REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
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DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES
CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTIONAL STUDIES DEPARTMENT

Ph.D. THESIS

A CASE STUDY OF TURKISH AND POLISH ENGLISH TEACHERS' EFFECTIVENESS

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2017

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ÖZ

TÜRK VE LEH İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN ETKİLİLİKLERİNE YÖNELİK BİR DURUM ÇALIŞMASI

Bünyamin BAVLI [1] [2]

Ekim, 2017

Bu çalışma Polonya ve Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin etkililiklerini etkileyen faktörleri ve öğretmen etkililik algılarını belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmada arka plandaki olguyu keşfetmek amacıyla nitel araştırma yöntemlerinden bütüncül çoklu durum deseni kullanılmıştır. Araştırma Polonya ülke merkezinde yer alan bir şehirde iki devlet lisesinde ve Türkiye'de ise Marmara bölge merkezinde yer alan iki devlet lisesinde yürütülmüştür. Çalışmanın katılımcılarını Polonya'da 12 İngilizce öğretmeni ve 35 öğrenci, Türkiye'den 12 İngilizce öğretmeni ve 61 öğrenci oluşturmaktadır. Araştırma verileri esas olarak öğretmenlerle gerçekleştirilen bireysel görüşmeler, öğrenciler ile gerçekleştirilen odak grup görüşmeleri ve araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen gözlem formları aracılığı ile toplanmıştır.

Araştırma bulguları iki boyut altında ele alınmıştır: Polonya ve Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmenlerin etkililik algılarını etkileyen faktörler ve İngilizce öğretmeni ve öğrencilerin öğretmen etkililiklerine yönelik algıları. Elde edilen veriler Polonya ve Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmenlerinin etkililik algılarının öğretmen eğitimi, bireysel ve sosyal faktörler, öğretimsel faktörler ve bağlamsal faktörler gibi benzer faktörlerden etkilendiğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ancak, alt kategoriler incelendiğinde, faktörlerin farklılık gösterdiği belirlenmiştir. İlk kategoriyle ilgili olarak, öğretmen eğitimi, hizmet öncesi ve hizmet içi eğitimle ilgili faktörlerin öğretmenlerin etkililik algılarını etkilediği görülmüştür. Polonya ve Türkiye'de İngilizce öğretmenlerinin etkililik algılarını etkileyen diğer bir faktör ise esasen öğrenen ve velilerle ilgili olan bireysel ve sosyal faktörlerdir. Bununla birlikte, öğretmen eğitimi, bireysel ve sosyal faktörlerin yanı sıra öğretimle ilgili faktörler de İngilizce öğretmenlerinin etkililik algılarını etkileyen faktörler arasında yer almaktadır. Her iki ülkeden elde edilen veriler eğitim programıyla ilgili faktörlerin İngilizce öğretmenlerinin etkililik algılarını etkilediklerini ifade etmişlerdir. Öğretmen eğitimi, bireysel ve sosyal faktörler, öğretimle ilgili faktörlerin yanında karma becerilere sahip öğrenciler, kalabalık sınıflar, teftiş ve değerlendirme, maaş, ikili öğretim, kariyer sistemi, idari görevler, öğretmen iş birliği, ücretli öğretmen istihdamı, bir önceki öğrenim kademesindeki öğrenme yaşantıları ve şartları, az sayıdaki İngilizce öğretmeni, kullanılan öğretim yöntemleri, seçmeli dersler, yüksek düzeyde öğretmen değişimi ya da hareketliliği gibi bağlamsal faktörler de İngilizce öğretmenlerinin etkililik algılarını etkileyen faktörler arasında yer almaktadır.

[1] Bu çalışma Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırma Kurumu (TÜBİTAK) 2214/A programı kapsamında desteklenmiştir.

[2] Bu çalışma Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Bilimsel Araştırma Projeleri Koordinasyon Birimi Tarafından Desteklenmiştir. Proje numarası: 2015-09-01-DOP03

Polonya ve Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmenlerinin etkililiklerine yönelik algıları dört ana başlık altında ele alınmıştır: sınıf yönetimine yönelik etkililik algıları, öğretim stratejileri kullanımına yönelik etkililik algıları, öğretim materyali kullanımına yönelik etkililik algıları, ve ölçme değerlendirmeye yönelik etkililik algılarıdır. Sınıf yönetimine yönelik etkililik algıları, öğretim sürecinde her bireye yeterli zaman ayırma, sınıf kuralları belirleme, sınıf kuralları belirlemede öğrencilerle işbirliği yapma, öğrencilere olumlu dönüt sağlama, öğrencileri geri cevap vermede (yanıtlama) motive etmek, öğrenmelere öğrenme güçlüklerini ifade etmeye izin verme, öğretim sürecinde çeşitli oturma düzeni kullanmayı kapsamaktadır. Öğretim stratejileri kullanımına yönelik etkililik algıları, çeşitli grup stratejileri kullanma, ikili çalışma teknikleri kullanma, iletişime yönelik uygulamalar yaptırma, otantik uygulamalar yaptırma, İngilizceyi öğretim dili olarak kullanmayı amaçlamaktadır. Öğretim materyali kullanımına yönelik etkililik algıları otantik araç gereç kullanma, kendi öğretim materyallerini geliştirme, online (çevrim içi) öğretim kaynakları ve uygulamaları kullanma, görseller kullanma ve öğrencileri sözlük kullanmaya teşvik etmeyi içermektedir. Son olarak, ölçme değerlendirmeye yönelik etkililik algıları ev ödevlerine dönüt verme (sözlü ve yazılı), online (çevrim içi) ev ödevi verme, formatif değerlendirme yapma, sumatif değerlendirme yapma, değerlendirme sonrası sözlü ve yazılı dönüt sağlama, değerlendirme sonrası gerektiğinde yeniden öğretim yapma faaliyetlerini kapsamaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Faktörler, Algılar, Öğretmen Etkililiği, Nitel Araştırma.

ABSTRACT

A CASE STUDY OF TURKISH AND POLISH ENGLISH TEACHERS' EFFECTIVENESS

Bünyamin BAVLI [3] [4]

October, 2017

The study intends to explore factors influencing the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness and effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Turkey and Poland. To explore background phenomenon, qualitative methodology, and especially holistic multiple-case designs were employed in the study. The study was conducted in two public upper-secondary schools located in a city in the center of the Poland and two public upper-secondary schools located in the central Marmara region of Turkey. The participants of the study were comprised of 12 English language teachers and 35 students in Poland, and 12 English language teachers and 61 students in Turkey. Study data were primary obtained through individual interviews with teachers, focus group interviews with students and passive-participant observation by classroom observation forms generated by the researcher.

Study findings were categorized into two areas: factors influencing effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey and perceptions of teachers and students about teacher effectiveness in these countries. Findings revealed that effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey were influenced by identical categories, namely factors related to teacher education, personal and social factors, instructional factors, and contextual factors. However, when subcategories were examined, it was obvious that factors vary. With reference to the first category, factors related to teacher education, factors related to pre-service education and in-service teacher education influenced effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey. Another category influencing effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey was personal and social factors originated of learners and parents. In addition to the factors such as teacher education and personal and social factors, instructional factors also influenced the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland and Turkey. Teachers and students in both countries stated that curriculum-related factors influenced effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers. Besides factors such as teacher education, personal and social factors and instructional factors, contextual factors such as learning environments consisting of students with mixed ability, overcrowded classrooms, inspection and evaluation, salary, double-shift schooling, teacher promotion, administrative tasks, teacher collaboration, employment of substitute teaching staff, learning experiences and conditions in previous grade and school such as lack of English teachers, teaching

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methods employed and elective courses, and finally high mobility or frequent change of teachers all had an impact on effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers' in Poland and Turkey.

Effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey were categorized under four main categories: effectiveness perceptions about classroom management, effectiveness perceptions about classroom using instructional strategies, effectiveness perceptions about employing teaching materials, and effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation. Effectiveness perceptions about classroom management comprised of allocation sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties and employing various seating arrangements. Effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies involved employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction. Effectiveness perceptions about employing teaching materials consisted of using authentic teaching materials, developing one's own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries. Finally effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation included providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessment, making summative assessment, providing oral and written feedback following the assessment, and re-teaching following assessments.

Key Words: Factors, Perceptions, Teacher Effectiveness, Qualitative Study.

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ISTANBUL; October, 2017 Bünyamin Bavlı

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ABBREVATIONS

AILA : International Association of Applied Linguistics
ALES : Graduate Education Entrance Examination
BA : Bachelor of Arts
CEFR : Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLT : Communicative Language Teaching Approach
CoHE : Yüksek Öğretim Kurumu (Council of Higher Education)
CPD : Continuing Professional Development
ECTS : European Credit Transfer System
EF EPI : English First, English Proficiency Index
ERG : Eğitim Reformu Girişimi (Education Reform Initiative)
EUROSTAT : Statistical Office of the European Union
FL : Foreign Language
GNI : Gross National Income
HEI : Higher Education Institutions
ICT : Information Communication Technology
IELTS : International English Language Testing System
IQAS : International Qualification Assessment Service
KPSS : Public Personnel Selection Examination
L1 : First Language
L2 : Second Language
LGS : Transition to Higher Education Examination
LTM : Long-Term Memory
LYS : Undergraduate Placement Exam
MA : Master of Arts
MoNE : Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (Ministry of National Education)
MS : Master of Sciences
NGO : Non-Governmental Organizations
NSTTC : National In-service Teacher Training Service
OECD : Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
OSYM : Ölçme, Seçme ve Yerleştirme Merkezi (Assessment Selection and Placement Center)
PCK : Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PE : Physical Education
PLFCGRP : Polish Focus Group
PLT : Polish Teacher
TBMM :Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi (Grand National Assembly of Turkey)
TEOG : Temel Eğitimden Ortaöğretime Geçiş Sınavı (Exam for Transition from Primary to Secondary Education)
TED : Türk Eğitim Derneği (Turkish Education Association)
TEPAV : Türkiye Ekonomi Politikaları Araştırma Vakfı (Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey)
TOEFL : Test of English as a Foreign Language

TRFCGRP : Turkish Focus Group
TRT : Turkish Teacher
UG : Universal Grammar
UNESCO : United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
WM : Working Memory
ZPD : Zone of Proximal Development

1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the background, problem, significance, purpose and research questions of the study are discussed. The chapter presents main information about the factors influencing teacher effectiveness and effectiveness perceptions of English teachers in Poland and Turkey.

1.1.Background to the Study

Language is one of the characteristics specific to human beings. Apart from social communication and interaction, language allows people to learn about culture accumulation, identity, developments, ideas and feelings. Beyond formal instruction, language includes various traditions and customs. Language is also affected by theoretical aspects such as psychology, linguistics, philosophy and other disciplines. With respect to language education, the range is extremely wide as it includes pedagogical practices, content knowledge, and social variables such as learners, teachers, principals, parents etc. The language teaching and learning process is impacted by a wide variety of viewpoints. Culture and human behaviour are the sources contributing to language and meaning. Even though some of the language components such as speaking and listening are acquired in a natural process, some others such as grammar, reading and writing require teaching. Language is an instrument for development of thought influencing the teaching process as well. Various theorists have emphasized the connection between language, thinking, and learning. When language is accepted as a means of learning, the role of the learner is not only to communicate as language is accepted as a system of communication but also to be an active participant for exploring meaning. Some perspectives suggest that language is instrumental not only in learning and communication but also in personal development, which aims to enhance learners' artistic expressions such as stories, poems, literature etc. Regarding acquisition of language, studies relate language acquisition and cognitive development by underlining the use of language. Within this context, some psychological perspectives emphasize the social and

cultural context for language learning. Consequently, in classroom teaching of language, lack of context might be a disadvantage for teaching skills and structure of language (Fleming, 2006).

English language is a means of communication used by people of different nationalities as a native language, second language or foreign language all around the world. English Language is the first in the ranking of the languages spoken the most in the world (Statista, 2016a; Crystal, 2013). Approximately, 1.125 million people in the world speak English either as a second or foreign language to communicate with each other. Except for the countries, Luxembourg Ireland and the United Kingdom, European people regard English as Europe's most beneficial language for personal development (Statista, 2016b). The term "lingua franca" for English has become widespread as a result of intensive interest in English among non-native English speakers. When English is used as a communication language between people whose native language is not English, it is called "lingua franca" (Seidlhoffer, 2005). The current position of English as a global language and lingua franca makes English an integral part of the personal and academic development of a person. According to the European statistical platform, Eurostat, in primary education almost of all the students learn English. In secondary education, English is ranked first, and 94 % of students preferred to learn English as a foreign language in upper-secondary education (Eurostat, 2016). In addition to basic education, in most countries, English is used as a medium of instruction in tertiary education. According to a study conducted by British Council, in 55 countries where the native langauge is not English, English is used to teach academic subjects at the universities (Dearden, 2015). The use of English as a foreign language has a variety of reasons. Some people learn English for specific purposes to carry out and develop their professions such as banking, business, tourism etc. Some people, especially students, learn English to conduct their academic study, which is called English for Academic purposes. English is an essential tool formalizing global science, technology and human rights (British Council, 2011). Drubin and Kellogg (2012) point out that English is the language almost always employed for scientific purposes. Some other people learn English for commerce, information exchange, travel, popular culture, communication reasons and being a part of the global world (Harmer, 2007a; Harmer, 2007b). In addition to that, it is clear in the literature that English is vital for

social and economic development of the countries. There is a positive relation between command of the English language and economic advancement (Pinon, Haydon, 2010; Lee, 2012; Robbins, 2015; Shehu, Sgittu, 2015). In addition to these positive impacts, "English language plays a role in increasing individuals' employability, enabling international collaboration and cooperation, providing access to research and information, facilitating the international mobility of students, tourists, workers and others, facilitating disaster relief and disaster preparedness acting as an impartial language in contexts of disharmony" (British Council, 2010, 15).

Foreign Language education in Turkey has a long history covering hundreds of years. During the 18th and 19th centuries Arabic and Persian languages were taught during the Ottoman Empire; however, at the beginning of the 20th century, some local and global changes such as westernization and modernization movements necessitated teaching French, German and English languages at Ottoman schools (Boyacıoğlu, 2014). Even though English was only taught as a second foreign language after French from 1923 to 1950, it has been taught as the first foreign language in Turkey since 1950. The importance attributed to English in foreign language education was cemented with the foundation of Anatolian high schools in 1955. At Anatolian high schools English was taught as a foreign language for one year at the beginning of upper-secondary education. Apart from Anatolian high schools, Super High schools functioning like Anatolian high schools were also established to further support English language education as a foreign language in Turkey in 1994. The literature also suggests that the number of private high schools providing English education as a foreign language has been increasing in Turkey. Even today, English keeps its position in language education as the first foreign language as most of the students in primary and secondary education prefer learning English in Turkey (Oral, 2010).

Beyond the structural changes such as basic education reform, termination of multigrade class teaching, decreasing classroom sizes, increasing the number of schools, some other changes and practices have been put into practice to improve the quality of education by the Turkish government recently. With respect to teaching English as a foreign language, the Turkish government lowered the age that students began studying English by starting English language education in 4th grade in

primary schools (Haznedar, 2010). In the 2013-2014 school year, it was decided by the Turkish government that foreign language education such as English as a foreign language would be started from the 2nd year of primary school. In addition to that, recent reports of the National Education Council (MoNE), which have been published regularly since 1921, include decisions and statements related to English language education in Turkey (MoNE, 2010). Moreover, the MoNE has recently equipped schools with technological equipment such as computer labs, interactive boards, tablet computers and wireless internet (Akıncı, Kurtoğlu, Seferoğlu, 2012). Ministry of Development (MoD) announced that the MoNE has the highest share of sectoral distribution of public information and communication technologies investments in Turkey (MoD, 2016). The studies conducted on technology integration in education in Turkey revealed that the interactive white boards used for instruction in the classroom positively influence language learning and student achievement (Adıgüzel, Gürbılak, Sarıçayır, 2010; Gündoğdu, 2014; Şen, Ağır, 2014).

Despite the struggles and investments to improve the quality of English Language Teaching as a Foreign Language all around the country for a long time, the current state of language education in Turkey is unsatisfactory. When the proficiency of learners of English is compared with the other countries, especially European Countries, it is crystal clear that the situation has not improved yet (TEPAV, 2011; TEPAV, 2014; British Council, 2015). The results of the current rankings and indexes on English proficiency do not coincide with the efforts of teaching English. According to EF EPI (English First, English Proficiency Index) which is "the world's largest ranking of countries by English skills", Turkey is ranked 50th out of 70 countries. Regarding proficiency, Turkey is in the category of very low proficiency in the ranking. Conversely, Poland is ranked 9th out of 70 countries in the same ranking. Regarding proficiency, Poland is in the category of very high proficiency. Even though some variables such as Gross National Income (GNI) per capita and years of schooling are analogous in both countries, Poland has higher achievement in the English Proficiency Index (EF, 2016, The World Bank, 2016a). Annual expenditure by educational institutions per student in upper-secondary education in Poland and Turkey is similar. Moreover, total public expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure is higher in Turkey than in Poland.

(OECD, 2017). “The socio-economic background of students still seems to play a significant role in their education outcomes, and differences in achievement are apparent between different types of upper secondary schools” (OECD, 2015, 6). Furthermore, English is learnt by 94.6 % of pupils in upper-secondary education in Poland and 99.2% of pupils in upper-secondary education in Turkey (Eurostat, 2016). In addition to that, the number of the weekly teaching hours of English as a foreign language in primary education in Turkey is higher than Poland (OECD, 2015). In the context of years of schooling, English language education as a foreign language start in the pre-primary education level in Poland. However, in Poland and Turkey, prospective teacher selection for the higher education institutions shares similarity. At the end of the secondary education and before the tertiary education, all of the Polish students should have English language exam scores to pass matriculation exams, in Turkey students participate in external assessment called YGS and LYS (EURYDICE, 2014). Finally, teacher salaries in Turkey are higher than the teacher salaries in Poland (OECD, 2015). However, in the end, Poland in general performs better.

1.2.Statement of the Problem

Even though the problem of teaching English as a foreign language is evident in Turkey, the sources of the problem causing this situation are uncertain. Lots of studies conducted on English language education in Turkey explored the various challenges related to the learning environment such as overcrowded classrooms, pre-service education of teachers, in-service teacher education, policies on language teaching, techniques and principles in language education (Engin, 2006; Coşkun Demirpolat, 2015; Özer, Korkmaz, 2016). However, it is ambiguous how these factors influence teacher effectiveness. In addition to that, it is also unclear that effectiveness perceptions of teachers stem from the factors outside the teacher or internal factors sourced from the teacher. To get whole picture on that issue, the study handles two dimensions together: factors influencing teacher effectiveness and perceptions of teachers about their effectiveness. Actually, one of the main factors is related to students with diverse abilities and attitudes. In addition to that, parental background is also influence teacher effectiveness. Furthermore, administrative reasons are behind the reasons playing role on teacher effectiveness. However,

teacher charatesteristics can't be ignored on that. Teacher quality is an essential variable on student achievement (OECD, 2005).

However, the term teacher effectiveness involves various knowledge components. Subject matter knowledge, content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, contextual knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of educational context are included in the knowledge components of a teacher (Shulman, 1987; Day, 1991; Newsome, 2014). In general, teacher education curricula comprises four elements: Every teacher has an extensive subject knowledge, a good knowledge of pedagogy, the skills and competences required to guide and support learners, and an understanding of the social and cultural dimension of education (European Commission, 2007). However, without understanding factors influencing teacher effectiveness, it would be incomplete and imperfect to decide on teacher e effectiveness perceptions (Vegas, Umansky, 2005). The current study aims to explore teacher effectiveness and factors related to teacher effectiveness in Poland and Turkey in depth by employing a qualitative research methodology in a comparative way. The study is unique as it handles the problem in depth by employing a qualitative research methodology in a comparative way with multiple cases in Poland and Turkey.

1.3.Significance of the Study

As a lingua franca of the world, English has been gaining importance every single day. The English Language is spoken as a mother tongue, a second language and a foreign language by lots of people in many countries. In the USA, the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand English is spoken as a mother tongue by about half a billion people. In many other countries such as India, Nigeria, Zambia and Singapore, English is either the official language or one of the major languages. Lastly, in many other countries such as China, Russia, Indonesia, Japan, and Korea, English is spoken as an international language (Bolton, Kachru, 2006). This necessitates a high standard for the teaching of English. Furthermore, it is clear that most international publications are written in English (Tardy, 2003; Rainer, 2007). Hence, learning English opens the gates of the world for a researcher. On the other hand, it is obvious that there is a clear positive relation between teacher effectiveness and student achievement (Hattie, 2003; White, 2009; Eberle, 2011; Mojavezi, Tamiz,

2012). In OECD countries, upper secondary school principals state that they have difficulty employing fully qualified teachers, including foreign languages teachers (OECD, 2005).

As the study aims to explore factors on effectiveness and teacher effectiveness, it is believed that the study will contribute to the improvement of language teaching both in Turkey and Poland. The current study also contributes to the ongoing studies conducted by the Turkish Ministry of National Education on teacher efficacy (MoNE, 2016a). In addition to that, the study is unique as it examines the factors and effectiveness dimensions together and in depth by employing a qualitative research methodology in a comparative way (CoHE, 2016b). Morever, as the study aims to examine the perceptions of English language teachers about their effectiveness and factors influencing the perceptions of English language teachers, the study contributes to eliminate factors on teacher effectiveness and improve the effectiveness of English language teachers in Turkey. In this regard, the study involves information that may contribute to the national teacher training strategy that includes aims and objectives related to improving the quality of the teaching profession (MoNE, 2013c).

It is expected that, at the end of the study, the study will contribute to the following issues in the literature:

- To increase student achievement via teacher effectiveness (White, 2009; Eberle, 2011; Mojavezi, Tamiz, 2012).
- To increase the quality of English Language, which is a global language (Tardy, 2003; Rainer, 2007)
- To define the current level of knowledge components of teachers
- To make comparative analyses
- To contribute to resolving the English Language teaching issue in Turkey (TEPAV, 2011; TEPAV, 2014, British Council, 2015)
- To identify deficiencies in English Language Teaching
- To enhance the quality of teacher education
- To contribute to in-service teacher education
- To provide information to educational authorities and policy makers in both countries
- To enhance the effectiveness of education

- To make individuals benefit from global science and technology and to make contributions to these fields (British Council, 2011; Drubin, Kellogg, 2012)
- To make individuals benefit from information exchange, travel, popular culture, and be a part of the global world (Harmer, 2007a; Harmer, 2007b)
- To contribute to the language, social and economic advancement of Poland and Turkey as English is vital for that (Pinon, Haydon, 2010; Lee, 2012; Robbins, 2015; Shehu, Sgittu, 2015)
- To contribute employability of individuals as more education in English offers more employability (OECD, 2012)
- To contribute to employability of individuals, international collaboration and cooperation, and to increase the international mobility of students (British Council, 2010)

Consequently, the study aims to discover personal and social factors, instructional and contextual factors, factors related to teacher education, and factors related to effectiveness perceptions of teachers in Poland and Turkey. The study will consider classroom management, instructional strategies, teaching materials, assessment and evaluation, comparing these areas in both countries. The comparison of the results will identify current challenges in teaching English as a foreign language in Poland and Turkey. Most importantly, the results of the study will contribute to pre and in-service teacher education practices and regulations, the curriculum of language teaching, and policy development about language teaching in Poland and Turkey.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current study is to discover the effectiveness perceptions of public high school English langauge teachers in Poland and Turkey and the factors influencing teacher effectiveness perceptions. Accordingly, the study intents to answer the following research questions:

1. How do English language teachers perceive their effectiveness and the factors influencing their effectiveness in teaching English in Poland and Turkey?

2. How do students perceive their English language teachers' effectiveness in teaching English in Poland and Turkey?
3. How is the effectiveness of English language teachers in teaching English in Poland and Turkey?

1.5. Key Terms

Critical terms included in the study are defined below.

Assessment: "A systematic approach to collecting information and making inferences about the ability of a student or the quality or success of a teaching course on the basis of various sources of evidence" (Richards, Schmidt, 2002, 35).

Comparative study: Investigation of patterns of similarities and differences across a variety of cases (Charles, 1994).

English Language Teacher: The teacher whose mother tongue is not English but teaches English as a foreign or second language at school to students whose mother tongue is not English as well.

In-service Education: Development and refreshment of knowledge components of teacher during the teaching service.

Foreign Language: "A language which is not the native language of large numbers of people in a particular country or region, is not used as a medium of instruction in schools, and is not widely used as a medium of communication in government, media, etc." (Richards, Schmidt, 2002, 206).

Knowledge Components: Essential components of knowledge for a teacher which include pedagogical content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge, content knowledge, support knowledge, curriculum knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational context, knowledge of educational purposes, and values based on philosophical and historical grounds (Shulman, 1987; Day, 1991; Blömeke, Delaney, 2014; Newsome, 2014).

Language Skills: Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills of the English language that are crucial for linguistic performance.

Lingua Franca: Language used to communicate between people whose native language is not English (Seidlhoffer, 2005).

Pedagogical Knowledge: Pedagogical knowledge includes knowledge (motivation, assessment, methods, techniques classroom management) about teaching content knowledge (Day, 1991). Pedagogical knowledge, which is also called teacher knowledge, is about teaching strategies, principles and aims to direct teachers' teaching in the classroom (Fernando Macias, 2013).

Pre-service Education: Phase of teacher education required to gain essential knowledge and practice of teaching in advance of teaching. This period corresponds to Bachelor's degree in Turkey and Master's degree in Poland.

Teacher Effectiveness: "Characteristics and behaviors matter in teaching, in terms of student achievement as well as other desirable outcomes" (Stronge, 2007, X)

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This part of the study presents the reader an overall picture of the current position of English in the world as a lingua franca, the reasons behind learning English, and different kinds of teaching English such as teaching English as a native, a second or a foreign language.

2.1.English as a Global Language (Lingua Franca)

The English language is a means for communication used by people of different nationalities as a native language, second language or foreign language all around world. The English Language is spoken by 1.500 million people world-wide. Only 375 million people speak English as a native language. It is the first in the ranking of the languages spoken the most in the world (Statista, 2016a; Crystal, 2013). According to this data, it is clear that 1.125 million people in the world speak English either as a second or foreign language to communicate with each other. Other than the countries Luxembourg, Ireland and the United Kingdom, European people regard English as Europe's most beneficial language for personal development (Statista, 2016b). The term "lingua franca" has come about as a result of intensive interest in English among non-native English speakers. When English is used as a communication language between people whose native language is not English, it is called "lingua franca" (Seidlhoffer, 2005). However, the English language is not just spoken by people of other nationalities as a foreign language; it is also used by the people in different countries as a second language, as well. As a world language, Kachru refers to a model of English consisting of three circles (Kachru, Nelson, 2011, 27).

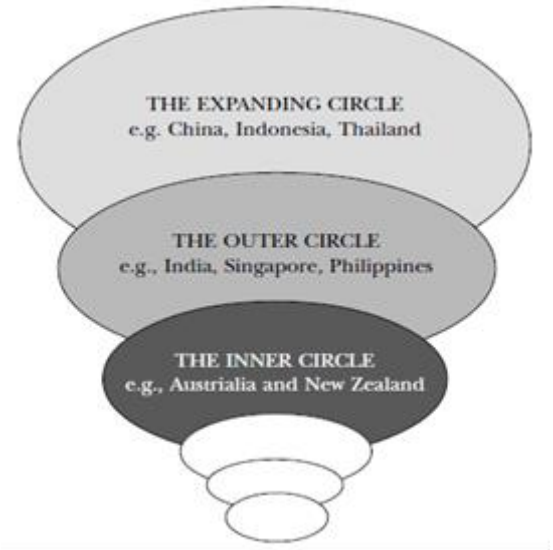

Figure 1: The Three Circles

Kachru, Yamuna, Nelson, Cecil L, **World Englishes in Asian Contexts** (Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press, 2011), 27.

