the auditor to comment on, the researcher made sure to set face to face meetings with the participants and asked some follow up questions to make the reasons behind those specific interactive decisions clear. The results of the meetings then were shared with the auditor. In addition to the prolonged face to face meetings with the first external auditor after each round of coding, the researcher was in constant touch with the auditor during the coding process and whenever he was undecided on some codes. The second inner circle of the flow chart, orange boxes, includes the six categories which emerged from the codes. These six categories include teaching maxims and principles, teaching techniques, classroom management, critical incidents, no identifiable reason, and teachers' personality.

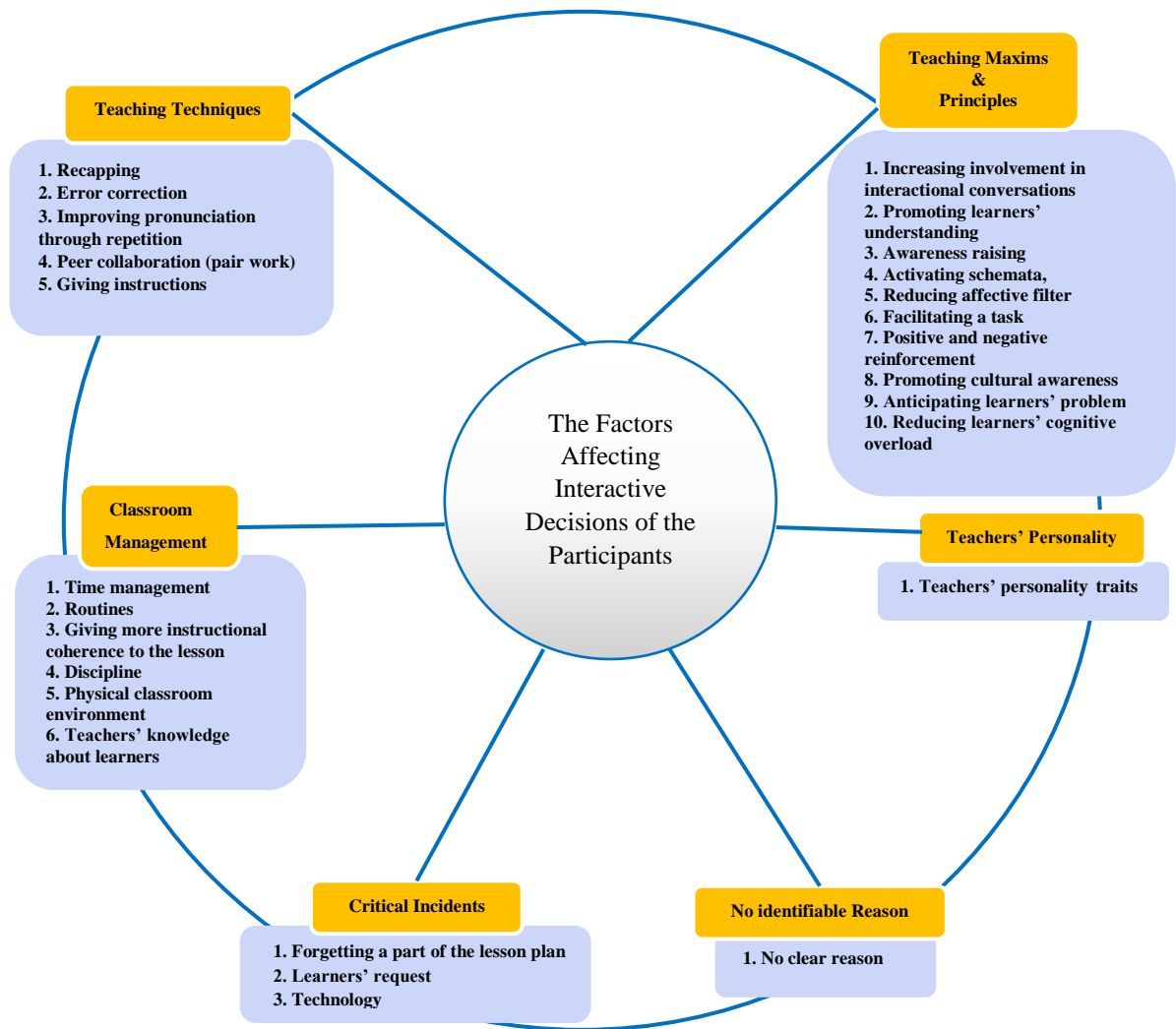


Figure 4.1. Codes and categories applied to the participants' interactive decisions

Once the coding process was over, the second auditor was brought to the study in order to examine and evaluate the whole process. In fact, the researcher realized that he had developed a unique relationship with the first external auditor due to the prolonged coding process. This gave the researcher reasonable doubt that this relationship might have affected their judgments on the codes. In fact, the role of the second auditor was to ensure that the researcher and the first external auditor's judgments on the codes were as accurate as possible. After three weeks of examining and checking the codes and the categories, the second external auditor finally confirmed that the codes were accurately applied to the

participants' interactive decisions. Figure 4.2 shows the proportions of the above mentioned six categories.

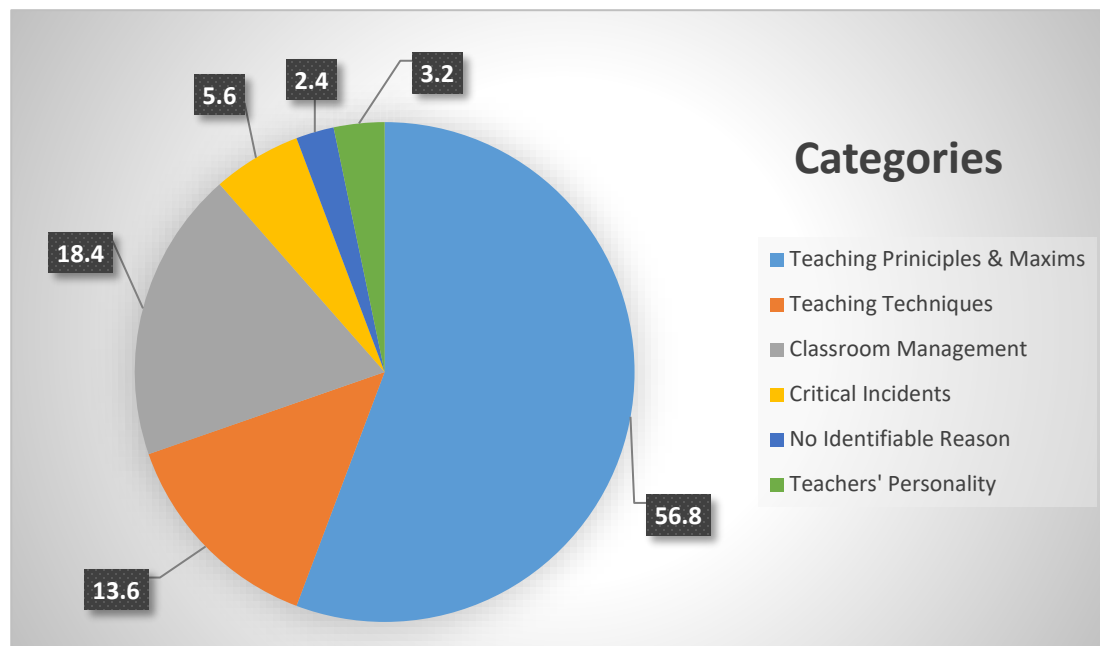


Figure 4.2. Proportions of the six categories applied to the participants' interactive decisions.

Table 4.13 shows that the six categories which emerged from the collected data included 125 codes in total. The codes represented different kinds of interactive decisions which were made by the teacher participants of this study. Fazilet made 52 interactive decisions in total which was the highest number compared to Leman and Serdar with 39, and 34 interactive decisions respectively. The proportion of the interactive decisions made by Fazilet was 41.6%, and for Leman, and Serdar was 31.2% and 27.2% respectively. The codes in the table below are listed in an ascending order for each category in terms of the frequency of occurrence as well as the percentage of interactive decisions made for each category.

Table 4.13. *Codes and categories applied to the participants' interactive decisions*

Frequency of occurrence of the interactive decisions made for each code (n:125)	Codes	Categories	The percentage of interactive decision made for each category
20	Increasing involvement in interactional conversations		
18	Promoting learners' understanding		
7	Awareness raising		
6	Activating schemata	Teaching	
5	Reducing affective filter	Maxims & Principles	56, 8 %
5	Facilitating a task		
4	Positive and negative reinforcement		
3	Promoting cultural awareness		
2	Anticipating learners' problems		
1	Reducing learners' cognitive overload		
8	Recapping		
4	Error correction		
2	Improving pronunciation through repetition	Teaching Techniques	13, 6%
2	Giving instructions		
1	Peer collaboration (pair work)		
9	Time management		
5	Routines		
5	Giving more instructional coherence to the lesson	Classroom Management	18, 4%
2	Discipline		
1	Physical classroom environment		
1	Teachers' knowledge about learners		
3	Forgetting a part of the lesson plan		
3	Learners' request	Critical Incidents	5, 6%

Table 4.13. (Continued) *Codes and categories applied to the participants' interactive decisions*

1	Technology		
3	Without any reason	No Identifiable Reason	2, 4%
4	Teachers' Personality	Personality Traits	3, 2%

4.2.1. Teaching maxims and principles

Teachers' academic knowledge and beliefs on teaching and learning, the training programs they attend, as well as their teaching experiences play roles in shaping their teaching principles and maxims which in turn affect their decisions and choices they make in the classrooms. Teachers' maxims and principles are likely to become stronger. They may even change throughout teachers' teaching career. The interactive decisions which were made by the teacher participants of this study with regard to their teaching maxims and principles accounted for 56.8% which involved more than half of the entire interactive decisions made by the three participant teachers indicating that the participants' maxims and principles played more important roles in their interactive decisions compared to other five categories. The participant teachers' maxims and principles emerged from the following ten codes.

4.2.1.1. Increasing involvement in interactional conversations

Ordinary conversation takes place when two or more participants freely involve in speaking about a topic and this talk is often outside institutional settings (Levinson, 1988). English teachers, teaching in countries where the English language is not spoken as the first language, tend to engage their students in interactional conversations in their lessons to create a more communicative atmosphere in their classrooms since outside the classroom students do not often have the opportunity to use the target language.

Of 125 interactive decisions, 20 were related to increasing learners' involvement in interactional conversations which accounted for 16% of the total number of interactive decisions made by the participant teachers in this study.

In Leman's pre-intermediate level class, she was supposed to get her students to answer a few listening questions after the listening task as planned. However, Leman started to ask

some additional questions about the listening part from her students orally to get them more involved in interactional conversation. “How much TV does Robert watch a day? Does he ever do sports? What does he do?” (Leman’s third videotaped lesson, 23. 06. 2020). In fact, Leman provided an opportunity for her students to interact more with her in the classroom.

Leman: Because they were in the listening track so again I wanted to

Researcher: Get them involved?

Leman: Yeah. (Leman’ third stimulus recall, 24. 06. 2020).

In her pre-intermediate level lesson, Fazilet, asked her students to match three pictures with three words related to the pictures which was based on the plan. After that, she made an interactive decision and asked a couple of questions related to the pictures. “So, I want to ask about this, choose the best one for you. Which one is the best? Which one is the best place to go? (Fazilet’s first videotaped lesson, 15. 02. 2020)”. When she was asked for the reason behind the interaction decision, Fazilet said that she wanted to hear the students’ opinions about the pictures. “I made them search about it on Google but I never asked their opinion on that stuff (Fazilet’s first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)”. In another part of Fazilet’s lesson, after teaching the grammar section of the book which was Present Continuous Tense for Future Arrangements, she was supposed to give the students a writing task about the students’ bucket list, the things they would like to do before they die. However, Fazilet changed her plan spontaneously and got the students to speak about the bucket list to give them more opportunity to speak the target language. “I realized the teacher’s talking time was quite long and I wanted them to produce some language by sharing the bucket list of themselves with the whole class” (Fazilet’s first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)

Serdar also made some interactive decisions to get his students involved in interactional conversation. In his pre-intermediate class, Serdar started to ask some additional questions which he had not planned beforehand after asking a few questions about the three pictures in the book.

Okay guys when we think about the retired people in Turkey... When we think about the retired people in Turkey, how do they spend their time? Guys how about your parents? How about your parents? Are they retired? Or are they still working? (Serdar’s first videotaped lesson, 07. 07. 2020)

He explained the reason why he asked such questions as: “Because after seeing them giving short answers all of the time I wanted them to speak a little more and I thought that

talking about their parents would be a good decision (Serdar's first stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020)". Serdar in another part of the same lesson, made another interactive decision to get his students involved in interactional conversation with him. After teaching some collocations such as *do a course*, he asked his students to make sentences with them, but the students could not. So, he decided to make questions with the new collocations and ask the students the questions he had made. "Let me ask you one more. At least, did you learn how to do anything?Okay guys, do a course. What are you doing right now? (Serdar's first videotaped lesson, 07. 07. 2020)". According to him "I thought it might be very helpful if I asked and they replied (Serdar's first stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020)". In the same lesson, Serdar asked the students three questions provided by the book as a pre-listening activity which was based on the plan. However, he asked some more follow-up questions. For example, one of the students said that his father was retired and he would always watch TV. Serdar then asked:

Serdar: Can you take the remote from your father?

Student: Impossible.

Serdar: No, it's impossible. He doesn't want to share the remote, right? He doesn't want to share the remote.

Student: Yes, yes exactly. (Serdar's first videotaped lesson, 07. 07. 2020)

When he was asked to explain why he asked those follow-up questions, he replied: "to make them speak more. (Serdar's stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020).

In another lesson, Serdar pointed at three pictures of places on the smartboard and asked the students to choose the one which they would like to visit. One of the students said she did not like to visit any of them because they were quiet and deserted. Then, Serdar asked her a new question: "Do you like to be in crowded spaces?" (Serdar's second videotaped lesson, 19. 07. 2020)". The reason for this interactive decision as Serdar said was to get her to speak. "I wanted her to speak" (Serdar's second stimulus recall, 20. 07. 2020).

Teachers tend to get those students who complete their tasks quicker than the other students busy in different ways in the classrooms. In his upper-intermediate level, Serdar asked his students to look up the meaning of some new words in the book, however, some students had already done it at home, so Serdar started to speak to them while the others were looking up the meaning of the new words. "Because they had already checked it and I wanted to get them busy and to do some speaking exercises (Serdar's third stimulus recall, 30. 07.

2020)”. In a similar situation, Serdar gave the students a reading task and got them to fill the reading blanks with the given words. One of the students had already done it, so Serdar started to talk with him. “Because he was just looking around and I wanted to keep him busy again to do some speaking exercises (Serdar’s third stimulus recall, 30. 07. 2020)”.

4.2.1.2. Promoting learners’ understanding

Teachers tend to make the understanding of new subjects as easy as possible for their students through different techniques such as structuring the information from known to unknown or feedback questions. The background that students bring to the classrooms can also help teachers better check their understanding through elicitation techniques.

Of 125 interactive decisions, 18 were about promoting learners’ understanding which accounted for 14.4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study. Here are some excerpts of the interactive decisions made by the teacher participants of this study to promote their students’ understanding.

In one of Leman’s lessons, elementary level class, she interrupted the students who were reading the text and asked some questions with regard to the meaning of the new words in the reading text to make sure if the students knew the meaning of the new words.

Pardon me, I want to pause you. Walk up and down the stairs, first one, see. Okay. Hakan do you walk up and down the stairs, or do you take the lifts? Asansör. Do you walk up and down the stairs, or do you take the lifts? Which one? (Leman’s first videotaped lesson, 03. 02. 2020).

Leman gave reason for this interactive decision as “I want to analyze each sentence. Like..... I want.... I like them to understand actually most of it” (Leman’ first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020).

In another lesson, Leman had planned to fill two blanks about the position of frequency adverbs by herself, however, she started to write some sentences on the board including frequency adverbs and while writing, she taught explicitly the position of the adverbs in sentences. Then, she filled the blanks through eliciting from her students. “I believe that the more examples you give the better the students get it” (Leman’ third stimulus recall, 24. 06. 2020).

Fazilet also made an interactive decision to help her pre-intermediate level students better understand the subject which she was teaching. While the students were listening to a

recording for the second time, Fazilet paused the recording frequently and asked the comprehension questions one by one from the students. This frequent pausing was not mentioned in Fazilet's lesson plan. Due to the difficulty of the listening part, Fazilet decided to pause the recording several times to make it easier for the students to understand it.

It was a last-minute decision. I realized after listening the first time that the conversation was quite fast for them and on the first time I wasn't sure if they could answer the questions correctly that's why I wanted to be you know sure that the second time I'll stop and we will discuss it later on and for them I did actually (Fazilet's first stimulus recall 16. 02, 2020).

In another pre-intermediate level lesson, Fazilet put her students in pairs to write about *Everyday problems with babies*, then she got the students to tell her the problems so that she could write them on the board which was part of the plan. However, while writing on the board, she kept her time to teach some new words which were included in her students' sentences. When she was asked why she taught the new words, she said: "I needed to make it easier for them to understand and I'm showing this on the board (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020)".

In Serdar's upper-intermediate level class, there were some statements on the board and the students' task was to discuss whether they agreed or disagreed with them. One of the statements included the word "breeding". Serdar pre-taught the word before asking the students if they agreed or disagreed with it, which was an interactive decision. He explained the reason behind his decision as "Because they didn't understand the sentence and so they couldn't do the exercise (agree or disagree) I wanted them to know the meaning of the sentence (Serdar's third stimulus recall, 30. 07. 2020)".

4.2.1.3. Awareness raising

From a constructivist point of view, learners' new pieces of information are constantly built up on the existing ones which makes learning a dynamic process. Once learners' attention has been drawn towards new linguistic features, the chance of discovery learning increases. Through this discovery learning, learners eventually figure out the relationships between old and new information, and these relationships are strengthened through frequency of use. In order to draw learners' attention to new linguistic features, teachers use different

teaching techniques. For example, they make a grammatical feature salient by changing its fonts or color.

In this study, of 125 interactive decisions, seven were about awareness raising which accounted for 5.6% of the total number of interactive decisions.

In one of Leman's lessons, teaching elementary level students, she made an interactive decision to raise the students' awareness. The students were answering the listening comprehension questions about a doctor and a patient. Leman elicited from the students what the doctor's piece of advice was and drew the students' attention to the usage of modal verb *should*. Then, she explained briefly the use of the modal verb *should*. Following that, the students continued answering the rest of the listening questions.

Leman: Pizzas, sausages. Okay the doctor is also speaking over here. What advice did the doctor give?

Student: Uhm... Eat more fruits.

Leman: Eat more fruits.

Student: Eat vegetarians.

Leman: (laughs) Eat vegetables. Vejeteryanları yeme. [Don't eat vegetarian food.] (Everyone laughs)

Advice. Ne kullandı (what did he/she use?)
doktor?

Student: Şey, yememelisin hani bisküvi ve şey çok fazla bisküvi ve şey yememelisin. [Well, you shouldn't eat biscuits and things, you shouldn't eat too many biscuits and things.]

Student: should kullandı should.

Leman: Should!

Student: shouldn't

Leman: Or shouldn't. Yememelisin. [You shouldn't eat.]