The model not only demonstrates the spread of English but also categorizes the English language as a native, second and foreign language. The first inner circle displays the origin of English language from which English spread around the world. In this inner circle, English is spoken as a native language and constitutes the source of other forms of English such as a second or foreign language. Australia, New Zealand, Canada, the UK and the USA are placed in the inner circle.

In the outer circle, English is not spoken as a native language but it is crucial language that people use to communicate. In this circle, English was firstly spoken for imperial reasons. However, it is still being spoken by the people and beign used as a medium of instruction at different levels of the education system in countries like India, Pakistan, and Nigeria. The last circle, called the expanding circle, stands for countries where English is learned and used for international communication reasons. Russia, China, Japan, the Netherlands andEgypt are countries fall into the expanding circle (Kachru, Nelson, 2011). In short, in each circle English has a different position. In the inner circle, English is used as a native language. In the outer circle, English is used as a second language. In the expanding circle, English is used as a foreign language.

2.2.Necessity of Teaching/Learning English Language

The current position of English as a global language and lingua franca requires people to learn English at least at the foreign language level. In a large number of countries, English is used as a medium of instruction in tertiary education. Furthermore, in many countries, English is taught as a foreign language starting from pre-school education. According to the European statistical platform, Eurostat, in primary education almost all students learn English. In secondary education, English ranks first, and 94% of students preferred to learn English as a foreign language in upper secondary education (Eurostat, 2016). In addition to that, the English Language is used as a medium of instruction in tertiary education in many countries. According to a study conducted by the British Council in 55 countries, English is used to teach academic courses at the university where the native language of the students is not English (Dearden, 2015).

In addition to communicative reasons, there are some other reasons such as imperial, political, and historical ones behind learning English. In fact, there are lots of reasons attracting people to learn English all around the world. The need for learning English changes from person to person and depends on the individual. Some people learn English to integrate and move to a country where it is spoken as a native or second language. Some people learn English for their specific purposes to carry out and develop their professions such as banking, business and tourism. Some people, especially students, learn English to conduct their academic study, which is called English for Academic purposes. English is an essential tool in formalizing global science, technology and human rights (British Council, 2011). Drubin and Kellogg (2012) point out that English is the language almost always employed for scientific purposes. Some other people learn English for commerce, information exchange, travel, popular culture, communication and being a part of the global world (Harmer, 2007a; Harmer, 2007b). Moreover, it is clear in the literature that English is vital for the social and economic development of countries. There is a positive relation between command of the English language and economic advancement (Pinon, Haydon, 2010; Lee, 2012; Robbins, 2015; Shehu, Sgittu, 2015). In addition to these positive impacts, "English language plays a role in increasing individuals' employability, enabling international collaboration and cooperation, providing access to research and information, facilitating the international mobility of students,

tourists, workers and others, facilitating disaster relief and disaster preparedness acting as an impartial language in contexts of disharmony" (British Council, 2010, 15).

2.3.English Language: Teaching and Learning

As discussed earlier, in each country, depending on the purpose and needs, people learn English language as a native, second or foreign language. Following is information about teaching the English language as a native, second and foreign language.

2.3.1. English Language as a Native Language

When second and foreign language teaching and learning processes are compared with native or mother tongue ones, they can be distinguished in many respects. In the case of teaching, it is evident that native speakers learn English to survive and operate in the country where they live. It is also a clear purpose of every state to teach the citizens the language of the country. Native language teaching forms a basis for many things such as educating the public, to preparing a well-qualified workforce for a state, providing and maintaining public order, transferring and maintaining the cultural accumulation of a state. There is also dissimilarity of the learning process between learning a native or second or foreign language. In the native language learning process, as the learning is not a planned activity and occurs unconsciously, it is called language acquisition. Hence, the term acquisition is employed in the native language learning process. In the second and foreign language teaching and learning processes, as the purpose is to teach the language according to the pre-prepared curriculum, and as there are assessments to check understanding and learning and, in brief, as it is an intentional process of teaching and learning, the term learning is employed. In other words, the purpose of learning a second or a foreign language is not like learning a native language as was clear above. Henceforth, instead of learning, the term acquisition will be used in this part.

Furthermore, the acquisition process of the native language initiates in the mother's womb unconsciously. In the mother's womb, the infant is exposed to many kinds of external input. After birth, the state of exposure does not change: in fact, the types of input multiply and the amount increases. In the mother's womb, the infant is exposed

only to sounds, but after birth, images, bodily movements, mimics and some other authentic inputs from the environment contribute to the acquisition of the native language (Shatz, 2007). During native language acquisition, there are stages of language development that every child has. Even though every child has distinctive features depending on cognitive, affective and psychomotor development and the development level of each person in each domain varies from child to child, every child eventually starts speaking the language. However, early on, it is not called speaking, but rather producing some sounds. The period starting from the mother's womb to production of speech is called the silent period. Essentially, to be silent for a child does not mean, he/she does not acquire anything. On the contrary, as made clear before, as a result of the inputs the child has been exposed to, the child acquires the language but cannot produce it. After a certain time, the child begins producing sounds. The period before the sounds are produced is called the silent period. The stages after the birth of the child are the milestones for language acquisition. After twelve months, the child starts uttering some words. However, as mentioned earlier, the age of starting utterances for every child is not the same as there are individual differences of development. In addition to that, it is apparent that the number of words increases as children grow (O'Grady, 2005). The first utterances of the child before twelve months are called babbling. Thereafter, until two years old, the child starts connecting words, and forming sentences with two to three words. After three years old, the child begins forming complex sentences like adults (Clark, 2009).

As the study tackles teaching English as a foreign language and issues related to it and native language acquisition process is a subject in itself, it has not been addressed in detail in this section. In the following sections, especially in the section of teaching English as a foreign language, the teaching and learning process of English as a foreign language will be discussed in more detail.

2.3.2. English Language as a Second and Foreign Language

In the previous sections, it was discussed that there are essential differences between first (L1) and second language (L2) acquisition, but these differences were not clarified in depth. In the context of acquisition and learning, L1 and L2 learners are similar to a certain extent. In both cases, language learners are surrounded by native speakers. The language acquisition environment is full of authentic stimulus. It is

evident that real life activities and authentic practices are powerful motivation sources for the language learners (Lombardi, 2007; Nikitina, 2011). When it comes to teaching and learning English as a foreign language (FL), it is evident that there are some differences between FL learning and L1 and L2 learning such as characteristics of learners, language providers and learning context. FL is a learning process of English in a country where English is not the native language. As a result, even though English is not the native language of either L2 or FL learners, the context of language learning is not similar. In each country, there are centers that provide foreign language teaching services. As English is the dominant language of the world, the term foreign language teaching is mostly associated with the English language. Because of this, as might be expected, the ethnicity of L2 and FL learners is diverse. In the FL context, as learners are the citizens of a country mostly from the same ethnicity, the ethnic variety is low. However, it is not the same for L2. In L2 teaching and learning, there might be various people from various ethnic and cultural backgrounds. This difference is substantial as it has potential effects on the teaching process. Learners from diverse ethnical and cultural backgrounds would require more effort for the teacher (Cong, 2012; Lee, 2012). The greater the differences of learners are, the more challenging the teaching is. On the other hand, all L2 and FL learners have already acquired a language. In both cases, both learners acquired at least their native language. This might be an advantage in the context of having information about the nature of a language. Furthermore, regarding differences in L1 learning and L2 and FL learning, cognitive maturity is another significant variable. As all L1 learners begin acquiring the language at an early age, even when they are babies, they have a lack of cognitive maturity to learn language. In other words, language is acquired subconsciously. However, most L2 and FL learners are already mature and have metalinguistic awareness, so they are aware of the learning process of the language. They employ cognitive skills and previous experiences and current abilities to learn language (Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

2.3.3. Perspectives on Second and Foreign Language Teaching and Learning

In the literature, there have been various language teaching and learning perspectives in the history of language teaching. Each perspective, model and hypothesis

approached language learning from a different perspective. Below each perspective, model and hypothesis are discussed from past to present respectively.

Behaviorist Perspective

The Behaviorist perspective is one of the oldest theories of learning suggested at the beginning of the twentieth century. It is called behaviorism in short and has had significant effects on language teaching. The theory asserts that learning is related to behavior and habits. Hence, the theory claims that mimicry, learning by heart, feedback, and behavior creation are substantial components and must direct the learning process. The theory was criticized in the 1970s because of not considering logic and the cognitive process in the learning process. Furthermore, the theory was also criticized based on the claims about learning process (Schunk, 2012; Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

The Innatist Perspective

This perspective is one of the perspectives that emerged as a result of the rejection of behaviorism. As the name suggests, the perspective prioritizes the personal inherent skills. Chomsky claims that innate knowledge enables the learner to learn the language. This knowledge is called Universal Grammar (UG). However, Chomsky also laid emphasis on the term "critical period" of development. The critical period hypothesis claimed that there are developmental periods in which a person best performs the behavior. Some linguists criticized UG as it was more appropriate for native language acquisition than second and foreign language learning. Furthermore, UG was also criticized as it required natural language input and the environment (Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

The Monitor Model

This model is one of the theories inspired by Chomsky opposing the behaviorist theory. The model, suggested by Stephen Krashen, comprises five components. According to it, second language learning is similar to first language acquisition. All that is needed is to be exposed to the language, which means inquisitional learning. There is no need for error correction and unambiguous rule instruction. Another component is the language learner's benefiting from the speaker of the language by communicating and making some improvement in the language accordingly. This process is called "the monitor hypothesis". Another hypothesis of this theory

assumes that there is not an order of language learning such as from easiest to the most difficult. As in the case of first language acquisition, second or foreign language has a mixed order of learning which is called “the natural order”. The last hypothesis is about the learner. Not every person exposed to input achieves language learning. Emotions such as nervousness and beliefs about language learning, called “the affective filter”, might be an obstacle to the language learning process (Krashen, 1981; Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

Cognitive Perspective

As discussed in previous chapters, one of the reasons for criticism of behaviorism was ignorance of logic and the cognitive process in the learning process. The cognitive perspective directly opposes behaviorism for that reason. Contrary to behaviorism, the cognitivist perspective puts mind, logic, consciousness first in the learning process. According to the cognitivist perspective, proposed at the end of the 20^{th} century, logical activities dominate the learning process. According to cognitive psychology, human memory operates in two phases: short-term memory, which has very limited capacity, and long-term memory, which has a much greater capacity. Lots of learning methods have occured as a result of the cognitive perspective (Skehan, 1998; Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

Information Processing Theory

The cognitive model is also called the information processing model. Information processing theory regards internal processing more than external conditions. According to this theory, a person has the ability to acquire, organize and relate knowledge. There are steps to process information. The first step is the input stage, where perception happens. Following, via sensory registration, the information is transmitted into short-term memory, which is also called working memory (WM), and is finite in capacity. To keep knowledge in the WM, it is essential to do drills. In this manner, information is transferred from the short-term memory to the long-term memory (LTM). Providing hints serves for calling the information from the LTM. All these cognitive actions are monitored by the control process (executive) unit. Coding, imaging, arranging information, and motivational strategies are among the functions of the control process. However, while providing input, student attention is

essential. To gain students' attention and bring about learning, there are techniques to be employed by the teacher (Schunk, 2012).

Table 1: Suggestions for Focusing and Maintaining Student Attention

Device	**Implementation**
Signals	Signal to students at the start of lessons or when they are to change activities.
Movement	Move while presenting material to the whole class. Move around the room while students are engaged in seat work.
Variety	Use different materials and teaching aids. Use gestures. Do not speak in a monotone.
Interest	Introduce lessons with stimulating material. Appeal to students' interests at other times during the lesson.
Questions	Ask students to explain a point in their own words. Stress that they are responsible for their own learning.

Schunk, Dale H., **Learning Theories, an Educational Perspective** (Boston: Pearson, 2012), 174.

According to the information processing model, learning is the result of speaking and comprehension. However, to comprehend and communicate, the learner should take heed of the component of the language to be learned. In other words, concentration is the prerequisite for learning (Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

Competition Model

According to this model, the structure and content of the language go with the learning process of the language. "The hypothesis is that speakers of different languages rely on different syntactic cues in constructing meaning. There are four possible cues: word order, world knowledge, animacy and morphology" (Field, 2004, 68).

Interaction Hypothesis

As the name suggests, this model gives importance to communication and interplay in second language acquisition. Furthermore, the model underlines the importance of changes in speech, called "modified interaction", which enables learner

comprehension and provide motivation to interact. Modified interaction also involves support by native speakers, such as making explanations, reiterating, speaking speed modification, and mimicking to catalyze learner comprehension and interaction. Furthermore, the interaction hypothesis suggests that comprehensible input is a requirement during the second language acquisition (Rod, 1991; Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

Noticing Hypothesis

The model claims that there is a positive relationship between attention and learning the second language. It emphasizes attention as essential for L2 learning, especially attention on the grammar. Hence, according to this model, the learner is responsible for acquiring information by paying attention and maintaining alertness. To receive input, conscious notification is inevitable. Consciousness takes place at the core of learning (Truscott, 1998; Schmidt, 2010; Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

Input Processing Model

To understand this model, it is essential to clarify some terms. In short, it might be stated that input is comprehension, and intake is acquisition. This model also emphasizes the learner characteristics in the learning process. The model declares that the learner has finite logical potential to notice the language form and the meaning. During acquisition, learners attach priority to the meaning in the sentence and this case might be an obstacle for the learner in the language acquisition process. That is to say, comprehensible input does not provide acquisition. Actually the objective in this theory is to point form-meaning (Sun, 2008; Benati, 2013).

Processability Theory

The theory suggests that there is a relation between uncomplicatedness and process. Accordingly, comprehension of syntax and morphology is mostly related to their easiness and position and order in a sentence. It is simpler for a learner to learn the component at the beginning and at the end of the sentence. However, to achieve this, first language acquisition and the transfer of this ability to second language learning is required (Lightbown, Spada, 2013). According to the theory, there is a common hierarchy of processability able to be employed in all languages and developed incrementally (Hakansson, 2013). This issue will be discussed in the following sections.

The Role of Practice

As discussed in previous chapters, the behaviorist perspective places importance on practice and drills. As pointed out, in the behaviorist perspective the learning process is controlled outside of the learner, a kind of mechanic process commanded by stimulus response actions. According to cognitive perspective, learning is not possible if learner willingness is not provided. Hence, practice should be interaction based and meaningful (Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

Sociocultural Perspective

The sociocultural perspective opposes the behaviorist perspective. The sociocultural perspective of learning suggests that personal, cultural, historical and social determinants underpin development. **"**Cognitive change results from using cultural tools in social interactions and from internalizing and mentally transforming these interactions. Language is the most critical tool. Language develops from social speech, to private speech, to covert (inner) speech" (Schunk, 2012, 242). It asserts an interrelation between speaking and thinking and writing and assumes that they are concentric and, therefore, require internalizing. Competence of internalizing is a means development. The more a person experiences social activities, the more language development is provided. However, to achieve internalizing, the learner needs to be together with an expert conversationalist to communicate, which is called Zone of Personal Development (ZPD), which was the idea of Lev Semenovich Vygotsky**.** Furthermore, the learner also needs academic help and the backing of a conversationalist to accomplish the task (Gánem-Gutiérrez, 2013; Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

Learning by talking

In the ZPD process, there is the learner and the expert and also the support of the expert to the learner during the learning process. In contrast to ZPD, learning by talking suggests the interaction of two learners which is called collaborative dialogue (Lightbown, Spada, 2013).

3. Education System in Poland and Turkey

"Education is the formal and informal processes of teaching and learning used to develop a person's knowledge, skills, attitudes, understanding, etc., in a certain area or domain" (Richards, Schmidt, 2002, 174). In the following sections, systems of education both in Poland and Turkey are discussed in detail respectively.

3.1.Education System in Poland

The Polish school education has undergone many changes from the past to the present. From 1948 to 1965, the length of primary school was seven years. High schools, called liceum, provided general high school education, served for matriculation and higher education preparation, and were four years long. With the law that went into operation in 1991, compulsory education was extended to age 18 from age 15 (which it had been extended to in 1961. Hereby, 10-year compulsory education included one year of primary school preparation, which is called grade zero, primary school lasting six years and lower-secondary school lasting three years. At the end of 1999, school education system reforms were made. At that time, the system of education consisted of three phases. The first stage, which was not compulsory, was kindergarten. The second stage was eight years of primary school, including students age 7 to 15. The last stage included general, vocational, and technical high school and was four years long. Since 1999, lower-secondary school was included in the second stage and the second stage was divided into two phases; primary school lasting six years and lower-secondary school lasting three years. With this change, the basic education period of 8 years was increased to 9 years. Before 1999, only primary school was compulsory. After 1999, grade zero was included in compulsory education (IQAS, 2012).

In Poland, education is regulated and guaranteed by the constitution of the Republic of Poland. According to the constitution each person has the right to education and it is compulsory until age 18. There are two types of schools: public and non-public schools. In public schools, owned by the state, education is provided free. In non-

public schools, education requires tuition fees. The number of public schools is higher than the number of non-public schools. In addition, in non-public schools the number of students is small. In both public and non-public schools, students have equal education rights. There are three kinds of non-public schools; civic, church and private schools. Civic schools are established and administrated by parents and teachers at the local level. Education is centrally administrated by two bodies: the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and the Ministry of Science and Higher Education (Zdybel, Bogucki, Głodzik, 2011). Even though universities are autonomous in academic and domestic issues, they are managed and supervised by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education. The MoNE is almost solely responsible for defining educational policies, as well as their coordination and implementation with the cooperation of local administrations. The MoNE also defines the core curriculum from pre-school education to general education (UNESCO, 2012). However, teachers have the autonomy to choose course books (The World Bank, 2016b). Within this context, even though education is centrally administrated, the division of responsibility is provided by including the local authorities in the education process. "Poland is divided into 16 provinces or regions (województwo), 379 districts (powiat), and 2478 communes (gmina)" (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014, 11-12). To administrate and supervise education services at public and non-public schools, the MoNE has educational directors in 16 provinces that are called "kurator", responsible state administrations at the state level. Furthermore, at the territorial level, the municipality (including more than one city) is in charge of management, funding and supervision of secondary schools, continuing education centers and special schools. Kindergartens, primary schools and lower-secondary schools and gymnasium are administrated and financed by the local government called commune. However, supervision of these schools does not fall into the commune's area of responsibility. Pedagogical supervision of these school types is carried out by kurators. At the school level, school principals are responsible for the pedagogical supervision (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014; OECD, 2015).

Every year, the school year starts in September at the first working day and terminates in July. Instructional days should be at least 178 days in a school year, divided into two semesters (IQAS, 2012; Polish Eurydice Unit, 2012; Eurydice, 2015). Students' assessments used to be carried out only by the school teachers.

There was no other external assessment for students' attainments until 1999. As of this date, another phase of assessment was included to assess both pupils and school effectiveness, which is called external assessment (Anczewska, Charzyńska, 2012). At the end of each educational level, external educational assessments are organized by the Central Examination Commission, which is responsible for preparation and analyzing the tests, determining exam dates, coordinating staff, etc. (IQAS, 2012). The following table outlines the exams taken by students at the end of the each educational level.

Table 2: Standardized Exams

Name of Examination	**Time of Administration**
Competence Test	At the end of the sixth grade of primary school
Lower-secondary School	In the third class of lower-secondary school
Matriculation (Matura) Examination	For graduates of general secondary schools, specialized secondary schools, technical secondary schools and supplementary secondary schools
Professional Examination	For graduates of vocational and technical schools

International Qualification Assessment Service, **International Education Guide for the Assessment of Education from the Republic of Poland** (Alberta: Government of Alberta, 2012), 17.

3.1.1. Preschool Education

Early childhood education service is provided in two phases in Poland. The table presented below briefly outlines early childhood education in Poland.

Table 3: Childhood Education and Care in Poland

Children aged 0–3	Children aged 3–5
Crèches (żłobki)	Kindergarten (przedszkola)
Kids clubs (kluby dziecięce)	Pre-school classes in primary schools (oddziały przedszkolne w szkołach podstawowych)
	Pre-school centres (zespoły wychowania przedszkolnego)
	Pre-school units (punkty przedszkolne dla dzieci starszych)

EURYDICE, **Structural Indicators for Monitoring Education and Training Systems in Europe – 2015. Eurydice Background Report to the Education and Training Monitor 2015. Eurydice Report (**Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2012), 15.

The first phase involves 0 to 3-year-old children and they receive care at places called kids clubs. The second phase includes children of 3 to 5 or 6-year-old age group. This group attends nursery schools, pre-school centers or classes of pre-school in primary schools (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014). In Poland, preschool education has been obligatory for children since 2005 (UNESCO, 2012). As discussed earlier, communes as local governments are in charge of administration and financing of public kindergartens. There are free for all children. Parents only provide financial contribution for the meals of children and extra teaching exceeding five hours which is the basic amount provided by kindergartens in a day. The core curriculum is designed by the MoNE. Double-shift schooling with a total of nine hours in a day in a kindergarten is possible. Classrooms consist of no more than 25 children. Teachers are free to use any methods for teaching. No formal assessment is carried out to evaluate the educational progress of children. Children are basically assessed by observation of the teacher. Playing and social activities are the basic educational activities. The aim is to provide personal development and preparation for primary school. In kindergartens, foreign language preparation courses have been compulsory for children aged three and over since 2005. 93.6% of all 5-year-old children benefit from pre-school education (IQAS, 2012; Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015a).

3.1.2. Primary Education

Primary school is free and compulsory for all students aged between 5 to 6 and 13 and lasts for 6 years. Most students (82%) in Poland attend public schools in primary education (OECD, 2015). Primary school consists of two phases. The first phase, which is called early school education and is a transitional or integrated stage, involves students from 1st to 3rd grades. At this stage, breaks and lesson durations are flexible. Lessons are carried out by a teacher. Some of the lessons, such as music, art, physical education (PE), computer and foreign languages, are taught by a branch teacher (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014; IQAS, 2012). The following figure reveals minimum number of teaching hours of each subject in the first phase, grades 1-3, in primary schools.

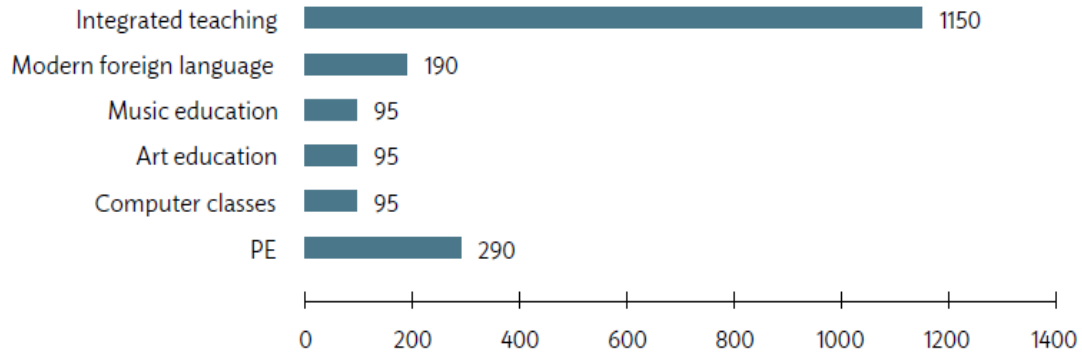

Figure 2: Minimum Number of Teaching Hours by Subject

Polish EURYDICE Unit, **The System of Education in Poland** (Warszawa: Foundation for the Development of the Education System, 2014), 35.

As shown in the figure, modern foreign language is the mostly taught subject after integrated teaching. The second phase, which is called primary school, involves students from 4th to 6th grades. Reading, mathematical and scientific thinking, information communication technology (ICT) usage, learning to learn, teamwork skills, communication in the mother and foreign language (English is the most common foreign language), involving speaking and writing skills are the essential skills to be acquired by primary school students. The school year and the core curriculum are determined by the MoNE. However, each school has the right to implement school curricula developed by teachers and approved by the school principal (OECD, 2015). Teachers have the freedom to choose course books

approved by the MoNE. The school year consists of two semesters. The first semester starts on the first working day of September. The second semester starts after the winter holiday, which is between mid-January and early February, and ends at the last Friday of June. However, the dates are not fixed all around the country and differ from region to region (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2016). Students attend classes on weekdays, starting at 8 a.m. and ending at 2 (for the students in the first phase) or 3 p.m. Pupils have 45 minutes lessons and 5, 10 and 25-minutes breaks. Foreign language classes are grouped according to language skills of students. In primary school, internal assessments are carried out by each subject teacher and each school decides on the assessment system. External assessments are carried out by the Central Examination Commission and are compulsory for each student. The external assessment consists of two phases; in the first phase students have a test on Polish language and mathematics, in the second phase there is a test on foreign languages. For the admission to lower-secondary schools, graduation from primary school is sufficient. External assessment aims to inform parents and teachers about the current academic level of the student. For the students in the first phase, teachers use descriptive assessment for educational attainments and behaviors. In the second phase, "starting in grade 4, the teacher can use the following marking scale to assess pupils' learning achievements: 6 – excellent, 5 – very good, 4 – good, 3 – satisfactory, 2 – acceptable, 1 – unsatisfactory (fail)" (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014, 36). Students and parents should be informed about the assessments and marks. To pass a course, a student should have at least an acceptable grade, which is a 2. It is possible for students to take the test again when they fail. If they fail again in the make-up exam, it is impossible to take it once again. However, the teachers' council has the authority to promote students to the next grade. Primary school students also get marks for their behavior. Marks for the behavior have no academic value and impact on the subject marks for next grade promotion. However, the teachers' council has the final word for the promotion to the next grade based on the marks and behavior of the students (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014; IQAS, 2012).

3.1.3. Secondary Education

Secondary school education consists of two stages. The first stage, which is also called the third stage and lasts three years, involves lower-secondary school and is where primary school graduates proceed to. The second stage, which is also called the fourth stage, involves general, technical and vocational upper-secondary schools and is where lower-secondary school graduates apply to. Only the technical upper-secondary schools provide four-year education. In general upper-secondary schools and basic vocational schools, education lasts three years. According to the core curriculum, lower-secondary (the third stage) and upper- secondary (the fourth grade) schools have joint educational objectives. The curriculum aims to develop students reading, mathematical, scientific thinking, communication, ICT, critical thinking and teamwork skills in the lower-secondary (the third stage) and upper-secondary (the fourth grade) schools (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014).