Student: Tavsiye vermek için kullandı. [Used it to give advice.]

Leman: Okay, nice. The doctor gave her. Okay, so, we can give advice using should and shouldn't. It's used like, it's a modal (Leman's first videotaped lesson, 03. 02. 2020).

According to Leman, she made that interactive decision to get her students to notice the grammar topic which she was planning to teach afterwards. "I wanted to make them put their attention on the grammar point because the next step was teaching *should* and *shouldn't* (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)".

While teaching her elementary level students, Fazilet made an interactive decision to draw the students' attention to the difference between the words *trip* and *travel*. According

to her mental lesson plan, Fazilet was supposed to ask the students if they could tell the difference between a trip and travel. The title of the unit was “A trip to Egypt (Face2Face Elementary (2nd Edition) Cambridge University Press Unit 9B)”. However, she asked if the word *travel* could be replaced with the word *trip*. Fazilat stated that she wanted her students to understand and notice the difference between the mentioned words. “The aim of the question was to understand the difference (Fazilet’s fourth stimulus recall, 09. 04. 2020)”.

Similarly, Serdar made an interactive decision in his pre-intermediate class to raise his students’ awareness of the parts of speech of the words *travel*, *trip*, *tour*, and *journey* [Face2Face Pre-intermediate (2nd Edition) Cambridge University Press Unit 7A]. While teaching some of the four mentioned words as part of the plan, Serdar started to teach their parts of speech explicitly which was not part of his mental lesson plan. “Tour can be also used as a noun and as a verb too. We went on a tour of Italy. As a verb. Take a look at this example. We toured the north of India. It’s a regular verb (Serdar’s second videotaped lesson, 19. 07. 2020)”. Later, Serdar explained the reason behind that interactive decision as “They should be aware of different forms of the words (Serdar’s second stimulus recall, 20. 07. 2020)”.

4.2.1.4. Activating schemata

Immanuel Kant in his book *Critique of Pure Reason* (1963) states that only new ideas and concepts can have meaning to an individual if he/she can relate them to the things he/she already knew. Activating schemata and prior knowledge of learners has proved to have beneficial effects on learning. The activated knowledge can create a relationship between the existing knowledge and new information which teachers aim to convey to learners (Kostons & van der Werf, 2015). Prior knowledge does not exist in working memory. It is present in long term memory. Learners do not automatically activate their schemata; therefore, teachers tend to facilitate activation of their learners’ prior knowledge which in turn affects learning positively to a great extent (Alvermann, Smith, & Readence, 1985; Mayer, 1979, 2003). The importance of background knowledge of the learners in learning has been recognized by English teachers for decades. A schema refers to our prior knowledge about a concept which is stored in our mind and can be activated by stimuli provided by teachers through different ways such as showing a picture to the students before getting them to read a passage or simply

getting them to brainstorm their prior knowledge about a specific reading topic before reading the actual passage which in turn makes processing easier and reduces cognitive overloading. In his schema theory, Rumelhart (1980) highlighted how background knowledge of learners could help them comprehend reading passages and texts. The teacher participants of this study made some interactive decisions to activate their learners' schemata. Of 125 interactive decisions, six were related to activating schemata which accounted for 4.8% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

Leman, in the beginning of one of her lessons at elementary level, pointed at the topic of the lesson "stay fit" and asked the students a few follow up questions related to the topic.

Teacher: Unit? What's the unit? 10?

Student: 10. 10a

Teacher: 10a thanks. Stay fit, Stay fit and healthy.

Students: Fit ve sağlıklı olmak [Being fit and healthy]

Teacher: What do you do to stay fit?

Student: I do sport.

Teacher: You do sports. Amazing what else? For example, I eat fruits to stay healthy and fit.

What else?

Student: I sleep eight hours (Leman's first videotaped lesson, 03. 02. 2020).

Pointing at the topic of the lesson and asking follow-up questions, which were not part of the lesson plan, were interactive decisions made by Leman to activate the students' schemata before starting to teach the lesson. When she was asked why she made such a decision, she said: "OK probably it's a better idea to ask some questions and get some answers which are related to the headline (Leman's first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)".

In Fazilet's lesson, a question was changed in order to activate the students' schemata. Based on her mental lesson plan, she had planned to ask her pre-intermediate level students to talk about everyday problems, but she changed the question to everyday problems with the babies. The reason for this change was to activate the students' schemata as she said: "I wanted to focus on the problems with babies which would be more related to the topic" (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020)".

In the same lesson, Fazilet had planned to ask the question "Is having a child a big problem?" from the students after introducing the topic of the lesson. According to the mental lesson plan, this was supposed to be a teacher-students interaction. However, she changed

the plan and put the students in pairs to discuss the question first. Then, she asked the above-mentioned question. According to Fazilet, “It was spontaneous. I wanted to changeI wanted them to talk about it ...maybe they agree or disagree before telling me.They should think first.... discuss and then they could tell me (Fazilet’s second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020)”.

In another pre-intermediate class, Fazilet asked a question about the topic of the lesson in order to activate the students’ schemata again. Based on her lesson plan, she was supposed to write the new words about *money* on the board. However, she asked a couple of questions related to money. “Today, actually we are going to talk about money. Money, money, money. So how can you earn money? How can you earn money? What can you do to earn money?” (Fazilet’s third videotaped lesson, 07.03.2020). Fazilet gave the reason behind this interactive decision as:

It was spontaneous. Yes, I decided to make a smooth entrance to the topic. I didn't want to make it like “OK what is money? What are the words?” I didn't want to make it so direct. I wanted to make a smooth transition that's why (Fazilet’s third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020).

Serdar in one of his lessons, an upper-intermediate level class, asked the students in the post-reading part the same question that the students had answered in the pre-reading part. “Here are the questions: “Why do you think these places are popular tourist destinations? Why do you think these two places are... why do you think?” (Serdar’s fourth videotaped lesson, 05. 08. 2020). He explained the reason behind his interactive decision as: “At that time they didn't know anything about these places so after getting information about the places now they decide which place they can or want to see” (Serdar’s fourth stimulus recall, 06. 08. 2020).

4.2.1.5. Reducing affective filter

Students may experience anxiety in the classrooms due to many reasons such as not being able to complete a writing task in the given time. Macintyre (1995) maintains that learning is a cognitive process, and anxious students need to focus both on the task and their reactions to it in the classroom simultaneously which affects learning adversely. In fact, when the affective filter is high in the classroom, learning is less likely to take place (Krashen, 1982). EFL teachers tend to reduce their learners’ stress through various ways and techniques

such as assigning pair-works. Of 125 interactive decisions, five were about reducing affective filter which accounted for 4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Serdar's pre-intermediate level classes, he got his students to initially make sentences with the newly taught adjectives and then tell him their sentences. One of the students made a sentence with the adjective *boring*. Serdar then asked her a follow-up question.

Student: My life is very boring.

Serdar: Your life is very boring? But you said "I'm an actress." Right? So, don't you spend a fantastic time there when you are acting? (Serdar's first videotaped lesson, 07. 07. 2020).

In response, the student said in Turkish that she could not answer that question in English. Serdar made an interactive decision and asked the student to answer it in Turkish, the students' mother tongue. Then, Serdar translated her sentence into English and asked her with a rising intonation. "Oh, for a few months it's very boring" (Serdar's first videotaped lesson, 07. 07. 2020). Later, Serdar said that he did not want to make that student feel under the pressure of answering that question only in English. "I thought that she might feel more comfortable that way (Serdar's first stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020)".

In another lesson, according to Serdar's mental lesson plan, he was supposed to ask his pre-intermediate level students the reading comprehension questions orally, however, he gave them some time to answer the questions on their own first. Then he started to ask them the reading questions. This interactive decision was made to lower the students' affective filter and reduce their stress for answering the questions.

Yes. So, take a look at the questions first. You have again three minutes. Can you do it in three minutes? First take a look at the questions and then find the answers from the passage, from this short blog actually. Here are...we have some questions, only four questions. I hope you will do all the questions correctly (Serdar's second videotaped lesson, 19. 07. 2020).

When Serdar was asked why he made that decision, he stated:

It was because after seeing them not knowing some vocabulary I thought that it would be better for them before I give them some time. If I asked them they would get stressed that's why I thought that they would be more comfortable (Serdar's second stimulus recall, 20. 07. 2020).

4.2.1.6. Facilitating a task

Teachers who believe in facilitating learning tend to encourage critical thinking as well as discovery learning rather than rote memorization in their classrooms. They guide their students to make their own decisions and respect them as individuals who have different personalities. Of 125 interactive decisions, five were about facilitating a task which accounted for 4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

According to one of Leman's mental lesson plans for her elementary class with regard to a listening task, she was supposed to play the recording and open its script on the smart board at the same time so that the students could see the script while listening. However, she changed her plan and did not open the listening script. Instead, she asked the students to have a look at the listening scripts at the back of their books. She explained later that the fonts of the listening scripts on the board were so small, and the students would have had difficulty reading the script. In fact, she made it easier for the students to read the listening script. Leman paused the video during the stimulus recall session and pointed at the computer screen and said: "It's too small on the board some of them can't focus, some of them can't see it so they can just easily read the script on the books (Leman' second stimulus recall, 13. 02. 2020)".

In one of Fazilet's lessons, while the class was discussing the problems of having a baby as a part of a speaking task, she started to write the problems on the board which was not part of her mental lesson plan and hence it was an interactive decision. Fazilet stated that she wanted to make it easier for the students who wanted to take notes and write down the new words. "I wanted them to see it and take notes: maybe the phrases are new (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020)".

In one of Serdar's lessons, teaching pre-intermediate level students, he got the students to make sentences with the newly taught collocations. However, the students could not make any sentences. To facilitate it, Serdar said: "Okay, if I start the sentence, can you complete it?" (Serdar's first videotaped lesson, 07. 07. 2020). Later, Serdar explained "Actually it was an interactive decision because even the collocation was simple they weren't able to produce sentences using that collocation, so I thought that way it would be more helpful (Serdar's first stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020)". In the second videotaped lesson, Serdar got the students to look up the names of some famous places such as the Grand Canyon on their mobile

phones. It should be mentioned that the pictures were in the book. “Can you check the Great Barrier Reef on the internet? Can you check it? (Serdar’s second videotaped lesson, 19. 07. 2020)”. One of the students said that she could not find it. To help the students find the picture on the Internet, Serdar used the smart board and googled the picture for the class. “You cannot find it. Okay, let me check it. Okay, let me find it. The Great Barrier Reef (Serdar’s second videotaped lesson, 19. 07. 2020)”. He explained the reason behind this interactive decision as “after seeing that they could not find the places and could not match them I just wanted to show them the pictures, helping my students (Serdar’s second stimulus recall, 20. 07. 2020)”.

4.2.1.7. Positive and negative reinforcement

Certain intentional behaviors can have positive or negative effects on the surrounding environment. According to Operant Conditioning coined by B.F. Skinner (1948), the possibility that such behaviors occur again can be increased or decreased. Research shows that when the relationship between students and teachers is better, the students get better academic results, and the misbehaviors of the students reduce (Kelly & Pohl, 2018). Of 125 interactive decisions, four were about positive and negative reinforcement which accounted for 3.2% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

4.2.1.7.1. Positive reinforcement

Fazilet as a young learner was keen on attending those classes whose teachers were encouraging. In the second videotaped lesson, while Fazilet was teaching some adjectives, she got one of her students to pronounce the word “calm”. The student pronounced it correctly, and then Fazilet asked her to pronounce it one more time and got the rest of the class to repeat after her. Fazilet’s decision was completely spontaneous and unplanned. Fazilet’s reason for this interactive decision was “To make that student proud” (Fazilet’s second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020).

4.2.1.7.2. Negative reinforcement

Fazilet also liked those teachers who had a sense of humor with a tinge of sarcasm. In her pre-intermediate level class, while Fazilet was giving more information about the question which had been posed earlier “Are all African people black?” a student entered the

class and interrupted her. With an interactive decision, she turned to him and asked: “Are all African people black?” Obviously, the student was out of the context, so he did not know what to say and felt quite embarrassed. Fazilet explained why she made such an interactive decision as:

To give the punishment to him because he was late. I wanted to punish him. Somehow asking hard questions as soon as he arrives in the classroom...It was just you know ...I didn't want him just to feel relaxed to enter the classroom like whenever whatever (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020).

In a similar situation, in another pre-intermediate level class, a student entered the classroom late, and all of a sudden Fazilet asked her if she liked babies. It should be noted that before the student entered the classroom, Fazilet had given her students a speaking task to carry out with their pairs on two topics. “Okay, now I am going to ask you this question, you are going to talk with your partner. Is having a baby a big problem?” (Fazilet's second videotaped lesson, 22. 02. 2020). Not being aware of the context, the student who was late did not know exactly what to say and how to address the question and felt embarrassed. Fazilet meant to give her negative reinforcement so she would not be late again. “I just mess with them all the time. Once they're late to the class I don't want them to feel really comfortable (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020)”.

4.2.1.8. Promoting cultural awareness

The definition of culture is not clear cut. It is often ambiguous. According to Kramsch (1993) “culture refers to membership in a discourse community that shares a common system of standards for perceiving, believing, evaluating and action (p. 127)”. In many people's perspective, culture is the learned behavior which is handed down from one generation to another. Considering language as a learned behavior, it can be viewed as a part of culture. Pulverness (2003) believed that teachers became more aware of the fact that the relationship between culture and language was intertwined. Classroom practice developed Fazilet's awareness of the important role of culture in teaching and learning. Since she had taught classes with students coming from different parts of the world and different cultural backgrounds, Fazilet came to the conclusion that awareness raising about differences of

cultures were of paramount importance in her lessons. A few interactive decisions were made for the purpose of increasing the students' cultural awareness in this study.

Of 125 interactive decisions, three were related to promoting the students' cultural awareness which accounted for 2.4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, she asked the class a couple of questions about three pictures given by the book. The pictures were about three different places in the world. "Choose the best one for you. Which one is the best? Which one is the best place to go? (Fazilet's first videotaped lesson, 15. 02. 2020)". While the students were answering the questions, Fazilet suddenly asked "Are all South African people black? (Fazilet's first videotaped lesson, 15. 02. 2020)". According to Fazilet, the reason for this interactive decision was:

It was out of sudden. I just realized that I needed to gather their interest in something else because these are different countries and they don't know other countries a lot. This is something cultural and I wanted to give cultural reference to them because it is important information for them (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020).

Additionally, in her elementary level class, Fazilet asked her students to talk about what they could see in a picture in their books. The picture was about a crowded street in Cairo. Then, she started teaching the difference between the words "scarf" and "Hijab" because in the picture there was a woman who was wearing a scarf. She explained the reason behind making this interactive decision as "I wanted to give the cultural and religious background knowledge because it's Cairo and you know they needed it as well that's why (Fazilet's fourth stimulus recall, 09. 04. 2020)".

4.2.1.9. Anticipating problems

When it comes to lesson planning, ELT teachers tend to anticipate the things that might go wrong in the classroom such as classroom disruption and malfunction of equipment. They also tend to find some possible solutions for the anticipated problems. In the CELTA and DELTA training programs, the teacher participants are required to include the anticipated problems as well as the possible solutions in their lesson plans. EFL teachers sometimes make spontaneous decisions based on their on-the-spot anticipation of the forthcoming

events. In this regard, a couple of interactive decisions were made by the teacher participants of this study to solve the forthcoming problems.

Of 125 interactive decisions, two were about anticipating problems which accounted for 1.6% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

Serdar taught a new word “voyage” while teaching some vocabulary about travelling to his pre-intermediate level students. This was an interactive decision which was based on Serdar’s anticipation of the future problem. “These words resemble each other and they are really confusing by the way, so voyage Guys, voyage? (Serdar’s second videotaped lesson, 19. 07. 2020)”. Serdar later explained the reason behind this interactive decision as “I thought that they may see that word later again. It's another word used for traveling and then they would be confused about that word so that's why I wanted to explain it at that time (Serdar’s second stimulus recall, 20. 07. 2020)”.

Furthermore, in one of Leman’s elementary level classes, she was teaching the frequency adverbs when she decided to teach the frequency adverb “very often” which was not written in the book. Later, Leman explained that she anticipated a problem ahead at that moment. “This is extra. I explained very often that it can go at the end of the sentence because the next activity or the next pages we are going to see that (Leman’ fourth stimulus recall, 02. 07. 2020)”.

4.2.1.10. Reducing learners’ cognitive overload

Learning can be so easy or extremely difficult at times. The amount of the information which learners receive and to the extent they can process it can affect the ease or difficulty of learning. Sweller (1989) maintains that conscious learning occupies some portion of learners’ working memory and when available attentional resources of learners can no longer process the input they receive, cognitive overload occurs. Cognitive load is an index of mental effort that represents “the number of non-automatic elaborations [in working memory] necessary to solve a problem (Salomon, 1984, p. 648)”.

Of 125 interactive decisions, only one was about reducing learners’ cognitive overload which accounted for only 0.8% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In Leman’s elementary level class, she had planned to give the students a writing task to write some advice based on what they had listened to in a conversation between a doctor

and a patient earlier using the modals *should* and *shouldn't*. However, she skipped the writing part and instead asked the students to write five or six sentences giving advice to a friend as homework for the next day. “I felt it was too much for one lesson (Leman’ first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)”.

4.2.2. Teaching techniques

The techniques which EFL teachers use in their lessons are closely related to their teaching beliefs and principles as well as the method/s of teaching they use. In other words, teachers tend to select the teaching techniques which fit best with the teaching method/s and the principles which they believe are important and efficient in language learning. For example, if a teacher believes that teaching grammar explicitly from rules to examples alongside with the translation of the grammar rules and exercises is beneficial for EFL learners and plans his/her lesson accordingly, he/she is most likely to select the techniques which fit best with the Grammar Translation Method. On the contrary, if a teacher believes that great emphasis should be placed on assisting learners to use the target language in the classrooms through contextualization in order to help the learners use the target language to improve their communication skills, he or she will most probably select other techniques such as language games which are used in Communicative Language Teaching. In this study, the participant teachers, made some interactive decisions which were related to their teaching techniques.

The participants made 17 interactive decisions with regard to teaching techniques which accounted for 13, 6% of the total interactive decisions. This was equal to one quarter of the interactive decisions made for teaching principles and maxims at 56, 8 %

4.2.2.1. Recapping

Recaps are the teaching techniques used by teachers to make their learners deliberately recall a piece of information which they have already learned. One of the reasons why teachers use this technique is that they would like the learners to be more frequently exposed to a particular linguistic feature they have already learned. With regard to the importance of frequency, Ellis (2002) maintained that learning would take place when learners discovered and extracted the regularities from the input they received. When these regularities were

repeated and used over and over again, they would be more probably strengthened and remembered in the future, and through the frequency of the input learners would figure out interconnection of the regularities and patterns of a language.

Of 125 interactive decisions, eight were about recapping which accounted for 6.4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Lemans' elementary level classes, the students were giving advice to the teacher using *should*, *shouldn't*, and *imperatives* about the topic *how to stay fit* when one of the student said: "*Drink sparkling water*" and the teacher asked the student if they could remember the antonym for sparkling water which she had already taught them.

Student: Drink sparkling water.

Teacher: Drink sparkling water. Nerden geldi [Where did it come from?] sparkling water? Wow! Şuraya ekleyeceğim. [I will addit here.]

Student: Sparkling water. Bir Numara. [Number one]

Teacher: Drink sparkling water.

Student: Soda ya.

Teacher: Sparkling. What about the other one?

Student: Still.

Teacher: Still. (Leman's first videotaped lesson, 03. 02. 2020).

Leman later said: "I taught them *still*, *sparkling*. Why not remembering *still water* (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)".

Fazilet also made an interactive decision with regard to recapping. While she was talking about African people, she brought up the compound word *European immigrants*. Talking about African immigrants was not planned for this lesson. The reason for bringing up that compound word according to Fazilet was "it was an old lesson topic. And I'm just giving reference back to them (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)". In another Fazilet's lesson, teaching her pre-intermediate level students, she started to talk about how bad the traffic was, and how she managed to make it to the school on time which was not based on her mental lesson.

Teacher: Oh, thank you, thank you very much I tried but I was stuck in the traffic. Do you remember this? Stuck in traffic? Yesterday...

Students: Yes, yes.

Student: Traffic jam.

Teacher: Yes (Fazilet's second videotaped lesson, 22. 02. 2020).

She explained the reason why she made such an interactive decision as:

It was related to the topic that we discussed the day before and we learned those phrases like “get stuck in traffic” and it was kind of a good warm-up like real life situation that's why I use my example to remind them off those phrases we discussed in the classroom and then I will continue doing that kind of..... short revision (Fazilet’s second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020).

Fazilet made another interactive decision concerning recapping to get her students to remember what the term “Parts of Speech” was while teaching another elementary level class. While reading and translating the reading passage, which was based on her mental lesson plan, Fazilet started to ask the parts of speech of some words in the reading passage which was an interactive decision. She explained the reason for such an interactive decision as “Just to make them remember the verb groups, or nouns, or adjectives, or adverbs to distinguish the difference between nouns and adverbs or verbs in a sentence (Fazilet’s fourth stimulus recall, 09. 04. 2020)”.

4.2.2.2. Error correction

Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics defines error as

(In the speech or writing of a second or foreign language learner), the use linguistic item (e.g. word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning (Richards & Schmidt, 2013, p.201).

Of 125 interactive decisions, four were about error correction which accounted for 3.2% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In Leman’s elementary class, the students were telling Leman the way one could stay healthy as a part of a speaking task. Leman asked the students in Turkish to make a comparative adjective with the word *healthy* and gave its Turkish equivalent. However, the students made mistakes and could not make a comparative adjective with the given word correctly. Leman then decided spontaneously to correct their errors on the spot.

Teacher: Cheaper. Okay. Ne diyelim? Daha sağlıklı? [What shall we say? Healthier?]

Students: (17) It is a lot... It is a lot...

Student: Healthy.

Teacher: Healthier. Healthier right? Healthier than gym. İki hece ‘y’ ile bitiyorsa, mesela esay-easier. [If two syllables end in ‘y’, for example esay-easier] Healthy-Healthier (Leman’s first videotaped lesson, 03. 02. 2020).

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, while she was teaching some words such as *countryside*, *mountain*, and *river*, which was based on the plan, she made an interactive decision and asked the students to pronounce the word *river*. All of the students but one mispronounced it. The teacher then got the student who had pronounced it correctly to pronounce the word out loud and then asked the other students to repeat after her which can be considered as peer correction. "Right because generally they are confused about the pronunciation of the river. They always say /'raɪ.vər/ and I knew that they would make mistake (Fazilet's fourth stimulus recall, 09. 04. 2020)".

4.2.2.3. Improving pronunciation through repetition

EFL learners may avoid using some words simply because they do not know how to pronounce them. One of the main reasons why English pronunciation is difficult for learners is that the English written form, unlike Turkish written form, does not correspond with the spoken form to some extent. The Audio-Lingual Method which borrowed its underlying theory of language learning from behaviorism laid great emphasis on the oral skills with accurate pronunciation. From the behavioristic point of view, second language learning is the development of a new set of habits and behaviors which is achieved through the feedback which learners receive. With regard to pronunciation, correct pronunciation should receive positive feedback while incorrect pronunciation should receive negative feedback according to the Audio-Lingual Method. EFL teachers use different techniques to help their learners improve their English pronunciation. Repetition either individually or chorally is a common technique in the Audio-Lingual Method which is still used by so many EFL teachers in the classroom to help their learners improve their English pronunciation. The participant teachers of this study made few interactive decisions to help their students improve their pronunciation.

Of 125 interactive decisions, two were about improving pronunciation through repetition which accounted for 1.6% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In her pre-intermediate level class, while teaching some adjectives, Fazilet got the students to repeat after her for some adjectives such as *embarrassed*. This choral repetition had not been mentioned in the lesson plan. Later, Fazilet said: "Their pronunciation is

important for me because it's hard to understand a person without hearing a perfect pronunciation and I do it a lot with them (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020)". Similarly, while teaching some vocabulary such as *River* and *Island* to her elementary level students, Fazilet got them to repeat after her the word *Island* chorally which was an interactive decision.

It was an on-the spot decision because you know they are just elementary and probably like in their past they didn't focus on pronunciation mostly you know meaning that's why I wanted them to be pronouncing it well (Fazilet's fourth stimulus recall, 09. 04. 2020)".

4.2.2.4. Giving instructions

When it comes to doing activities and completing tasks, learners should know clearly what they are supposed to do otherwise they may fail to complete the assigned tasks. Lack of clear instructions may even lead to chaotic lessons at times. The clearer the instructions, the easier the students can carry out the assigned tasks or activities. In general, instructions should be concise and clear. Long and wordy as well as vague instructions can be confusing for students. Students should be given specific tasks and specific instructions (Scrivener, 2011; Woodberry & Aldrich, 2000).

Opinions are different on whether instruction-giving should be in L1 or L2 in the classrooms. Atkinson (1987), Auerbach (1993), and Macaro (1997) agreed with the use of L1 in instruction-giving. However, Zaro and Salaberri (1995) believed that teachers needed to use L2 only in their classrooms from the very first day. They claimed that the use of L2 by teachers would help learners understand and become aware of the fact that foreign languages were means of communication rather than subjects to study. Training courses can have an effect on teachers' beliefs and cognitions with regard to giving instructions (Personn & Yigitoglu, 2015). Of 125 interactive decisions, two were about giving instructions which accounted for 1.6% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, she repeated herself while giving instruction for a listening task to make sure the students understood what they were asked to do.

I realize I repeat myself while I'm giving instructions it's again because of the students' needs mostly for the instructions it's a big problem for them even if it's not a hard question or hard

instruction, they have trouble understanding and I always want to make sure about it that's why I repeated myself again and again here (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020).

In another pre-intermediate level class, while the students were listening for the first time to a recording, Fazilet paused the recording and corrected her instruction. "I paused because I gave the mis...I misinformed them. I told them that the old guy's going but in reality it was the young one. It was a mistake and I fixed it like I corrected my mistake (Fazilet's third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020)".

4.2.2.5. Peer collaboration

Vygotsky (1978) in his socio-cultural theory viewed language as a tool of thoughts with its limitations which mediated between people and the situation in which they found themselves. In Vygotsky's point of view, learning takes place when individuals participate in culturally formed settings such as schools, hence, learning is context-bound. Since the appearance of Communicative Language Teaching, it has been one of the main aims of EFL teachers to provide opportunities for their learners to interact and communicate more with each other in the classrooms so that they can learn from their peers. According to the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) proposed by Vygotsky (1978) learners and children with the assistance of other capable learners or adults were better able to complete tasks successfully.

Of 125 interactive decisions, only one was about peer collaboration which accounted for 0.8% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Leman's elementary level classes, she asked the students to fill a few blanks with either Simple Past or Present Perfect Tense individually, but suddenly she changed her mind and asked the student to do it in pairs.

You will work individually, everyone, you can maybe ask to Mete. If you have some questions. Or Merve can ask Mete. Or I can help you. Samet, you can. If you have some problems, okay what should I write, you can ask Tülin or you can be a pair, it's ok. (Leman's second videotaped lesson 12. 02. 2020).

Later, Leman explained the reason why she changed her plan as follows:

Because when it's something that we've just learned. It's a new topic, new grammar rules so I was thinking that they might have some problems while doing and some of the students are good

at this some not. So I made them feel free to ask questions to even their classmates (Leman's second stimulus recall, 13. 02. 2020).

4.2.3. Classroom management

Doyle (1990) maintained that it was necessary for teachers to use classroom management strategies to bring order in their classrooms.

To say a classroom is orderly, then, means that students are cooperating in the program of action defined by the activity a teacher is attempting to use. Misbehavior, in turn, is any action by students that threatens to disrupt the activity flow or pull the class toward an alternative program of action (Doyle, 1990, p. 115).

In certain circumstances and situations, classroom management becomes more challenging for teachers. Teaching students with different proficiency levels in the same class or teaching very large classes are the two examples of classroom management challenges that the teachers may face. The participants of this study made 23 interactive decisions which were related to classroom management. These decisions fell into the subcategories of time management, routines, giving more instructional coherence to the lesson, discipline, the physical environment of classrooms, and teachers' knowledge about learners.

4.2.3.1. Time management

Teachers who are able to manage course content, students, time and resources can teach more effectively. (Collins, 1990; Wiggers, Forney, & Wallace-Schutzman, 1983). Planning lessons beforehand and allocating time for each part of the lesson plan can help teachers better manage their times. However, unanticipated events such as poor attendance of the students or other factors such as having some slower learning students can affect teachers' classroom time management negatively.

Of 125 interactive decisions, nine were about managing the time which accounted for 7.2% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Leman's elementary level classes, she had planned to give her students a grammar task to do individually and the time for the task was 5 to 7 minutes. The task was about a box with some frequency adverbs in it, and the students were instructed to decide if the frequency adverbs would go with Simple Present, Present Continuous Tenses, or both.

However, Leman changed her mind and did not give them any time to do the task. Instead, she asked the students to tell her the answers orally after giving the task instruction.

There is a box with frequency adverbs. Bunlar neler ? zarf dediğimiz kelimeler. [What are these? words we call adverbs] Let's do it together. Because it's quite easy. Mesela [for example] usually I use "usually" with present simple. I usually go swimming. She usually drinks coffee. Geniş zamanda çok kullanırım bunu. Bunu şimdiki zamanda göremezsiniz. Yanına o yüzden PS yazdık. [I use it a lot. You cannot see this in the present tense. That's why we wrote PS next to it.] Okay. Present continuous; you are listening to me now (Leman's fourth videotaped lesson, 01. 07. 2020).

The aim of such an interactive decision was to save the class time. "Yeah it was an interactive decision, the reason is that this activity was quite easy so I didn't waste seven minutes so I asked him and we did it quicker than I thought (Leman' fourth stimulus recall, 02. 07. 2020)".

In the same lesson, Leman and the students filled in the blanks of a reading exercise together using Present Simple, do & does and Present Continuous, am, is, & are. Since Leman was ahead of her plan and had enough time for the other parts of the lesson plan, she said in Turkish: "Sorulara cevap ta verelim çünkü vaktimiz var daha (Leman's fourth videotaped lesson, 01. 07. 2020)" meaning "Let's answer the questions because we have enough time". The interactive decision was made because the teacher had extra time, so she decided to recap the grammar part of the unit through speaking. "Because the whole lesson went faster than I thought so I added as an extra.....The reason was because the questions were grammatically good for us to learn present simple and continuous, so I wanted them to give short answers (Leman' fourth stimulus recall, 02. 07. 2020)".

In one of her pre-intermediate level classes, Fazilet made an interactive decision to save time for other parts of her lesson plan. She had planned to give the students a discussion task as a pre-listening activity after teaching some new words. However, she skipped the discussion part and got the students to listen to the recording. With regard to this particular interactive decision, Fazilet said: "Time was running out (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020)". Similarly, in another pre-intermediate level class, Fazilet skipped the pre-listening speaking activity because she wanted to manage the time. "I was running out of time again. I just wanted to make them listen (Fazilet's third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020)".

In Serdars' elementary level class, he skipped the 4th part of the lesson plan according to which he was supposed to ask some questions from the students with the newly taught collocations. Later, Serdar said that he wanted to save some time for the other parts of the lesson and that is why he decided to skip that part of his plan. "I wouldn't have enough time for finishing the class (Serdar's second stimulus recall, 20. 07. 2020)".

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, she got the students to fill in some blanks as a part of a listening exercise. She was supposed to give them some time to read before she played the listening file, however, after giving the instruction, she quickly played the listening file without giving time to the students to read the questions. Due to the simplicity of the task, Fazilet made such an interactive decision. "The first exercise was easy. That's why I didn't know how to spend time by explaining each one of them because it was just filling in the gaps in just one sentence and then one gap (Fazilet's third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020)".

1. I'm working in.....
2. I want to work.....abroad.
3. I am going to do voluntary.....
4. I'll be back next.....
5. I can save about.....a week. [Face2Face Pre-Intermediate (2nd Edition) Cambridge University Press Unit 12 A]

4.2.3.2. Routines

Greeting students, taking attendance, and checking their homework are some examples of routines which are generally done automatically by teachers in recurrent situations. In this study, the participant teachers used some well-established routines which were not mentioned in the mental lesson plans. Of 125 interactive decisions, five were about routines which accounted for 4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Leman's elementary level classes, she had planned to start the lesson with the sentence; *I have a stomach ache*. Leman's aim was to elicit some advice. However, she started the lesson by pointing at the topic of the lesson on the board.

Lerman: Unit? What's the unit? 10?

Students: 10. 10a

Lerman: 10a Thanks. Stay fit, Stay fit and healthy.

Studnets: Fit ve sağlıklı olmak

Lerman: What do you do to stay fit?

Student: I do sport.

Lerman: You do sports. Amazing what else? For example, I eat fruits to stay healthy and fit.
What else?

Studnet: I sleep eight hours (Leman's first videotaped lesson, 03. 02. 2020).

Later, she said that she would often start new lessons by drawing the students' attention to the new lesson's topic first. "Every time I start with the headline but I forgot. I actually most of the time if it's a new unit I start with the headline (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)".

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, after the students answered the true/false listening questions, which was based on the mental lesson plan, Fazilet got the students to correct the false statements. Later, Fazilet said that she would always ask her students to do so for true/false listening questions and her students already knew about it. "Generally, we do listening exercises like this and while I am planning my lesson, I skip that part to mention correcting the false sentences. That's why it's kind of systematic for them. They're used to doing it. (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)".

In her other pre-intermediate class, Fazilet asked one of her students to turn on the overhead projector because she could not reach it. Later, she said, she would always ask that particular student whenever she taught that class.

Researcher: Is he always the person who turns the projector on?

Fazilet: Always yes (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020).

Serdar in one of his pre-intermediate level classes, informed his students about the midterm exam date at the beginning of the lesson. "By the way next week, you will have the exam (Serdar's second videotaped lesson, 19. 07. 2020)". Later, he said that he would always inform his students about upcoming exams. "Before every class if I have an exam I do it" (Serdar's second stimulus recall, 20. 07. 2020). In his upper-intermediate level class, Serdar started his lesson with greetings. "Good evening guys, so how is it going? Is it good? (Serdar's fourth videotaped lesson, 05. 08. 2020)". Later he said: "I always do it (Serdar's fourth stimulus recall, 06. 08. 2020)". The above-mentioned excerpts had not been mentioned

in the teacher participants' mental lesson plans which could be regarded as interactive decisions.

4.2.3.3. Giving more instructional coherence to the lesson

Wang and Murphy (2004) viewed instructional coherence as the connectedness of the activities as well as the structural content which teachers planned for the lessons. In other words, the content and classroom activities needed to be aligned to result in producing effective learning outcomes. EFL teachers take some steps such as specifying aim, subsidiary aims, and related tasks and classroom activities to prepare more coherent instructions. In this study, the participant teachers made some interactive decisions to give more instructional coherence to their lessons which was in agreement with the findings of the study conducted by Livingston and Borko (1989) on experienced and inexperienced teachers. The findings revealed that experienced teachers compared to inexperienced ones departed from their lessons in a more cohesive way.

Of 125 interactive decisions, five were about giving more instructional coherence to the lesson which accounted for 4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Leman's elementary level classes, she had planned to start the third lesson with a quick revision of the previous lesson which was the first stage of her lesson plan for the third lesson. However, Leman skipped the revision stage and moved on to the next stage because she had already recapped it at the end of the second lesson. In fact, she avoided repeating a stage to give more coherent instructions. It should be mentioned that Leman taught four mornings a week for two months in this class, and each morning included four lessons. "I did it earlier. In the previous lesson I did the revision so I thought it would be unnecessary to repeat it all over again. That's why I skipped revision in the beginning (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)".

Fazilet, in one of her pre-intermediate classes, skipped a stage of her lesson plan which was teaching vocabulary. She had planned to teach some new words such as infant, baby, toddler, teenager, and young adult. However, she switched this stage with its following stage which was a listening task. Later, she explained that the stages before and after the stage

which she had skipped were closely related and that she did not want to interrupt the flow of the lesson.

I did it next hour because we were mostly talking about problems, adjectives, how do you feel whatever and then the listening was related to that problems and adjectives, all the stuff and I just skipped the part I didn't find it necessary for them just at that moment (Fazilet's second stimulus recall, 23. 02. 2020).

4.2.3.4. Discipline

Since the beginning of the public school systems, misbehaviors of students have been reported by teachers (Morris & Howard, 2003). Schools often respond to misbehavior of students with external discipline such as class suspensions, however, teachers tend to respond to disruptive students internally such as giving warnings. Upon encountering disruptive students, teachers sometimes copy the way their school teachers' reactions. One of the reasons why teachers' reactions to disruptive students vary from one another is that their prior learning experiences are unique. Of 125 interactive decisions, two were about discipline which accounted for 1.6% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In her elementary level class, while Fazilet was teaching some new words such as *river*, *island*, etc. she told the students in L1 "Okay gençler şu telefonu bırakın." Which means "leave your mobile phones" (Fazilet's fourth videotaped lesson, 12. 03. 2020)".

Researcher: Do you always tell your students to turn off their mobile phones?

Fazilet: yes

Researcher: OK

Fazilet: Generally, Always I always tell them [laughter] (Fazilet's fourth stimulus recall, 09. 04. 2020).

In another pre-intermediate level class, while Fazilet was asking a question from a student, another student entered the classroom and sat in a chair. Fazilet turned to him and said: "Birkan leave your mobile phone (Fazilet's first videotaped lesson, 15. 02. 2020)". This interactive decision was made because the phone was distracting the student from the lesson. "He just arrived in the classroom and I wanted him to focus on what was going on in the classroom. (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)".

4.2.3.5. *The physical environment of classrooms*

Small and cramped classrooms as well as poor classroom facilities can affect both the effectiveness of teaching and learning negatively. Lyons (2001) maintained that poor school facilities could have negative effects on teachers' performance which in turn could affect learners' performance negatively. Similarly, MacAulay (1990) and Walker, Colvin, and Ramsey (1995) shared the same opinion indicating that a well-structured classroom could increase learners' academic achievements and enhance their behavioral outcomes.