3.1.3.1. Lower-Secondary Education (the third stage)

Lower-secondary schools, which are also called (gimnazjum), provide three-year education for primary school graduate students aged 13-16. Lower-secondary education is a part of compulsory education in Poland. The following figure outlines minimum number of teaching hours of each subject during lower-secondary school education:

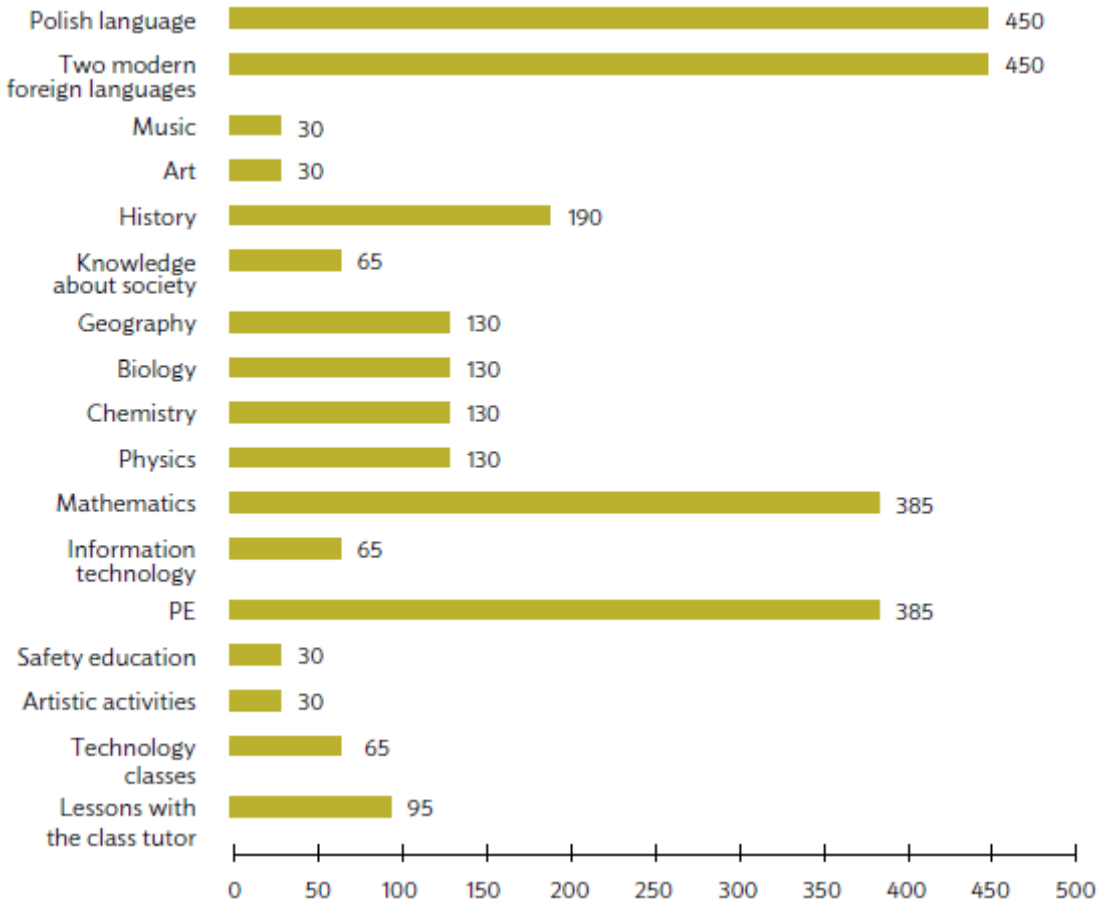

Figure 3: Minimum Number of Teaching Hours by Subject Lower-Secondary Education

Polish EURYDICE Unit, **The System of Education in Poland** (Warszawa: Foundation for the Development of the Education System, 2014), 41.

As the figure clearly suggests, modern languages get the highest share from the total teaching hours during the three-year lower-secondary education. The school principal has the right to increase the number of teaching hours. Weekly teaching hours in lower-secondary education gradually increase. In a week, the first graders have 29 teaching hours (each hour is 45 minutes), the second graders have 30 teaching hours and the third graders have 31 teaching hours. Internal assessments are carried out by each subject teacher. External assessment is made at the end of lower-secondary education in humanities (history, civic education and Polish language), mathematics and natural sciences (biology, chemistry, physics and geography) and foreign languages (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014). The level of language examination, based on Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is A1 for the basic level and A2 for the extended level (European

Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015b). The result of internal and external assessments has a strong effect on admission to upper-secondary school (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014).

3.1.3.2.General Upper-Secondary Education

As discussed earlier, the period of education in upper-secondary schools varies according to the type of upper-secondary school. The basic criterion for admission is the result of internal (assessments carried out by the subject teacher) and external assessment (assessment made by the Central Examination Commission at the end of lower-secondary education). However, each school has the right to sets its own policies for the admission. In general upper-secondary school, three years of free education is provided for the students age 16 to 19. The primary educational objective in general upper-secondary school is to prepare students for higher education. The following figure outlines minimum number of teaching hours of each subject during general upper-secondary school education:

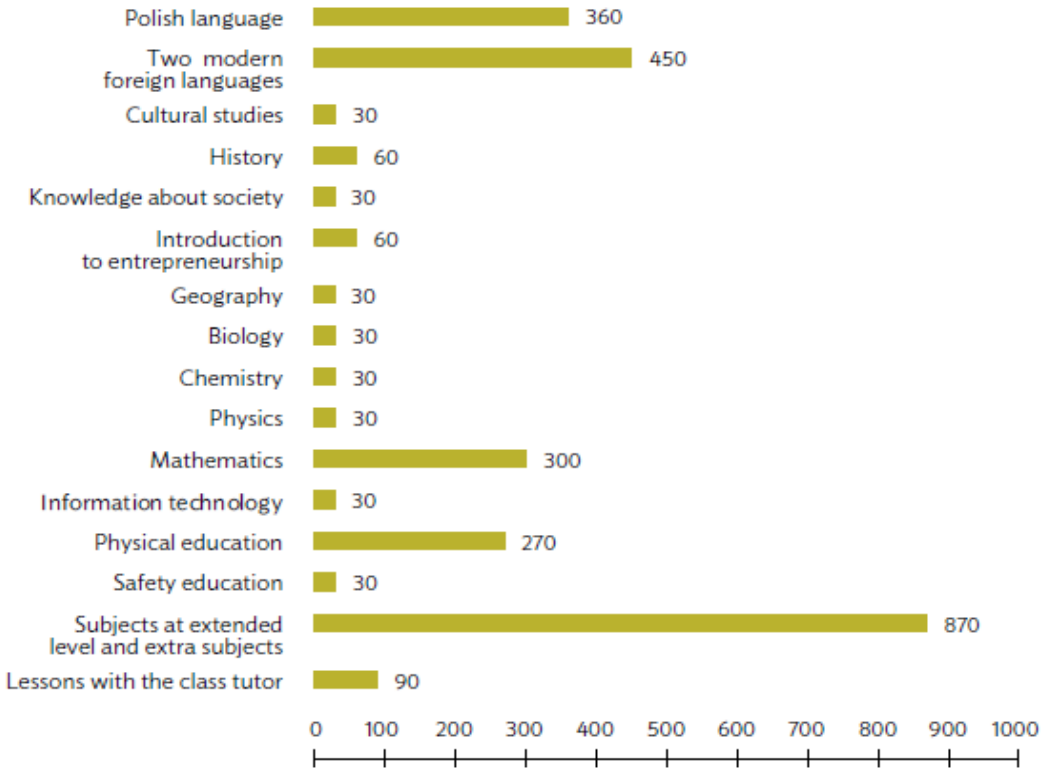

Figure 4: Minimum Number of Teaching Hours by Subject at General Upper-Secondary Education

Polish EURYDICE Unit, **The System of Education in Poland** (Warszawa: Foundation for the Development of the Education System, 2014), 44.

Each class consists of a 45-minute teaching hour. In general upper-secondary school, the highest number of teaching hours belongs to two modern foreign languages after the subjects at extended level and extra subjects, which involve subjects taught more than the minimum hours. The school principal decides on the subjects which should be in the extended or extra subject category. At each grade, the total number of teaching hours in a week varies from 30 in the first year to 32 in the second year and 29 in the last year. In each subject, students are assessed by the subject teacher during the year. The basic achievement criterion for a course is the mark obtained from each subject teacher assessment. Teachers employ the same grading scale as in primary (in the second phase only) and lower-secondary schools (6 – excellent, 5 – very good, 4 – good, 3 – satisfactory, 2 – acceptable, 1 – unsatisfactory-fail). It is possible for students to take the test again when they fail. If they fail again in the make-up exam, it is impossible to take it once again. However, the teachers' council has the authority to promote students to the next grade. Secondary school students also get marks for their behavior. Marks for behavior have no academic value or impact on the subject marks for next grade promotion. However, the teachers' council has the final word for the promotion to the next grade or graduation based on the mark and behavior of the students. Students passing all subjects in secondary education obtain a graduation certificate which allows them to enter the obligatory matriculation exam for university admission. The matriculation exam consists of written and oral phases. In the written phase it is obligatory to take Polish language, mathematics, modern foreign languages (English, French, Spanish, German, Russian and Italian) at the basic level for all students. The level of language examination, based on Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is B1 for the basic level, B2 for the extended level and C1 for the bilingual level (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015b). In addition to these subjects, some subjects for the written exams are decided by the students. Students must choose at least one but no more than five subjects for the written phase of the matriculation exam. In the oral phase of the exam, there are also obligatory and optional subjects; however, oral assessment is prepared and assessed by the school teachers. Examination of the modern foreign languages is also done orally by an examination board consisting of school teachers and external examiners. It is necessary to get a minimum of 30% in

each subject in written and oral phases to pass the matriculation exam (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014; European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015b).

3.1.4. Tertiary Education

The academic year in Poland for the HEI, which consists of two semesters, begins on the first day of October and ends at the end of the September. For admission, higher education institutions (public and non-public) require students to obtain matriculation exam results (OECD, 2015). In addition to the matriculation exam, universities can also have another exam, which aims to assess students' artistic, physical and particular knowledge not tested on the matriculation exam, for admission if they receive the permission of the MoNE. Foreign students who have graduated from a secondary school abroad must also take this exam. Each university has the right to define admission rules depending on the circumstances (such as field of study and available places, which are announced at the end of the May by each university). At public and non-public universities, degree programs are composed of three cycles. The first cycle includes Bachelor's degree (duration of 6-7 semesters), the second cycle includes Master's degree (duration of 3-4 semesters) and requires a Bachelor's degree diploma for admission, and the third cycle includes doctoral degree programs (duration of maximum four years), offered full or part time, and require a Master's degree diploma for admission. Not all higher education institutions (HEI) are allowed to provide doctoral degree programs. It is compulsory for the doctoral degree students to take courses, have exams, conduct research, and prepare dissertations. It is also obligatory for the doctoral students to do practice teaching supervised by a tutor. Master degree completion, passing the courses during the doctoral study and defending a doctoral dissertation are essential to earn a doctor title (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014).

In the first cycle, assessment is carried out by academic teachers at HEI and is based on written and oral student performance. There is not any other assessment similar external assessment as in primary, lower-secondary and upper-secondary schools. Each student has the right to re-take an exam. Universities have the right to determine the basis for the assessments. Each HEI has its own regulations about the details of the assessment (achievement requirements, exam frequency, grading system, etc.). In order to continue the program in the following semester or grade, it

is obligatory for the students to acquire the minimum number of credits specified by European Credit Transfer System (ECTS). In order for students to graduate with an HEI diploma, it is necessary for all students to pass all courses, complete practices, if the study field requires it, and defend the thesis, if required (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014).

3.1.4.1.Teacher Education

Until 2015, college programs, including teacher training and foreign language teacher colleges with three years of education, provided the education and qualification for the teachers in Poland. Since 2016, HEIs have been providing the teacher training services under two models; the concurrent model and the consecutive model. The concurrent model is the most common one in Poland. In this model, students study their degree program (field) at HEI, as they simultaneously study pedagogy. However, if a person decides to select the teaching profession later on, after completing their degree, it is possible to get a teaching qualification via non-degree postgraduate program or qualification course. This model is called the consecutive model. Actually there is only one basic difference between the two models. In the concurrent model students study pedagogy during their education while in the consecutive model they study it after completing their studies. According to the regulation formulated in 2012 by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education, student may study pedagogy via a post-graduate program or qualification course. The subject matter (English, history, Physics, etc.) and pedagogical training (pedagogy, teaching methods, etc.) constitute the content of teacher education and training programs. Actually, this education and training content is the basic requirement for the pre-primary and primary school teachers. To be a teacher at lower-secondary and upper-secondary schools, it is imperative to be awarded with a master's degree or at least an equivalent degree. Even in such a case, the percentage of teaching staff holding a master's degree at the pre-school education level is 84% (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014).

3.1.4.2.Teaching Practicum

Teacher training programs also require a teaching practicum during the study at the university. Accordingly in the first cycle (Bachelor's degree) a minimum of 180

hours and in the second cycle (Master's degree) a minimum of 45 hours teaching practice is obligatory. Objectives of teaching practices specified based on the central legislative act are (Zdybel, Bogucki, Głodzik, 2011, 145):

> 1) Getting acquainted with the organisation of a variety of institutions and schools, with special consideration given to students' prospective work places;
>
> 2) Acquiring the ability of planning, conducting, and preparing class documentation;
>
> 3) Acquiring the ability of observation of children's behaviour and of documenting it;
>
> 4) Acquiring the ability of analysing the work of the teacher and the class during discussions with the internship supervisor and fellow students;
>
> 5) Acquiring the ability of analysing one's own work and its effects, as well as the work of the pupils.

The intent of the teaching practicum is to gain knowledge about schools, participate in classroom observation, help the teacher conduct a class, and discussion of self and teacher- conducted classes. During the final year of study, teaching practice makes up at least 40% of coursework. During the practice period, a university teacher who is an expert in methodology prepares the practicum program, defines objectives to be met by students, supervises, observes and assesses students' achievement. School teachers also have some tasks during the practicum such as mentoring, encouraging, and observing unassisted classes, and these classes must make up at least 30% of the practice program (Zdybel, Bogucki, Głodzik, 2011).

3.1.4.3.Teacher Recruitment and Performance Assessment

In Poland, in all levels of school education school principals have the authority to recruit teachers for the school. To start the teaching profession, it is obligatory to obtain a criminal report, a health condition report, and the necessary university degree for the level of education (Zdybel, Bogucki, Głodzik, 2011). Even though all teachers have the same professional grade at the beginning of the teaching profession, this changes over time. Teachers' performance in the profession is assessed in what is called the promotion system. The system consists of four grades for teachers in the school education sector. During the first year of teaching after graduating from an HEI, a teacher is called a trainee teacher, the first step of the

promotion grade. This is the probation period and lasts one school year. At the end of this period, in which a trainee teacher receives support from a teacher education specialist and teacher psychologist, if a trainee teacher is deemed successful, the teacher is promoted to a contract teacher. In the probation period, the trainee teacher receives support from a methodological advisor and also from a mentor who is a more experienced teacher. At the first and the second grade of the promotion system involving trainee teachers and contract teachers, teachers are employed on the basis of a contract. Teachers in the third grade, which is called appointed teachers, and the fourth grade, which is called chartered teachers, are employed on the basis of appointment. If a chartered teacher obtains outstanding success, it is possible to become an education professor. The transition between stages depends on professional development and increases the salary of teachers. Teachers' performance assessments at all school types are done by the school principal (OECD, 2015). For the promotion of a teacher, it is obligatory to have the necessary qualification, end the probation period successfully, have the promotion application approved, and pass an exam (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014).

3.1.4.4. Working conditions of Teachers

Subject to the approval of the school principal, teachers have the freedom to develop their own curriculum based on the core curriculum. Even though there is not a regulation requiring teachers to take part in professional development activities, the teachers' charter encourages teachers to take part in these activities. However, in a teaching career, such activities are essential criteria in being awarded further professional promotion (Zdybel, Bogucki, Głodzik, 2011). In a week, the maximum working time for a teacher is 40 hours of time. This time includes teaching activities, care-related activities, which depend on the school type and institution, preparation for class and professional development. The obligatory workload in a week related to teaching activities and care-related activities for pre-primary teachers is 25 teaching hours, 18 teaching hours for teachers in special pre-primary, primary, lower-secondary and upper-secondary schools, and 15 teaching hours for teachers in teacher training colleges. These teaching hours are the basis for a full-time salary. For teaching hours beyond 18 teaching hours in a week, teachers get extra payment. In addition to that, it is compulsory for the teachers in primary and lower-secondary

schools to be accessible at school for 2 teaching hours. This number is 1 teaching hour for the teacher teaching at an upper-secondary school. The teaching load of teachers with 18 teaching hours in a week can be increased to 27 teaching hours (Polish EURYDICE Unit, 2014).

3.1.4.5. In-service Teacher Education

As is well known, the teaching profession requires teachers to dedicate themselves to lifelong learning to supply students with up-to-date knowledge. The system in Poland successfully stimulates teachers to dedicate time for professional development. Even though in-service training is not obligatory for teachers, it is one of the bases for promotion (Rogerson, 2015). In Poland, for each school it is imperative to form self-educational teams consisting of teachers from various disciplines. The teams aim to inspire teachers for professional development and update knowledge of teachers practically and theoretically via workshops and seminars. The institution called National In-service Teacher Training Service (NSTTC) provides services for professional development of teachers. NSTTC organizes seminars and workshops to bring teachers up-to-date knowledge on teaching. It also translates teaching resources and identifies demands of teachers depending on the region and school. In addition to the NSTTC, both public and non-public universities in Poland also provide opportunities for professional development of teachers via post-diploma studies. The post-diploma studies aim to improve teacher competences in a specific teaching subject or area. As discussed earlier, there are also some post-diploma studies for newly graduated students intending to obtain teaching qualifications needed to serve as a teacher. Other than the self-education teams, NSTTC and post-diploma studies, non-public institutions and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) provide courses and workshops for teachers; however, the cost of taking part in NGO activities must be paid by teachers (Zdybel, Bogucki, Głodzik, 2011).

3.2. Education System in Turkey

With the Primary Education Law no 6282, which came into force on April 2012, the system of education in Turkey underwent a change which is called 12-year compulsory education. Actually this reform covers changes on the duration and stages of school education. Accordingly, school education consists of three stages: four-year primary, four-year lower-secondary and four-year upper-secondary education. Most importantly, the duration of compulsory education, which had been 8 years (5 years primary, 3 years lower-secondary and 3 years optional upper-secondary), was extended to 12 years with the change. Another essential indirect change is about the enrollment age to primary education. Before the change, children between 69-80 months old were required to enroll in primary education. The starting age for the primary education was decreased to 60-66 months old with the consent of the parents. With the change, in addition to the courses in the core curriculum, elective courses were included in the school education curriculum. In addition to that, before the change, weekly teaching in lower-secondary education was 30 hours in each grade, from 6^{th} to 8^{th} grade. With the 12-year compulsory education, curriculum in primary and lower-primary education was updated. Accordingly, weekly teaching hours gradually increased in each grade in lower-secondary education; 36 hours for 5^{th} and 6^{th} grades, and 37 hours for 7^{th} and 8^{th} grades. With the 12-year compulsory education system, school buildings were also separated for primary and secondary education. Beforehand, primary school and lower-secondary school students shared the same building and school yard (ERG, 2012).

In Turkey, education is regulated and guaranteed by the constitution of the Republic of Turkey. There are two types of schools: public and non-public schools. In public schools, owned by the state, education is provided for free (TBMM, 1982). In non-public schools, education requires tuition fees for students from pre-primary education to higher education (MoNE, 2007). There are various kinds of non-public schools in Turkey. There are foreign schools founded by foreigners, minority schools belonging to minority Greek, Armenian and Jewish citizens, and private schools and institutions whose purpose is to improve students' knowledge and skills and prepare them for exams (MoNE, 2015a). The system of Turkish Education is based on

National Education Basic Act No 1739. The education system in Turkey is made up of two main stages: formal and non-formal education. Formal education comprises pre-primary, primary, lower-secondary, upper-secondary and tertiary education. The Ministry of National Education (MoNE) administrates schools, defines curriculum, sets the budget and organizes school education all around the country (MoNE, 1973). The directorates of national education located in provinces and districts are responsible for administering school education. Inspections of the schools are conducted by the provincial directorate of national education (MoNE, 1992). The district director of national education is accountable to the district governor located in each district and also to the provincial director of national education. The provincial director of national education is accountable to the governor of a province (MoNE, 1975). Every year, the school year starts in September and terminates in June. The school year is divided into two semesters. Between semesters, at the end of January and the beginning of February, there is a two-week half-term break. Instructional days should be at least 180 days in a school year (MoNE, 2016b; MoNE, 2016c). Students' assessments are carried out by school teachers. The number of the internal assessments made by teachers is determined by the MoNE centrally. Each subject teacher decides on the type of test and number of the questions as well. However, for a subject if the weekly teaching hours are two, it is necessary to make at least two internal assessments by the subject teacher, if the weekly teaching hours are more than three, it is necessary to make at least three internal assessments by the subject teacher in a semester (MoNE, 2016b). External educational assessment, which is called the Examination of Transition from Primary to Secondary Education (TEOG) and conducted at the end of lower-secondary school, is planned, prepared and organized by the MoNE (2016, c). The TEOG assessment is prepared and conducted by the MoNE on the same date at all lower-secondary schools all around the country in the middle of the first and second semesters for 8^{th} grade students. The TEOG consists of only written phases. In the written phase it is obligatory to have Turkish language, mathematics, culture of religion and knowledge of ethics, science, revolution history and Kemalism and foreign languages for all students. For admission to upper-secondary education institutions (public and non-public) students are required to obtain the necessary TEOG exam score, which also includes the graduation grade from lower-secondary school. For some upper-secondary schools, it is necessary to have an aptitude test for

enrollment (MoNE, 2016c). The external assessment at the end of the upper-secondary school is conducted by the Assessment Selection and Placement Center (OSYM), which is separate from the MoNE. The external assessments at the end of the upper-secondary education, called YGS- LYS, consist of only written phases and form the basic criterion for university admission (OSYM, 2011).

3.2.1. Preschool Education

Preschool education is not compulsory in Turkey. Compulsory education starts in primary education. Public and non-public institutions provide preschool education. However, most pupils (59.9%) in Turkey attend non-public primary schools (MoNE, 2015a). Actually, preschool education is the only stage that most of the students attend non-public primary schools. Early childhood education service is provided in various phases in Turkey. The table presented below briefly outlines early childhood education in Turkey.

Table 4: Childhood Education and Care in Turkey

Children 0 to 36 months	Children 36 to 72 months	Children 60 to 72 months	Children 0 to 6 years
Crèches(Kreş)	Kindergartens	Preschool classes in primary schools	Primary health care workers providing support for psychosocial and cognitive development
	Practical nursery classes		

UNESCO. 2006. **Turkey Early Childhood Care and Education Programs**. (https://goo.gl/uXqtka), 3.

"The objective of pre-primary education is to ensure that children develop physically, mentally and emotionally and acquire good habits, that they are prepared for primary education, that a common environment of upbringing is provided for children who come from a disadvantaged background and that they speak Turkish properly and correctly" (MoNE, 2015a, 8). Pre-primary education in Turkey involves children aged 0-72 months and can be divided into three sub-categories: 0 to 36 months, 36 to 72 months and 60 to 72 months. In Turkey, preschool education is not obligatory for children: however, recently government authorities have announced that preschool education will be obligatory by the end of 2019. As previously noted, in addition to the school principal, the district directorate of national education and district governor are in charge of administering pre-school education at the district level, the provincial director of national education and governor of a province are in charge of administering kindergartens at the provincial level (MoNE, 1975). Core curriculum and financing of public kindergartens are designed and administrated by the MoNE centrally for all the kindergartens countywide (MoNE, 1973). Education in public kindergartens is free for all children. Parents only provide financial contribution for the meals of children, cleaning services and training materials. The number of the children in a classroom cannot exceed 25. Double-shift schooling with a total of 12 hours in a day in kindergartens is possible. Attendance to the kindergarten is essential for all children. Children absent more than 30 days in a school year fail and need to study the same grade again (MoNE, 2016c). Teachers are free to use any methods for teaching. No formal assessment is carried out to

evaluate educational progress of children. It is basically the observation of the teacher. Playing and social activities are the basic educational activities. The aim is to bring about personal development and prepare the child for primary school. In kindergartens, foreign language preparation courses are not compulsory for children (MoNE, 2013a). However, the classroom teacher prepares a development report of each pupil and shares it with the parent (MoNE, 2016c).

3.2.2. Primary Education

Primary education institutions consist of four-year compulsory primary schools and four-year compulsory lower-secondary schools which give opportunity to shift between different programs and four-year compulsory lower-secondary schools for imams and preachers (MoNE, 2015a, XIV).

3.2.2.1. Primary School Education

In Turkey, primary school is free at public schools and compulsory for all pupils at least 66 months old. If a child is younger than 66 months, it is possible to enroll the child in primary school with the permission of the parent (MoNE, 2016c). Almost all of the pupils 95.6% in Turkey attend public primary schools (MoNE, 2015a). Primary school curriculum consists of obligatory subjects. The following figure reveals the obligatory subjects and minimum number of teaching hours of each course in a week.

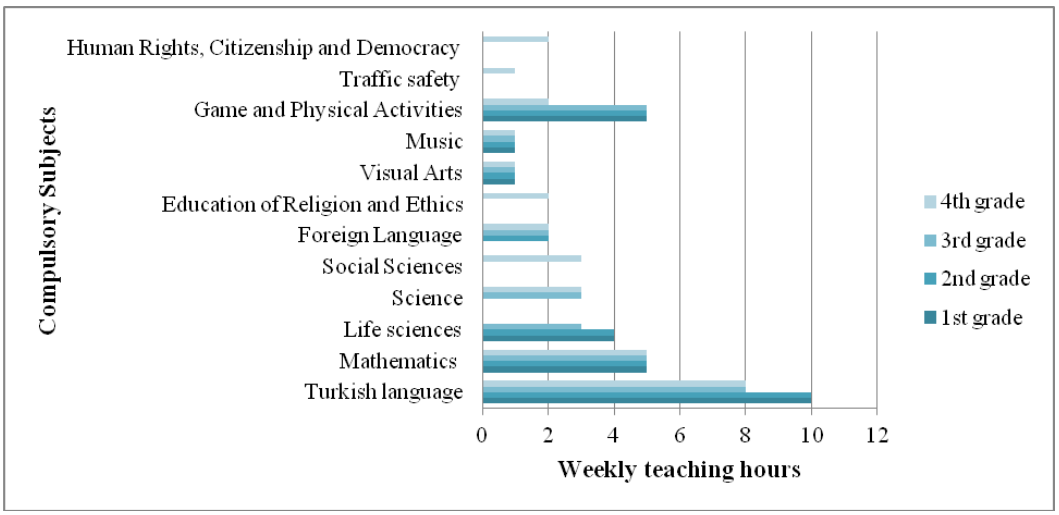

Figure 5: Minimum Number of Teaching Hours by Compulsory Subject (on a weekly basis)

MoNE. 2013b. **İlkokullar ve Ortaokullar Haftalık Ders Çizelgesi**. (https://goo.gl/dhR4Vb),1-2.

As outlined in the figure, Turkish language and mathematics are the subjects taught most on a weekly basis in the category of compulsory subjects. Foreign language (English) is taught for two hours (each hour is 45 minutes). In each grade, the total number of obligatory subjects teaching hours in a week varies: 26 in the first grade, 28 in the second grade, 28 in the third grade, and 30 in the last grade. Elective courses are provided beginning in lower-secondary school. In the primary school curriculum, elective courses are not included. As discussed previously, in addition to the school principal, the district directorate of national education and district governor are in charge of administering primary schools at the district level, and the provincial director of national education and governor of a province are in charge of administering primary schools at the provincial level (MoNE, 1975). Core curriculum and financing of public primary schools are designed and administered by the MoNE centrally for all the primary schools countywide (MoNE, 1973). Pupils have 40-minutes lessons and 10-minutes breaks. Attendance to primary schools is essential for all children. Children absent 30 days in a year lose their school enrollment (MoNE, 2016c). Teachers use the course books provided by the MoNE and are not allowed to use any other course books. In most of the primary schools, there is double-shift education. In primary school, internal assessments are carried out by classroom teachers. Until the 4rd grade of primary school, pupils' learning achievement is determined by the teacher according to their participation in classroom activities. The teacher can use the following marking scale to assess pupils' learning achievements: very good, good, to be improved. Starting in grade 4, the teacher makes assessments. In the assessment conducted by the teacher, the highest point is 100, and the lowest point is 0. Pupils should have more than 45 points not to fail in a subject. Pupils and parents are informed about the assessments and marks via the e-school system. For a subject, if the weekly teaching hours at least two, it is necessary to make at least two internal assessments by the subject teacher, if weekly teaching hours are more than three, it is necessary to make at least three internal assessments by the subject teacher in a semester. Teachers should use various types of tests in the assessment. Students should prepare a project as an individual or group. It is possible to have assessment later on if a student did not take. At the end of each semester, teachers share pupils learning achievement on each

subject, participation in social activities and amount of absence on a report which is called "Karne". In a school year, if a pupil is absent more than 20 days, the teachers' council has the authority to fail or promote the student to the next grade (MoNE, 2016c). There is no external assessment in the primary school education process. For lower-secondary school enrollment of primary school graduate pupils, the e-school system is used. "It is the system in which the work and the operations regarding education and administration in the schools/institutions depending on the Ministry of National Education are carried out and stored in accordance with regulations" (MoNE, 2015a, XVII).

3.2.3. Secondary Education

3.2.3.1. Lower-Secondary Education

Lower-secondary schools, called "ortaokul", provide 4-year education for primary school graduate students. Lower-secondary education is a part of compulsory education in Turkey. Most students (93.5%) in Turkey attend public primary schools (MoNE, 2015a). The lower-secondary school curriculum includes obligatory and elective subjects. The following figure outlines the minimum number of teaching hours of each subject during lower-secondary school education.

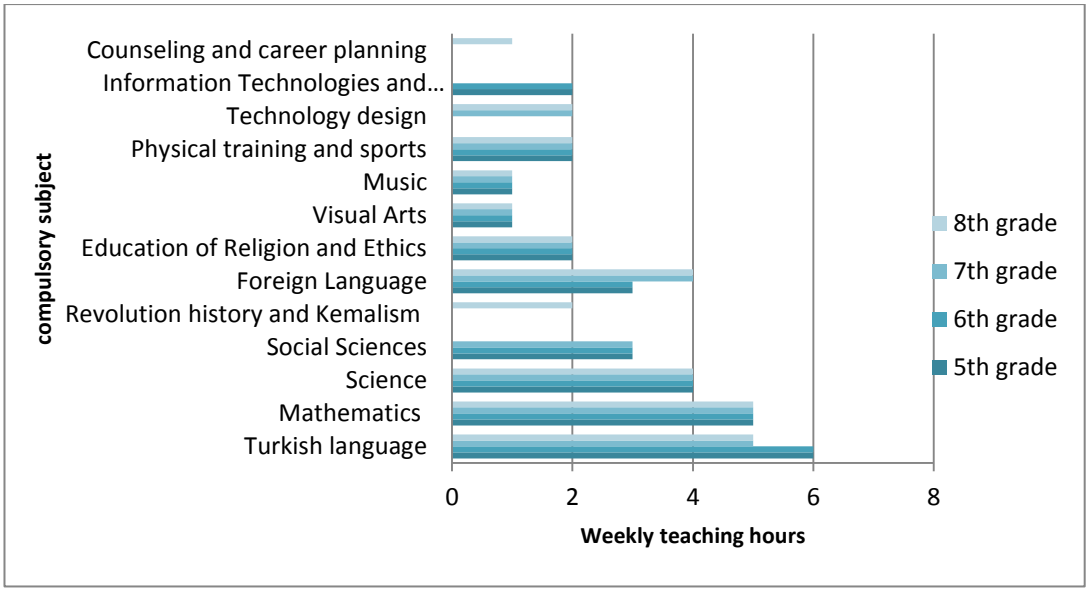

Figure 6: Compulsory Subjects Weekly Teaching Hours

MoNE. 2013b. **İlkokullar ve Ortaokullar Haftalık Ders Çizelgesi**. (https://goo.gl/dhR4Vb),1-2.

As is clear in the figure, Turkish language, mathematics and science have the highest number of teaching hours in a week. As noted previously, school curriculum for all school types and stages of education, except for tertiary education, is designed by the MoNE. From the first grade to the last grade of lower-secondary school, for compulsory subjects the total number of weekly teaching hours (each hour is 45 minutes) is 29 in week for each grade (MoNE, 2013b). In addition to compulsory subjects, there are also elective subjects in the curriculum of lower-secondary school.

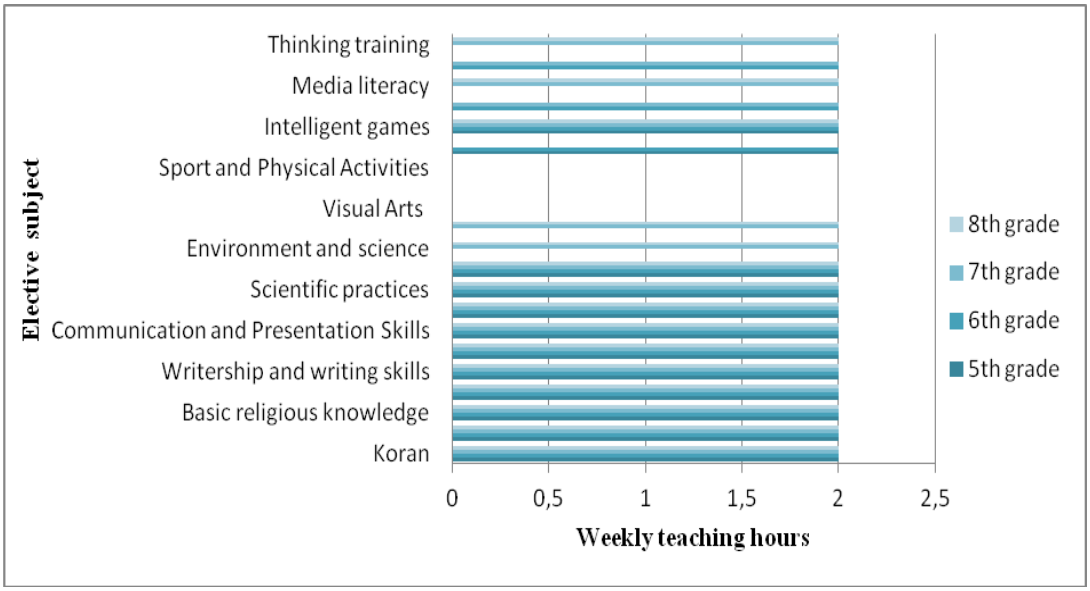

Figure 7: Elective Subjects Weekly Teaching Hours

MoNE. 2013b. **İlkokullar ve Ortaokullar Haftalık Ders Çizelgesi**. (https://goo.gl/dhR4Vb),1-2.

A lower-secondary school student can choose 6 teaching hours of elective subjects. As each elective subject is two teaching hours in a week, a student can choose a maximum of three elective subjects from the list. In that case, from the first grade to the last grade of lower-secondary school, the total number of the weekly teaching hours for all subjects (compulsory and elective) is 30 in week for each grade (MoNE, 2013b). Internal assessments are carried out by each subject teacher. The lower-secondary school curriculum is designed by the MoNE and the school principal has not got the authority to make any change or addition to the curriculum (MoNE, 1973). Administration and financing of lower-secondary schools are subject to the same laws as primary schools in districts and provinces (MoNE, 1975). Students

have 40-minutes lessons and 10-minutes breaks. Attendance to lower-secondary schools is compulsory for all children (MoNE, 2016c). Course books for all subjects are provided by the MoNE at the beginning of each school year. No course books other than the ones provided by the MoNE can be used. In lower-secondary school if the number of students is high, there is double-shift education. In lower-secondary schools, internal assessments are carried out by each subject teacher. The highest point is 100, and the lowest point is 0. Students should have more than 45 points not to fail in a subject. Pupils and parents are informed about the assessments and marks via the e-school system. For a subject, if the weekly teaching hours are two, it is necessary to make at least two internal assessments by the subject teacher, and if weekly teaching hours are more than three, it is necessary to make at least three internal assessments by the subject teacher in a semester. Teachers should use various types of tests in assessment. Students should prepare a project as an individual or group. It is possible to be assessed later if a student misses an exam. At the end of each semester, teachers share students' learning achievement on each subject, participation in social activities and absence on a report which is called "karne". In a school year, if a pupil is absent more than 20 days and has a grade lower than 45 points in a subject, the teachers' council has the authority to fail or promote students to the next grade (MoNE, 2016c).

External educational assessment at the end of lower-secondary school, called the Examination of Transition from Primary to Secondary Education (TEOG), is prepared, planned, conducted, organized and evaluated by the MoNE. The TEOG assessment is held on the same date at all lower-secondary schools all around the country in the middle of the first and second semesters for 8^{th} grade students. The TEOG consists of only written and multiple choice questions on Turkish language, mathematics, culture of religion and knowledge of ethics, science, revolution history and Kemalism and foreign languages for all students. For admission to upper-secondary school (public and non-public), it is an obligation to have a TEOG exam score which also includes graduation grade from lower- secondary school. In addition to TEOG exam results, some upper-secondary schools require an aptitude test for enrollment (MoNE, 2016c).

3.2.3.2. Upper-Secondary Education

The upper-secondary stage is the final phase of compulsory education in Turkey. Students who are absent more than 30 days in a school year fail and need to study the same grade again. Public and non-public schools provide education in upper-secondary education (MoNE, 2016d). Most students (82.3%) in Turkey attend public upper-secondary schools. As noted previously, school types vary in upper-secondary education. Actually in general there are two kinds of upper-secondary education in Turkey: general as well as vocational and technical. The basic aim in general upper-secondary education is to prepare students for university education based on the skill, expectation and interest of each student. Vocational and technical upper-secondary education aims to prepare students for both university education and the occupation or job field related to students' interest and ability. Open upper-secondary high schools also provide education for students who cannot join the courses in general, vocational and technical upper-secondary education or want to change school for some reason. General and vocational and technical upper-secondary education consists of general high schools, Anatolian high schools, science high schools, social sciences high schools, fine arts and sports high schools, private high schools, imam and preacher high schools, Anatolian imam and preacher high schools, vocational and technical high schools, special education vocational high schools and private vocational high schools. To enroll in upper-secondary schools it is obligatory to have a lower-secondary school diploma, to take the TEOG and to be younger than 18 years old (MoNE, 2015a).

3.2.3.3. General Upper-secondary Education

General upper-secondary school in Turkey is a part of upper-secondary and compulsory education. General upper-secondary education involves Anatolian high schools, science high schools and social sciences high schools. Science schools aim to educate prospective scientists about the future of science and math, and social sciences high schools aim to educate prospective scientists about the future of social sciences. All the school types in the category of general upper-secondary education require a lower-secondary education diploma and a sufficient TEOG score. Science and social sciences high schools are chosen by students having the highest exam points. As discussed earlier, students take the TEOG exam in their final year of

lower-secondary education, and the exam is held two times in a school year and centrally administered by the MoNE. Evaluation and placement of students to upper-secondary schools is also administrated by the MoNE. Duration of upper-secondary education is four years (MoNE, 2016d). Core curriculum and financing of upper-secondary schools are set and administered by the MoNE centrally for all the upper-secondary schools countywide (MoNE, 1973). As in the lower-secondary education curriculum, subjects taught at the upper-secondary schools are divided into two parts: obligatory and elective subjects. The subjects and the categories of the elective subjects taught at general upper-secondary schools are not identical. Weekly teaching hours of each subject differs in each school type. The following figure represents the average number of obligatory subjects taught during four-year general upper-secondary education at different type of school (MoNE, 2014b).

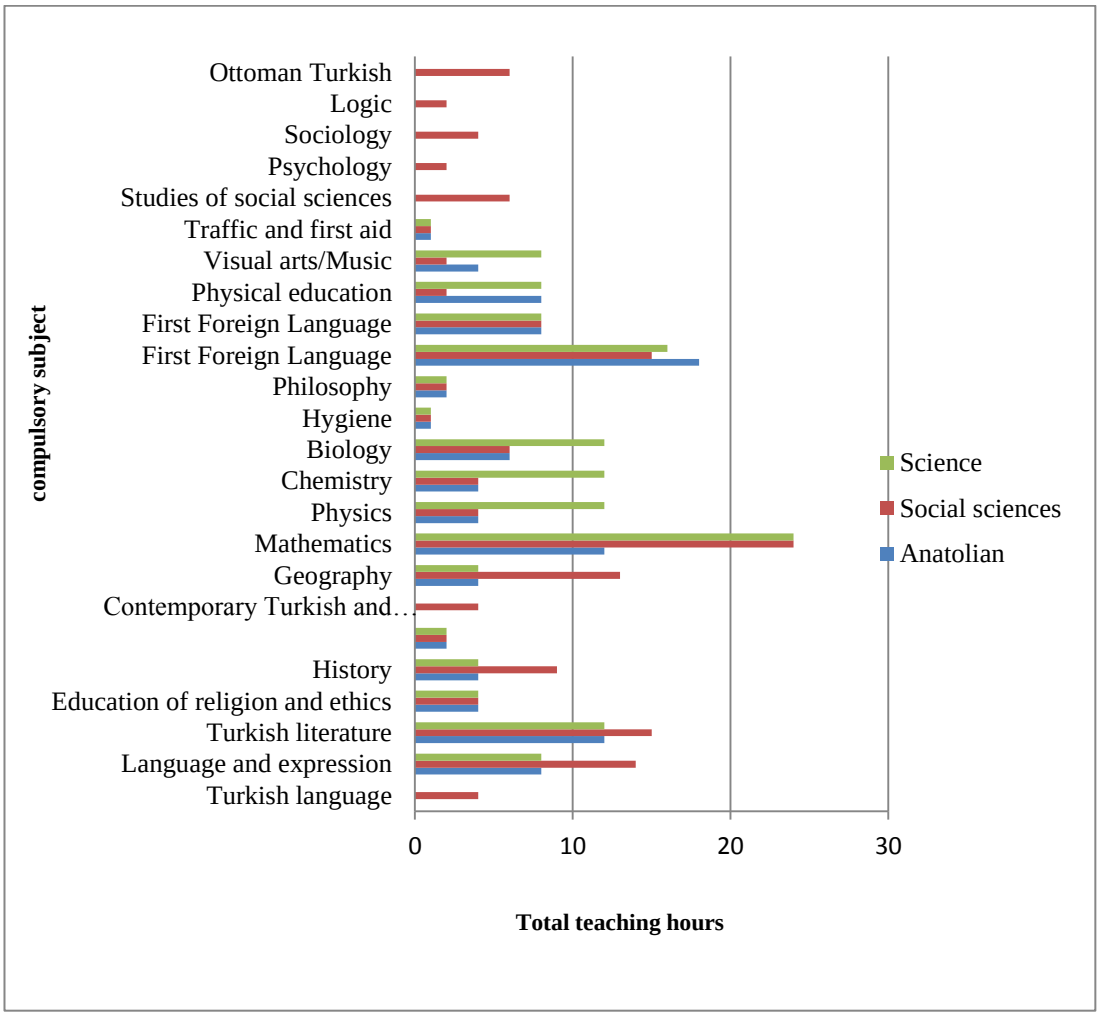

Figure 8: Compulsory Subjects and Teaching Hours

MoNE. 2014b. **Ortaöğretim Kurumları Haftalık Ders Çizelgeleri**. (https://goo.gl/NSOiMQ) ,3-10.

As is clear in the figure, total teaching hours differ from school to school. Furthermore, some of the subjects are only taught at some school types. Turkish language, studies of social sciences, psychology, sociology, logic, and Ottoman Turkish are offered just in the social sciences high school curriculum. In the curriculum of social sciences and science high schools, English is the subject taught most after mathematics. However, in the Anatolian high school curriculum, English is the subject taught most during the four-year education. In each grade, the total number of teaching hours (equivalent to 40 minutes) in a week varies. In the Anatolian high school curriculum, the total number of teaching hours in a week is 35 in the first year, 32 in the second year, 19 in the third year and 16 in the last year. In the social sciences high school curriculum, the total number of teaching hours in a week is 35 in the first year, 39 in the second year, 39 in the third grade and 37 in the last year. In the science high school curriculum, the total number of teaching hours in a week is 35 in the first year, 30 in the second year, 34 in the third year and 31 in the last year. In addition to compulsory subjects, there are also elective subjects in the curriculum of the general upper-secondary school. In the chart below, categories and elective subjects under each category have been indicated (MoNE, 2014b).

Table 5: Elective Subjects in General Upper-Secondary School

Categories	Subjects
Language and Expression	• Elective language and expression • Elective Turkish literature • Diction and oratory • Ottoman Turkish
Mathematics and Sciences	• Astronomy and space sciences • Mathematical practices • Science (Physics, Chemistry, Biology)
Social Sciences	• Elective history • Contemporary Turkish and world history • Elective geography • Psychology • Sociology • Logic • Epistemology • Elective Philosophy • Democracy and human rights • Business administration • Economy • Entrepreneurship • Administrative science • International relations
Religion, Moral and Values	• Koran • Prophetic biography • Basic religious knowledge
Foreign Languages and Literature	• Elective first foreign language • Elective second foreign language • German literature • English literature • French literature
Sports and Social Activities	• Elective Physical education • Social activity
Fine Arts	• Elective visual arts • Elective music • Art history • Drama
Informatics	• Information and communication technology • Project preparation

MoNE. 2014b. **Ortaöğretim Kurumları Haftalık Ders Çizelgeleri**. (https://goo.gl/NSOiMQ), 3-10.

In the general upper-secondary school curriculum, the number of elective subjects in each grade changes. In the Anatolian high school curriculum, the total teaching hours of the elective subjects in a week is 4 in the first year, 7 in the second year, 20 in the third year and 23 in the last year. In the social sciences high school curriculum, the total teaching hours of the elective subjects in a week is 4 in years 2 and 3. In the science high school curriculum, total teaching hours of the elective subjects in a week is 4 in the first year, 9 in the second year, 5 in the third year and 8 in the last year. The highest number of elective subjects appears in the Anatolian high school curriculum. The lowest number of elective subjects appears in the social sciences high school curriculum. In each grade and each type of school in the general upper-secondary education curriculum, the total number of teaching hours for subjects (compulsory and elective) is 40. In addition to the compulsory and elective subjects, there is one hour counseling subject in a week in each grade of the general upper-secondary education curriculum. As the occasion requires, depending on the learning environment and students' needs, some new elective subjects might be included in the curriculum with the approval of the educational district principals (MoNE, 2014b).

Internal assessment is conducted by each subject teacher during the school year. To assess students' knowledge, skill and understanding of learning outcomes, teachers give written tests, performance tests, and projects. The basic achievement criterion for a course is the mark obtained from teacher assessment in each subject. Teachers employ the following marking scale to assess students' learning achievements:

Table 6: Marking Scale Employed at Upper-Secondary Education

Mark	Level
85.00-100	very good
70.00-84.99	good
60.00-69.99	satisfactory
50.00-59.99	acceptable
0-49.99	unsatisfactory-fail

MoNE. 2016d. **Millî Eğitim Bakanliği Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği**. (https://goo.gl/Y6xS6g), 20.

Teachers should make at least two assessments in a subject in a semester. Assessment time cannot exceed the class time, 40 minutes. In foreign language subjects, teachers should use written and practical assessments to assess students' listening, speaking, reading and writing skill knowledge and competence. In written assessments, teachers should use different kinds of tests; however, it is necessary to include at least one open-ended question. Teachers should inform the students about assessment results and discuss the mistakes with students. Students and parents are informed about the assessments results via the e-school system. Promotion to the next grade depends on the average of the assessments, performance and project marks. The graduation grade is based on the year-end weighted composite score which is the average of the assessments, performance and project marks in both semesters. A student is required to get 50 points in a subject to pass. If a student has three subjects with a score of less than 50 points, it is necessary to be assessed again at the end of the first or second semester. If students have more than 6 failed subjects, they fail the grade. Students must pass all subjects in secondary education to obtain a graduation certificate (MoNE, 2016d). In the second year of the upper-secondary education, each student should decide on a major to specialize in. According to the specified major, students take the external assessment organized by the Student Selection and Placement Center (OSYM), which is an autonomous public establishment responsible for conducting the assessments which is called

LGS-LYS (OSYM, 2011). The center prepares and conducts assessments at the end of upper-secondary education. Students take part in the assessments related to their major. For foreign language majors, the LGS-LYS includes both digital and verbal questions which are equally weighted.

A student's weighted score is determined based on student achievement in the external assessment conducted by the center and internal assessments conducted by subject teachers during the four-year upper-secondary education. The final obtained grade allows students to choose their university and department. University placement is administrated centrally by the center. Students are placed from highest to lowest according to their final grade (MoNE, 2016d). "The results of the YGS entrance examination are used for acceptance to 2-year programs of post- secondary vocational education and for computing the composite scores of the LYS entrance examination. The score of the LYS entrance examination is a composite of the results of the LYS entrance examination, the results of the YGS entrance examination and the average of the secondary education school grades. For admission to art, sport and music programs candidates can be required to audition or pass tests" (Nuffic, 2015, 8).

3.2.4. Tertiary Education

Higher education institutions (HIEs) constitute the third stage of the Turkish education system. HEIs in Turkey provide at least two-year education. HEIs aim to train students based on their aptitude, skill and interest by conducting scientific studies to contribute to science and technology and support progress and development (MoNE, 2015a). The basic component of higher education is universities, which under the authority of the Council of Higher Education (CoHE). In addition to those under the CoHE, there are some universities under the responsibility of the Ministry of Defence and Ministry of Foreign Affairs. However, CoHE is the essential authority in charge of HEIs in Turkey (Nuffic, 2015). In Turkey, HEIs consist of universities, faculties, institutions, colleges, conservatories, and vocational colleges centers for practice and research (MoNE, 2015a). The number of public universities is higher than the number of non-public universities. There are 109 public universities, and 76 private ones. 6,689,185 students attend public and non-public universities. Most of these students attend public universities

(CoHE, 2016d). As noted previously, student selection and placement for undergraduate programs at both public and non-public universities is centrally administered by the Student Selection and Placement Center (OSYM, 2011). For admission to universities all around the country, students should hold a high school diploma and have a high enough score on the central examination conducted by OSYM. For admission to graduate programs, students should take the Graduate Education Entrance Examination (ALES). Furthermore, students should have an undergraduate diploma (required grade point varies from university to university). Finally, student should take the oral assessment organized by each faculty and department. The composite score of ALES, undergraduate diploma and oral assessment are the basis for admission to graduate programs. International students who have graduated from high schooland hold a high school diploma take the examinations conducted by each university to study at the graduate programs. For the graduate programs, each university specifies the rules for the admission of international students. Funding of the universities is provided by the state. At each university, the rector is the responsible for the administration of the university. Rectors are appointed by the President of the Turkish Republic for four years. Universities are able to design curriculum as well as determine course content, grading systems and requirements for the admission to different degrees. Each university teacher is free to use any teaching method in instruction (Mizikaci, 2006). At public universities, education is free for Turkish citizens. For international students, it is necessary to pay tuition fees to study at public universities. The amount of tuition fees at public universities for international students changes from university to university. However, for both Turkish and international students studying at non-public universities, there are tuition fees. The amount of tuition fees varies from university to university (CoHE, 2014). The following figure outlines degree programs at the universities.

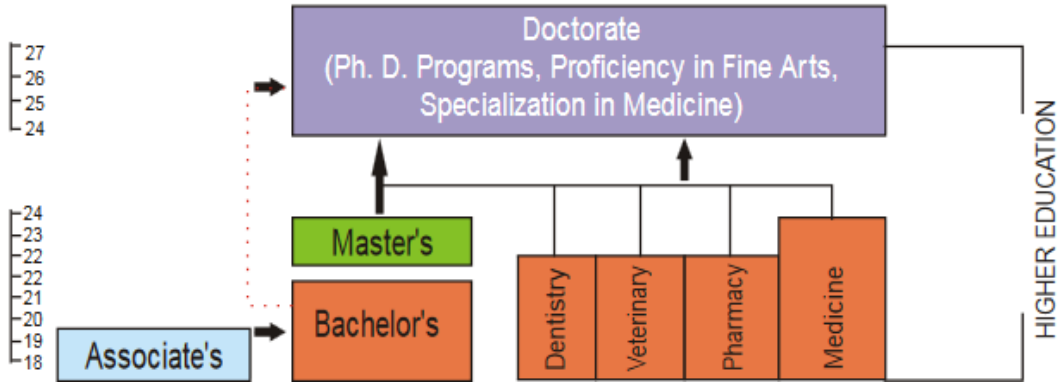

Figure 9: Degree Programs in Turkey

CoHE. 2014. **Higher Education System in Turkey**.(https://goo.gl/ea5xcC), 11.

At public and non-public universities, degree programs are composed of three cycles. The first cycle includes a Bachelor's degree and is at least 8 semesters. However, some bachelor's degree programs such as dentistry and veterinary require ten semesters of study and some others such as medicine require 12 semester of study. There are two types of bachelor's degree programs: as face-to-face and distance education. The master's degree constitutes the second cycle and includes at least 4 semesters of study. This cycle requires a bachelor's degree diploma for admission. Master's degree programs consist of Master of Arts (MA) and Master of Sciences (MSc). Master's degree programs with a thesis require students to have seven face-to-face courses with 21credits as well as to prepare and defend a thesis. Master's degree programs without a thesis require students to have ten courses with 30 credits and prepare a term project. The third cycle includes doctoral degree programs (duration 8 semesters), which require at least a Master's degree diploma for admission. Some universities require foreign language competence and an oral examination for doctoral degree admission. Doctoral degree programs require students to have seven face-to-face courses with 21credits, to pass a proficiency exam at the end of the courses and to prepare a dissertation and defend it orally (CoHE, 2014).

3.2.4.1. Teacher Education and Teaching Practice

At higher education institutions, public and non-public, teacher colleges are responsible for training teachers of various subjects. It is obligatory for all students to have a high school diploma and take the higher education entrance examination (CoHE, 1981). Selection and placement of students to teacher colleges is administered by the Student Selection and Placement Center based on the results of the YGS entrance examination and the average of the secondary education school grades (OSYM, 2011). However, some programs such as music, physical education, art, and sport require students to take aptitude exams. The Council of Higher Education is responsible for planning teacher education programs. Faculties of education at the public and non-public universities are the primary sources for prospective pre-primary, primary, lower-secondary and secondary-secondary school teachers. The duration of education at the faculties of education is four years. In addition to graduates of faculties of education, graduates of other programs can become qualified as a teacher if they participate in pedagogical formation training programs. However, the primary teacher education model is the concurrent model. In this model, curriculum includes content area courses (field knowledge), pedagogical courses and teaching practice (EURYDICE, 2016). The current teacher education curriculum consists of 50% content knowledge, 30% professional teaching knowledge and 20% general culture courses. Faculties of education have the authority to include elective courses up to %25 of total credit (CoHE, 2007a). The English Language Teaching curriculum consists of 143 credits of theoretical courses and 32 credits of practical courses. In the last year of the program (4^{th} year), in the first semester, there is school experience, and in the second semester, teaching practice. School experience aims to provide knowledge in teaching methods, classroom management, assessment etc. through observation of a teacher during instruction. Teaching practice includes preparation of a teaching plan and practicing the teaching plan (CoHE, 2007b).

3.2.4.2. Teacher Recruitment and Performance Assessment

In Turkey, the school principal does not have the authority to recruit teachers. The recruitment procedure of teachers (for pre-primary, primary, lower-secondary and upper-secondary schools) is administered centrally by the MoNE. To be appointed as

a teacher by the MoNE, faculty of education graduates should meet appointment terms. Being a Turkish citizen, being older than 18 years old, having at least a bachelor's degree and not having committed an illegal act are the major requirements to be appointed as a public officer. However, there are also some specific terms specified by each institution and the appropriate ministry to be appointed as a public officer (Prime Ministry, 1965). The Ministry of National Education requires bachelor graduates to have studied a teacher education program determined by the MoNE and to take Public Personnel Selection Examination (KPSS) which is given by OSYM once a year (MoNE, 2015b). The KPSS exam for teacher candidates is a written exam and consists of multiple choice tests. The exam includes questions on general culture, general ability, educational sciences and professional teaching knowledge. The general culture test includes Turkish and mathematics questions. The general ability test includes questions in history, geography of Turkey, basic civics and current socio-economic issues related to general, cultural and international relations. The educational sciences test consists of questions on teaching principles and methods, classroom management, instructional technologies and material design, curriculum development, assessment and evaluation, psychology of learning, developmental psychology, special education and guidance. The final phase of the exam is the professional teaching knowledge test. The professional teaching knowledge test is not obligatory for all teacher candidates from all subjects. Only the following program graduates take the professional teaching knowledge test:

Table 7: Professional Teaching Knowledge Test Coverage

Teacher Education Programs	
Turkish	Chemistry
Mathematics (for lower-secondary school)	Biology
Science	Culture of religion and knowledge of ethics
Social sciences	Foreign Language (German)
Turkish language and literature	Foreign Language (English)
History	Counsellor
Geography	Classroom teacher
Mathematics (for upper-secondary school)	Preschool teaching
Physics	

OSYM. 2016a. **Kamu Personeli Seçme sınavı (KPSS) Kılavuzu Lisans**. (https://goo.gl/kjp52V),10.