Of 125 interactive decisions, one was about the physical environment of classrooms which accounted for 0.8 % of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, a student entered the class and sat in a chair with no one sitting next to him while the other students were speaking to their pairs about the topic *money problems*. The teacher made an interactive decision and went to him and explained what the students were doing instead of pairing the student with another student because there was not enough space and the classroom was overcrowded. "There wasn't any space for him to sit like I made him sit (laughter) by the desk (Fazilet's third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020)".

4.2.3.6. *Teachers' knowledge about learners*

Teachers' knowledge about their learners does not merely mean knowing their names, ages, or the subjects which they study at university. To develop a stronger rapport with students, teachers need to have more knowledge about their students than a superficial acquaintance. Of 125 interactive decisions, one was about teachers' knowledge about learners which accounted for 0.8 % of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

Leman's knowledge about her elementary students led her to make an interactive decision to stop a student translating a reading passage. She asked a student to read a reading passage. After reading the first sentence, the student started to translate it. Leman then asked her not to translate and to continue reading. Leman said that she knew the student well and whenever she was asked to read, she would translate it. "Whenever she reads she wants to translate each and every sentence but it takes time. I didn't want her to translate (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)".

4.2.4. Critical incidents

Brookfield (1990a) referred to a critical incident in teaching as “vividly remembered event which is unplanned and unanticipated (p. 84)”. Critical incidents interrupt what has been planned for a lesson. Once such incidents occur, teachers tend to take actions and make spontaneous decisions to deal with them. Reflecting on unanticipated problems can lead teachers to find ways to deal with similar problems which they may encounter in the future.

4.2.4.1. Forgetting a part of the lesson plan

When it comes to teachers’ mental lesson plans, the role which working memory or short-term memory plays becomes paramount. Here a distinction should be made between working and short-term memory. To Waugh and Norman (1965), short-term memory was a fixed number of slots and cells filled with some new information for a short period of time, however, Baddeley and Hitch (1974) argued that too much focus had been placed on the storage functions of short-term memory and little had been placed on its processing functions. Due to its processing nature, they called it working-memory. The most important feature of working-memory is its limitation to keep and process the information at any given time (Brainerd & Kingma, 1985; Case, 1974; Klapp, Marshburn, & Lester, 1983). A few interactive decisions were made by the teacher participants of this study due to forgetting some parts of their lesson plans which could have been related to their memory system.

Of 125 interactive decisions, three were about forgetting a part of the lesson plan which accounted for 2.4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In Serdar’s pre-intermediate level class, he had planned to get the students to match some sentences with the pictures in the book individually as a pre-listening activity. However, he skipped it and started to read the sentences. Following that, the students told him which picture matched with which picture. The reason why Serdar did not assign the student the individual task was that he had forgotten that part of his mental lesson plan. “I didn’t remember my plan (Serdar’s first stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020)”.

In one of Serdar’s upper-intermediate level classes, he got his students to listen to a recording for the gist. He wanted them to listen and answer only one question. “First you will answer this question: Where are they going to meet next? Where are they going to meet next? You will just find out the place where they’re going to meet (Serdar’s fourth videotaped

lesson, 05. 08. 2020)”. However, once the recording ended, he forgot to ask the question and played the recording for the second time. Later, Serdar said that at that moment he was preoccupied with something personal that had happened on that day which made him forget that stage of his lesson plan.

Regarding that part I forgot to tell you that at that time I really had a bad day and my mind was occupied by something else so I couldn't focus on the lesson very well my mental lesson so I forgot or skipped some parts of some steps of the lesson (Serdar's fourth stimulus recall, 06. 08. 2020).

4.2.4.2. Learners' request

According Austin's speech acts (1962), speakers often tend to accomplish something with their speech, such as trying to get someone to do something. According to Austin, speech acts consist of three parts: locutions, illocutions, and prelocutions. Locutions are the literal meaning of the words produced by speakers. Illocutions are the purpose of utterances produced by speakers. The actions which result from locutions are prelocutions. With regard to illocutionary acts, Searle (1976) distinguished five categories one of which was directives. Directives refer to the speaker's attempt to get the hearer to do something by expressing his/her wish. Learners sometimes interrupt their teachers during lessons and ask them some questions. The main reason why students ask questions from their teachers during a lesson is that they do not clearly understand a part of the lesson. Teachers in such cases either answer their students' questions immediately or delay answering their questions until later. Most of the time, learners' requests are unexpected, and teachers need to make spontaneous decisions on how to address them. In this study, only three interactive decisions were made by the participant teachers to address their students' requests.

Of 125 interactive decisions, three were about learners' requests which accounted for 2.4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Leman's pre-intermediate level classes, she told her students that she would be asking some questions about a picture in the book as a pre-listening activity and after that they would be listening to a recording about the picture. Under the picture there was an instruction for the listening activity which said: "A researcher is interviewing Robert for this year's British free time survey. Listen and fill in the form" [Face2Face Pre-Intermediate (2nd

Edition) Cambridge University Press Unit 1C]. Suddenly, a student asked what the word *interviewer* meant. Leman decided to explain the word's meaning first and then continued with her plan.

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, she started to teach the grammar part of the lesson which was the Present Continuous Tense used for future arrangements. Suddenly, one of the students asked in Turkish how the word *arrangement* was pronounced. Then, Fazilet pronounced the word and gave the class a choral repetition for its pronunciation and then moved on with the lesson plan.

Fazilet: Bakıyorsunuz gençler [Bakıyorsunuz gençler]. Look at the board. Present continuous for Future arrangements.

Like you plan something. You arrange something. Arrange means? Plan. Planlamak. Aranjman hani öyle derler ya. [Plan. Arrangement. You know, that's what they say.]

Student: Nasıl telaffuz ediliyor? [How is it pronounced?]

Fazilet: Arrangement. Repeat after me. Arrangement.

Students: Arrangement (Fazilet's first videotaped lesson, 15. 02. 2020).

4.2.4.3. Technology

Unexpected problems, which arise in the classrooms from time to time, are among those challenges which teachers often face. Upon encountering such problems, teachers tend to make spontaneous decisions to find solutions on the spot. The use of technology in the classrooms can sometimes bring about unanticipated problems for teachers. Undoubtedly, the use of technology in the classroom has brought many advantages both for teachers and students. Hoven (1999) highlighted that the computer could be used as a tool by EFL students to enhance their listening skill. With the use of computers, students can become more independent and receive immediate feedback upon the completion of tasks as well. However, the unexpected problems that it may cause should not be simply disregarded. For example, computers and electronic gadgets can sometimes stop working in the classrooms which affect teachers' plans adversely. Classroom interruption is no longer a fresh term considering the use of technology, the Internet, and availability of mobile phones in the classrooms. There are teachers and educators who believe that the use of personal mobile phones should be limited or banned at schools. According to Lenhart, Ling, Campbell, and Purcell (2010) "most schools treat the phone as a disruptive force that must be managed and often excluded

from the school and the classroom (p. 7)”. In general, technology and media such as mobile phones, instant text messages, and emails can disrupt the learning process in the classrooms (Wijekumar & Meidinger, 2006). Interruption in the classrooms makes the completion of a task take longer. In the literature, this is called resumption lag. The results of a study conducted on resumption lag by Altmann and Trafton (2004) revealed that the resumption lags were substantial after being interrupted.

Of 125 interactive decisions, only one was about technology which accounted for 0.8% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Serdar’s pre-intermediate level classes, he needed to turn the overhead projector to show the book and the page he was going to teach at the beginning of the lesson. However, there was something wrong with the overhead projector, and Serdar could not turn it on. This made Serdar make an interactive decision. He said to the class: “Ok guys for now we can’t use the projector. You can go on with your books (Serdar’s first videotaped lesson, 07. 07. 2020)”.

4.2.5. No identifiable reason

Nisbett and Wilson (1977) claimed that people’s behaviors were sometimes influenced by the factors which they were not aware of. Also, people are sometimes unable to articulate sensible reasons for their actions and decisions. One explanation is that these decisions are made so frequently that they become automatic. For example, one may not have any reason why he/she is walking on the left side of a street. The participant teachers of this study made a few interactive decisions which they could not articulate the reasons behind their decisions.

Of 125 interactive decisions, three were about having no identifiable reason behind the interactive decisions which the participants made. This accounted for 2.4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Leman’s elementary level classes, she gave her students a task to match some words with the correct phrases individually. She also mentioned that they had four minutes to complete the task. However, Leman interrupted the students while they were doing the task frequently and asked them some questions about the words. When Leman was asked why she kept interrupting the students who were doing the task, she could not think of any particular reason for her decision. “I don't know (Leman’ first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)”.

In one of Fazilet's pre-intermediate level classes, she had planned to get the students to match three pictures with four words (travel, a journey, a trip, a tour) given by the book (Face2Face Pre-Intermediate (2nd Edition) Cambridge University Press Unit 7A). Through this task, she meant to draw the students' attention to the above written words' differences.

I will ask them why "why is it hard to do it? Don't you understand when I say travel?" They will say "yes of course we understand" then I will ask them to find a way to understand the difference for example "which one is a verb, which one is a noun? Do you see how many nouns do you see?" (Fazilet's first mental lesson plan, 15. 02. 2020).

However, she skipped asking the questions, and started to explain the above written words' differences both in terms of meaning and parts of speech. Later, Fazilet said that she could not think of any particular reason for skipping that part of the lesson plan. "I changed my mind. I can't quite understand the reason (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)".

In his upper-intermediate level class, Serdar put the students in two groups, A and B. He got the group A to read paragraph A and the group B to read paragraph B. Serdar then gave instruction to his students clearly by saying that the group A would ask the reading questions from the group B and vice versa in pairs after reading the paragraphs. The focus of the task was on reading and speaking. However, when it came to the speaking part, Serdar started to ask the reading questions from the students instead of letting them ask their pairs. Later, Serdar said that he had no particular reason for that change of plan.

Serdar: Actually there's no reason.

The researchers: No specific reason?

Serdar: No, no specific reason (Serdar's fourth stimulus recall, 06. 08. 2020).

4.2.6. Teachers' personality

Teacher beliefs and cognitions have influence on their decisions, teaching behavior, and their interactions with the students (Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2017). Of 125 interactive decisions, four were related to the teacher participants' personalities which accounted for 3.2% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study.

In one of Leman's elementary level classes, while a student was reading a passage, Leman interrupted her and told all of the students to underline the word *once a week* then she went on and taught other phrases of adverbs of frequency such as twice a week, three times a week, etc.,". The reason for that interactive decision was related to Leman's personality.

She said: “I think I am the person who gets bored while someone is reading or while I am reading” (Leman’ first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)”.

Leman made another interactive decision with regard to her personality in her pre-intermediate class. According to her lesson plan, she was supposed to open the answer key on the smart board so that the students could check their answers. However, she started to write down the answers on the board which was an interactive decision. Leman said: “I wanted to be active probably (Leman’ third stimulus recall, 24. 06. 2020)”.

4.3. Evaluative Decisions

As explained in chapter one, evaluative decisions are often made once a lesson has been taught. Teachers tend to reflect on their lessons and based on their reflections, they may come up with new decisions for their future lessons. These new or evaluative decisions are often made by teachers to increase the effectiveness of their teaching for the subsequent lessons. Reflection plays the key role in coming to evaluative decisions. In this study, during the stimulus recalls, after probing the reasons behind each interactive decision, the participant teachers were asked whether they would have made the same decision if they had taught the same lesson. The reason for asking such a question was to examine the extent to which the interactive and evaluative decisions were consistent. In other words, the aim of asking the teacher participants to reflect on their interactive decisions was to examine to what extent their beliefs behind their interactive decisions were stable. In general, when teachers reflect on their interactive decisions to see if they made the right decisions, they have enough time to process and analyze the reasons behind the decisions. This gives them the chance to arrive at a verdict or an evaluative decision. Upon reflection on interactive decisions, EFL teachers tend to consider the four factors proposed by Borg (1997), which play important roles in their teaching. When evaluative decisions are not consistent with the interactive decisions, and teachers explain and articulate the reasons behind the inconsistencies, therefore, more can be discovered about the role of their cognition on teaching and learning. Based on a study conducted by Woods (1991) teachers’ beliefs about teaching and learning were related to their evaluative decisions.

Of 125 interactive decisions which were made by the participant teachers of this study, only eight evaluative decisions were inconsistent with the interactive decisions which

accounted for 6.4% of the total number of evaluative decisions indicating that the participant teachers believed that their reasons and beliefs for the large majority of the interactive decisions were right. This is congruent with what Nisbett and Ross (1980) stated about beliefs in general. They claimed that when beliefs were well-established, especially early in people's life, they tended to stick to them even if they encountered evidence which was opposite to their beliefs. Of eight evaluative decisions, made by all three teacher participants, Leman made five, Fazilet and Serdar made two and one respectively. The following bar chart (Figure 4.3) compares the proportion of the evaluative decisions which were consistent and inconsistent with the interactive decisions.

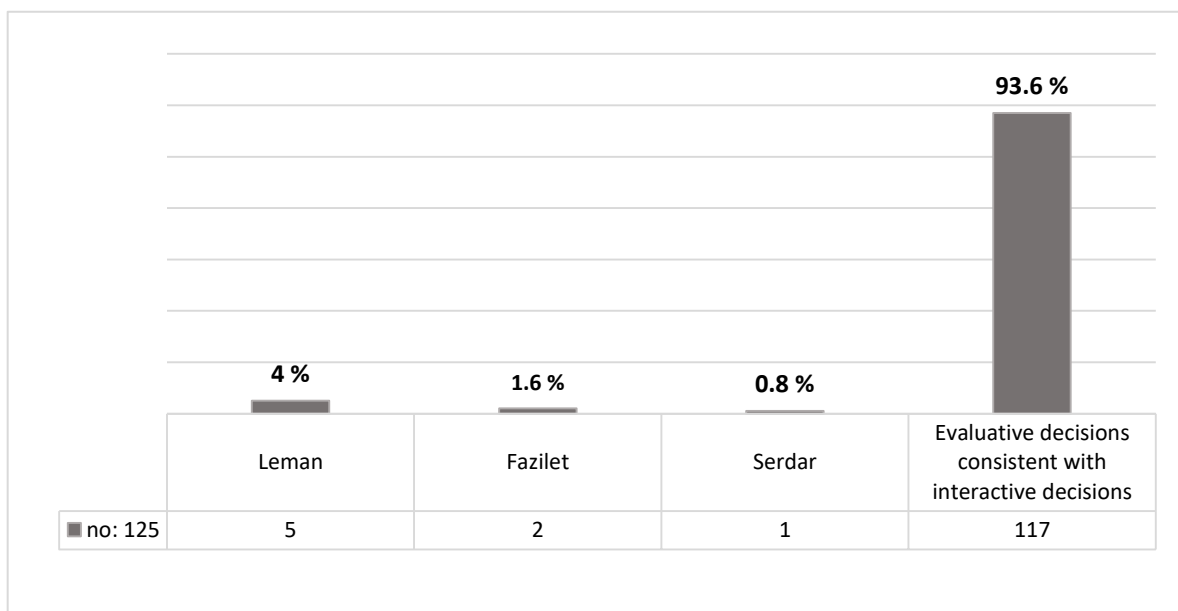


Figure 4.3. *Evaluative decisions made by the teacher participants*

Leman made all the five evaluative decisions in her first teaching practice and made no evaluative decisions for her next three teaching practices. In her elementary level class, Leman selected a few students to read a text as a part of a reading task. While the students were reading the text, Leman interrupted them frequently to ask them some questions which were mainly about the new words. The reason for asking the questions was to promote the students' understanding of the new words. "I guess I don't like the silent reading like you're

just reading but it doesn't make any sense. I like to analyze each and every sentence. I like them to understand actually most of it (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)". In fact, Leman's teaching principle about promoting learners' understanding urged her to interrupt her students frequently while reading the text to make sure that they knew the new words. However, upon reflection on this particular interactive decision, she stated that it was a poor decision, and that she should have let the students continue reading the text without any interruption. "I would wish to go with the reading flow. I interrupted it and it was unnecessary (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)". Promoting learners' autonomy could be the reason why Leman made such an evaluative decision. In the same lesson, Leman made another interactive decision with the same aim i.e. promoting her students' understanding. She taught the imperative deductively, however, she had planned to teach it inductively. Upon reflection, she stated that it was not the right decision and that she should have stuck to her plan. "I would give a problem and then I would give advice to myself. I have a stomach ache, drink some water (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)". Raising students' awareness seems to have been the reason why Leman made such an evaluation decision. It should be noted that Leman's preference was to teach grammar inductively based on what she had written in her autobiography. "I generally first give the example and ask for them to realize and explain when they have used the structure (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)". This can indicate that teachers may depart from their beliefs in order to achieve certain aims which can be completely different from their preferences. Leman's change of preference was congruent with the results of a study conducted by Yim (1993) on L2 teachers who had strong preferences for communicative approach and meaning focused activities in the classrooms. However, the findings revealed that many of the teachers focused on their students' accuracy. In another part of the same lesson, Leman's personality trait urged her to make an interactive decision. During the reading task, she started to teach some frequency adverbs which were not part of the plan. She stated that it was a poor decision.

I wouldn't do it again (laughter) as I said I think I am the person who gets bored while someone is reading or while I am reading I feel like they don't exactly read it they pretend to read it sometimes. I feel like that but maybe it's wrong (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020).

Reflection on this particular decision, Leman became more aware of the role that her personality traits played in her decision-making process. Promoting learners' autonomy, as

mentioned earlier for the first evaluative decision, seems to have been the reason why Leman made such an evaluation decision. Sticking to a routine was another reason why Leman made another interactive decision which she thought was not necessary upon reflection. According to her plan, she was supposed to teach the imperative and the modal verb *should* through elicitation in order to raise her students' awareness, however, she pointed at the title of the lesson which said *Stay fit* as a routine and asked her students what they needed to do to stay healthy. The interactive decision pushed her away from her aim which was eliciting the imperative and the modal verb *should*.

T: Unit? What's the unit? 10?

S: 10. 10a

T: 10a thanks. Stay fit, Stay fit and healthy.

Ss: Fit ve sağlıklı olmak [Being fit and healthy]

T: What do you do to stay fit?

S: I do sport.

T: you do sports. Amazing what else? For example, I eat fruits to stay healthy and fit. What else?

S: I sleep eight hours (Leman's first videotaped lesson, 03. 02. 2020).

Upon reflection, she stated that following the routine was not necessary at that time. "I would first tell *stay fit and healthy* what it means or what we should do to stay fit and later I would give more examples (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)". Raising students' awareness seems to have been the reason why Leman made such an evaluative decision. Since routines are done automatically by teachers, they may sometimes make teachers depart from their plans unintentionally. The last evaluative decision which was inconsistent with an interactive decision was about a matching task. Leman gave the students four minutes to match some collocations, however, she did not wait for the time to be over and after a few seconds, she asked the students to tell her the answers. Later, Leman stated that she had no idea why she made such an interactive decision and that she should have let the students complete the task. "I don't know. I'm not sure if it's a good idea to interrupt them (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)". Upon reflection on the decision, Leman said: "I would let them finish it. I would wait for them to finish it" (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)". Promoting learners' autonomy played a role in Leman's evaluative decision in this case. To sum up, promoting learners' autonomy as well as raising students' awareness were

the two reasons why Leman made the five evaluative decisions, which were inconsistent with the interactive decisions she had already made during her first lesson. As mentioned earlier, of 39 evaluative decisions which Leman made, five were inconsistent with the interactive decisions which accounted for 12.8 % which is less than half a quarter of the total evaluative decisions she made in this study.