The general culture, general ability, and educational sciences exams are given in May on the same day, and the professional teaching knowledge test is given one week later. Exams are analyzed and results announced by OSYM. However, in addition to written exams, the ministry has the authority to make oral examinations for appointments. Ever year the place, date, and time of the oral exam are announced by the MoNE beforehand. According to the results of the written and oral exams, candidates who obtained at least the minmum score are appointed to schools by the MoNE. Candidates the have right to choose the region, city and district of the school. It is possible to prefer 40 schools in the application (MoNE, 2015b). In the first year of appointment, all teachers are called candidate teachers. It is obligatory to work as a candidate teacher at least one year and fulfill the performance assessment process successfully. In the first six months of candidacy, candidate teachers have a training period. It is obligatory for candidate teachers to take oral and written exams to be appointed as a tenured teacher (EURYDICE, 2016). To be a teacher at the science

and social sciences high schools, it is necessary to have at least three years' teaching experience (MoNE, 2015b).

3.2.4.3. Working Conditions of Teachers

As noted previously, the Ministry of National Education carries the authority to determine the number of teachers needed and appoint teachers all around Turkey (MoNE, 2015b). In pre-primary, primary, lower-secondary and upper-secondary schools, teachers use the course books determined and provided by the MoNE. Teachers are not allowed to use any course books other than the books provided (MoNE, 2016c; MoNE, 2016d). From pre-primary to upper-secondary education, curriculum and financing are determined and centrally administered by the MoNE for all the schools countywide (MoNE, 1973). In a week, the minimum working time for a teacher to earn a basic salary varies. For pre-school and classroom teachers it is 18 hours, for general knowledge and vocational course teachers it is 15 hours, for workshop and laboratory teachers it is 20 hours. If teachers teach more than the required teaching hours, they get additional payment. When required, general knowledge and vocational courses teachers must have 6 hours of additional courses; however, the number of teaching hours of the additional courses cannot exceed 15 hours in a week. Workshop and laboratory teachers may have 20 hours of additional courses; however, the number of additional courses cannot exceed 24 hours in a week (MoNE, 2006). Teaching areas and schools have been classified into three groups by the MoNE (the first service area, the second service area and the third service area) depending on the need for teachers, geographical situation, economic and social development level, transportation conditions. In each service area, teachers gain an annual service score which is used as a base criterion to change a teacher's service area or school. On the other hand, all teachers must fulfill the obligatory teaching post period, which varies from region to region in Turkey (MoNE, 2015b).

3.2.4.4. In-service Teacher Education

Professional development of school education teachers throughout their career is regulated by various laws. Article 214 of the Public Servants Law, necessitates public officers to participate in in-service development to increase their capacity

(Prime Ministry, 1965). In addition to that, and article 48 of the Basic Law of National Education requires organizing courses and seminars for teacher development. In the same law, article 49 also allows teachers to gain international experience (MoNE, 1973). Furthermore, within the general directorate, there is the directorate general for teacher training and development, which is responsible for teacher development within the Ministry of National Education. Executive order number 652 article 15 clarifies the duties of the directorate. The directorate is responsible for developing policies to increase teacher quality (MoNE, 2011). Within this framework, the General Directorate of Teacher Training and Development makes an annual plan for teacher development activities based on teachers' needs and expectations. At the local level, the provincial directorate of national education and district directorate of national education also organize professional development activities for teachers. The Ministry of National Education also encourages teachers to participate in educational conferences. Accordingly, teachers are allowed to participate in conferences to make oral presentations. In such cases, travel allowances of the participating teachers are provided by the Ministry (MoNE, 2014a). Some non-public organizations and NGOs offer teachers opportunities for professional development. British Council Turkey provides continuing professional development (CPD) for teachers, managers and teacher trainers, as well (British Council, 2016).

4. English Language Skills and Teaching

Communicating in a language does not mean just applying speaking skills. Speaking is just the tip of the iceberg because communication requires making use of listening as well. On the other hand, if the communication is written, the language user also needs reading and writing skills. Therefore, to be competent in a language, one needs to master the skills of the language. Proficiency in English Language consists of four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and reading are the receptive skills; speaking and writing are the productive ones. These skills are gained step by step in the case of mother tongue acquisition. A child first acquires the skill of listening, which starts in the mother's womb and is mastered over time. Later on, the child masters speaking, reading and writing. However, in the case of second language teaching, language skills cannot be disjoined as each of them supports and nurtures the others. Listening supports speaking, and reading supports writing (Kurniasih, 2011a). This is also called skill integration or, in the context of curriculum design, the whole language approach. Following are the reasons for using skill integration (Brown, 1994a, 246):

1- Production and reception are quite simply two sides of the same coin; one cannot split the coin in two.
2- Interaction means sending and receiving messages.
3- Written and spoken languages often (but not always!) bear a relationship to each other; to ignore that relationship is to ignore the richness of language.
4- For literate learners, the interrelationship of written and spoken language is an intrinsically motivating reflection of language and culture and society.
5- By attending primarily to what learners can do with language, and only secondary to the forms of language, we invite any or all of the four skills that are relevant into the classroom arena.
6- Often one skill will reinforce another, we learn to speak, for example, in part modeling what we hear, and we learn to write by examining what we can read.

4.1. Listening skill and Teaching

In addition to being the first skill acquired (in the context of the mother tongue) or to be taught/learnt (in the context of the second language), the listening is important for a variety of reasons. However, it should be made clear that attention was given to the listening skill only after the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA) conference held in 1969, in Cambridge, England. After that, it gradually received more attention in the 1980s, and finally received full attention in 1990s (Osada, 2004).

It is evident that there is a distinction between hearing and listening. Even though both hearing and listening resemble and fulfill the same function, there are certainly differences between them. Firstly, hearing comes before listening. Secondly, in the listening process, there is intention (Rost, 2011a). In this regard, it might be said that there is a strong relation between listening and understanding. But here, it should be underlined that while listening is just hearing and not the activity of listening; listening comprehension is a series of actions to understand things that have been heard. Knowledge obtained through listening comprehension underpins others skills, beginning with speaking and then the others (Richards, 2005). "Speaking does not of itself constitute communication unless what is being said is comprehended by another person" (Rivers, 1966, 96). In the listening process, there are steps in the sequence: input which corresponds to words heard, the listening process, which corresponds to listeners' understanding, and the internalizing process. Then finally there is the output, which corresponds to the reply or product of the listener (Anderson, Lynch, 2008). In the case of mother tongue acquisition, there is no need for an excessive effort to teach the listening skill to a person as it develops in a social environment automatically, so a person does not typically require any further physical support. But in the process of teaching/learning the listening skill as a second language, there are duties of a language teacher during instruction to a class. To clarify the duties, it is necessary to first determine the nature of the listening skill and its relation to other language skills. "One cannot give an output (speaking, reading, or writing) correctly unless they understand the input, which is listening" (Sebina, Aura, 2014a, 3). For instance, to develop the listening skill, it is impossible to ignore its relation to the speaking skill. Listening and speaking are the skills of English Language comprising each other (Azmi, 2015). In the speaking skill, there

are monologues, which are in general short, and conversations, which are longer utterances. Furthermore, in the speaking skill in contrast to the writing skill, there are clauses and coordinated clauses which comprise various accents, as well as regional, and non-native statements. To understand spoken discourse, it is vital to comprehend what bottom-up and top-down processing are (Richards, 2008a). In other words, it is necessary to explain cognitive processing, which comprises bottom-up and top-down processing, controlled and automatic processing, perception, parsing and utilization, and finally metacognition. The cognitive listening process is demonstrated below in figure 10 (Vandergrift, Goh, 2012a, 35).

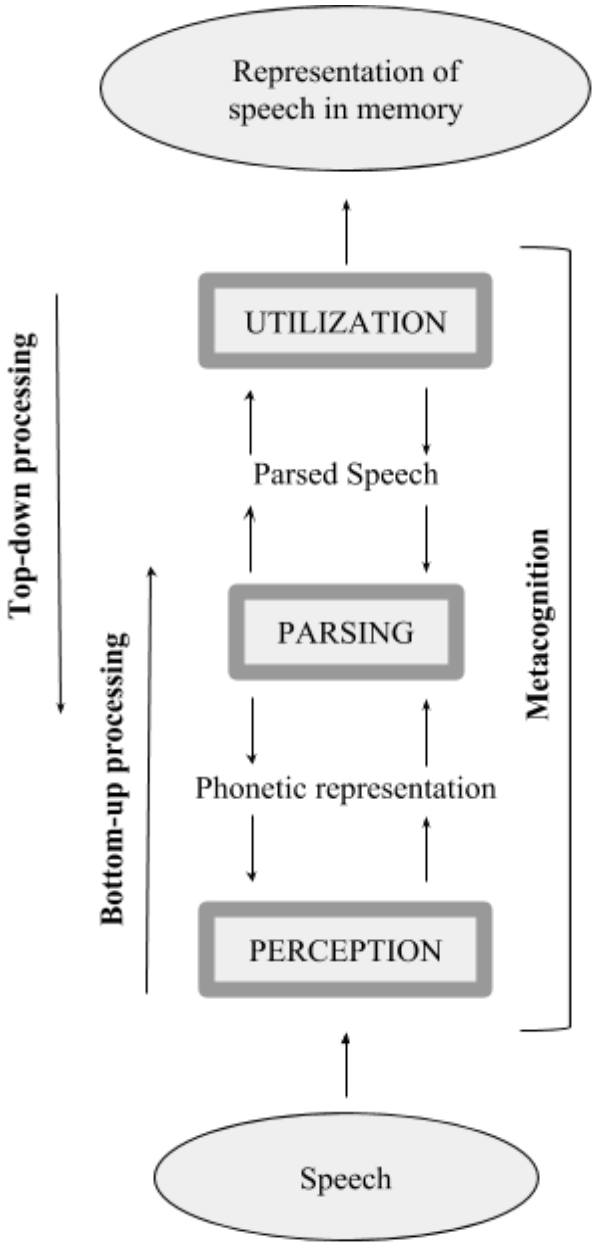

Figure 10: Cognitive Processes in L2 Listening and their Interrelationships

Vandergrift, Larry, Christine C.M. Goh, **Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening** (New York: Routledge, 2012), 35.

In the cognitive process, which is also called Anderson's model of comprehension, at the parsing phase the listener transfers the knowledge to short-term memory and theninterrelates it with previous experience, moving the knowledge to working memory, which is called parsing. These two phases are the basis of knowledge acquisition and called bottom-up processing (Hanna, 2012a). Bottom-up processing

requires listeners to infer meaning from speech. It is a kind of realizing listening word by word or sound by sound, which also includes perception and encoding. Bottom-up processing is mainly preferred by beginning English language learners (Lingzhu, 2003; Vandergrift, Goh, 2012a).

After this perception and encoding process, the listener transfers the meaning in the sentence to a mental representation (Kurita, 2012). The last step following perception and encoding is utilization, which means "using long-term information sources to explain the meaning"(Chun Liu, 2009, 16; Vandergrift, Goh, 2012, 22). In other words, when the knowledge is finally moved to the long-term memory and is integrated with declarative knowledge (concepts, vocabulary, images, etc.) and procedural knowledge (both physical and cognitive skills), this is utilization, which is also called top-down processing and which means building meaning based on previous information (Hanna, 2012b; Carrier, 2010). Also, all these processes are referred to as metacognition.

There are techniques to be used by a language teacher to teach language comprehension through bottom-up and top-down and exercises. In the following table, there are techniques for teaching listening comprehension to beginning level listeners (Brown, 1994, 261).

Table 8: Techniques for Teaching Listening Comprehension

For Beginning- Level Listeners

Bottom-Up Exercises

1) Goal: Discriminating Between Intonation Contours in Sentences
   Listen to a sequence of sentence patterns with either rising or falling intonation. Place a check in Column 1 (rising) or column 2 (falling), depending on the pattern heard.
2) Goal: Discriminating Between Phonemes
   Listen to pairs of words. Some pairs differ in their final consonant, and some pairs are the same. Circle the word "same" or "different" depending on what you hear.
3) Goal: Selective Listening for Morphological Endings
   Listen to a series of sentences. Circle "yes" if the verb has an –ed ending, and circle "no" if it does not.
4) Goal: Selecting Details from the Text (Word Recognition)
   Match a word that you hear with its picture.
5) Goal 5: Listening for Normal Sentence Word Order
   Listen to a short dialogue and fill in the missing words that have been deleted in a partial transcript.

Brown, H. Dougles, **Teaching by principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy** (New York: Prentice-Hall Regents, 1994), 261.

As is apparent from the table, using the bottom-up technique for teaching listening comprehension is about teaching intonation, phonemes, morphology, word recognition and word order. In other words, bottom-up processing goes from language to meaning. On the other hand, top-down processing goes from meaning to language (Richards, 2008b, 7). There are techniques to be used by a language teacher to teach language comprehension through top-down exercises. In the following table, there are techniques for teaching listening comprehension to beginning level listeners (Brown, 1994c, 261).

Table 9: Techniques for Teaching Listening Comprehension

For Beginning- Level Listeners

Top -down Exercises

1) Goal: Discriminating Between Emotional Reactions
   Listen to a sequence of utterances. Place a check in the column that describes the emotional reaction that you hear: interested, happy, surprised or unhappy.
2) Goal: Getting the Gist of a Sentence
   Listen to a sentence describing a picture and select the correct picture.
3) Goal: Recognize the Topic
   Listen to a dialogue and decide where the conversation occurred.

Brown, H. Dougles, **Teaching by principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy** (New York: Prentice-Hall Regents, 1994c), 261.

As is evident from the table, top-down exercises for teaching listening comprehension direct the listener to general specifications of the listening activity (gist, main idea, topic, etc.) rather than the pieces of language as in bottom-up exercises. As a result, these examples show that for an effective listening activity, the teacher should use both bottom-up and top-down activities as activating prior knowledge of the learner is related to top-down processing and constituting meaning is related to bottom-up processing (Graham, Macaro, 2008).

> Furthermore, listening is not a simple one-way flow of information to the brain after a sound is heard, but an interactive process of two-way communication during which the listener's background knowledge plays an important role. Listeners do not listen word for word, but rather use their background knowledge, and various strategies such as predicting and confirming to construct meaning from the text. This is called Schema Theory. Schema Theory-based Teaching Mode of English Listening, which is a framework of pre-listening, during-listening and post-listening activities for classroom listening teaching (Hu, 2012a, 283).

As a result, in both bottom-up and top-down exercises, the listener needs to use schema to relate current knowledge with previous knowledge (Vandergrift, Goh, 2012b). At this point, personal characteristics of the learner such as memory, attention, age, gender, background and native language proficiency come into prominence. Furthermore, there are also contextual factors such as text, interlocutor, task, listener and process, all of which have an effect on listening comprehension

(Brown, 1994b). These characteristics are outside of the language teachers' teaching proficiency as they do not stem from the teacher, but that does not mean that teacher has no responsibilities, roles or duties to support the learner; rather, there are approaches, strategies, and techniques to be used by the language teacher to teach language and specifically language skills. There are various kinds of techniques to teach listening skills. One technique for teaching listening skills is the reactive technique. Aim of this technique is just to repeat an utterance regardless of meaning or understanding. The learner is responsible for repetition (drills) to develop pronunciation. The second technique is the intensive technique. Compared to reactive technique, there is a different aim in intensive listening teaching. Here the sole stress is on teaching the components of discourse such as phonemes, words, intonation, discourse markers, etc. The third one is the responsive technique. In this technique, all that is expected of students is to reply to the teacher's speech in a suitable way. The fourth one is the selective technique. When compared to responsive listening, this technique requires the listener to scan and get significant information from a lengthy discourse such as specific data, a name, a place, the setting, etc. As a result, the selective listening teaching technique differs from the intensive listening teaching technique. The fifth one is the extensive technique. In this technique, a general perception about a speaking activity is targeted. Just using this technique may be insufficient for a complete understanding. The last one is the interactive technique. As the name suggests, this technique requires a learner to respond to the speaker and use the previous techniques interactively (Field, 2008). To make the techniques clear and use them effectively, there are principles to be followed by language teachers. In the context of the interactive technique, there are exercises that language teachers can use during listening comprehension (Field, 2008).

Modeling: In this kind of activity, the teacher examines the non-participatory listening activity together with students to define changes of turn, pauses, grammar, echoing, etc. In this way, the non-participatory listening activity will be used as a model for students.

Paused Practice: In a listening comprehension dialogue consisting of two persons, the teacher pauses the recording and asks the learner to guess another speaker's

response, which is a kind of "question and answer" activity during listening comprehension activities.

Quick-fire questions: In this activity, the language teacher asks learners questions about interests and life experiences during and related to the recorded dialogue.

Rehearsal: In this kind of activity, the teacher gives students some potential topics and asks them (in pairs) to prepare questions and answers related to the topic. Here appropriateness, rapidness, and relevance of the student's response are more important than grammatical accuracy.

Jigsaw listening: In this kind of activity, after listening to a dialogue many times, the teacher divides the class into two groups and label one group a,b,c,d,e … and the other 1,2,3,4,5.. After listening to the dialogue again, students (labelled with a letter or number) arrange themselves according to the order of the dialogues.

Recording: In this activity, the language teacher records videos of listening activity of learners and then discusses activities that students have difficulty understanding or inappropriate responses.

Communicative tasks: In this kind of listening activity, the teacher uses an information gap task to verify students' communicative achievement. By the utilization of these info gap tasks, the teacher observes students reasons for misunderstanding, the capacity of their listening skill.

In contrast to the classroom case, where the dominant listening activity is "listen and do", there are various kinds of listening in real life. These events are presented in table 10 below (Field, 2008, 63).

Table 10: Kinds of Listening Events

- Face-to-face: Conversation, obtaining and giving information, negotiation
- Distant, but two-way: Phone conversations, taking a message
- External to listener: Announcements, instructions, answer phone messages
- Listening for pleasure: Drama excerpts, film clips, jokes, extended anecdotes, songs
- Informative: News headlines, news items, documentaries, interviews, discussions, aports commentaries
- Instructional: English lessons, English-medium lessons, Lectures
- Persuasive: TV ads

Field, John. **Listening in the Language Classroom** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008), 63.

In the context of foreign language education, different kinds of listening activities are used to instruct as the English language teacher follows the curriculum to teach English. Unfortunately, there are not as many stimuli in the classroom as there are in the real-life learning context. Undoubtedly, in the real-life language learning context, the learner is forced to process a large quantity of multiple visual, auditory, interactive, etc. stimuli and with this the learner acquires the target language skills faster than the learner in the classroom. However, to some extent, the language teacher might minimize this disadvantage of foreign language learners by using various kinds of listening practices in the classroom. Table 11 outlines the types of listening practice to be used by the language teacher in the foreign language teaching process (Rost, 2011, 183).

Table 11: Types of Listening Practice

Listening Type	Learning Focus	Activity Focus
Intensive	Focus on phonology, syntax, lexis	Learner pays close attention to what is actually said. Teacher feedback on accuracy.
Selective	Focus on main ideas, pre-set tasks	Learner attempts to extract key information and construct or utilize information in a meaningful way. Teacher intervention during task and feedback on task completion
Interactive	Focus on becoming active as a listener; attempt to clarify meaning or form	Learner interacts verbally with others, in collaborative tasks, to discover information or negotiate solutions. Teacher feedback on form and outcome of interaction
Extensive	Focus on listening continuously, managing large amounts of listening input	Learner listens to longer extracts and performs meaning oriented tasks. Teacher directs instruction on comprehension strategies; global feedback from teacher
Responsive	Focus on learner response to input	Learner seeks opportunities to respond and convey her own opinions and ideas. Teacher 'pushes output' from learner
Autonomous	Focus on learner management of progress, navigation of 'Help' options	Learner selects own extracts and tasks, monitors own progress; decides on own patterns of interaction with others. Global feedback from teacher on learning path

Rost, Michael, **Teaching and Researching Listening** (London: Longman, 2011), 183.

Intensive listening is rule-based and requires the learner to get the details of language correctly. "Dictation, elicited repetition, shadowing, word spotting, error spotting, grammar processing, and mediation (translation or simultaneous interpretation)" are included in intensive listening activities (Rost, 2011, 186). Selective listening aims to improve learners' aural understanding and to get the key point of the listening. To achieve selective listening, the language teacher may

benefit from e-sources and apply note taking activities, thus involving other skills such as reading, writing and speaking in the pre-listening phase of the instruction (Rost, 2011). On the contrary to one-way listening, interactive listening includes interaction and the intervention of the learner in the peer-to-peer listening process by getting instant feedback. This kind of listening practice is more similar to real life practice and develops the learner socially, which is an essential element in the real life communicative process. Extensive listening prioritizes meaning and requires preparation and avoids excessive input to enable the learner to understand. Hence, this type of name listening prioritizes the affective response of the learner instead of the informative response to form a basis for listening and to support understanding. In the autonomous listening practice, instead of the teacher, the learner is the determiner of the listening content, director of him/herself and responsible for his/her learning (Rost, 2011).

The language teacher may apply one or more of these listening practices depending on the aims of instruction. However, the listening activities should be designed specifically for the course and must not be non-participant activities which do not fully engage the learner.

The activities must require more than just listening; they should require the learner to participate and to react as in real life. This is also the necessity of communicative language teaching. In addition to the types of listening practice, there are also types of listening that depend on listener's goals (Field, 2008, 66).

Table 12: Types of Listening as Determined by Listener's Goal

Shallow attentional focus	**Skimming** (listening generally) to establish discourse topic and main ideas. 'What is it about?' e.g. TV channel hopping, TV advertisements, eavesdropping Phatic communion 'What are the speaker's intentions?' e.g. greetings	**Unfocused scanning** to locate information relevant to the listener. 'Does the speaker mention anything of interest to me?' e.g. news headlines
Medium attentional focus	**Listening for plot; listening to commentary** 'What happened next?' e.g. film/TV drama, TV/radio interview Conversational listening 'What is the speaker's message?' e.g. everyday chat Information exchange 'How much do I need to know?' e.g. tour guide	**Focused scanning** to locate one area of information needed by the listener. 'When will the speaker mention X?' e.g. airport announcement, weather forecast Search listening to locate and understand information relevant to predetermined needs. 'What is the answer to these questions?' e.g. hotel/travel information Message listening 'How many details do I need to

		retain?' e.g. answer phone
Deep attentional focus	**Close listening** to establish the speaker's main points and to trace connections between them. 'What is important?' e.g. lecture listening	**Close listening** to record in depth the speaker's main points and supporting detail. 'I assume that everything is relevant.' e.g. negotiation
Very deep attentional focus	**Listening to check critical facts** 'Is this consistent?' e.g. witness evidence	**Listening to vital instructions** 'I assume that everything is important.' e.g. street directions **Listening to the form of words** 'What precisely did he say?' e.g. listening to quote somebody

Field, John, **Listening in the Language Classroom** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008**)**, 66.

As learning is a personal activity, the difficulty of an activity may change from person to person. Hence, the language teacher may choose one of the goals above compatible with the learner level of listening comprehension, but for beginners shallow attentional focus and unfocused scanned are recommended (Field, 2008e). Furthermore, as learning is the product of motivation, especially internal motivation, the language teacher should stimulate it. Authentic language and real world tasks are the motivators that stimulate students to learn (Brown, 1994c).

All these stages and techniques constitute a quality listening activity and in each stage, there are different roles and duties of the language teacher to carry out. In each stage, there are tasks and techniques to be used by the language teacher to accomplish a successful listening activity and to reach the aims of before, during and

after the listening activities. Therefore, each stage should be treated respectively. This is also called the integrated skills approach. “Commentators tend to regard the standard lesson as falling into three stages: pre-listening, listening and post-listening” (Field, 2008, 83). Teaching language skills effectively requires the language teacher to use tasks that students can practice at the pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening stages satisfyingly (Sebina, Aura, 2014b). But according to Field, these stages have been modified time over time. Early and current versions of stages are presented and discussed below (2008, 14-18).

Table 13: Early and Current Format for a Listening Lesson

Early Format for a Listening Lesson	Current Format for a Listening Lesson
Pre-listening Pre-teach vocabulary 'to ensure maximum understanding'	**Pre-listening** Establish context Create motivation for listening Pre-teach only critical vocabulary
Listening Extensive listening followed by general questions on context Intensive listening followed by detailed comprehension questions	**Extensive listening** General questions on context and attitude of speakers **Intensive listening** Pre-set questions Intensive listening Checking answers to questions
Post-listening Teach any new vocabulary Analyse language (Why did the speaker use the Present Perfect here?) Paused play. Students listen and repeat	**Post listening (optional)** Functional language in listening passage Learners infer the meaning of unknown words from the sentences in which they appear Final play; learners look at transcript

Field, John, **Listening in the Language Classroom** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008**)**, 14-18.

When table 13 is reviewed, it is clear that there are not many modifications to early and current formats in general. Modifications are especially to the activities under each format and there are reasons for that. The following, formats, early and current, are discussed in detail by explaining the reasons for modifications.

4.1.1. Pre-Listening Activity

This phase of the listening constitutes the first step of teaching listening. Actually, this stage of listening underlies the other stages, while and after listening, as this stage paves the way for the while and after listening stages. At this stage, the teacher prepares the physical environment and removes obstacles, especially noise that may have the potential to hinder listening. As it is possible for noise to prevent hearing utterances and to lower the level of listening, the language teacher should establish (prepare) the learning environment and remove distractions. Furthermore, the language teacher prepares students cognitively and affectively by giving background information to connect them with the listening activity. As in other lessons, the teacher starts the listening course by activating students' prior knowledge before the listening. In this way, the teacher not only takes students from passive listener to active listener but also helps them to create the schema. If the teacher is not able to create the schema, listening activities can fail and be ineffective. Field refers to this as establishing context. In this sense, the language teacher teaches vocabulary to increase familiarity of listeners with the listening passage and foster the learners' comprehension. However, only the critical vocabulary is taught as teaching too much vocabulary takes time, is incompatible with real life and decreases listeners' motivation (Field, 2008; Goh, 2012; Hu, 2012b; Sebina, Aura, 2014c; Richards, 2008c; Rost, 2011b; Vandergrift, 1999a). In addition to that, to activate prior knowledge and background information of students, which is vital for students to understand the listening text, the language teacher can also use stories and pictures to prepare students for the listening activity. This activity not only activates prior knowledge but also boosts learners' comprehension as visuals support learning. Similarly, the teacher can also ask further questions and use visuals, videos, etc. to provide familiarity with the content (Ginther, 2002; Juan, Abidin, 2013a; Kurniasih, 2011b, 74; Vandergrift, 2004, 10; Berne, 1998, 169). A study carried out by Won Kim (2003b) also promotes this technique. In the study students having visual cues

performed better in listening comprehension than the ones who did not have any visual cues.

Concurrently, students should be aware of the aims of and reasons for the listening activity. It is a general rule for teachers to inform students about the goals of the lesson. To that end, the teacher should get students ready for a listening activity in advance of hearing the text itself by previewing the comprehension questions, writing a title for the listening, or brainstorming about the listening text content. This activity prepares students mentally, hence facilitating listening comprehension (Berne, 1998a; Field, 2008). Furthermore, the teacher should provide sufficient help and stimulate and encourage students before listening so that students can easily understand the message.

4.1.2. While/During Listening

The while or during listening phase is the stage in which students listen to the text. This stage of listening comprehension, which is longer than the pre-listening stage, includes multiple replays and provides the listener the chance to listen again and check their answers (Field, 2008g). This phase has some subskills such as listening for gist, scanning, predicting, searching for specific information, and accessing detailed information, which are also given prominence by the Communicative Language Teaching Method (Field, 1998; Goh, 2008; Wallece, Stariha, Walberg, 2004). Mainly, it is essential to delineate the features of these subskills. These subskills are also called communicative listening strategies and are also promoted by the Ministry of National Education of Turkey in the 9^{th} to 12^{th} gradeEnglish curriculum accepted by the Turkish Education Board in 2014 (MoNE, 2015c). Communicative listening strategies are divided into two categories: direct and inferred meaning comprehension. The first one, direct meaning comprehension, which is also called extensive listening by Field, requires the listener to get the general message without in-depth investigation. Direct meaning comprehension contains listening for gist, main idea and specific information. In listening for gist, listeners listen for the essence of a listening text. In this context, the language teacher may ask the listener, “What is the listening text about?” Listening for the main idea requires the learner to look for a little more specific information such as reasons and justifications when compared to listening for gist. The last technique under direct

meaning comprehension is listening for specific information, in which the listener looks for specific knowledge such as a name, number, location, etc. (Mewald, Gassner, Sigott, 2007). To summarize, direct meaning comprehension is from general to specific starting with the gist and more detailed information. The second listening comprehension strategy is inferred meaning comprehension, which is also called intensive listening by Field. As its name suggests this approach requires the listener to infer and to listen for more particular information in the listening text. In other words, the strategy requires the listener to make an analysis and engage in high order thinking as there is extrapolating. This strategy consists of inferring and deducing meaning depending on the information in a text, determining the speaker's intention, relating speech to the listeners own context and environment and lastly knowing the communicative function of the speech. Inferring and deducing meaning depending on the information in a text is a kind of getting a conclusion from a text. Determining the speaker's intention is getting the speaker's intent and objective through the speech. In relating speech with the listener's own context and environment after the speech, the listener relates the speech to his/her context or location. Finally, by knowing the communicative function of the speech, the listener can decide what the speaker's objective was, such as complaining, describing, reporting, requesting, etc. (Mewald, Gassner, Sigott, 2007).

Moreover, knowing phonological features of the text has a role in understanding it easily. To decode the text, the teacher should explicate phonological features such as ellipsis, assimilation, and prominence, etc. (Kurniasih, 2011c). The teacher's level and tone of voice also contribute to quality listening. To provide greater student interest in the listening activity, the teacher should speak in an animated and interesting manner (Kurniasih, 2011d). What is more, the teacher should not speak English at the same speed as a native speaker. If the language teacher speaks as quickly as a native speaker during the listening lesson, this can cause the listener to lose motivation over time. Consequently, because of not understanding, learning may not be realized. The teacher should be aware that their speaking speed does not exceed the students' listening speed (Brunfaut, Revesz, 2015; Kurniasih, 2011e). In real-life speaking activities, there are lots of cues, mainly visual, to understand the verbal message but the classroom environment is not as rich as that. As the classroom environment consists of students at multiple levels and with multiple

intelligences, the listening task may not be understood by students the first time. Furthermore, the teacher may not get all students' attention at one time or students' attention might be distracted for some reasons. These contributing causes may also prevent students from understanding the listening the first time. In that case, it might be obligatory for the language teacher to give students another opportunity to listen to the text again. After the listening activity, if different answers occur, the teacher should write them on the board and after listening for the second time; students should choose the correct answer on the board (Kurniasih, 2011f). Moreover, as the classroom environment is interactional (from teacher to student, from student to teacher, from student to student), it is necessary for a teacher to reply and give feedback to students. In addition to that, feedback has a powerful effect on learning and accomplishment (Hattie, Timperley, 2007). This finding proves that feedback is a critical part of the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, in major learning theories, such as behaviorist, cognitive and humanistic, giving feedback is essential as well. During and after the listening activity, the teacher should give feedback to students (Kurniasih, 2011e).

As listening comprehension is an interactive and complex process, there are tasks to be done not only by the language teacher but also by the learner in the classroom environment. Furthermore, according to constructivist theory, during the learning process, it is the learner who is to be active by correlating existing knowledge with previous knowledge. As a result, fulfilling the tasks by using current approaches, strategies, and techniques by the teacher may not be sufficient to accomplish a successful listening lesson.

4.1.3. After Listening

This phase is the final and the outcome stage of teaching listening comprehension and is also called post listening. As has been discussed, there is an active relationship between the pre, while and after listening stages. As the post listening is the final stage of listening comprehension, achievement of students here relies on the previous, pre and while, listening, stages. At this stage, the teacher carries out exercises and assessment related to the listening text to improve and test students' listening comprehension (Juan, Abidin, 2013a; Sebina, Aura, 2014d; Wallece, Stariha, Walberg, 2004). To make assessment at this stage, the language teacher can

use group and class discussions. In this manner, students not only explain their views but also benefit from views of mates. This case also supports cooperative learning and as a result ensures learning (Vandergrift, 1999b).

As discussed earlier, in the current format for a listening lesson, according to Field, post listening consists of "functional language, inferring vocabulary, paused play and final play activities" (2008, 22). Through functional language activities, the language teacher teaches the functions of language such as refusing, apologizing, threatening, offering, which are easy to teach contextually by giving pause and discussing with students. As discussed before, in the pre-listening stage, the language teacher does not teach all the unknown vocabulary, just the important words. At the last stage of listening, the language teacher tries to teach new vocabulary to students by encouraging inference as in real-life speaking situations. The language teacher achieves this by writing new vocabulary on the board, replaying the listening, and asking students to guess the meaning, which is and inferring vocabulary activity (Field, 2008; Kurniasih, 2011f). As the paused play is not a part of the communicative approach, the activity from the behaviorist approach that requires the learner to repeat some part of listening to practice intonation without any focus on understanding is not recommended for the language teacher. Despite all these activities, there may be some points that students fail to understand. In that case, to clarify these parts for students, the language teacher gives a transcription of the listening passage, carrying out a re-listening activity which is called final play (Field, 2008).

4.1.4. How to Test Listening

In testing listening, the approach adopted by the language teacher is reflected in the structure of testing. In other words, the content, process and results of testing listening are anticipated by the method of testing. Hence, it is essential to clarify the primary testing methods. There are three approaches to testing listening: the discrete-point approach, the integrative approach and the communicative approach (Buck, 2001). Each method tests linguistic proficiency differently and is rooted in a different theoretical basis. For instance, the discrete-point approach arises from structuralism and behaviorism. The discrete-point approach tests parts and linguistic knowledge of the language such as phonemic discrimination (distinctions between phonemes),

paraphrase recognition (recomposing the sentence heard), and response evaluation (selecting the suitable reply). Table 14 summarizes the discrete-point approach tests types and test descriptions (Flowerdew, Miller, 2005, 199):

Table 14: Discrete-point Approach

Test Type	Test Description	Example
Phonemic discrimination tasks	Minimal pairs: Learners hear two words in which one phoneme is different. They must identify the difference in phonemes.	Choose the words with the /p/ sound in them: 1 2 pen Ben ball Paul bat Pat
Paraphrase recognition	Multiple choice: A context is given in this type of task. Listeners must reformulate what they hear.	Learners hear: Mary asked her mother for some money to go to the cinema. They read and choose one from: (a) Mary wanted money to buy some new clothes. (b) Mary wanted to see a movie so she asked for some money. (c) Mary asked her mother to go with her to the cinema.
Response evaluation	Multiple choice: Learners try to respond to what they hear.	Learners hear: Would you like to go shopping? They read and choose from: (a) Yes, okay. (b) Yes, I have. (c) It cost $200.

Flowerdew, John, Lindsay Miller, Second **Language Listening: Theory and Practice** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005), 199.

Even though the integrative approach is similar to the discrete-point approach in testing language chunks, the integrative approach is more comprehensive in testing as it tests more bits overall than the discrete-point approach. Beyond the bits,

complete language utilization is essential in the integrative approach (Buck, 2001). Table 15 summarizes the integrative approach tests types and test descriptions with examples (Flowerdew, Miller, 2005, 199-200).

Table 15: Integrative Approach

Test Type	Test Description
Gap-filling exercises	These types of tests assume that learners are able to fill in missing parts of language based on what they already know about the language. This is seen as reduced redundancy, that is, the ability to make predictions as a measure of language proficiency. Gap-fill (also known as cloze) exercises are more commonly associated with reading tests; however, a number of material designers and teachers also use this technique to test listening. First an oral text is selected. Then the tester goes through the text, removing certain words (often content words) or randomly removing every fifth, seventh, or ninth word from the taped text. Learners then hear the text and write down the missing words. This can be done with or without reference to the oral text in its written form (with blanks where the missing words are).
Dictation	The technique is simple. The learners listen to an oral text and write down what they hear. The passage may be presented more than once, and it needs to be presented in segments, or information units, so the learner has time to process the language and write it down.
Sentence repetition activities	This is a variation on dictation tests. In this case, though, learners are not required to write down what they hear but to retell what they hear. Often the tester will record the responses and mark them later.
Statement evaluation	Learners evaluate the truth of a sentence, agree or disagree with the statement.
Translation	This may be seen as another version of a dictation test. However, in translation the learner needs to listen to the text in the L2 and write what is said in the L1.

Flowerdew, John, Lindsay Miller, **Second Language Listening: Theory and Practice** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005), 199-200.

In the communicative testing approach, instead of using bits of or complete sentences, language is tested for communication. In this approach, practicing the

knowledge for conversational reasons is the focus of the communicative testing approach. Language proficiency is the major factor in this approach (Buck, 2001). Table 16 summarizes integrative approach tests features and test descriptions with examples (Flowerdew & Miller, 2005, 200-201):

Table 16: Communicative Approach

Test features	**Test Description**
Authenticity	The most prominent feature of communicative tests is that the text that learners are required to listen to and the tasks that they need to perform, in response to the message, must have some relation to real-world use.
Purposeful listening	Another feature of a communicative test is that there should seem to be a real purpose to the listening. For example, prior to listening to the test text, learners may be told that they are going to arrange a day out with their classmates and that they need to decide whether to aim for an indoor activity or an outdoor one. By listening to the weather forecast, they can then choose which activities are more suitable for that day. The listeners then listen to the weather forecast and choose from a list those activities that they might do in the morning, afternoon, and evening.

Flowerdew, John, Lindsay Miller, **Second Language Listening: Theory and Practice** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2005), 200-201.

As discussed earlier, the kind of the testing approach adopted by the language teacher determines the scope, content, and activities of a listening task. Likewise, the timing of the listening assessments is another essential issue. As the teaching/learning process is an ongoing activity, it is important to check if learning occurred or not during and at the end of this process. Accordingly, the teacher takes due precautions to ensure students' learning. Hence, the teacher makes formative assessments during the process of teaching to check students' learning and makes activities to address the lack of learning. Summative assessment is, on the other hand, a kind of assessment realized at the end of a unit, chapter, etc. Table 17 outlines the differences between formative and summative assessment (Vandergrift, Goh, 2012, 242).

Table 17: Differences between Formative and Summative Assessment

	Formative Assessment	**Summative Assessment**
What?	• All objectives of the unit, a few at a time • Learning processes	• Selected course/program objectives, representative of the level assessed
Why?	• Provide feedback to student and teacher on progress in learning • Determine need for and/or type of remediation required.	• Determine level for placement purposes • Course pass/failure • Certification
When?	• Continuous, as part of regular learning activities	• Periodic, at end of a course or program
How?	• Observation • Checklists • Portfolios	• Standardized tests • Achievement/Placement/ Proficiency tests
By whom?	• Teacher • Student • Peer	• Teacher • Institution • Educational jurisdiction (school board, government)
Decision to make?	• Adjust teaching procedures • Adapt learning activities • Provide individual remediation on strategies and/or targeted skill (s)	• Award credits (promotion) • Certification • Program evaluation

Vandergrift, Larry, C.M. Goh, Christine, **Teaching and Learning Second Language Listening** (New York: Routledge, 2012), 242.

As it is evident from the table 17, one of the main basic objectives of formative assessment is to provide feedback, adapt learning and discover needs. However, summative assessment aims to get an absolute score. In addition to that, instruments used by each type of assessment also differ. In the formative assessment student or peers might be the assessors, but in summative assessment in addition to the teacher, there are also other bodies such as the school and government who are part of the assessment. Furthermore, in formative assessment, the teacher can use "learner checklists, questionnaires, listening diaries, teacher checklists, interviews, and, finally, portfolios" but in summative assessment, quizzes, achievement tests,

proficiency tests, and large-scale standardized tests might be used by the teacher or a body (Vandergrift, Goh, 2012, 243, 253)

In addition to that, each test should meet the conditions to be valid and reliable. Validity means suitability, accuracy, and utility of the conclusion. A test should have face, content and construct validity. Content validity is if content of the test is equivalent to the scope of the subject taught. Face validity is about appearance and if the test accurately resembles the intended test. Construct validity is if the theoretical basis of a test meets the aims of a test. Reliability is about test score constancy in each test. In other words, at the end of the each test, results should be approximately the same (Fraenkel, Wallen, 2009).

4.2. Speaking Skills and Teaching

As discussed earlier, language skills are divided into the two parts: receptive skills and productive skills. Receptive skills involve reading and listening skills. As is clear from the word "receptive", the skills reading and listening do not require the learner to generate language; on the contrary, they are about the comprehension of the language. On the other hand, productive skills involve speaking and writing skills. In productive skills, the learner is active and in the process of language production.

4.2.1. Features of Speaking Skills

The ultimate aim of the instructional objective of teaching English is to provide communication in real-life contexts. This goal increases the significance of oral communication during the teaching of speaking skills. All language skills constitute and contribute to each aspect communication; none of the skills is self-sufficient. Similarly, speaking incorporates other skills. Briefly stated, speaking is the summation of other skills. On the other hand, speaking skills are dissimilar to other language skills in the areas of structure: sound, dictation, vocabulary, usage, intonation, etc. Oral language is different from written language in many respects (Hughes, 2011, 28):

Table 18: Spoken and Written Discourse

Spoken Discourse	Written Discourse
Context dependent	Decontextualized
Unplanned	Planned
Transient	Non-transient
Oral/Aural	Visual/Motoric
Dynamic	Static

Hughes, Rebecca, **Teaching and Researching Speaking** (Harlow: Pearson Education, 2011), 28.

In addition to requiring linguistics knowledge, speaking skills require the learner to use interactional skills. If the learner is an introverted person and has difficulty in initiating communication, which means oral communication is not just learning the

rules and words. The personality of the learner also plays a role in the ability of oral competence. Speaking is also the most difficult language skill to assess reliably (Luoma, 2004, ix). Some unique characteristics of speaking skills cause difficulties and make speaking skills different from other language skills. Contractions, elisions, reducation of vowels, stress, rhythm, intonation, idioms and slang fall within the difficulties of speaking skills (Brown, 1994). Further, there are some characteristics distinguishing speaking skills from other language skills. Figure 11 exhibits these features (Nunan, 1991, 40).

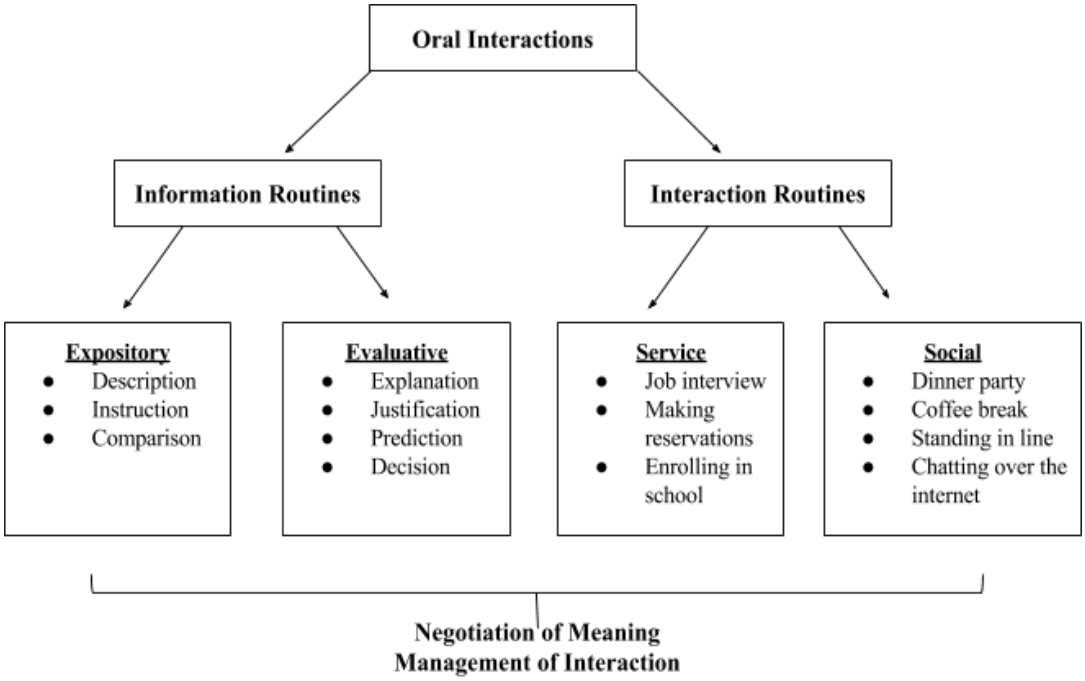

Figure 11: Characteristics of Oral Interaction

Nunan, David, **Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers** (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1991), 40.

As is obvious from the figure 11, oral interaction has a multi-dimensional pattern. It might be for informational purposes or interactional purposes. Information routines of oral language are information oriented and involve knowledge to be transmitted. On the other hand, interactional routines form the social aspect of the language such as interviewing, chatting, conversation, and they include at least two persons and physical clues. In addition to that, the intention of speaking might be interactive or non-interactive. Speaking of two individuals is interactive; however, just one-way conversation such as announcements is a non-interactive conversation. In addition to

that, regarding intent, a conversation might be planned or unplanned. Planned conversation involves previously scheduled speeches such as a course presentation; unplanned conversation involves previously unplanned speeches such as phone answering (Harmer, 2007).

As for each skill, there are micro skills of the speaking skill as well. Table 19 sets out the micro skills of the speaking skill (Brown, 1994, 272).

Table 19: Micro Skills of Oral communication

1. Produce chunks of language of different lengths.
2. Orally produce differences among the English phonemes and allophonic variants.
3. Produce English stress patterns, words in stressed and unstressed positions, rhythmic structure and international contours.
4. Produce reduced forms of words and phrases.
5. Use an adequate number of lexical units (words) in order to accomplish pragmatic purposes.
6. Produce fluent speech at different rates of delivery.
7. Monitor your own oral production and use various strategic devices- pauses, fillers, self-corrections, backtracking- to enhance the clarity of the message.
8. Use grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.) systems (e.g., tense, agreement, and pluralization), word order, patterns, rules and elliptical forms.
9. Produce speech in natural constituents- in appropriate phrases, pause groups, breath groups, and sentences.
10. Express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms.
11. Use cohesive devices in spoken discourse.
12. Accomplish appropriately communicative functions according to situations, participants, and goals.
13. Use appropriate registers, implicature, pragmatic conventions, and other sociolinguistic features in face-to-face conversations.
14. Convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification.
15. Use facial features, kinesics, body language and other nonverbal cues along with verbal language to convey meaning.
16. Develop and use a battery of speaking strategies, such as emphasizing key words, rephrasing, providing a context for interpreting the meaning of words, appealing for help, and accurately assessing how well your interlocutor is understanding you.

Brown, H. Dougles, **Teaching by principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy** (New York: Prentice-Hall Regents, 1994), 272.

When table 19 is reviewed, it is apparent that it includes grammar, words and phrases, communication rules, and non-verbal cues such as using facial features and kinesthetic instruments. In brief, speaking is a skill involving many variables,

language areas, and skills. At this point, it should be mentioned that there are also a significant number of elements influencing speaking skills. In the following section, factors affecting the speaking skill are discussed.

During the teaching process of speaking skills of English as a foreign language, the teacher should also take into account some other linguistic features. The relevant features are fluency, grammar, accuracy, vocabulary, and pronunciation (Droz´Dzial –Szelest, 2011). "Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and ongoing communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence" (Richards, 2006, 13). However, there is not just one explanation of fluency. Fluency is speaking with minimal waiting time, transmitting the oral message concisely, adjusting speaking according to various contexts and circumstances and creative usage of the language (Fillmore, 1979). Grammar involves using the correct grammatical rules in the speaking process. On the other hand, Richards (2006) defines accuracy as forming accurate language. In other words, accuracy is avoiding phonological, syntactic, semantic or discourse errors (Shen, 2013). Pronunciation is the ability to transfer the written word into verbalization by applying the language rules of English. It is essential for students to accomplish "1) intelligibility (the speaker produces sound patterns that are recognizable as English), 2) comprehensibility (the listener is able to understand the meaning of what is said), 3) interpretability (the listener is able to understand the purpose of what is said)" (Burns, Claire, 2003).

4.2.2. Factors Influencing the Speaking Skill

As the speaking skill is a multi-facet skill, a wide variety of factors influence this skill. In addition to a theoretical basis, each skill also has a practical aspect. However, the speaking skill involves not only the personal ability to apply knowledge but also interpersonal, social and emotional skills. Willingness to communicate is one of these factors. Willingness to start communication is mostly affected by language anxiety and to a slightly lesser degree teacher support. Hence, teachers' efforts to reduce the anxiety and form a calm environment matter to speakers (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2015). Making mistakes is a natural consequence of the learning process. Particularly during speaking practice in the classroom, peers affect each other in a negative way. In addition to that, in his qualitative study "Factors

Negatively Affect Speaking Skills at Saudi Colleges for Girls in the South", M. Hamad concluded that "instructors, students, curriculum and textbooks, English language teaching methods and exercises, and teaching and learning environment are the factors that negatively affect English language speaking skills" (2013, 87). Besides, "students' speaking performance can be affected by the factors that come from performance conditions (time pressure, planning, standard of performance and amount of support), affective factors (such as motivation, confidence and anxiety), listening ability and feedback during speaking activities" (Latha, Ramesh, 2012; Tuan, Mai, 2015). In addition to that, there are also more factors influencing the speaking skill. These factors might be detailed as in the following table (Ur, 1995, 121):

Table 20: Factors Influencing Speaking

Inhibition	Worried about making mistakes, fearful of criticism or losing face, or shyness.
Nothing to say	Students have no motive to express themselves beyond the guilty feeling that they should be speaking.
Low or uneven participation	Tendency of some learners to dominate while others speak very little or not at all.
Mother tongue use	Particularly the less disciplined or motivated ones- to keep to the target language.

Ur, Penny, **A Course in Language Teaching. Practice and Theory** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1995), 121.

As is apparent from table 20, there are not just personal factors; there are also external reasons such as motivation provided by the teacher and peer or group actions influencing speaking of students.

4.2.2.1. Roles of Teacher in Teaching the Speaking Skill

Along with the factors influencing the speaking skill, there certainly the techniques for overcoming these factors. As in teaching other skills, the teacher should provide information and prepare students for the speaking activity. However, in contrast to behavioristic methods such as repetition activities and explaining rules about sounds and language, the teacher should carry out real-life language activities. In other

words, the teacher should adopt activities related to the communicative language teaching method because "learning a skill is not simply a behavior (like practice) or a mental process (like restructuring) but one of collaboration construction" (Thornbury, 2005, 63). Hence, students should be at the center of all activities and be active in the classroom. Before discussing the activities and roles of teacher, let's clarify which approaches and methods give a role to students during learning. Table 21 outlines the roles of students (Nunan, 1989, 80):

Table 21: Students Roles in Each Approach

Approach	Roles
Oral/Situational	Learner listens to teacher and repeats; no control over content or methods
Audiolingual	Learner has little control; reacts to teacher directions; passive, reactive role
Communicative	Learner has an active, negotiative role; should contribute as well as receive
Total Physical Response	Learner is a listener and performer; little influence over content and none over methodology
Silent Way	Learners learn through systematic analysis; must become independent and autonomous
Community Language Learning	Learners are members of a social group or community; move from dependence to autonomy as learning progresses
The Natural Approach	Leaners play an active role and have relatively high degree of control over content language production
Suggestopedia	Learners are passive, have little control over content or methods.

Nunan, David, **Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classrooms** (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1989), 80.

As is clear from the table, students are not active in each approach. However, students should have the opportunity to rehearse and practice newly learned information. To decrease anxiety and increase speaking time, group work is one of the solutions to be used. Group work provides greater talking opportunity and increased talking time, the emergence of various ideas, cooperation and negotiation and learner freedom (Harmer, 2007). However, in group work, the teacher should

keep in mind that some students may dominate the group and block individual participation. Hence, the teacher should ensure the participation of each student in group discussions. Furthermore, the teacher should also require student interactions in the student-centered classroom (Nunan, 2003). In addition to that, teaching key vocabulary before the beginning of the activity and adjusting the language level to encourage fluent speaking of students are other techniques. To provide motivation, which is essential for each activity in the teaching process, the teacher should clearly inform students about the purpose of the activity. The teacher's use of target language during instruction provides a necessary model for students. To encourage student engagement, the teacher should also be a part of learning instead of the source of knowledge. What is more, the teacher should also inform learners about their oral competence by feedback. However, the teacher should be sensitive while providing feedback to students in order not to discourage motivation. Hence, the student should not be interrupted at the time of speaking (Ur, 1995; Harmer, 2007). As the classroom involves students with various personalities and students with different learning abilities and levels, the teacher should employ activities for introverted and shy students instead of carrying out teaching just with students who always lead or participate. To avoid having certain students take over, the teacher may use role play activities which are motivating and pleasing as well for students (Harmer, 2007). Because of the social structure of language, the teacher may also make use of extra-curricular activities to develop speaking skills of students. Extra-curricular activities are activities which are not included in the normal but increase student motivation, socializing and language use in real circumstances (Reva, 2012; Zhdanova, 2013; Al Hosni, 2014). As discussed earlier, there is the issue of concentrating on fluency or accuracy in teaching speaking, which is an important matter. For the beginners and intermediate level learners of English as a foreign language, the teacher should develop both of them (Nunan, 2003). In addition to communicative activities such as discussions and role playing, the teacher should also use problem-solving activities to develop speaking skills. Problem-solving activities not only cultivate speaking skills but also involve students in real-life contexts and improve students' critical thinking skills, which are essential skills for taking part in the core curriculum of each course in Turkey. In problem-solving activities, the teacher is not the solver of the problem; in contrast, the teacher is the situation provider for students and the motivator to solve the problem (Chircev,

2015). In addition to using interaction and collaboration, which are essential in Communicative Language Teaching, the teacher may also employ some other activities to teach speaking skills. Games are among the activities that encourage learners to participate in, enjoy and achieve learning by experiencing. Some games are just for young learners, but there are also games suitable for teenagers. In addition to that, today's technology also gives opportunities to the teacher to use various kinds of games in the process of teaching speaking skills. The teacher may use different types of devices such as smartphones, smart boards, computers, etc.

4.2.3. Assessing the Speaking Skill

Assessing students' oral competence is not an easy task for a teacher primarily teaching in large classrooms and dealing with the complex nature of speaking. Above all, testing speaking skills of each student in a large and mixed-level learning environment is challenging as well as time and money consuming. In addition to this, there are also critics of testing oral proficiency. The difficulty of designing a test is one of the arguments against it. Another challenge is the complexity in providing objectivity and reliability of testing because of the oral component. Defining the aim of testing, namely fluency or accuracy, is also hard for a teacher. Maintaining a consistent attitude to the student in each test is another complication for the teacher. To maintain neutrality, at least two teachers should participate in the oral face-to-face proficiency evaluations (Ur, 1995). In the teaching process, the teacher provides feedback to students about their oral competence. However, that is not sufficient to assess oral competence. Spoken tests should also have the same characteristics as other tests such as reliability, validity, authenticity, interactiveness, impact and practicality (Akiyama, 2003) In addition to that, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages cites the terms validity, reliability, and feasibility in the context of assessment. Validity in an assessment means assessing the taught knowledge. Reliability is getting the same results in each assessment. Feasibility is a term about performance and practicability. The assessment should be practical enough to assess learners speaking performance in a limited assessment time (Council of Europe, 2001). According to CEFRL, there are various types of assessment. Table 22 outlines the types of assessments (Council of Europe, 2001, 183).