Fazilet made only two evaluative decisions which were inconsistent with the interactive decisions she made in her four lessons. For one of her pre-intermediate level classes, Fazilet had planned to elicit from the students the differences of some words (travel, tour, journey, and trip) in terms of meaning as well as their parts of speech.

I will ask them why “why is it hard to do it? Don't you understand when I say travel? They will say: “yes of course we understand” then I will ask them to find a way to understand the difference for example “which one is a verb, which one is a noun? Do you see how many nouns do you see? (Fazilet’s first mental lesson plan, 15. 02. 2020).

However, she made an interactive decision and skipped the elicitation part and then started to explain the differences of the words. It should be noted that Fazilet gave no specific reason why she made that interactive decision. “I changed my mind. I can't quite understand the reason (Fazilet’s first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)”. Upon reflection, Fazilet stated that it was a poor decision to skip the elicitation part. “I would ask these questions to them I would be better...I: It would be better it would be better to activate their process of learning motor skills (Fazilet’s first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)”. Raising students’ awareness as a teaching principle could have been the reason behind Fazilet’s evaluative decision. The students would have become aware of the differences of the words in terms of both meaning and parts of speech. In another pre-intermediate level class, Fazilet had planned to ask her students a few questions as a part of the pre-listening task. However, she skipped that part and got the students to listen to a recording because she wanted to manage the time of the lesson. “I was running out of time again (Fazilet’s third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020)”. Upon reflection, she made an evaluative decision which was not consistent with her interactive decision. Activating learners’ schemata seems to have been the reason why Fazilet made the evaluative decision. “I would ask them (the students) questions but I always ask a lot of questions (Fazilet’s third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020)”. To sum up, activating learners’ schemata as well as raising learners’ awareness were the two reasons for Fazilet’s evaluative decisions

which were inconsistent with her interactive decisions. Of 52 evaluative decisions which Fazilet made in this study, two were inconsistent with the interactive decisions which accounted for 3.8% of the total evaluative decisions.

Serdar only made one evaluative decision which was inconsistent with his interactive decision, and that was about a critical incident. In his pre-intermediate level class, he had planned to give the students a matching task (matching some photos with some sentences) to be done individually. However, he forgot this part of the plan and started to read the sentences himself and got the students to tell him which picture matched best with the sentences. “I didn't remember my plan (Serdar's first stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020)”. Upon reflection, Serdar stated that it was not a good interactive decision and that he should have promoted his students' autonomy by giving some time to complete the task. “I would give it some time to them this time because I think they needed to do...they needed first to read the sentences all alone (Serdar's first stimulus recall, 08. 07. 2020)”. Of 34 evaluative decisions which Serdar made, only one was inconsistent with his interactive decision which accounted for 2.9 % of the total evaluative decisions.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to explore in depth the three participants' cognition roles and their sources in making interactive and evaluative decisions. The results regarding the participants' interactive and evaluative decisions were presented case by case in the previous chapter in detail. Regarding the participants' judgments and decisions in the classrooms, this chapter presents a cross-cases analysis of the participants' interactive and evaluative decisions including their similarities and differences.

5.1. Introduction

The interactive and evaluative decisions which the participant teachers made in this study highlighted that teaching was not linear but a complex act. On the contrary to what so many teacher trainers and researchers claimed that teachers were mere passive recipients of research findings who needed to implement the findings of the studies to achieve good results, the findings of this study showed that the participant teachers made some unique and different judgments from one another in order to achieve satisfactory outcomes in complex classroom environment (Clandinin, 1985; Elbaz, 1981; Johnson & Golombek, 2002; Shavelson & Stern, 1981). In this chapter, the research questions of the study have been initially addressed in detail with regard to the four factors, proposed by Borg's (1997), which influence teachers' cognitions. Table 5.1 shows the codes and categories which played a role in this regard. Next, the other factors which did not fall in Borg's categorization are discussed in this chapter.

Table 5.1. *The four factors in Borg’s Teacher Cognition Model (1997) with the codes vs. the categories emerged in the current study*

The four factors in Borg’s Teacher Cognition Model (1997)	Categories emerged in the current study	Relevant codes
Schooling	Teaching Maxims and Principles	Increasing Involvement in interactional conversations Reducing Affective Filter Positive and Negative Reinforcement
	Teaching Techniques	Peer Collaboration
	Classroom Management	Discipline
	Teachers’ Personality	Teachers’ Personality traits
Professional coursework	Teaching Maxims and Principles	Awareness Raising Facilitating a Task Anticipating Problems
	Teaching Techniques	Error Correction
Contextual factors	Classroom Management	Discipline The Physical Environment of Classrooms
Classroom practice	Teaching Maxims and Principles	Promoting Learners’ Understanding Facilitating a Task Reducing Learners’ Cognitive Overload Promoting Cultural Awareness
	Teaching Techniques	Error Correction
	Classroom Management	Time Management Teachers’ Knowledge about Learners Routines Learners’ Request Technology
	Teachers’ Personality	Teachers’ Personality traits

5.2. The Factors Playing Roles in the Participant Teachers’ Interactive Decisions

The first research question of this study investigated the factors which played roles in the participant teachers’ interactive as well as evaluative decisions. The findings of the study showed that of the four factors proposed by Borg’s Teacher Cognition Model (1997) which affected teachers’ cognition, three factors namely Schooling, Professional Coursework, and Classroom Practice, played major roles in the participants’ interactive decisions. Contextual

factors, on the other hand, played only minor roles in the decision-making process of the participant.

5.2.1. Schooling

It has been claimed by many scholars and researchers that teachers' prior experiences as language learners play significant roles in their initial perceptions and conceptualizations of how languages should be taught (Borg, 2003; Elbaz, 1981; Freeman, 1991; Freeman & Johnson, 1998; Numrich, 1996; Peacock, 2001). According to Borg (2003)

Teachers' prior language learning experiences establish cognitions about learning and language learning which form the basis of their initial conceptualizations of L2 teaching during teacher education, which may continue to be influential throughout their professional lives (Borg, 2003, p:88).

Teachers' classroom practices are significantly affected by the prior experiences that they gained as language learners (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite, 2001). The findings of the present study showed that the three participant teachers had served what Lortie (1975) named "apprenticeship of observation" which had an impact on their judgments and decisions. In other words, the participants of this study used their prior experiences, which had shaped some of their beliefs on teaching and learning as language learners, to make judgments and interactive decisions in their classrooms. Erkmen (2014) conducted a study on nine novice EFL teachers to investigate their beliefs on teaching and learning. The findings suggested that the teachers' beliefs on learning and teaching stemmed from their prior experiences as learners. There is enough evidence in the literature which supports that schooling and prior learning experiences of teachers hinder them to change their views and beliefs about learning and teaching which eventually affects their interactive and evaluative decisions (e.g., Urmston, 2003). The results of this study showed that the participant teachers' prior experiences as language learners affected their interactive decisions in four main categories in particular; teaching maxims and principles, teaching techniques, teacher's personality, and classroom management.

5.2.1.1. Teaching maxims and principles

With regard to the participants' teaching maxims and principles, the teacher participants' prior experiences as language learners had effect on their interactive decisions in three main areas.

5.2.1.1.1. Increasing involvement in interactional conversations

In enhancing four major skills, speaking seems to be the most important for English language learners as far as communication is concerned. One of the main challenging tasks of EFL teachers in non-native speaking countries is to provide their learners as much English input as possible and create a classroom environment in which learners have more opportunities to use English through interactions either with their teachers or with their peers since EFL learners in non-native speaking countries have limited chances to use English outside the schools (Boonkit, 2010). EFL teachers sometimes make spontaneous decisions in their lessons in order to give more opportunities to their learners to get them involved in interactional conversations. When learners hold conversations either with other learners or with their teacher, interaction takes place. According to the Interaction Hypothesis proposed by Long (1996), the acquisition of a language depends on input, and learners through interactions may notice things that without it, noticing would not occur, and this noticing affects acquisition. The interactional conversations between learners or learners and the teacher help language learners develop their communicative and speaking skills.

Schooling, the first factor affecting teachers' cognitions and beliefs according to Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), had an impact on the teacher participants' interactive decisions. This impact urged the participant teachers to get their students more involved in interactional conversations in their classrooms. In this regard, Leman's beliefs as a young learner at school played a role in getting her students involved in conversational activities because she would always enjoy participating in different activities and games in order to interact with her peers and teachers. "I believe as a student I really liked to be involved in activities and games (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)". This was consistent with the findings of the study conducted by Johnson (1994). The study aimed to explore the beliefs of four pre-service ESL teachers on second language teaching as well as their perceptions of instructional practices. The findings showed that the participant teachers' prior

experiences as L2 learners played a part in shaping their perceptions of language teaching and learning. Furthermore, Fazilet's beliefs as a young learner about her teachers whose lessons lacked creativity and classroom activities explained the reason why she wanted her students to be involved in conversational activities. "They all lacked imagination and creativity while teaching. In fact, they never used classroom activities (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)". Similarly, Serdar's perceptions about the importance of classroom activities and interactions as a young learner could have been the reason why he made some interactive decisions to get his students more involved in conversational activities.

I had some bad teachers as well, like the literature teacher. She was around 60 and had a notebook full of literature notes remained from her university years. She used to read from her notebook and wanted us to write down what we heard on our notebooks most of the time. Because of that a lot of students preferred not attending her classes many times. There were no activities to be involved or some tasks to be completed. We were only receivers. And I thought it was a waste of time (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)".

The three participants of this study had clear images about ideal lessons. They all preferred the lessons which encouraged learners' involvement in different tasks and activities when they were young learners. This was congruent with the findings of the study carried out by Calderhead and Robson (1991) on 12 student teachers which showed that they already had particular images about learning and teaching. The sources of the images were revealed to have stemmed from the teachers' prior experiences as language learners. Similarly, Grossman (1991) claimed that pre-service teachers began their programs with some existing knowledge, beliefs, and perceptions about teaching methods which came from their prior learning experiences.

5.2.1.1.2. Reducing affective filter

There are five main hypotheses in Krashen's (1982) theory of second language acquisition, one of which is Affective Filter Hypothesis. There is a wide range of affective variables which can affect the success or the failure of second language acquisition. Krashen (1982) put them into three main categories including motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety. The Affective filter hypothesis maintains that a high affective filter prevents the input from being used. This input is necessary for the acquisition to take place. Teachers tend

to create a classroom atmosphere in which the affective filter is low so that their students can receive adequate input. The findings of a study conducted by Sehgal (1994, 1996) showed that the students found mentally healthy, stable, warm, and nurturing teachers more effective.

The participants of the current study stated clearly that they, as young learners, were all happy in those classrooms in which the level of stress was low. This was congruent with what Young (1991) stated about language anxiety. According to him “learner beliefs about language learning are a major contributor to language anxiety (p. 428)”.

As a young learner, Serdar enjoyed the classes in which the atmosphere was stress-free. “I had a new teacher. In her classes, the atmosphere was really fun and relaxing and we enjoyed her classes a lot (Serdar’s teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)”. Leman shared the same opinion and stated that she enjoyed the classes in which she did not feel anxious and stressed. “Personally I would like to feel relaxed and as a piece of a family when I am in the classroom. I wouldn't want to feel anxious to make mistakes and feel free to express my thoughts (Leman’s teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)”. Fazilet also believed that feeling secured in the lesson was very important for her as a young learner. “Teachers I had throughout my student years, in general, were good ones. They made me feel secure and independent in the classroom which I describe is crucial for a learner to feel (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)”.

In brief, the well-established beliefs of the participants on the stress-free classroom atmosphere which were partly derived from their learning experiences at school were the reasons why they made some interactive decisions to lower the affective filter in their classrooms.

5.2.1.1.3. Positive and negative reinforcement

According to Skinner (1948), the intentional actions and behaviors which are reinforced positively are likely to occur again, on the contrary, the intentional actions and behaviors which are not rewarded and reinforced negatively are less likely to occur again. From a behavioristic point of view, positive reinforcement strengthens and negative reinforcement weakens a behavior. Teachers tend to reinforce their learners’ behaviors positively for a variety of reasons such as increasing their learners’ motivation as well as establishing a rapport. Negative reinforcement is sometimes given to some students whose

behaviors might have negative effects on other learners. Warning a student not to use his/her mobile phone during a lesson which can distract other students from the lesson is an example of negative reinforcement.

The participants' prior learning experiences as young learners affected their interactive decisions when they wanted to give positive and negative reinforcement to their students in this study. Leman as a young learner liked the English teachers who were encouraging at school. "I met two English teachers who had different styles of teaching from each other. They both were really good at only one common thing, which was encouragement (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)". Similarly, Serdar enjoyed attending those classes whose teachers were encouraging when he was a young learner. "I could name bad teacher qualities from my experiences as unnecessarily strict, arrogant, and extremely traditional (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)". Fazilet as a young learner was keen on attending those classes whose teachers were encouraging as well. "My first English teacher liked me and tried to keep my interest awake throughout the primary school years (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)". She also liked those teachers who had a sense of humor with a tinge of sarcasm. "I liked their wit and sarcasm in the classroom as they gave me an impression and a sign of a high level of intelligence in teachers (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)".

The interactive decisions which the participants made in respect of giving positive and negative reinforcement to their students in this study were in agreement with the results of the study conducted by Numrich (1996) on 26 ESL student teachers. The participants' diaries which included a personal language learning history were examined. The findings showed that the participants' prior positive and negative experience as learners played a significant role in avoiding or promoting specific instructional strategies. Similarly, Golombek (1998) in a study which conducted on college ESL teachers 'personal practical knowledge came to the conclusion that teachers' language learning experiences had effects on their classroom practices.

5.2.1.2. Teaching techniques

To better understand teaching techniques we need to distinguish among the terms approach, method, and technique. An approach is about the assumptions and theoretical

foundations about the nature of language learning. A method is based upon an approach, and it concerns teaching procedures and the overall plan for arranging language materials in an organized way. In order to implement a method, teachers need teaching techniques which vary significantly (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). Therefore, there is a relationship between teaching teachings and the teaching methods, and teachers choose the techniques which best fit with the methods they teach. These techniques can be learnt from different sources such as training programs or teachers' learning experiences as young learners.

In this study, prior learning experiences of only one of the participants, Leman, affected her teaching techniques and led her to make an interactive decision about peer collaboration. Leman first gave her students instructions to complete a task individually and then she made an interactive decision and got her students to do the task with their partners because as a school student, Leman would always enjoy doing tasks with her classmates. The findings of this study revealed that the participants' prior learning experiences did not play a significant role in their teaching techniques.

5.2.1.2.1. Peer collaboration

Yi and LuXi (2012) maintained that cooperative learning would occur when students studied and worked together in pairs and groups in order to carry out tasks. Crandall (1999) maintained that cooperative language learning could provide better chances of input and output, increase learners' motivation, reduce learners' anxiety, increase the chances to produce the target language in a functional manner, and give learners more responsibility and independence. Prior learning experience which can be considered as schooling, the first factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), affected Leman's beliefs about the roles which peers could play in producing an effective classroom environment. "A good classroom environment for me was an interactive one with adequate facilities, somewhere I can work freely and get help from my peers and teacher whenever necessary" (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)". In this study, Leman was the only participant whose prior learning experiences had an impact on her interactive decisions to get her students to cooperate with each other in the classroom.

5.2.1.3. Classroom management

With regard to education, the problems of classroom management have drawn the researchers' attention in many countries (Doyle, 1990; Kagan, 1992). Classroom management refers to the skills and techniques which teachers use to initiate and sustain a classroom environment in order to facilitate teaching and learning (Cruickshank, Jenkins, & Metcalf, 1995). Kagan (1992) highlighted that teachers needed to possess two types of knowledge namely classroom management knowledge as well as knowledge of subject matter. Not only does classroom management include disciplinary issues, but it also encompasses other factors including the planning of instruction, the management of learners, the process of decision-making by teachers, and the construction and maintenance of teacher-student relationships (Doyle, 1986; Fenwick, 1998; Jones & Vesilind, 1995). In poorly-managed classes with many discipline issues, learners usually learn less. In contrast, in well-managed classes, teachers can provide an atmosphere which increases learning (Martin & Sugarman, 1993; Marzano R., Marzano, J., & Pickering, 2003; Rose & Gallup, 2004).

The participant teachers of this study made some interactive decisions using several different strategies made with regard to managing their classes. The participants' prior learning experiences about having a good teacher in terms of discipline and personality affected their teaching cognitions and beliefs, and they tended to treat their students and manage their lessons based on the images they had of the good teachers they had at school. Of 125 interactive decisions, 23 were about classroom management which accounted for 18, 4% of the total number of interactive decisions made in this study. This proportion was in contrast with the findings of the study conducted by Nunan (1992) on nine ESL teachers in Australia with respect to the interactive decisions they made in their lessons. The findings revealed that the majority of the decisions made by the participant teachers were related to classroom management and organization.

5.2.1.3.1. Discipline

Lewis (1997) defined discipline as what teachers did in response to their students' misbehavior in the classrooms. When it comes to teaching larger lower proficiency level classes, the issue of discipline becomes more important to teachers. Davies and Pearse (2000) maintained that teachers with large EFL classrooms who taught elementary students were

more preoccupied with the issues of discipline. With regard to discipline, there have been debates on whether teachers should use L1 or the target language. For example, Ellis (1992) and Nation (2020) strongly supported the use of the target language while Lai (1996) and Macaro (1997) believed in the effectiveness of L1 in classroom management. Teachers' cognitions and beliefs may affect their judgments whether to use L1 or TL to maintain discipline in the classrooms (Breen et al., 2001).

Prior learning experiences of the participants of this study seem to have affected their beliefs on discipline. In her school time, Leman did not like those teachers who were overly strict and arrogant. "I could name bad teacher qualities from my experience as unnecessarily strict, arrogant, and extremely traditional (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)". Also, Serdar, as a young learner, was not interested in attending those classes whose teachers were very strict. "I could name bad teacher qualities from my experiences as unnecessarily strict, arrogant, and extremely traditional" (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)". This led the Leman and Serdar to be more lenient in their lessons which affected their classrooms' atmosphere which was friendly. Their students could easily interact with them since their stress level was low. School managers and educators should draw the teachers' attention to the adverse effects that disciplinary actions could have on learners' beliefs on teaching and learning through in-service training programs or regular meetings. They should also inform the teachers about the school policies to act accordingly.

5.2.1.4. Teachers' personality

The participants' personalities as young learners, and the way they behaved towards their teachers affected their beliefs which later informed their interactive decisions in their classrooms.

5.2.1.4.1. Teachers' personality traits

Matsumoto (2009) defined personality traits as "relatively stable individual differences in consistent patterns of behavior (p. 549)". Initial research on predicting students' achievements and their relationships with teachers' traits dates back to the 1950s (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2005). Earlier theories suggested a considerable range of personality traits. For example, Allport and Odbert, (1936) compiled a list of 4,000 personality traits. However,

in the last three decades, a broad and comprehensible model of personality traits has been developed. This model, known in the literature as the five-factor model of personality, groups personality traits into five broad domains known as “Big Five” which are extraversion (outgoing & assertive vs. introverted & reserved), agreeableness (kind & cooperative vs. manipulative & indifferent), conscientiousness (goal-directed & well organized vs. procrastinator & unreliable), neuroticism (worried & sensitive vs. stable and emotionally resilient), and openness to experience (adventurous & curious vs. traditional & cautious). Teacher’s personality can have an effect on his/her interactive decisions. In this study, the participant teachers’ personality traits were the reason for some of their interactive decisions. The way the participant teachers of this study behaved in their classrooms towards their teachers when they were young learners affected their teaching cognitions and beliefs later. “I was both respectful and obedient towards my teachers and older people which was a requirement governed by the society and rules at school. Therefore, my first English teacher liked me (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)”. This explains partially why Fazilet gave negative reinforcement to the students who were late. Lemman described herself as active and kinesthetic when she was a young learner. “I was in the group of kinesthetic learners and it was quite important for me to be an active one (Lemman’s teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)”. This explains why Lemman would get bored in her lessons while the students were doing their tasks either individually or with their peers. The findings of many studies revealed that teachers’ personality played an important role in successful and effective teaching (Gibney & Wiersma, 1986). Murray (1972) claimed that teachers’ personality could have effects on their teaching behavior which was consistent with the findings of this study since the participants’ personality traits affected their decisions in the classrooms.

5.2.2. Professional coursework

Stem (1983) noticed that most of the models which guided the education programs of second language teachers were input-output specifications. The student teachers who attended the education programs were required to apply the inputs such as teaching techniques which they obtained to their teaching. Sukiwat and Smith (1981) claimed that although the student teachers were not fully satisfied with the input-output approach, the

approach helped them obtain some educational information. However, Cumming (1989) argued that there was a gap between educational theory and teaching practice in such programs which made the student teachers wonder how they could apply the knowledge which they received as inputs to teaching practices. In fact, most studies on teacher education programs did not focus on addressing this problem. Instead, they aimed to concentrate on the outputs of such programs. Student teachers gain theoretical knowledge on learning and teaching from university or teacher education programs, and this knowledge may affect their teaching beliefs and cognitions. Professional coursework, the second factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg Teacher Cognition model (1997), affected the interactive decisions of the participants of this study in the following areas.

5.2.2.1. Teaching maxims and principles

With regard to the participants' teaching maxims and principles, Professional Coursework had impacts on their interactive decisions in three main areas.

5.2.2.1.1. Awareness raising

Awareness raising is the key for learners to notice and discover new things. Instruction plays an important role in this regard. Richards and Schmidt (2013) defined consciousness raising as "techniques that encourage learners to pay attention to language form in the belief that an awareness of form will contribute indirectly to language acquisition (p. 109)". When a learner's focal attention is drawn to a new feature in language, learning takes place. Professional coursework, the second factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), affected the interactive decision process of the two participants in this study to raise their students' awareness of the new linguistic features. University courses helped Leman discover her role in the classroom. "I could state that a teacher should not be a problem solver but a facilitator, enabling students to find their way during the process of learning (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)". Serdar also stated that he learned to guide the students to put them on the discovery path. Teachers who view their roles as guides tend to raise their students' awareness in order to help them discover new linguistic features. "Teachers are responsive and nurturing the needs of the children. They guide the process (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)". The participant teachers of this

study stated that they became aware of their roles at their university times highlighting the effect of the university courses on their cognitions and beliefs about teaching and learning. This was in agreement with the results of the longitudinal study conducted by Özmen (2012) on the beliefs of 49 student teachers about language learning and teaching in four years. The results revealed that the participants changed their beliefs on teaching and learning to a great extent indicating the effects of training programs on student teachers' beliefs and cognitions.

5.2.2.1.2. Facilitating a task

To understand teachers' thought processes, teaching techniques, and teaching methods, teachers' beliefs and cognitions play significant roles (Zheng, 2009). When teachers plan their lessons to get their students to take charge of their learning, they tend to adopt the role of facilitators (Auerbach, 2001). EFL teachers tend to facilitate learning for their learners through making the processing of the new linguistic features easier in various ways such as breaking down a complex topic to its meaningful chunks, giving advice when needed, and providing scaffolding. According to Processability Theory, comprehension and production of second language forms can be made possible only if these forms can be managed by the linguistic processor (Pienemann & Lenzing, 2007). Professional coursework, the second factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), helped two of the participant teachers become aware of their roles as teachers in the classrooms. "I could state that a teacher should not be a problem solver but a facilitator, enabling students to find their way during the process of learning (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)". Serdar also stated that EFL teachers need to make the learning process easier for their learners. "Teachers are responsive and nurturing the needs of the children. They guide the process (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)". Having been aware of their roles as facilitators, the participants made some interactive decisions, written in chapter 4, to make the assigned tasks easier for their students in the classrooms.

5.2.2.1.3. Anticipating problems

Teachers tend to prepare themselves to troubleshoot the unexpected problems that might arise in the classrooms while they are planning their lessons. However, not all problems can be predicted, and teachers need to make spontaneous decisions to deal with unexpected

problems in the classrooms. It should be noted that in-service teachers sometimes make interactive decisions to solve the upcoming problems or issues which they predict will happen soon during their lessons. Professional coursework, the second factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), assisted Serdar to anticipate problems before and during teaching.

For me a good teacher is the one who knows what you will face in a real classroom and helps you be ready for it. The experienced teachers share their experiences with you and create a realistic classroom atmosphere. By doing this, they give you the opportunity to overcome the possible problems you may encounter in the classes and how to deal with them (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020).

5.2.2.2. Teaching techniques

Professional coursework, the second factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), evidently helped the participant teachers learn much about teaching methods and techniques. The participant teachers also had some opportunities to put into practice what they had learned through micro teachings when they were university students. Leman believed that it was necessary for EFL teachers to know various teaching methods and techniques because this would give EFL teachers the opportunity to select the ones which fit best with their learners' needs.

I've learned a number of approaches and theories from grammar translation to constructivism, communicative competence, and lexical approach. The things that I learnt in university were all about theories about teaching. So, language teachers must be provided with as many methodologies and techniques as possible as well as giving them the flexibility and authority to choose for their own classes.... I clearly remember the micro teachings we did because they were realistic and showed us the possible situations that we could meet during lessons (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020).

Fazilat also stated that the university helped her learn and put to the test various EFL teaching methods and techniques.

We learnt the theories and approaches to enable our future students to grasp a language efficiently. Starting from the beginning of my ELT education, we learnt the applications of these theories and approaches by doing weekly and monthly presentations, micro and macro teaching in real classrooms and getting regular observations and feedback from our teachers (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020).

Similarly, Serdar stated that he learned different EFL teaching methods and techniques when he was a university student.

The teachers taught us a group of methods and approaches, from grammar translation method to multiple intelligence theory, have been used to teach languages. Later, we discovered that with different age groups and purposes of learning the languages we ought to choose different methods and approaches focusing on the characteristics of age groups and the needs of the learners (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020).

Although the participant teachers all stated that they learned quite a lot about teaching approaches and teaching methods, they had no mention of any teaching techniques in particular. Fazilet was the only participant who stated that she learnt the difference between error and mistake at her university time.

5.2.2.2.1. Error correction

One of the key notions of behaviorism is language transfer. L1 transfer is viewed as either positive or negative in the literature. The former suggests that transfer facilitates learning; however, the latter views transfer as interference which hinders learning. A great number of studies have been conducted to find out to what extent errors made by language learners can be attributable to the native language of the learners. George (1972) after analyzing the corpus concluded that more than one third of the errors made by language learners stemmed from their L1 transfer. However, Dulay and Burt (1975) rejected George's claim on language transfer and believed that less than five percent of the errors could be attributed to language transfer. In the cognitive view of learning, unlike behaviorism, giving feedback is more than just providing learners with reinforcement. It also includes providing learners with the information which can be used actively by learners so that they can modify their behaviors (Zamel, 1981). Since the emergence of Error Analysis which was based on the comparison of the errors made by learners in producing the TL, teachers have been using different techniques such as peer correction to correct learners' errors. Teachers tend to assist learners to improve their accuracy both in terms of the target language production and their classroom behavior through giving feedback and correcting their learners' errors. However, its effectiveness depends greatly on the extent to which it assists learners to repair their utterances (Chaudron, 1986).

Professional coursework, the second factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), affected Fazilet's cognition and beliefs on error correction. "We got a grasp of testing methods as well. To be able to discriminate errors and mistakes was also one of the basics of teaching a language to students. Teaching was a mix of all the knowledge we got from the books, teachers and our own studies. (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)".

The effect of university courses regarding the participants' cognition on error correction was in agreement with the findings of the longitudinal study conducted by Busch (2010) on 381 pre-service English teachers who enrolled in the introductory second language acquisition (SLA) course in a state university in California. The findings showed that the course had changed the participants' beliefs significantly in some areas including error correction.

5.2.3. Contextual factors

Certain contextual factors can affect teachers' planning decisions. Implicit rules as well as the bureaucratic side of teaching at schools affect teachers' teaching negatively (Flores & Day, 2006). Working conditions can also affect teachers' professional development and career decisions to a great extent (Boyd et al., 2011). The results of a study conducted by Richards and Pennington (1998) on novice teachers in Hong Kong revealed that they departed from the Communicative Language Teaching principles which they had been trained in the classrooms due to some contextual factors such as large classes and syllabus. Altinsoy and Okan (2017) conducted a study on 210 public and private school English teachers to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs and contextual factors, the most significant contextual factors which affected English teachers' practices, and the differences between the contextual factors affecting teachers' practices in public and private schools. The results revealed that there was a significant relationship between contextual factors and English language teachers' beliefs and practices. The results also showed that student oriented contextual factors such as motivation and academic background were the most significant factors affecting the participant teachers' practices. In addition, the differences between the contextual factors affecting teachers' practices in public and private schools were found to be meaningful. The differences were related to policy, classroom,

inspection, and student oriented contextual factors. Since the participant teachers of this study had more than three years of teaching experience, they were quite aware of the contextual factors as written in chapter three tables 3. 4, 3. 7, and 3. 11. This awareness could partly explain why only a few interactive decisions with regard to contextual factors were made in this study.

5.2.3.1. Classroom management

With regard to contextual factors affecting teachers' interactive decisions, only two factors, discipline and the physical environment of classrooms, which are the subcategories of classroom management affected only one of the participants' interactive decisions.

5.2.3.1.1. Discipline

Tulley and Chiu (1995) conducted a study on 135 student teachers at Indiana University about discipline problems. After analyzing the participants' narratives, it became evident that the participants encountered three most frequent discipline problems in their classrooms. The problems included disruption such as talking, acts of defiance such as disrespectful behavior, and acts of inattention such not doing their work. The participants used several different strategies including positive reinforcement and explanation upon encountering these discipline problems. Gartrell (1995) drew distinction between misbehavior and mistaken behavior. Doing something wrong by a student intentionally indicates misbehavior, however, mistaken behavior implies mistakes which students might make in the process of learning.

In the current study, Fazilet viewed discipline as a contextual factor which was imposed on teachers by schools' managers and that she had to comply with the school rules. "I presume discipline and modesty are the criteria emphasized by the managers which I decline but I have to follow rather than focusing on the effectiveness of my teaching most of the time (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)". This suggests that school disciplinary rules can sometimes be in contrast with teachers' stated beliefs on learning and teaching which can cause teachers' dissatisfaction with the school conditions under which they work.

5.2.3.1.2. *The physical environment of classrooms*

Picture the physical environment of a classroom. Whatever you see, is a part of the physical environment of the classroom which covers a wide range of things from educational gadgets such as smart boards and over-head projectors, the size of the classrooms, the chairs, lighting, ventilation system, windows, whiteboards, desks, counters, to computer equipment. The number of items on the list is not limited (Fisher, 2008). When learners and teachers feel comfortable due to proper arrangement of the classroom environment, the chances of effective teaching and learning increase. Teachers find it very difficult to give group activities to their learners in classrooms in which there is not enough space for the students to move around comfortably. Also, teachers find it really hard to move around and monitor students in the classrooms with not enough space which can have a negative effect on both teaching and learning. Teachers may make interactive decisions which are not in their students' interest due to lack of enough space in the classrooms. In the current study, lack of enough space in her classroom restricted Fazilet to pair a student who was late with another student to do a speaking task. "There wasn't any space for him to sit like I made him sit (laughter) by the desk (Fazilet's third stimulus recall, 08. 03. 2020)". The findings of the studies conducted on the physical environment of a classroom have revealed that the physical environment of a classroom can have positive and negative effects on the performance of both teachers and students (Savage, 1999; Stewart, Evans, & Kaczynski, 1997).

5.2.4. Classroom practice

Throughout the years of teaching, teachers develop a type of knowledge which is a combination of both theoretical and practical knowledge (Clandinin, 1985). Elbaz, (1981) did not view the role of teachers as passive transmitter of knowledge. Instead, she viewed teachers "as holding and using practical knowledge (p. 43)." The term pedagogical content knowledge was proposed by Shulman (1987) which represented "the blending of content and pedagogy into an understanding of how particular topics, problems, or issues are organized, represented, and adapted to the diverse interests and abilities of learners, and presented for instruction (p. 8)." Shulman (1987) also identified that seven constructs were involved in forming pedagogical content knowledge. The constructs included subject matter knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge,

knowledge of learners, knowledge of education context, and knowledge of educational ends. Furthermore, teachers accumulate a type of knowledge which is constantly developed and constructed throughout years of teaching experience in the working context (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Elbaz, 1981). In this study, the participants' teaching' experiences and knowledge led them to make eleven different types of interactive decisions.

5.2.4.1. *Teaching maxims and principles*

The participant teachers of this study made use of their teaching maxims and principles to make interactive decisions upon encountering some situations.

5.2.4.1.1. *Promoting learners' understanding*

One of the main concerns of teachers in the classrooms is to find out to what extent their students understand the lesson they teach. It is no wonder why teachers frequently ask the question "Did you all get that?" or "Any questions". Teachers tend to use different techniques such as concept check questions to make sure of their students' understanding. As a matter of fact not all learners are self-regulated, therefore, they are not always sure if they understand exactly what their teachers try to get them to understand (Hofer, Yu, & Pintrich, 1998). As a result, they might simply think that they have understood when they actually have not. Knowledge of learners as well as classroom practices, the fourth factor affecting teachers' cognition according to Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), helped the participants of this study check their students' understanding and needs.

According to Fazilet: "In the class, I am able to assess their level of understanding more easily and help them when I see the need for it (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)". Leman also stated: "I have learned some points they generally have a hard time at" (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020). Similarly, Serdar said:

I have become more aware of the similarities between all the English learners and the reasons why they make mistakes and what is difficult for them to learn and how their mother tongue can hinder or promote their understanding and also how to help them in the simplest ways (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020).

The results of the current study with regard to two specific codes, increasing involvement in interactional conversations and promoting learners' understanding, were not

congruent with the results of the study conducted by Johnson (1992). In Johnson's study, promoting students' understanding and promoting students' motivation and involvement were at 37% and 17% respectively showing that the interactive decisions which were made by the six ESL pre-service teachers to promote students' motivation and involvement were slightly less than a half compared to the interactive decisions made for promoting students' understanding. However, in the current study, the interactive decisions which were made for increasing involvement in interactional conversations and promoting learners' understanding by the three in-service teacher participants were almost similar at 16% and 14.4% respectively.

5.2.4.1.2. Facilitating a task

Some EFL teachers, including the participants of this study, view their roles in the classroom as facilitators and guides. EFL teachers tend to facilitate difficult and complex tasks for their students through various ways and techniques, for example scaffolding. Scaffolding is a key and important factor in facilitating learning. Based on a study conducted by Ja (2016) on the roles of EFL teachers in the classroom in promoting their students' learning autonomy, it became evident that EFL teacher participants who played the role of facilitators provided more opportunities for their students to ask questions about the topic of the lesson. Also, they facilitated the processes of doing tasks and exercises for their students. In addition, they gave individual or group tasks after making sure that the students learnt a topic and informed the students about the new topic for the next meeting as well.

In the current study, the participants' professional coursework as well as their classroom practices affected their decision-making processes so that they made some interactive decisions to facilitate some tasks for their students. Professional coursework only had an impact on Fazilet' decision-making process in respect of facilitating tasks for students. In fact, she was the only participant who articulated that her teaching experiences helped her facilitate learning for her students. Through classroom practices and interactions with her colleagues and students, Fazilet came to realize that she played the role of a guide in her classrooms. "Having had good or bad colleagues and students has taught me a lesson which is to be a clear instructor and an effective guide in the classroom (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)". Teacher training programs and university courses help student

teachers and trainees select the desired role which they will take as teachers in their classrooms, however, through teaching practices and encountering contextual factors which can restrict teachers, teacher may change their role and take another one in their classrooms which is not always the role they would have wanted to play.

5.2.4.1.3. Reducing learners' cognitive overload

Cognitive load theory concerns the human cognitive structure which has limited capacity of working memory as well as the schemas which are stored in long term memory (Sweller, 2005). Based on the cognitive load theory, teachers tend to maximize learning in the classroom through optimizing the load on their learners' working memories. ELT teachers tend to reduce learners' cognitive overload through different techniques such as dividing a complex task into smaller parts and activating learners' schemata. According to Sweller, Van Merriënboer, and Paas (1998), there are three types of cognitive overload. The first type is called intrinsic cognitive overload. Some tasks are more difficult and complex inherently compared to the other tasks regardless of external variables. For example, learning passive voice is harder than learning time adverbs of Simple Past Tense in English. The second type is called extraneous cognitive load. This type is related to the way information is presented. For example, teachers can teach from examples to rules, known to unknown, which in turn can decrease the learners' cognitive overload. Depending on the subject, teachers tend to select the approach and activities which make learning the subjects easier and simpler. Unnecessary information such as using scientific or technical vocabulary and external variables such as background noise or music are also related to extraneous cognitive load type. Germane cognitive load is the third type. This type is about how the new information is integrated with the existing information to be stored in long term memory. Gynnild, Holstad, and Myrhaug (2007) made an analogy between teachers as facilitators and trainers in the gym who both guided their learners to do the right exercises and trainees to adjust and lift the right weights or cognitive burdens. The participants of the current study recognized their roles as facilitators and guides in the classrooms. Through guiding and facilitating tasks for learners, teachers tend to make learning easier and encourage discovery learning and critical thinking in the classrooms. Leman believed that it was the teachers'

decision whether to teach deductively or inductively and to make such a decision, they needed to consider some factors such as the difficulty level of a linguistic feature.

A teacher should have the opportunity to decide whether he/she needs to teach deductively or inductively depending on the topic by taking students' backgrounds and learning styles into consideration... I generally first give the example and ask for them to realize and explain when they have used the structure (Leman's teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020).

Classroom practices, the fourth factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), also affected Serdar's teaching cognition in terms of reducing learners' cognitive overload. "While I am teaching my students I also learn new things like what to do or what not to do to promote their learning and how to make everything simpler for them (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)".

Although teachers became familiar and read about the important role that memory plays in learning, professional coursework and teaching practices give them the opportunity to discover and experience the significant role of memory in learning and how to reduce learners' cognitive overload.