Table 22: Types of Assessments

Achievement assessment	Proficiency assessment
Norm-referencing (NR)	Criterion-referencing (CR)
Mastery learning CR	Continuum CR
Continuous assessment	Fixed point assessment
Formative assessment	Summative assessment
Direct assessment	Indirect assessment
Performance assessment	Knowledge assessment
Subjective assessment	Objective assessment
Checklist rating	Performance rating
Impression	Guided judgement
Holistic assessment	Analytic assessment
Series assessment	Category assessment
Assessment by others	Self-assessment

Council of Europe, **Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment** (Strasburg: Cambridge University Press, 2001), 183.

It is impossible to use all of the types of assessment displayed above in an activity or a task. While deciding on the assessment type that is suitable to a context, learner needs, pedagogic structure, and other variables should be taken into account. In the classroom, teachers mostly apply achievement tests for speaking (Brown, 1996). Achievement assessment is a type of assessment related to attaining what is taught in the classroom while proficiency assessment is related to real-life application of the subject. In norm-referencing assessment, there is a norm to rank the learners, especially compared to other participants; however, in criterion-referencing there is not any norm or comparisons; just learner achievement is taken into account. In mastery learning, there is a minimal achievement level for each learner, and accordingly learners are called masters or non-master. In continuum criterion referencing, the skill of the learner is described by various criteria on a continuum. Another type of assessment, continuous assessment, is a type of assessment applied by the teacher or learner during the course. In fixed point assessment, there is a previously defined time for the assessment, which aims to gain an idea of and give a

judgment about a student's level. Teachers also apply formative and summative assessments. Formative assessment is a type of assessment in which the teacher provides feedback to students about their learning, and summative assessment is applied at the end of the unit or course. In summative assessment, there is a grade that symbolizes the level of learning. However, formative assessment aims to provide feedback on students' learning, and there is no grade; instead, the goal is to empower the learning of the students. Direct assessment is about directly assessing the learner's performance through observations. In-direct assessment is a paper-based assessment without any external observation. Performance assessment is like direct assessment and requires the learner to perform the language; however, knowledge assessment is about assessing the knowledge. Subjective assessment involves the assessor's own criteria and ideas, but in objective assessment there are objective criteria to be used by the assessor. Checklist rating is assessing a learner depending on a checklist. In performance rating, the learner's range of learning is defined. In impression, as the names implies, assessment is done without using any instrument, just the personal idea of the assessor is important. Impression may also be called the teacher's general idea about the process and involves subjective rating and continuous assessment. In guided judgment, to reduce personality and individuality on assessment some norms are applied. In holistic assessment, the assessor makes a general assessment instinctively; however, in analytic assessment instead of generality in assessment, various aspects are assessed independently. Category assessment is like analytic assessment in that it includes a classification of assessment. However, series assessment includes separate assessments. In assessment by others, there is an external assessor evaluating the learner, but in self-assessment, as is clear from the name, the learner evaluates her/his own ability (Council of Europe, 2001). The teacher should assess fluency, grammar, accuracy, vocabulary, and pronunciation of students (Droz´Dzial –Szelest, 2011). CEFRL suggests assessing "turn taking strategies, co-operating strategies, asking for clarification, fluency, flexibility, coherence, thematic development, precision, sociolinguistic competence, general range, vocabulary range, grammatical accuracy, vocabulary control, phonological control" (2001, 193). However, it is also recommended by the CEFRL to define and select assessment needs and criteria as it is hard to assess all of these categories.

4.3. Reading Skills and Teaching

Like the listening skill, the reading skill is receptive, not requiring output like speaking and writing. But to produce output, it is necessary to be exposed to input. Because of this, both listening and reading skills are crucial skills to obtain knowledge. Reading is a comprehension process of composed language and includes cognitive actions (Rumelhart, 2013). When compared to listening comprehension skills, reading skills are not as complicated as there are not environmental factors, visual support, cues, etc. Actually, in first language acquisition, the learner learns the alphabet, letters, syntax, vowel, and consonants, etc. to learn reading. But in the case of foreign language learning, the learner already knows these things and has learned how to read. In that case, the goals and resulting objectives of learning reading in the native and foreign language differ.

Reading is defined as the practice of creating a meaning by making use of the text. During reading, everything happens between eye, brain and the text. The key to reading is creating meaning as it is pointless if there is no meaning in reading (Johnson, 2008). Regardless of being conscious or unconscious of thoughts, reading is a thinking process. The reader uses his/her prior experiences and personal background knowledge to reconstruct the meaning of the text (Mikulecky, 2008, 1). The ability to read requires the ability of decoding the print and then grasping the unlocked language code. Simply, reading is a language-based activity. However, it requires non-language based skills such as decoding, which is a cognitive process (Flynn, Stainthorp, 2006).

There are two essential components of reading: decoding the words and comprehension of language. Decoding the words means reading the individual words out of context. Comprehension of language involves understanding of text, sentences and words. The aim in reading is the fact of understanding. Thus, reading comprehension holds a great importance. Althoughthe reading skill depends on word decoding and reading comprehension, the process is just not the sum of these two components. It is not a process of addition; it's more like multiplication: If one variable is zero then instead of reading ability, you get nothing. Due to that, it is

possible to say that if a reader cannot decode the words or he/she lacks comprehension skills, the person cannot read.

Grabe and Stoller claim that reading is not purposeless. According to them, the purposes for reading are (2002, 6):

1. Reading to search for simple information,
2. Reading to skim quickly,
3. Reading to learn from texts,
4. Reading to integrate information,
5. Reading to write (or search for information needed for writing),
6. Reading to critique texts,
7. Reading for general comprehension.

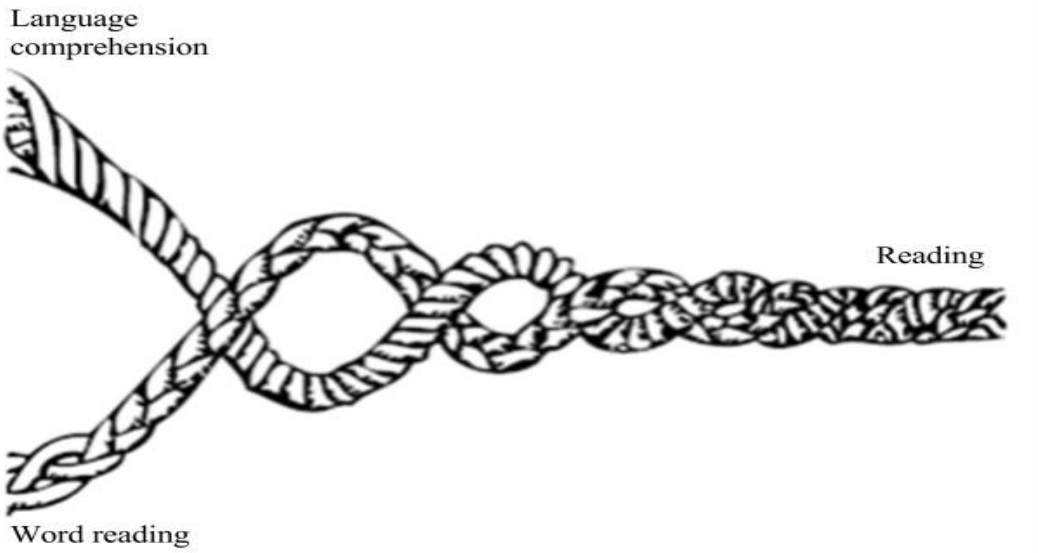

Figure 12: Word reading and language comprehension

Oakhill, Jane, Cain, Kate, Elbro, Carsten, **Understanding and Teaching Reading Comprehension: A Handbook** (New York: Routledge, 2015), 3.

In addition the purposes for reading, Grabe and Stoller (2002, 131) refer to some principles for effective reading instruction which are outlined in table 23.

Table 23: Curricular Principles for Reading Instruction

1. Integrate reading skill instruction with extensive practice and exposure to print
2. Use reading resources that are interesting, varied, attractive, abundant and accessible
3. Provide some degree of student choice
4. Introduce and practise reading skills by first drawing on the passages in course textbooks
5. Connect textbook readings to students' background knowledge
6. Structure lessons around pre-reading, during-reading and post-reading tasks
7. Provide opportunities for students to experience comprehension success
8. Build expectations that reading occurs in class in every lesson
9. Plan instruction around a curricular framework that integrates goals for the development of reading abilities. To do so, teachers should: a. Promote word recognition efficiency b. Assist students in building a large recognition vocabulary c. Create opportunities for comprehension skills practice d. Build students' text structure awareness e. Develop the strategic reader f. Build students' reading fluency g. Provide consistent extensive reading opportunities h. Motivate students to read i. Integrate content and language learning goals

Grabe, William, Peter, Fredricka L. Stoller **Teaching and Researching: Reading** (New York: Routledge, 2002), 131.

4.3.1. Teaching the Reading Skill

Reading requires automatic recognition skills. The readers should be able to identify the words and grammatical functions. This leads to the need for vocabulary and structural knowledge. Possessing a large vocabulary and structural knowledge helps to gain fluency. It is evident that they are acquired through reading. Also, the cultural

knowledge related to the text is relevant. Besides, it makes things easier for studens if they are aware of their goals for reading (Silberstein, 1993).

Nation (1992) compares individuals' reading in the first language and second language and claims that while reading in L1, the readers already know a lot about the sounds, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse, that's to say the language. Similarly, reading in L2 requires a vast knowledge of the target language. For this reason, readers of L2 should be provided controlled texts, and they need lots of pre-reading activities. Individuals who are new to L2 already read in their L1. It means that they already possess cognitive skills and they have attitudes and preconceptions of the process of reading. Thus, this situation suggests that they already have skills specific to language. On the other hand, these kinds of language specific skills may interfere or facilitate L1 and L2. Also, beginning readers of L2 are more mature than L1 beginning readers. This results in having more metacognitive and metalinguistic awareness. As a result, it is possible that L2 readers can use certain approaches and tools such as making use of a dictionary.

For an individual to learn reading in L2, the following components should be present:

1. Learners should be provided with considerable amount of extensive reading which involves pleasure.
2. Learners should be provided opportunity to explain their ideas and they should be instructed directly to strategically apply the skills they have to texts.
3. Learners should be provided the chance to be trained in and practice fluency development by making use of skimming, scanning and previewing.
4. There should be vocabulary activities of high-frequency words of the text. In addition, the learners should be provided with the occasion of using the target words and there should be plenty of extensive reading (Mikulecky, 2008).

4.3.2. Approaches, Strategies and Techniques to Teach the Reading Skill

While the aim is learning to read in the case of native language, it is reading for knowledge in the case of foreign language. So it can be said that there are also different strategies to be used to teach native and foreign language reading. According to Lau (2006), it is the characteristic of a good reader to use strategies to

read. In this regard, the language teacher should teach reading strategies to learners to achieve comprehension and become good readers.

Before clarifying which strategies are to be taught by language teacher and used by the language learner to carry out an effective reading lesson, it is fundamental to explore reading models. As in listening comprehension, there are three models in reading: the bottom-up, top-down and interactive models. They have the identical functions as in listening comprehension. In the bottom-up model, the reader starts by reading short parts in the paragraph to get the meaning, and that is why words, grammatical structure, and word order in a passage are given priority in this model. In the top-down model, the reader creates the meaning by using current world knowledge (Chou, 2008). The interactive model means not just using the bottom-up or top-down models. Instead, it is the active interaction of both the bottom-up and the top-down models to eliminate their constraints (Lubna, Sidek, 2015).

The theory is an advisor and a guide for a teacher to design the curriculum. As the accepted theoretical model in English language teaching in the Turkish curriculum is the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT), theories compatible with CLT should be applied in teaching reading skills. The interactive theory of second language reading, which is a CLT-related theory, has just been discussed. Another theory is the socio-cultural theory of teaching reading. In his collection called "Language as a Social Semiotic," Vygotsky mentions the social reality or culture in which language is learned within this socio-cultural context. Furthermore, Vygotsky asserts that language includes not only sentences but also text, communication and interpersonal framework (Wells, 2004).

In addition to that, the teacher applying the communicative approach in the classroom should teach reading in stages. This is also a necessity of schema theory. These stages are pre-reading, while reading and post reading. These stages are not independent phases; in contrast, each stage complements the others (Irmawati, 2012). Each stage has its own goals to be achieved to teach reading. Table 24 outlines the goals of each stage (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, 6).

Table 24: Goals at Each Stage of the Pre–During–Post Reading

Pre-Reading Stage	During-Reading Stage	Post-Reading Stage
• Establish reading purpose • Tap prior knowledge • Provide information needed for comprehension (e.g. vocabulary, background) • Set up expectations • Stimulate interest • Build confidence and motivation • Explain or support text organization • Model common strategies used at this stage	• Guide reading to facilitate comprehension • Help students construct meaning and monitor comprehension • Give students opportunities to connect what is read with what is known; to evaluate what is being read • Provide opportunities for fluency development • Support ongoing summarization • Model common strategies used at this stage	• Check comprehension • Explore how text organization supports comprehension • Consolidate learning • Provide opportunities for students to summarize, synthesize, evaluate, elaborate, integrate, extend and apply text information • Give students the chance to critique the author and aspects of the text (e.g. writing, content) • Establish and recognize comprehension successes • Model common strategies used at this stage

Grabe, William, Peter, Fredricka L. Stoller **Teaching and Researching: Reading** (New York: Routledge, 2002), 6.

As is evident from the table, each stage has its own goals. To teach the goals in each stage, there are activities to be carried out by the language teacher to teach reading. Stages and the events are clarified in detail below.

4.3.2.1. Pre-reading Stage

As the name suggests, the pre-reading stage is the beginning and readiness stage of teaching reading. As outlined in the table above, the pre-reading stage enables learners to refresh prior knowledge, be aware of reading aims, gain enthusiasm, etc. Furthermore, as an introduction stage, this stage is forming a schema process in which the reader's background knowledge and current knowledge interacts (Zan, 2012). "Comprehension is facilitated by explicitly introducing schemata through pre-

reading activities" (Zhang, 1993, 5). At this point, pre-reading provides motivation but also understanding.

In line with each stage's goals, lots of activities might be applied by the teacher in the pre-reading stage. In each reading activity, the learner comes across new information, visuals, situations, etc. First of all, the teacher poses questions to discover the learners' current knowledge about the reading texts. By providing feedback to questions formed by learners, the teacher also builds background knowledge and enables learners to relate prior and present knowledge. Furthermore, the pre-reading stage includes activities such as "discussing author or text type, brainstorming, reviewing familiar stories, considering illustrations and titles, skimming and scanning" (Toprak, Almacıoglu, 2009, 23). The teacher may also use pictures to encourage students to think about reading content, introduce vocabulary before reading and ask questions about the reading text (Thongyon, Chiramanee, 2011).

4.3.2.2. During-reading Stage

The pre-reading stage is a cognitive and affective preparation of the learner for the text. The during reading stage is about assisting and ensuring the learner understanding. At this stage, the teacher may use "examining a difficult paragraph, confirming predictions, clarifying comprehension, guessing new word meanings" (Grabe, Stoller, 2002, 133). To ensure learner's understanding of the text, the teacher may also use the questioning approach, "read for specific information; read for gist or general ideas of the text; deduce the meanings of certain words from a given context; infer the writer's intended message from a given context; recognize author's purpose and attitude" (Zan, 2012, 2437). In addition to that, the teacher may also apply some strategies to ensure students' understanding of the text. Skimming, scanning, discovering the main idea, summarizing, using both skimming and scanning, and encouraging thinking during reading are some of the strategies to be used by learners (Greiner, 2004). The teacher should also bear in mind that s/he is not the authority in the class. The teacher is the guide for learning. Hence, the teacher should ask questions, provide causal reasoning, make students think critically, and check students' understanding (Westwood, 2001).

4.3.2.3. Post-reading

Post-reading is the final phase of teaching reading and is also called after reading. In this phase, the teacher checks learners' understanding and reinforces learning. That is to say, this phase is the product phase of the pre and while reading phases. In this phase, students are expected to express what they have learned. "Well-designed after-reading activities usually require the learners to return to the text several times and to reread it to check on particular information of language use" (Wahjudi, 2010, 87). The teacher should carry out activities unique to this phase to stimulate them by providing feedback on what they have learned. "Summarizing, evaluating, confirming predictions, sorting, building vocabulary knowledge, highlighting key information" are among the activities to be carried out by the language teacher (Grabe, Stoller, 2002, 133). Mao (2012) states that the aim of the activities at this stage is to provide communicative output. Hence, the teacher should employ activities such as role playing and discussions to ensure group and pair work.

The teacher should also make use of questions at this stage of reading. However, questions asked at the post-stage of reading should be different from the questions raised in the pre-reading stage with respect to aims. As we have discussed in the pre-reading stage, the questions at this stage aim to bring about interaction between the current and background knowledge of the learner. The questions at the post-reading stage should encourage high-level thinking of the learners instead of just answering the basic issues at the end of the text in the book (Sunggingwati, Nguyen, 2013).

Johnson (2008) clarifies that reading is not taught. Instead, the learners are provided with the appropriate conditions by the teachers, and they develop their reading skills. The writer suggests some tips for creating the appropriate conditions for reading as follows.

Help children fall in love with books:

As reading is a kind of pleasurable act, a teacher should help students fall in love with books. With the help of books, students can experience success, failure, tragedy, triumph, moral dilemmas, romance, comedy, adventure or magic. Moreover, it is possible to go back and forth in time or travel to the edges of the galaxy by reading.

Create a space every day for sustained, silent reading. The more you practice, the better you get in reading. It resembles learning to play a musical instrument. One of

the best things for teaching reading is allowing students to have ten to sixty minutes of practice of uninterrupted silent reading every day. Also, providing real reading experiences helps intellectual development.

Allow children to make choices about their reading material:

In the growth of a reader, the choice of the material holds importance. Adults choose what they want to read, and they get the pleasure of reading these materials. It is funny to visualize a scene where adults go to a bookstore, and somebody assigns them in groups, makes them find a book of a certain level and yells at them for reading ahead. Accordingly, maybe not all the time but at least sometimes, students should be provided with the opportunity to choose what they want to read.

Connect reading pleasure to reading practice:

In the behaviorist point of view, if something is enjoyable, people tend to do it again. Just as giving instruction is important in teaching reading, making reading as pleasurable as possible is also important.

Keep your reading program simple:

These are the three most effective literacy instructional devices: good books, paper, and pencils. Anything more than these, such as making use of big words, flash cards and pictures, degrades the worth of the books.

Keep instruction simple:

Making things seem as simple as possible is a quality of a good teacher. In this sense, instead of resembling circus performers who make simple moves look difficult, teachers resemble gymnasts who can perform complicated moves and make them look simple.

Make reading like real life:

Adults read for pleasure or for understanding information and ideas. They never read for identifying the plot, conflict, and resolution of a story, for finding topic sentences of paragraphs, or for describing the purpose of the author. No scientific research shows that making students do these kinds of things enables them to improve reading ability. For this reason, the reading activities at school should be very much like the real life situations that adults come face to face with in real life.

Include talk and other forms of social interaction:

Social interaction and talk strengthen any type of learning. It is important for students to talk about what they read and convey their ideas about the material they are reading. By doing so, students connect the stories to real life.

Nation (1992) suggests the following principles for designing a reading program:

Meaning-focused input:

The reading activities should be done for a reading purpose such as searching for information, critiquing a text, or preparing for writing. Moreover, reading should take place with material appropriate to the proficiency level of the reader. Reading helps the learner develop proficiency. In this sense, the text should cover 98 percent of the vocabulary knowledge of the reader. The remaining 2 percent should be left for learning by guessing from context.

Meaning-focused output:

A relation between reading and the other skills should be established. There should be speaking, listening and writing activities related to the reading.

Language-focused learning:

The reading lessons should cover subskills for reading such as phonemic awareness, phonics, spelling, vocabulary learning and grammar study. Also, the learners should be provided with the opportunity to practice reading strategies such as setting a purpose, previewing, connecting to background knowledge, posing questions, guessing words from the context, and paying attention to text structure.

Development:

Developing fluency in reading should be encouraged. Speed reading practice in reading for understanding and in word recognition should be carried out by making use of speed reading, paired reading, skimming and repeated reading activities. Besides, it is important for learners to get pleasure from reading and be motivated to read. Students should be provided with interesting texts, and they should be guided to activities like independent reading, shared reading and listening to stories. With the help of monitoring through extensive reading or issue logs, learners should be encouraged to read a lot.

Lems, Miller, Soro (2010) provide word level strategies, phrase and sentence level strategies, paragraph and discourse level strategies, and metacognitive strategies for teaching reading.

Word Level Strategies

Whether native speakers or not, learners need to have lots of vocabulary knowledge to survive in their academic lives. However, it is not possible to teach them all the vocabulary they may feel the need for. On the other hand, there is no consensus on a method for teaching vocabulary to everybody. However, as vocabulary learning cannot be left to chance, some word-level learning strategies are needed.

Pre-teaching Vocabulary

Before reading a text, by making use of a field trip, film or pictures, pre-teaching vocabulary helps learners enhance knowledge. Pre-teaching vocabulary is clarifying the unknown vocabulary by oral activities in order to prepare the reader to get familiar with the words he/she may come across during reading.

Saying It with Pictures

Showing newly introduced words with pictures and providing the words in a context gives a great chance for students to internalize the meaning. Besides, if the students are given the opportunity to draw the word either by writing or physically demonstrating it, the level of retaining the word will go up significantly.

Word Cards/Word Banks/Word Rings

Preparing index cards with new words on one side and a picture, L1 translation and description on the other side will help students learn new words. Cards can be sorted according to different criteria and be kept in a box, or with a punched-hole, they can be slid onto a key ring.

Word Walls and Labelling

In cases where the teachers have their own classrooms, there is an opportunity to create word walls. The arrangement may vary and depends on preference. Pictures next to the words may be included.

The Keyword Method

The teacher encourages learners to create a mental image related to the meaning of the new word.

Making Daily Use of Dictionaries

Dictionaries are crucial resources for L2 learners if they are made use of properly.

Phrase and Sentence Level Reading Strategies

Punctuation

Punctuation marks can be considered as traffic lights of a language. They direct us when to slow down or stop. Punctuation marks are specific to languages. To help learners get the importance of punctuation, they should be directed to read the sentences aloud paying close attention to punctuation marks.

Signal Words, Transitions, and Connectors

Just like traffic signals, connectors also show directions to the readers and have the role of road signs. With the help of them, readers understand what is coming next and where the text is going.

Paragraph and Discourse Level Reading Strategies

Graphic Organizers

They are a way of visualization which we store knowledge in our brains. As they help to manage a huge deal of information in a concise way, graphic organizers are very useful for L2 learners. Semantic maps which are used for connecting a word with many associations are one kind of graphic organizer. Semantic maps help learners activate knowledge they already have before reading takes place. Another kind of graphic organizer is Venn Diagrams, in which overlapping circles help learners figure out common or contrasting aspects of ideas or items. Content Frames are another kind of graphic organizer. Different characteristics and qualities of target items are listed in frames.

Text Structure

It focuses on the way the writing is organized. It is related to the genre of the text. For example, text structure of an informal letter is significantly different from a

journal article. As readers become aware of different text structures, they create mental templates to recall what they learn from the text.

Visualization or Audio Imaging

With the help of visualization, people see the events of a story in their heads. Audio imaging also improves comprehension. Audio imaging is widely used in movies or TV series to give watchers a feeling. For example, the opening of the TV show Twilight Zone arouses the sense that something mysterious is going on.

Metacognitive Skills

Awareness of one's own way of thinking and learning is called metacognition. It is a human trait and cannot be acquired through education. However, the more an individual receives education, the more he/she develops metacognition.

Monitoring Comprehension

Once the reader realizes his/her comprehension has broken down, he/she attempts some things to get back on track. Rereading, retelling, paraphrasing, establishing the connection to our lives, looking for alternative explanations, checking the illustrations, asking ourselves questions, or looking backward or forward are example of these strategies. Thinking aloud is a way of making learners rehearse the strategy to comprehend the text as it helps learners build metacognitive awareness and gives teachers clues of the way the learners think.

Strategies Kick in at Different Times in L1 and L2

A learner may be able to use cognitive and metacognitive strategies while reading in L1. However, they may not use the same strategies in L2 because they have a literacy advantage in L1. Lems, Miller, Soro (2010) put forward that extensive reading is the best way of helping learners consolidate reading comprehension. They define extensive reading as reading a large amount of text for general comprehension. It helps with the acquisition of vocabulary, content knowledge, and genre knowledge.

Assessing the Reading Skill

The reasons for assessing reading skills are encouraging learning, monitoring progress and providing feedback, diagnosing problems, and measuring proficiency. Table 25 provides goals, purposes and means of reading assessment. (Nation, 1992, 75).

Table 25: Format for a Listening Lesson

Goals of Assessment	Purposes	Ways of Assessing
Motivate	Encourage learning	Reading logs Book reports Comprehension tests Speed reading graphs
Measure Achievement	Monitor progress Guide teaching Provide feedback to the learner Award a grade	Comprehension tests Speed reading graphs
Diagnose Problems	Isolate reading difficulties Provide focused help	Reading aloud Vocabulary tests Receptive grammar tests Translation Speed reading tests
Measure Proficiency	Award a grade See if standards are achieved	Comprehension tests Cloze tests Speed reading tests

Nation, I. S. P, **Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing** (New York: Routledge, 1992), 75.

National Institute for Literacy (2007) provides three types of reading assessment: Summative Assessments, Formative Assessments, and Diagnostic Assessments.

Summative Assessments

Summative assessments provide information to teachers on whether the classroom-level instructions have had the expected effect. End-of-chapter tests, quizzes, district or nation-wide tests, and standardized measures of reading are means of summative assessment. As summative assessments provide overall academic achievements of students, it is not possible to get information on individual student progress.

Formative Assessments

For a teacher, it is important to know the students' literacy needs to adapt the instruction. Teacher observation can measure student progress in literacy development through correcting the work of students and monitoring discussions. When the results of these measures are used to adapt instruction to student needs, they become formative assessment.

Diagnostic Assessments

With the help of diagnostic assessments, teachers gain a more individualized insight into students' weaknesses and strengths. After measuring, assessing and evaluating the reading skills of a student, appropriate content and learning activities specific to the individual are identified. This type of assessment is administered, scored and interpreted by a school psychologist, special education teacher or reading specialist.

4.4. The Writing Skill

Flynn and Stainthorp (2006) defend that the common purpose of all the writing systems is that they provide a visual representation of language (one exception to this is the Braille alphabet). With the help of writing, people can communicate their ideas through words on the page. Just like the necessity of both the speaker and the listener sharing the same spoken language, there is a requirement that both the writer and the reader share the same orthographic system.

Compared to reading, writing is more difficult. Due to this, learning to write is significantly more difficult that learning to read. Writing is an example of the way humans process information. It greatly depends on the cognitive system. Besides, it is important that writing has a communicative function. The main reason to write is to communicate (Flynn, Stainthorp, 2006).