5.2.4.1.4. Promoting cultural awareness

Most part of culture is transmitted through language and cultural patterns are also reflected in language (Damen, 1987). With regard to the relationship between culture and language, Kramsch (1993) stated "Language is the principal means whereby we conduct our social lives. When it is used in contexts of communication, it is bound up with culture in multiple and complex ways (p.3)." For so many ELT teachers, it is important to promote their students' cultural awareness of the target language due to the interrelationship of language and culture. Not only classroom practice but professional coursework can also have influence on teachers' beliefs about the important role of culture in learning a language. The results of a longitudinal study conducted by Busch (2010) on 381 pre-service English teachers attending the introductory second language acquisition (SLA) course in a state university in California also revealed that the course affected the participants cognitions and changed their beliefs about learning and teaching significantly in a number of areas such as the role of culture.

Teachers who teach classes in which the students come from different countries with different cultures soon come to realize the important role which culture and cultural difference play in teaching. In the current study, classroom practice had an impact only on one of the participants' interactive decisions-making process in respect of promoting students' cultural awareness because she had experienced teaching classes in which her students were from different countries. "I care about cultural differences in my teaching practices a lot because my experience with multicultural learners helped me a lot to understand the importance of respect to people from different backgrounds (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)".

5.2.4.2. Teaching techniques

The techniques which the participant teachers had learned both from university time and throughout years of teaching informed some of their interactive decisions.

5.2.4.2.1. Error correction

Correcting students' errors is a challenging task for teachers since they need to consider when to correct an error and whether an error should be corrected or not. Teachers need to take four dimensions into consideration when they want to correct their students' errors. First, they need to have some basic information about the error which they want to correct. Second, they also need to have some information about the importance of correction. Third, teachers should know how easily they can correct the errors. Fourth, knowledge of the students' characteristics might affect teachers' treatment of error correction (Allwright, 1975). Classroom practices provide teachers with some general knowledge about students' cultural and educational background as well as students' characteristics which may help teachers decide better which errors, when, and how to correct. Classroom practices, the fourth factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), affected only Serdar's cognition on error correction.

I have become more aware of the similarities between all the English learners and the reasons why they make mistakes and what is difficult for them to learn and how their mother tongue can hinder or promote their understanding and also how to help them in the simplest ways (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020).

Classroom practices gave Serdar an overall understanding and general knowledge about the common errors that the students made, however, he and the two other participants learnt the error correction techniques at university times. Therefore, professional coursework helped the participants learn the teaching methods and techniques, and classroom practices gave them opportunities to put what they had learnt at university into practice.

5.2.4.3. Classroom management

Due to their teaching experiences, the participant teachers' had developed some classroom management skills which had an impact on their teaching cognitions and beliefs which in turn led them to make some interactive decisions in the following subcategories.

5.2.4.3.1. Time management

When it comes to learners' needs as well as prioritization of tasks in the classrooms, managing time plays an important role. Mohanty (2003) claimed that time management was about arranging, scheduling and budgeting of time by teachers in order to achieve their objectives in the classrooms. Hall and Hursch (1982) highlighted the significant relationship of the effectiveness of work and personal-evaluation of time management. When teachers prepare lesson plans, they tend to allocate time for each stage of their plans, however, due to the dynamic nature of the lessons, they may need to make spontaneous decisions and thus change the times allocated to the stages and the tasks. The presence of new technologies in schools and classrooms such as smart boards which are used to facilitate learning can sometimes mount teachers' time management challenges. For example, teachers may not have enough technological knowledge and expertise to fix an equipment when it breaks down during a lesson. Classroom practices, the fourth factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), helped Fazilet reduce her lesson planning time to a great extent. "I used to spend hours trying to find the correct and suitable exercises and activities for my students but now this process takes shorter time even no time at all (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020). Achieving course objectives played an important role in Leman's teaching which was close to the definition of time management proposed by Mohanty (2003). He claimed that that time management involved arranging, scheduling and budgeting of time by teachers in order to achieve their objectives in the classrooms. Leman

also said: “What really matters is that you have to take course objectives, learner needs, learners’ learning styles, curriculum and syllabus, assessment methods, appropriate teaching methodologies for course objectives and students into account (Leman’s teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)”. Since the participants of the current study were in-service experienced teachers, they had developed classroom management skills which helped them to budget and manage their classroom’s times through some interactive decisions. It should be mentioned that professional coursework and training programs can also affect teachers’ cognitions about managing classroom time. However, in this study, they did not affect the participants’ interactive decisions which is in contrast with the findings of the study conducted by Richards et al., (1996) on five EFL in-service teachers who had attended a training program called TEFLA revealed that the program affected the participants teaching in a number of areas including managing time.

5.2.4.3.2. Teachers’ knowledge about learners

One of the key elements that assists teachers to get to know their students better is the amount of time they spend with their students in the classrooms. Classroom practices provide teachers with plenty of time to gather more information about their students which in turn assists them to better plan their lessons based on their learners’ needs and knowledge. A teacher who teaches a class only for a week has less knowledge about his/her students compared to a teacher who teaches a class for a couple of months. The more teachers know about their students both in terms of their needs and personalities, the better and easier they can plan their lessons. Classroom practices, the fourth factor affecting teachers’ cognitions in Borg’s Teacher Cognition Model (1997), assisted two of the participant teachers of the current study to become more attentive to their students’ needs and learning styles. Leman mentioned the importance of teachers’ knowledge about their learners’ needs and learning styles. “What really matters is that you have to take course objectives, learner needs, learners’ learning styles (Leman’s teaching autobiography, 22. 01.2020)”. Fazilet’ teaching practices also helped her better and easier address her students’ needs. “I can easily address students’ needs and motivation (Fazilet’s teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020)”. The interactive decisions that the participants made in this regard, would have been impossible if they had not been in-service teachers. Classroom practices gave the participants a great opportunity to

better know their students and gather some first-hand information about their needs and language knowledge.

5.2.4.3.3. Routines

Classroom practices assisted the participants of the current study to develop some routines of their own. Routines can fall into three categories: management, support, and exchange (Leinhardt, Weidman, & Hammond, 1987). Management routines concern classroom structure such as changing the classrooms or turning on the air conditioner. Lack of management routines may bring a sense of disorder to the class. Support routines are the actions which are taken by teachers to create a learning-teaching exchange in the classrooms such as handing out the papers. Lack of support routines can create a sense among the students that the teacher is not well prepared. Exchange routines concern the interactions and communications between teacher and students which allow a learning-teaching exchange to take place in the classrooms. Examples of exchange routines are choral repetitions and checking students' works. Lack of exchange routines result in an increase of teacher talking time in the classrooms.

In this study, all the three participants used some routines in their classrooms. Leman stated clearly that she would always draw her students' attention to the topic of a new unit written on the top of the first page of each new unit. "Every time I start with the headline (Leman' first stimulus recall, 04. 02. 2020)". Asking for assistance from the students to do certain things in the classroom such as handing over the papers to other students, which can be regarded as both support and management routines, was used by one of the participants of the current study. Fazilet stated that she had chosen one of her tall students because he could reach the overhead projector to turn it on and off. Also, informing students about the midterm or final exams' dates is another form of routine which is often performed by teachers. For instance, Serdar said he would always inform his students about the exams' dates and times. "I always do it (Serdar's fourth stimulus recall, 06. 08. 2020)". The interactive decisions made in this study with regard to routines were quick and brief. This was consistent with the results of the study conducted by Berliner (1987). The study aimed to investigate how experienced and novice teachers used routines in their classrooms. The

findings revealed that the time which was spent on routines by the experienced teachers was one third less than the time the inexperienced teachers spent on routines.

5.2.4.3.4. *Learners' request*

Asking and answering questions, which are a type of teacher-student interaction, occur frequently in the classrooms. In fact, interaction is a means through which learning takes place in the classroom (Hall & Walsh, 2002). Asking teachers some questions by students is a type of interaction which is initiated by students and then the response is provided by the teachers. The questions which are asked cannot be all anticipated by the teachers; therefore, teachers sometimes need to make interactive decisions whether to address these questions, which have not been predicted or expected from their students, immediately or later. Johnson (1992) conducted a study to investigate the instructional decisions of six pre-service teachers. The findings showed that unexpected students' questions as well as the teachers' concern to keep the flow of instructional activities were the main causes for their instructional actions and decisions. It would be hard to imagine student-teacher interactions in the form of requests and questions without teaching a class, therefore, classroom practice plays an important role in informing teachers' cognitions and beliefs about learners' requests and how they can be addressed.

5.2.4.3.5. *Technology*

Although learning and communicating through using newer technology such as smart boards and virtual learning tools seem normal to the majority of the youth and young teachers in different colleges and schools, utilizing such technologies seems strange and unknown to teachers with many years of teaching experience (Green & Hannon, 2007). There is still some debate on whether utilizing technology can have positive effects on learning or not. The results of a meta-analysis study which was conducted by the Department of Education showed that incorporating multimedia such as online games increased the learners' engagement, however, it did not have significant effects on the amount of learning (Means, Toyama, Murphy, Bakia, & Jones, 2009). Technology has its own drawbacks. One of the main disadvantages of using technology in the classroom is that it sometimes fails to work. In case of technological break down during a lesson, interactive decisions are inevitable. As

in the current study, Serdar had to make interactive decisions at the beginning of his lesson because the overhead projector failed to work and he had to get his students to open their books instead of looking at the book on the smart board.

5.2.4.4. Teachers' personality

The participants' personalities as in-service experienced teachers, and the way they behaved towards their learners had an impact on their interactive decisions in their classrooms.

5.2.4.4.1. Teachers' personality traits

The unique psychological qualities of people which affect their behaviors, thoughts, and feelings in different situations and times can be described as their personality. (Roberts & DeVecchio, 2000; Roberts & Jackson, 2008). With regard to learners' views on teachers' personality, Witty (1947) investigated 12,000 letters from primary and secondary school students who described the teachers who had helped them the most. The analysis showed that the students frequently used five important traits of their teachers including cooperative, demographic attitude, kindness and consideration for the individual, and patience. In addition to schooling, classroom practices, the fourth factor affecting teachers' cognitions in Borg's Teacher Cognition Model (1997), also played a role in shaping the teacher participants' personalities which in turn affected their interactive decisions in the classrooms. For instance, Fazilet stated that classroom practices had affected her personality in terms of controlling emotions.

To keep my mood and enthusiasm up was harder years ago but now I feel more stable when it comes to my behavior in the classroom or towards my students. The experiences I had helped to overcome my fears of controlling huge or multicultural classes, young and old ones, talkative or silent ones, too (Fazilet's teaching autobiography, 27. 01.2020).

Classroom practices also affected Serdar's personality. He described himself as more communicative and friendlier than he used to be. "I have become more interactive and friendly in my classrooms and later in my social life, too. I have learned how to enjoy the classes I teach and then how to entertain the students (Serdar's teaching autobiography, 15. 07. 2020)".

In brief, changing some personality traits may affect teachers' teaching practices which in turn can have an impact on their decision-making process including their interactive decisions.

5.3. Other Factors Playing Roles in the Participants' Interactive Decisions

The four factors proposed by Borg (1997) affected the participant teachers of this study in four main areas: teaching maxims and principles, teaching techniques, classroom management, and teachers' personality. However, there were two other factors which affected the participants' interactive decisions including critical incidents and having no specific reason. Critical incidents are the events which cannot be fallen into contextual category since they are not planned and quite hard to be predicted. According to Farrell (2008): "A critical incident is any unplanned event that occurs during class."

Critical incidents are not major but often minor incidents that teachers encounter in every school. Classification of critical incidents depends on the meaning and the importance of the incident to which teachers attribute (Angelides, 2001). Critical incidents need to be identified since they can play significant roles in teachers' professional development, and teachers may prefer one action over another when similar critical incidents occur in the classrooms or at schools (Measor, 1985; Woods, 1993). Critical incidents can also help teachers deal with the students who misbehave in the classrooms or at schools (Nott & Wellington, 1995). Teachers may take the perception of teaching and learning for granted. By reflecting on critical incidents, teachers may gain new understandings of what they have taken for granted (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Teachers are often taken by surprise by critical incidents in the classrooms and are often unprepared to deal with them due to their spontaneity. Unlike contextual factors which are often imposed on teachers, critical incidents are transient and need to be dealt with immediately, and therefore, making interactive decisions is inevitable.

Sometimes, teachers make decisions for no clear or identifiable reason. In fact, we make many of our daily decisions with no clear reasons such as which side of the street to walk when we are going to work. Language teachers are not always aware of their own beliefs on teaching, and some do not always have language or sometimes are unwilling to describe their beliefs clearly (Cooney, 1985; Thompson, 1984). Not being able to recollect how one

made a decision could be one of the reasons why people cannot articulate or have no clear explanation for their decisions. In this study, the participants made few interactive decisions for which they had no specific and clear reason. For example, Fazilet suddenly decided to skip a part of her lesson and later when she was asked to give reasons for that interactive decision, she said: “I changed my mind. I can't quite realize the reason (Fazilet's first stimulus recall, 16. 02. 2020)”. The findings of the current study show that teaching and decision-making are cognitive and complex processes in which there are many factors and variables involved, and some of these factors yet need to be investigated to increase our understanding about language teaching.

5.4. Factors Playing Roles in Teachers' Evaluative Decisions

Definition of reflection abounds in the literature. Boud, Keogh and Walker (1996) defined reflection as “a form of response of the learner to experience (p. 32)”. The key word in this definition is the experience which indicates what teachers see, feel, think, evaluate, and conclude after an event in the classrooms. Reflection can be provoked internally due to a sense of discomfort which teachers may have about a particular event which took place in their classrooms or a decision they made before and during their lesson. Therefore, reflection is a conscious act. The evaluative decisions of teachers about their lessons in general and their interactive decisions in particular are the result of their reflections. Reflective practice which is included in most teacher training programs help candidates to reflect on what happened in the lesson, the reasons behind what happened in the lesson, what else they could have done to achieve their aims (Cruickshank and Applegate, 1981). Analyzing critical incidents which happen in the classrooms is one of the ways which can help teachers and student teachers have reflective practices (Brennon & Green, 1993; Farrell, 2008).

In the current study, it became evident that all of the eight evaluative decisions that the teacher participants made were related to their teaching principles including promoting learners' autonomy, raising students' awareness, and activating learners' schemata. The other five categories did not play any role in their evaluative decisions. The few number of the participants' evaluative decisions which were inconsistent with their interactive decisions also showed that the participants were resistant to change their beliefs about their interactive decisions highlighting that the participants believed they had made the right interactive

decisions. This is congruent with the result of the longitudinal study which was conducted by Urmston (2003) on 40 student teachers' beliefs on teaching in Hong Kong. The data about the participants' beliefs were collected through giving a detailed questionnaire to them at the beginning of the training course. The course took three years and the participants were given the questioner to complete again. The results revealed that the participants showed resistance to change their beliefs on teaching because of their prior experiences as learners. The consistent findings of empirical studies with regards to language teachers' beliefs revolve around two generalizations. First, teachers' beliefs are resistant to change and therefore relatively stable (Brousseau, Book, & Byers, 1988; Herrmann & Duffy, 1989). Second, teachers' beliefs and their teaching styles are often congruent in different classes (Evertson & Weade, 1989).

The findings which were discussed in this chapter showed that several factors affected the participants' interactive decisions. These factors included prior learning experiences, professional coursework, teaching practices, contextual factors, and critical incidents. The participants also could not articulate the reasons for a few interactive decisions. Furthermore, the participants only made eight evaluative decisions which were inconsistent with their interactive decisions and all these eight evaluative decisions were related to the participants' teaching maxims and principles. This few number of the participants' evaluative decisions indicated that they were resistant to change their beliefs about their interactive decisions.

CHAPTER SIX

6. CONCLUSION

This chapter starts with a summary of the current study and then, it presents suggestions for various stakeholders and some implications for the future studies.

6.1. Summary of the Study

Teacher cognition broadly refers to teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and held assumptions about learners, contextual factors, classroom practices and the materials which they use to teach. Studies on language teacher cognitions and beliefs have significantly increased our understanding on how teachers learn and teach, and why they make instructional and planning choices. Research on teacher cognition has revealed that teachers are active thinkers who make instructional choices based on their knowledge as well as personal thoughts and beliefs which are unique at times. In fact, the teachers' personal pedagogical belief systems encompass all aspects of their work. In the last two decades, the results of studies on teacher cognition have provided considerable support that teachers' personal pedagogical beliefs and thoughts affect their teaching to a great extent (Clark & Peterson, 1986; Kagan, 1992; Pajares, 1992). The results of the studies on teachers' beliefs and cognition in second language teaching have revealed that teachers' belief systems inform their instructional decisions as well (Burns, 1996; Johnson, 1994; Lee & Woods, 1998; Smith, 1996). With regard to teachers' cognition, two different perspectives which are in contrast can be identified in the literature. The first one concerns teachers' decision-making process (Shavelson & Stern, 1981). The second one revolves around teachers' practical knowledge (Clandinin & Connelly, 1987; Elbaz, 1981). Sometimes, teachers depart from their plans and make some spontaneous or interactive decisions while teaching. Several studies have been conducted to probe the reasons behind teachers' interactive decision-making process. For instance, the results of a case study conducted by Ulichny (1996) revealed that although the teachers' preference was to promote a learner-centered reading, due to some unexpected difficulties which the students experienced, the lesson turned into a teacher-centered one.

The initial aim of the current study was to probe the reasons behind the three participant teachers' interactive decisions. This study aimed to answer three questions with regard to the

teacher participants' beliefs and cognitions on their interactive and evaluative decision-making process. The first question of the study was about the factors which played roles in the participants' interactive as well as evaluative decisions. The second question concerned whether the participant teachers' interactive and evaluative decisions were consistent with their beliefs which they wrote in their teaching autobiographies. And the last question was about the participants' reflections on their interactive decisions. This study followed a hermeneutic paradigm and employed the interpretive qualitative method. In order to collect the data, the collective case study was used and three cases were selected from two private English language schools located in two different sites in Istanbul. The three participants were in-service English teachers who had more than three years of English language teaching experience at the data collection time. Open-ended questionnaires, semi-structured one-on-one interviews, and stimulus recalls were the three data collection instruments used in the current study. The analysis of the data started with in vivo codes and then continued with open coding. After three cycles of open coding which led to the saturation of the codes, six categories with regard to the participants' interactive decisions emerged. The participant teachers taught 12 lessons, and they made 125 interactive decisions in total. Throughout the coding process, the new codes were constantly compared with the old ones by the researcher and the first external auditor. The six categories included teaching maxims and principles, teaching techniques, classroom management, critical incidents, no identifiable reason, and teachers' personality. After the emergence of the categories, the second external auditor was brought to the study to examine and evaluate the accuracy of all codes and categories. Triangulation, member checking, external audit, prolonged engagement in the field, and collaboration were the steps which were taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the study. The findings of the current study revealed that the participants' prior learning experiences, professional coursework and teaching practices had impact on their teaching beliefs and cognitions and affected their interactive decisions significantly, however, contextual factors played a less significant role in this regard due to the participants' familiarities with the context. These four factors which were proposed by Borg's (1997) affected the participants' beliefs and cognitions in four major categories including teaching maxims and principles, teaching techniques, classroom management, and teachers' personality which eventually led them to make some interactive decisions. In addition, there were two other categories which

played roles in the participants' interactive decisions. The first one was the critical incident which was related to unplanned and unanticipated events. The other category was related to the participants' lack of reasoning behind their interactive decisions. As far as the evaluative decisions are concerned, the participants only made eight evaluative decisions which were inconsistent with their interactive decisions. All these evaluative decisions were related to the participants' teaching maxims and principles and the other categories did not play any roles in the participants' evaluative decisions. The few number of the evaluative decisions which were inconsistent with the interactive decisions of the participants indicated that the participants were resistant to change their beliefs on the interactive decisions they had made in their lessons.

6.2. Implications

In this study, the findings were based on the participants' voices and their unique teaching experiences and pedagogical belief systems which they had gained and developed throughout their teaching careers. The findings of the current study have some implications for teachers, teacher trainers, and school policy makers.

6.2.1. Teacher Education Programs

The findings of the current study laid emphasis on the fact that teachers' established beliefs and held assumptions about teaching and learners which are derived from their prior learning experiences, training programs, and teaching practices are generally resistant to change. When it comes to solving instructional problems, in-service teachers tend to depend on their beliefs and experiences (1986; Hoy, 1969; Rosenholtz, 1989; Smylie, 1988). This indicates that teachers' beliefs and cognitions about teaching and learning play significant roles in their teaching practices and instructional choices. Teacher education programs should raise their participants' awareness to the fact that their personal beliefs about teaching are also important and might function as the filter and eventually affect what they learn in these programs in the future. Teacher education programs should draw their participants' attention to the fact that some of their beliefs on learning and teaching which they bring to these programs might impede learning because they are inconsistent with the knowledge which is given to them by these programs (Clement, Brown, & Zietsman, 1989). To help their

participants solve this problem, these programs should arrange regular one-on-one meetings for their student teachers with their tutors to discuss their beliefs about teaching. This may help tutors better identify the problems and give helpful advice and assist the participants discover their own potential.

6.2.2. Giving Feedback

The findings of the current study showed that although the participant teachers had planned their lessons and they knew what they were teaching, they departed from their plans several times during their lessons due to many reasons. The findings about the evaluative decisions revealed that the participants believed that most of their interactive decisions were right and necessary. While giving feedback to their trainees, teacher educators should keep in mind that departing from lesson plans is normal and inevitable since, first of all, trainees' beliefs and cognitions on teaching are unknown to them. When unanticipated issues arise in the classrooms, their trainees' beliefs can interfere and affect their decisions which in turn may end in an interactive decision. They should not consider all interactive decisions as faulty and avoid projecting the image onto their trainees that departing from a lesson plan ends in a poor lesson.

6.2.3. Teacher Identity and Interactive and Evaluative decision-making Process

Although the findings of the current study revealed that the three participants shared some beliefs on teaching, there were some idiosyncrasies indicating that the participants' decisions and the reasons behind them were not identical. The participants' unique beliefs on teaching affected their decision-making process which led to making completely different interactive decisions from one another in their classrooms at times. Teacher training programs should take the participants' differences into account and collect some data about their beliefs on teaching and learning through some data collection tools such as teaching autobiography before the programs start. With having enough knowledge about the student teachers' beliefs and identities on teaching, tutors and teacher educators in these programs can better discover some of the reasons behind the teachers' lesson planning, interactive and evaluative decisions and guide their trainees teachers accordingly. More studies are required to be done on the relationship between teachers' identity and their interactive and evaluative

decisions since there is a paucity in the literature. This would make a great contribution to our understanding on the personal and affective reasons behind teachers' decision-making process.

6.2.4. School Policy Makers and Head Teaches

In-service teachers are quite aware of the contextual factors from schools over which they cannot have any control. In the current study, the familiarity of the participants with the contextual factors could have been one of the reasons why they made a few interactive decisions in this regard. In-service teachers are also quite aware that these external factors affect their teaching practices. Therefore, they tend to believe that the only place over which they have control and feel safe is inside their classrooms because they find classroom environments relatively predictable. Therefore, they tend to remain isolated in the classroom and maintain this isolation (Lieberman, 1982). When in-service teachers make interactive decisions in the classrooms to solve problems, they do not have any external guidelines to follow, but they often rely on their personal beliefs, practical knowledge and pedagogical belief system. School policy makers and head teachers should reduce, as much as they can, the external and contextual factors, such as disciplinary rules for teachers, which adversely affect teachers' teaching practices. They should also arrange regular meetings with teachers to discuss the problems they experience in the classroom. This would help them discover and reduce the external factors which make the teachers self-isolate

6.3. Suggestions

The following suggestions for further studies can contribute to our understanding of the roles which teachers' beliefs and cognitions play in their interactive and evaluative decision-making process.

6.3.1. Comparative Studies on Changes in Language Teacher Cognition

The current study is focused on the cognitions of three in-service English language teachers with more than three years of teaching experience and how their teaching beliefs and cognitions had an impact on their interactive and evaluative decision-making process. If the participants of the current study had been teaching only for a few months, how similar or

different would the findings be now? Comparative studies on new in-service teachers and the in-service teachers some years of teaching experience in the same context will probably shed light on the impact of the numbers of teaching years as well as contextual factors on teachers' interactive and evaluative decision-making process. This would help head teachers and teacher educators, who observe classes regularly in private English language schools, better understand the reasons behind the teachers' interactive and evaluative decisions and give more constructive and effective feedback accordingly.

6.3.2. Context

The findings of the current study revealed that interactive decision-making is a multifaceted and a non-linear process in which many variables are involved. Different educational contexts and institutions have different demands and expectations which may have an impact on teachers' instructional decisions and choices. The elements which constraint teachers' jobs are many and some of them may be temporary and some others may be permanent such as the classroom size. To have a clearer picture of these elements, more studies need to be conducted in different contexts in different countries and cities. Caution needs to be advised about overgeneralizing the findings of the existing studies to other contexts.

6.3.3. Relationship between Language Teacher Cognition and Student Learning

There have been numerous studies on teacher cognition as well as students learning, however, there is a paucity in the literature about the relationship between these two. Few studies have been conducted in this regard. For example, there is a study which investigated the relationship between teacher knowledge, teacher practice and student learning (McCutchen et al., 2002). Future studies and their findings will make great contributions to our understanding of the relationship between cognition and student learning and the ways through which teachers can increase their students' learning.

6.3.4. Teachers' Understanding about Teaching

The findings of studies on teacher cognition in general and the current study in particular make great contributions on teachers' understanding about teaching rather than

dictating them to apply certain techniques or teaching methodologies. The future findings will increase our understanding about the complexity of language teaching in general and shed light on interactive and evaluative decision-making processes from new various angles in particular.

The implications and pedagogical suggestions alongside with the findings of the current study indicate that decision teachers' interactive and evaluative decision-making process is a complicated one in which numerous variables and factors are involved. These variables are mainly common among teachers, however, some of them are unique since human experiences are unique. The findings of the current study identified elements and sub-elements derived from the three participants' beliefs and cognitions which affected their interactive and evaluative decision-making process. More studies need to be done to show us a clearer picture of the other factors which inform teachers' interactive and evaluative decision-making process in various and different institutional, cultural, national, as well as educational contexts.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX-1. Anadolu Üniversitesi Etik Kurul Belgesi

Evrak Kayıt Tarihi: 14.09.2020 Protokol No: 53897

Tarih: 29.09.2020



ANADOLU ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERÎ BİLİMLER BİLİMSEL ARAŞTIRMA VE YAYIN ETİĞİ KURULU
KARAR BELGESİ

ÇALIŞMANIN TÜRÜ:	Doktora Tez Çalışması
KONU:	Eğitim Bilimleri
BAŞLIK:	İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Etkileşimli ve Değerlendirmeli Karar Verme Sürecinin Araştırılması: Çoklu Bir Örnek Olay İncelemesi
PROJE/TEZ YÜRÜTÜCÜSÜ:	Doç. Dr. Ali MERÇ
TEZ YAZARI:	Davood SOURİ
ALT KOMİSYON GÖRÜŞÜ:	-
KARAR:	Olumlu

APPENDIX-2. Leman's Teaching Autobiography

1. Write about the time when you were a learner rather than a teacher.

I believe as a student I really liked to be involved in activities and games so I could say that a process oriented syllabus seemed more fun to me rather than a product oriented one. I preferred projects and tasks as evaluation because they made me feel freer. A good classroom environment for me was an interactive one with adequate facilities, somewhere I can work freely and get help from my peers and teacher whenever necessary. Personally I would like to feel relaxed and as a piece of a family when I am in the classroom. I wouldn't want to feel anxious to make mistakes and feel free to express my thoughts.

As a student I preferred books with authentic content and well-illustrated and up to date activities. I also liked the use of literature. Most generally I could say that a good teacher for me used to be the one proficient in her field, understanding, positive, motivating and interactive.

I met two English teachers who had different styles of teaching from each other. They both were really good at only one common thing, which was encouragement and they always seemed so sure about the path they were following. First one was an active, vivid person who used to like to plan lessons with activities such as 'Simon says... game, acting out & miming, cards for building vocabulary and etc. During lessons students were always offered to take part in those activities but without obligations. Second teacher in question was a kind who implemented grammar-translation method all time. It worked well on the students studying for university exams such as me yet it didn't help to improve listening and speaking skills at all. However, I think, what really matters in teaching depends on the reason why the knowledge is acquired and teachers are the most essential component of language learning and students can only improve themselves to an extent their teachers' qualifications allow.

I could name bad teacher qualities from my experience as unnecessarily strict, arrogant, and extremely traditional. My German classes were the worst classes I have taken. Our teacher was far from meeting students' needs and expectations as well as not being proficient enough to teach in target language. Putting his poor academic background aside, I believe what made his classes unbearably tedious and ineffective was the rationale behind teaching philosophy. He relied on the course book focusing mainly on grammatical structures and

mechanical drills in a very poorly designed curriculum, which ended up creating an inappropriate learning environment where students do not have a say in language learning.

2. Write about the things you learnt and did at university and teacher training courses (if you ever enrolled). Write in detail about the following topics.

Teacher training programs are centralized around communicative language teaching and task-based language teaching, both of which are still misinterpreted by language instructors. Being one of the fundamental principles of modern language teaching today, the communicative aspect of language often dominates the entire class because of most teachers' assumptions that grammar is no longer needed. It's true that the communicative aspect of the language is the key, but, contrary to common belief, communicative language teaching doesn't mean that students have to speak all the time and do oral exercises.

I've learned a number of approaches and theories from grammar translation to constructivism, communicative competence, and lexical approach. The things that I learnt in university were all about theories about teaching. So, language teachers must be provided with as many methodologies and techniques as possible as well as giving them the flexibility and authority to choose for their own classes. A teacher should have the opportunity to decide whether he/she needs to teach deductively or inductively depending on the topic by taking students' backgrounds and learning styles into consideration. I clearly remember the micro teachings we did because they were realistic and showed us the possible situations that we could meet during lessons. Individual Differences Class is the one of which I remember the techniques. As our lecturer wasn't just giving the rules about techniques but he was also giving us a chance to practice them all during lessons. I was in the group of kinesthetic learners and it was quite important for me to be an active one. And also, I could state that a teacher should not be a problem solver but a facilitator, enabling students to find their way during the process of learning.

Now, as a teacher, under the light of what I've learned I support that no one specific approach or method would be efficient. Every student has his own needs and every class has their own needs depending on a variety of aspects. As for the activities, I've learned activities like drama activities, games like kahoot, hangman, taboo in vocabulary teaching, reading comprehension activities like discussion and open ended questions and so on. For materials, I've learned that they should be understandable and attention capturing.

3. Which contextual factors do you think influence your teaching practices?

They all simply affect teaching practices directly. Teaching practices get affected from the institution the teacher works. Since the teacher is a part of a whole, the perspective the institution has about the matter being taught affects the instruction of the teacher. The same goes with the management. Institutional and managerial factors actually define the border of your teaching. For example, if you are not given any flexibility to come up with your own teaching ideas or materials of your choice, you are simply a technician operating a machine rather than an engineer designing it. So, the teacher-institution and especially teacher-management relationship plays a big role here, these may have some negative or positive effects depending on the relationship's quality.

Teaching in a culturally diverse classroom requires a lot more attention from the materials you use to the instruction you give in the class. Depending on the socio-cultural background of the community you interact with, the content of the lecture and also learners' world knowledge changes. Background information also differentiates accordingly.

4. How have your teaching practices throughout the years influenced your teaching?

I've become more interactive with students, and learned some points they generally have a hard time at. I have a rather friendly interaction with them. I let them work on their skills and help them when they need to. I use the materials provided by the school and some extra reading books and writing ideas. I generally first give the example and ask for them to realize and explain when they have used the structure. Also the course book provides the necessary input and practice that can be used afterwards. We also practice with games. I also learned there is not a single method or approach that can be used in every setting. Hands-on practice at the university and experience are important in any case, but what really matters is that you have to take course objectives, learner needs, learners' learning styles, curriculum and syllabus, assessment methods, appropriate teaching methodologies for course objectives and students into account.

APPENDIX-3. Fazilet's First Interview

First of all, I'd like to thank you for helping me conduct this interview. As you may know, I am going to ask you some questions regarding the lesson you are going to teach. There is no right or wrong answer so please feel free to explain your responses in detail. The aim of this study is to explore the interactive and evaluative decision-making process by EFL teachers. I have given you a pseudonym to preserve your anonymity. This interview will be recorded to be later transcribed so I can email you the recorded file or the transcription if you like.

R: You're ready?

I: yes.

R: Let's start by having you describe what you do here at this school.

I: I am an English teacher here full-time. That's my profession.

R: Which levels of English have you taught in your career?

I: In my career starting from elementary students, I taught mostly intermediate and opportunity students but in most cases you know Turkish students are generally elementary and pre-intermediate But I had a chance to see advanced ones as well.

R: OK and what about the age groups?

I: Starting from 5 to 60 laughter. Huge ranges.

R: And how long have you been teaching?

I: For five years.

R: For five years OK. What about this class you're teaching. Which level are your students?

I: They are pre-intermediate but low pre-intermediate class I can say.

R: And what's the name of the course book you're teaching?

I: Face-to-face.

R: And is it your first time teaching pre-intermediate level?

I: No it's probably mmmm many times I don't remember exactly I'm sorry.

R: Ok. That's all right don't be. Can you please tell me how you're going to teach this lesson?

I: Starting from the aim of the lesson, The aim is going to be present continuous for future plans and in 40 minutes of course my aim is you know to teach them how to use it and what to do with it different functions in the usage then starting from the warm-up exercise, it's the first warm-up exercise revision of unit six. Now that we are starting to teach unit seven on this day of this class, first I need to do..... you know..... remind them of unit six and then ask another warm up question “ Are you planning to go on holiday next summer?” Will be my warm-up question and I will ask this question to each and every student so it's going to be teacher guided.

R: Why?

I: Because to attract their interest into the lesson I believe that asking questions would make them more interested in the topic and to feel more relaxed in the classroom. I do it a lot. And I will also focus on the phrase “planning to” because we covered it in the past and now I'm going to remind them and then I will ask them about the place where they are planning to go on holiday.

R: This is part of the warm-up?

I: Warm up first warm-up just asking questions yes. And after that I will start this listening here “ Josh and Asmay are colleagues and they are going on a vacation” They're going to listen to the exercise twice they're going to try to underlined important grammar structure here which is present continuous but for future reference.

R: You said underline?

I: Yeah underline the sentences that they are true and false sentences.

R: OK. And may I ask why you start with listening?

I: I start with listening because I want them to be familiar with the pronunciation and then the important thing is the future reference. I can't just tell them that it's for the future. They need to feel it deeply. They need to hear it from people who are planning to do something actually that's why I started with warm up plan and then I will go on with this kind of listening part because they already know the function of present continuous tense for now do you know at the moment structures but if they are not familiar with it then I will also give reference to them as well. OK after that, after the listening part then I will explain the grammar because as you can see it there are grammar references.

R: How would you teach the grammar part?

I: The grammar part, as I told you I'll make them underline the grammar structure for example "are leaving, are getting, staying" and then I will ask them questions to understand the threshold you know to awaken their minds and I will focus on "am, is, are" you know "to be" Part and then I will focus on the typical structure verb ING coming after that.....

R: Will you be eliciting or you will be teaching them?

I: First, asking them to realize what's going on in the sentence and what type of grammar structure is this. First, I will make them realize the fact that....

R: How?

I: By asking questions actually.

R: Like?

I: Like which Tan's is this? What do you see on the board? What's the grammar structure?

R: I understand.

I: Do you see to be? Look at the verb. Does it get verb ING? Or is it the base form? I will just ask them. Generally I ask them and this is what I'm going to do. I am planning to do there. After the grammar explanation. They are quite familiar with this function of present continuous tense for future references and then I'm going to ask them some I'm sorry wait a second OK wait a minute I will ask them if they have a bucket list. And then they would wonder what's the bucket list and then I will explain to them that it's the thing that you desire before you die. So if they have that type of desire, I like plan, aims in the future or starting from now they will make a list.

R: So would that be individual work?

I: Individual. It's going to be individual work. If they don't have any so i will just tell them to think about it before they die if they don't want to do anything in life. I'll just make them do it (Laughter) in the end and then I will show them the pictures because there are some pictures.

R: You said about the bucket list. Once they have I mean after writing the list what's going to happen?

I: What's going to happen? I will go and take reference give reference to this part because it says 50 places to go before you die. So there are some pictures of those places that mostly people want to go and have their holiday there you know. And then of course they don't know which places are these. So I will make them make a research with their partners together

using a mobile phone and google And they will look at the names of the most you know desired places in abroad whatever and they would just check the pictures online and then if we find any similarity between these pictures they were just trying to say oh look at picture a think this is Cape Town oh look at the picture be I think this looks like South Africa.

R: Matching?

I: Yeah it will make them easier. It will make it easier for them to

R: What about the bucket list? What's the aim?

I: What's the name of it? Before because it means places to go or what things to do before you die so it's kind of thing that gives them an idea what are we doing here? It's just not typical practice.

R: After writing the bucket list is there any kind of task you will give them? Or they just write, it is just writing?

I: I'll just make them write and then I will just ask one or two questions to talk about it of course in the classroom like “why, why do you want to go? Is it good or bad?”

R: OK.

I: Have you ever seen it? You know typical just chitchat kind of interactive teacher-students, students' interactions part there...

R: So after matching the pictures with the names, what's going to be done next? Step?

I: After matching the pictures, I will give them some vocabulary to differentiate the meanings of “travel, journey, trip, tour” They look so similar to them.

R: How would you get them to differentiate?

I: I will make them associate them with the pictures mostly but they wouldn't do you know and then I will ask them why “why is it hard to do it? Don't you understand when I say travel?” They will say “yes of course we understand” then I will ask them to find a way to understand the difference for example “which one is a verb, which one is a noun? Do you see how many nouns do you see? You know and then I will tell them to look at the words and try to make it like this like “which one takes longer than the other one?” for example “a trip or a journey?” and then I will make them write some comparisons “a tour or a trip?” so.....

R: So it would be interactions between...??

I: Between me and the students.

R: Ok.

I: And then in the end, they will finish this part which is you know “choose the correct word activity” which will test their ability to discriminate between two words and I don't think that at the first and second question they are not gonna make it in the correct way that's why I make an exam first.

R: OK

I: The first one will be an example for them and then the others... they will try their best to do it and then in the end it's all over like this.

R: Alright

I: That's all. I think that's all

R: Thank you very much

I: No problem.