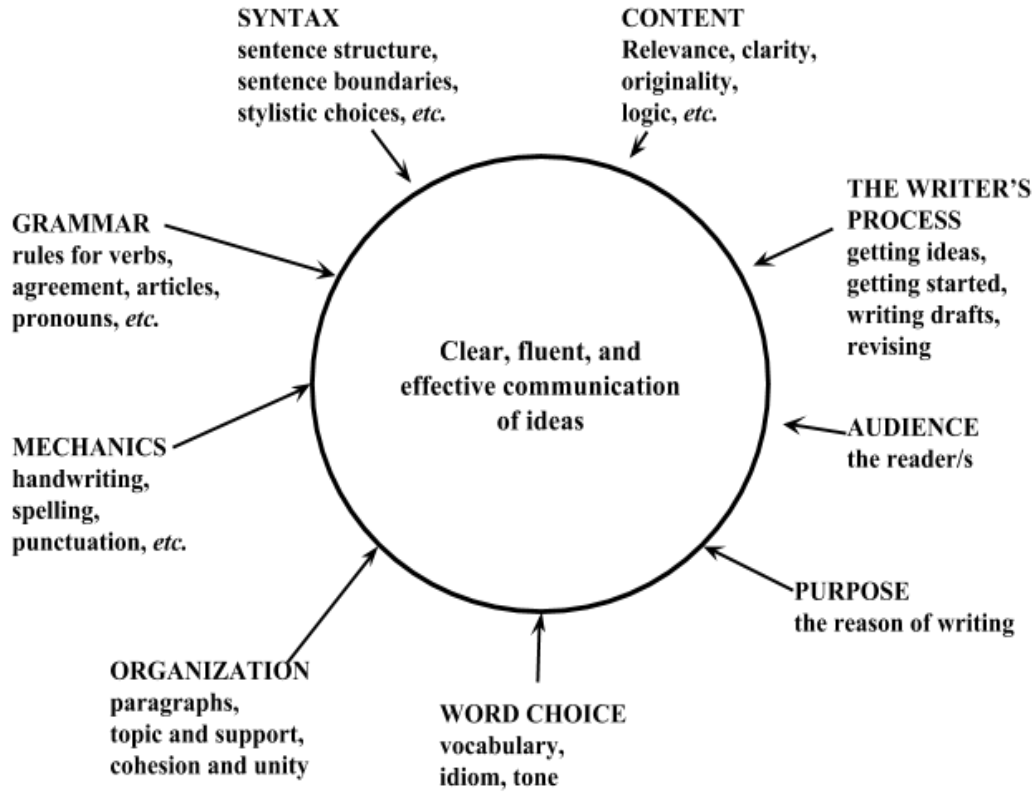

Figure 13: Producing a Piece of Writing

Raimes, Ann, Techniques **in Teaching Writing** (New York: Oxford University Press, 1983), 6.

4.4.1. Teaching the Writing Skill

The main reason for learning another language is to communicate with other people. Although writing holds importance in communication, there is another important reason for teaching writing: Writing helps students learn. The writing process reinforces vocabulary, idioms, and grammatical structures. Moreover, the effort of writing involves constant use of the brain, hand, and eye, which is a great way of reinforcing learning. There is a close relation between thinking and writing (Raimes, 1983). There are multiple reasons, socio-cultural contexts, and educational purposes for learning writing. L1 background knowledge of students affects L2 writing skill. It is possible to say that the writing skill is characterized by the social and cultural context (Manchón, 2009).

According to Palmer (2011), when compared to writing, the most noticeable difference of speaking is that human beings are hard-wired for speech. From the earliest years of life, a person listens to the others around and copies the sounds and words he/she hears. On the other hand, reading and writing are culture bound, and these two skills need to be taught. Although spoken language is interactive and spontaneous and can be supported by body language, the audience of written language is unknown and unseen. In some cases, it is possible that the audience of the written material does not have any background information on the subject. It means that written language needs to be explicit and carefully crafted. Because of this, the mental effort involved in the writing process is much more than that involved in speaking.

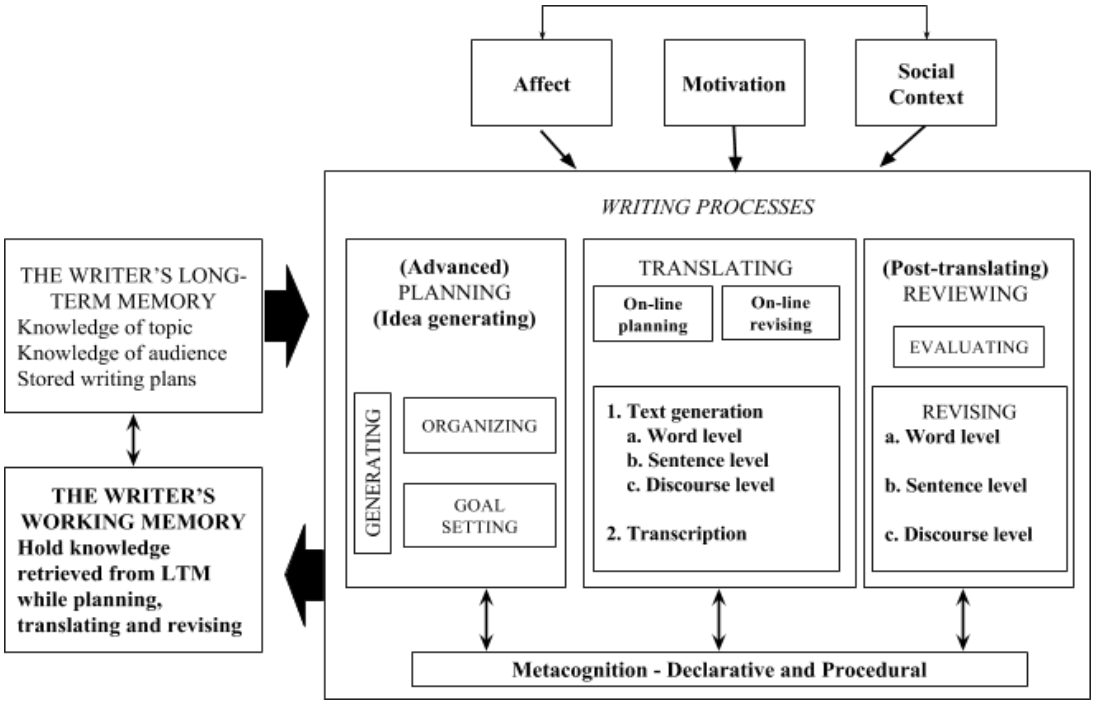

Figure 14: Modification of the Hayes-Flower Model for Beginning and Developing Writing

Flynn, Naomi, Rhona Stainthorp, **The Learning and Teaching of Writing and Writing** (West Sussex: Wiley, 2006), 59.

Although there are numerous theories to support teaching writing, it is possible to group these theories according to their focus:

- language structures
- text functions
- themes or topics
- creative expression
- composing processes
- content
- genre and contexts of writing

Depending on the way their students learn, teachers adopt various approaches with different orientations. Most teachers do not strictly follow one particular theory (Richards, 2003).

Approaches, Strategies and Techniques to Teach the Writing Skill

Johnson (2008) defends that there are five steps of writing:

Prewriting

It is aimed to generate ideas. It is possible to make use of power writing, conversation with a neighbor, silent thinking, outlining, brainstorming and listing to generate ideas.

Drafting

It is the first attempt of the writer to put his/her ideas on the paper. Quantity is more important than quality in this step. Only the ideas that the writer observes as important are taken to the next step.

Revising

The piece of writing is shaped in this phase. The writer adds parts, takes parts away, and continually shapes the work. The paragraphs are reread, and things are moved around. It wouldn't be wrong to call this phase as heart of the writing process.

Editing

Punctuation, spelling and grammar errors are corrected at this stage. It is important not to include this step in the former three steps. The effort to correct these kinds of errors should be kept away from the prewriting, drafting and revising steps.

Publishing and Sharing

It is the step where the written material is shared with the audience. With this step, the written material becomes alive and real. The written text may be put in a school or class magazine, school or class newspaper or displayed in the hall.

Raimes (1983) claims that as there are many teachers and teaching styles, and learners and learning styles, there is no one answer to the question of how to teach writing. The following approaches attempt to explain various ways to teach writing.

The Controlled-to-Free-Approach

With the domination of the audio-lingual method in 1950's and 1960's, teachers developed techniques to move students to mastery of grammatical and syntactic forms. This approach is sequential: first sentence exercises are given, then paragraphs to modify by changing singular to plural or changing the tense of the sentences are given. The operation is strictly prescribed and the possibility to make errors is significantly reduced. Until the students reach high- intermediate or

advanced levels, they are not allowed to express their ideas. This approach emphasizes accuracy, not fluency or originality. Grammar, syntax, and mechanics hold great importance in this approach.

The Free-Writing Approach

The emphasis is on the amount of writing rather than the quality of work. According to this approach, the students shouldn't worry about the form, and they should write as much as they can. After the ideas are transferred to paper, grammatical accuracy, organization, and the rest will follow.

The Paragraph-Pattern Approach

This approach stresses the organization of the written material. Students copy paragraphs and analyse the model of paragraphs; then they imitate the model passages. Scrambled sentences are put together to form paragraphs. This approach claims that the organization of the text is culture dependent. So, even if the students can write their ideas in L1 well, there is still need to analyse and practice paragraphs in L2 to grasp the cultural aspects of organizing a text.

The Grammar-Syntax-Organization Approach

Writing is not composed of separate skills. The writing task requires students to pay attention to organization as well as grammar and syntax. Only knowing appropriate vocabulary about the topic is not enough for producing text.

The Communicative Approach

The purpose of writing and the audience is important. Students are made to ask the following questions to themselves: "Why am I writing this?" and "Who will read this?" With this approach, the readers of the students are not only the teachers. Teachers following this approach make other students or people outside the classroom read the students' writings. The heart of the approach is providing real contexts for students.

The Process Approach

Rather than the written product, the emphasis is on the process of writing. Students explore a topic with the help of writing. Writing is a process of discovery of new ideas and new language forms.

4.4.2. Assessing the Writing Skill

The reasons for assessing writing skills are motivating, improving the quality of writing, diagnosing problems and measuring proficiency.

Table 26: Goals, purposes and means of writing assessment

Goals of Assessment	Purposes	Ways of Assessing
Motivating	Increase amount of writing Develop a love of writing	Positive feedback on the content Publication of the writing
Improving the Quality of Writing	Improve the written product Improve control of the writing process	Peer feedback Conferencing Marking of errors Analytic assessment Use of checklists Self-assessment
Diagnosing Problems	Find poorly controlled parts of the writing process	Analysis of the product Observation of the process
Measuring Proficiency	Award a grade	Holistic assessment Analytic assessment Assessment of a portfolio

Nation, I. S. P, **Teaching ESL/EFL Reading and Writing** (New York: Routledge, 1992), 138.

According to Raimes (1983), writing assessment is done through:

Written Comments

The writing should be read from the top to the bottom first, before writing anything on it. What students have done well is noted first. Following the appraisal, it is time to show students what needs to be improved: specific suggestions that students can

follow step by step should be noted down on the paper. Another option is to use questions instead of suggesting what to do.

Talking About the Paper

Although extremely time-consuming and not practical, discussing the writing with him/her in person is one of the best ways of helping a student revise his/her writing. Sometimes it is only possible to discover what the student tried to say if the teacher talks to the student about the writing.

Checklists

Editing checklists can be used both by the teacher and by the student. For grammar items, cumulative checklists can be used. Items in the checklist can cover questions related to the form of the text or instructions on grammar.

Students' Responses to Student Writing

Making use of checklists, students can read and assess other students' writings. With the help of specific and clear instructions on what to look for and what to do, students can become useful draft readers.

Self-Editing

Developing the ability to read one's own writing and critical examination is desired. Students need to know not only what and how to check but also when to do it.

Richards (2003) puts forward that there are five main reasons to assess writing:

Placement

It provides information for teachers to put students into appropriate classes. These tests may also function as diagnostic tools.

Diagnostic

It is aimed to identify strengths and weaknesses in the students' writing. Also, it can be used to identify the areas where remedial action is needed and to help teachers to adjust the course accordingly.

Achievement

The aim is to show the students the progress they made in the course. Assessment focuses on the progress, not on failure. The results are used for making decisions on course improvement.

Performance

Real-life performance is used as a measure. In real-world settings, students are expected to perform to reach the target.

Proficiency

In order to provide certification for university, employment, etc. the general level of students' competence is measured. It is not based on a particular writing course or it does not measure a specific writing skill. The aim is to give an overall picture of ability. Generally, globally standardized tests such as TOEFL and IELTS are used.

4.5. Language Teacher Knowledge Components

Each discipline has its specifications and qualifications, even in the context of majors and subjects. History, Math and Geography, all have their unique content. Similarly, English language teaching as a foreign language also has its unique content that may be called subject matter knowledge. Here, subject matter knowledge means "English Language content area" knowledge. Unique to this study, it means "English language skills" knowledge. But teacher knowledge does not just consist of subject matter knowledge. Guess-Newsome (2014, 12) introduces two models of teacher knowledge.

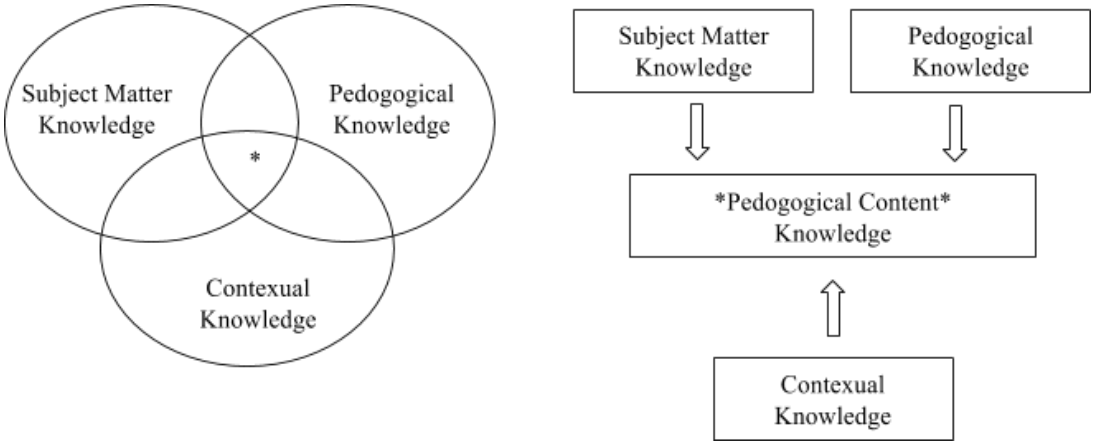

Figure 15: Models of Teacher Knowledge

Guess- Newsome, Julie, **Pedagogical Content Knowledge: An Introduction and Orientation (Ed. Julie Guess- Newsome & Norman, G Lederman).** Examining Pedagogical Content Knowledge (New York: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 2002), 12.

As is seen in the figure, there are also other kinds of knowledge bases such as pedagogical content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Day (1991) points to the types of support knowledge as the bases for an effective language teacher. Unlike Newsome, Day divides knowledge bases of knowledge categories for teachers into four categories, which is represented in Figure 16.

Figure 16: Categories of Knowledge

Day, Richard, R. 1991. Models and the Knowledge Base of Second Language Teacher Education. **University of Hawai'i Working Papers in ESL**, v. 11. n.2: 1- 13), 2.

Content knowledge corresponds to the knowledge of subject matter. Pedagogical knowledge includes knowledge (motivation, assessment, methods, techniques of classroom management) about teaching content knowledge. Pedagogical content knowledge is a particular knowledge related to teaching content knowledge to provide easy understanding for students. Support knowledge is other disciplines supporting content knowledge such as second language acquisition and linguistics (Day, 1991). Unlike Newsome (2014), Day (1991) additionally includes another category of knowledge called "support knowledge."

Shulman sorts teacher knowledge into the following categories: "content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, curriculum knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, knowledge of learners, knowledge of educational context, knowledge of educational purposes, values of their philosophical and historical grounds" (1987, 8). Blömeke and Delaney suggest a professional competence model for teachers involving two aspects (2014):

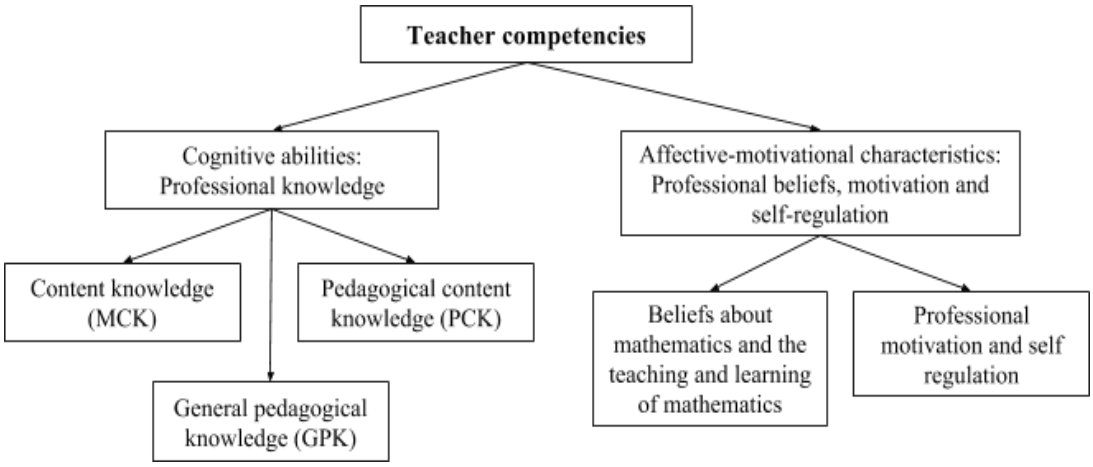

Figure 17: Professional Competence of Teachers

Blömeke, Sigrid, Séan Delaney, **International Perspectives on Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs and Opportunities to Learn. In Blömeke, Hsieh, Kaiser, Schmidt (Eds.),** Assessment of Teacher Knowledge across Countries: A Review of the State of Research (New York: Springer Science, 2014), 541-592.

As can be seen in Figure 17, Blömeke and Delaney divide teacher competence into cognitive abilities and affective-emotional characteristics. Content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge are placed under professional knowledge. Beliefs about content (teaching and learning), motivation and self-regulation are placed under affective-emotional characteristics.

Lee Schulman in 1986 first came up with the concept of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Schulman defined PCK as a specific knowledge to teach and structure subject matter knowledge (Driel, Berry, 2010). Support knowledge is also a term used by Day. In his article titled "Models and the knowledge base of second language teacher education", Day describes support knowledge as "the knowledge of the various disciplines that inform our approach to the teaching and learning of English; e.g., psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, research methods" (1991,4). As the name suggests, it is a knowledge base reinforcing content knowledge. Pedagogical knowledge, which is also called teacher knowledge, is about teaching and includes strategies, principles and aims to direct teaching in the classroom (Fernando Macias, 2013). It is clear that pedagogical knowledge is a significant instrument to reinforce, strengthen, enhance and improve teaching content knowledge and its quality.

These knowledge bases are critical tools for teachers teaching English as a foreign language to be successful and effective (Wongsopawiro, 2012). In the teaching process, none of the knowledge bases is sufficient on its own; on the contrary, each supports the others. But it is clear that both content knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge have an impact upon effective teaching, higher student achievement and quality of instruction (Loughran, Mitchell, Mithell, 2003; Brant, 2006; Parker, Heywood, 2013; OECD, 2014). That is why both content knowledge, specific to language skills, and general pedagogical knowledge have been studied together to understand teacher effectiveness implicitly and clearly.

4.5.1. Pedagogical Knowledge

The teaching profession was described in article 43 of the basic law of national education as a specialized profession carrying out education, training and administrative tasks related to it (MoNE, 1973). In this law, it was also stated that teachers should have knowledge such as general, subject area and pedagogical knowledge. Furthermore, current regulations and approaches adopted in teaching activities also require teachers to employ pedagogic knowledge in their instruction in both Turkey and Poland. Pedagogical knowledge is the knowledge area particular to the teaching profession. It may also be called a tool to be applied by a teacher to convey, transfer or teach content knowledge to the students because having content knowledge and teaching are not the same thing. To teach a subject or content, it is necessary to know about educational methods, principles, techniques, psychology, social relations, etc. In other words, pedagogical knowledge is about how to teach the subject area knowledge or English language skills unique to this study. In short, content knowledge is about what to teach; pedagogical knowledge is about how to teach. In other words, according to the essential elements of the curriculum, language skills knowledge is about content while pedagogical knowledge is about curriculum experience. The curriculum experience stage requires the teacher to use instructional strategies and methods. Hence, pedagogical knowledge is employed by effective teachers (Education Review Office, 2004). In that case, it can also be said that teachers applying pedagogical knowledge may also be called “effective teachers”. At this point, the qualities of effective teachers will also be discussed.

Pedagogical knowledge is divided into two parts as, general pedagogical knowledge and personal pedagogical knowledge. General pedagogical knowledge also can be divided into components such as classroom management and organization, instructional models and strategies, and classroom communication and discourse (Gess-Newsome, Lederman, 2002).

4.5.2. Classroom Management and Organization

The teaching profession is a multidimensional occupation. It includes not only knowledge and planning but also teaching and organizing the learning environment and managing it. As a classroom hosts more than one person, classroom management constitutes an essential part of the teaching-learning process to reach instructional objectives. Because the better the teacher organizes the classroom and forms an appropriate learning environment, the more is excellent the course is and the more learning occurs. To teach a high-quality lesson, the teacher needs to apply classroom management skills, and this is also an indicator of the effective teacher (Gordon, 2001; Marzano, Marzano, Pickering, 2003; Stronge, 2007; Tauber, 2007). Evertson and Weinstein (2006, 4) define classroom management "as the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning". It is evident from the definition that classroom management is not only about academic learning but also about social-emotional learning. Social-emotional learning involves the noncognitive dimension of education that is essential for students' achievement in this era (Hamadani, Darling-Hammond, 2015).

Evertson and Weinstein further clarify the necessity of following guidelines for exemplary classroom management: "(1) develop caring, supportive relationships with and among students; (2) organize and implement instruction in ways that optimize students' access to learning; (3) use group management methods that encourage students' engagement in academic tasks; (4) promote the development of students' social skills and self-regulation; and (5) use appropriate interventions to assist students with behavior problems" (2006, 5). Additionally, Stonge (2007) states that engaging students in defining classroom rules and applying them fairly for each student, keeping students' motivation for learning, organizing the learning environment, foreseeing inappropriate behaviors and minimizing them, and being interested and excited to teach are among the classroom management skills. To

avoid disruption in the classroom, Lewis (2009) suggests keeping the momentum of the lesson, keeping students' curiosity by being eager to teach, sharing the responsibility of learning with students by having them check and give feedback on homework, and finally decreasing the inappropriate behavior are characteristics of the classroom where appropriate behaviors occur. Stronge (2007) also puts emphasis on assigning, checking and reviewing homework. What is more, providing feedback is more important than the frequency and quantity of homework. However, feedback provided should not be general; on the contrary, it should be suitable to each student's individual development needs (Black, William, 1998)

Besides, Cangelosi (2014) states classroom management strategies include using time effectively in the classroom, promoting cooperation and interaction, having active student and family relationships, defining classroom rules and applying them, beign aware of students' individual differences and diversity, including students in the learning process, and handling misbehaviors efficiently. However, as mentioned before, in addition to classroom management and organization, pedagogical knowledge also comprises instructional models and strategies, and classroom communication and discourse.

4.5.3. Instructional Models and Strategies

Lots of things are involved in teaching activity. The teacher needs to prepare for lessons, manage the classroom, organize the learning environment, have a positive relationship with students, etc. But in the end, these are instruments for instruction, not instruction itself. In other words, these activities might be called preparation or beginning the process for lessons. After these have been completed, the real activity of teaching begins. Stronge (2007) defines this cycle as implementing instruction. Selecting and using appropriate instructional models and strategies depend on taking into account several variables such as general cognitive level of the class, students' prior knowledge level on the subject, students' motivation status (internal or external) and interests, content, instructional goals, individual differences of learners, time, resources etc. (Stronge, 2007). These factors prove that adopting just one kind of model or strategy for instruction is not sufficient to reach and teach each student as the teacher addresses multiple students in the class. Besides, the constructivist theory of teaching and humanistic teaching approach prioritize and give the

responsibility of learning to the student, instead of the teacher. Accordingly, students are in the center of the learning activity, and they construct their learning from their experiences and also by participating in the activities in the learning environment. In the learner-centered class, students present their opinion, justify it and also criticize and discuss others' opinions. As a result, all these factors require the teacher to vary instructional models and strategies. Varying and using appropriate teaching strategies and allocating each student equal time is a characteristic of an effective teacher. This is also called differentiated instruction (Tomlinson, 1999; Stronge, 2007). In the differentiated classroom, the teacher is required to devote effort to include each student in the instruction, to use time flexibly, to adjust instruction according to each class instead of using a one size fits all motto, to be aware of individual differences, to show respect and give extra time to learners who have learning difficulties, to use formative assessments such as small-group and whole class discussions, and to give multi-option homework assignments. There are various types of groups such as learning cycle groups, cooperative groups, group investigation, peer tutoring, and long-term ability groups that might be used for instruction. Instructional grouping is employed to provide all students an opportunity to learn, to boost students' engagement in learning, to provide and teach collaboration of students, and to increase student communication and motivation. More effective teachers use and benefit from more than one grouping. In addition to that, findings prove that instructional grouping provides effective teaching and student accomplishment, empathy, and a positive attitude to school (Ward, 1987; Zurita, Naussbaum, Salinas, 2005). But the teacher should also use assessment results, readiness, interest and the learning profile of learners to make necessary changes in content, process and product. Furthermore, a teacher teaching in the differentiated classroom is also required to include students in forming the class rules and defining the process. One of the advantages of this activity is that students feel free to share their ideas and difficulties in learning and discuss them with the teacher (Tomlinson, 1999; Stronge, 2007). Therefore, students are not only included in the learning process but also feel free to share learning difficulties.

However, students are not at school all day long, and they spend their remaining time out of school. Outside of school time, students spend most of their time with their parents. In addition to that, parents also put forth for their children's education.

Therefore, parents are a critical part of the teaching and learning process. Hence, the teacher is responsible for collaborating with parents and including the parents in the instructional process of the students. “Parental involvement in schools can help children develop socially, emotionally, cognitively and academically” (Nunan, 2005, 167). However, most teachers complain about the lack of the parental involvement and support. The literature claims that parental involvement increases the academic success of secondary school students (Jeynes, 2011; Mutodi, Ngirande, 2014). In addition to that, parental involvement enhances parents’ attitude toward the school, student behavior and performance, teacher mood, school atmosphere, parent-student communication and student school attendance disturbing behavior of students (Hornby, 2000; Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, Holbein, 2005). But it is not possible to involve all the parents in the instructional process. As there are students with a wide range of characteristics in the class, there are also parents who are educated and uneducated, interested and uninterested, motivated and unmotivated, supportive and unsupportive, etc. As a matter of course, it should not be expected all parents provide equal support for their children. However, it is clear that the more the parents are informed, the more they are aware of the importance of parental support (Jeyne, 2011).

Instructional pacing and step-by-step instruction are important aspects of the teaching process. Instructional pacing refers to how quickly a lesson progresses. It is even as important as using instructional models and strategies according to the level of students in each class. As each classroom includes students with various kinds of characteristics, prior knowledge, interest, readiness, motivation and mood, the teacher should give importance to the pace of instruction. When a teacher does not succeed in including students in the activities, does not give any direction, and ignores the pace of students’ ability to learn, even the best models and strategies during instruction might be ineffective because the teacher’s instructional planning starts with recognizing the current level of the students in each class. Hence, it is essential for an effective teacher to prepare an instructional plan and teach according to each class, setting the pace of instruction and engaging each student in the learning process. To determine pacing in a class, the teacher should take into account the prior knowledge of students, competences and difficulty of materials used (Morrison et al., 2011). However, it is not an easy job to balance the pacing in a multi-characteristic

classroom. There are also factors affecting the pacing of a classroom such as assignment distributions, transitions from subject to subject and task to task, organizing activities for early finishers and presenting the new content according to the attention level of students (Marzano, Peckering, 2010).

4.5.4. Classroom Communication and Discourse

As human beings, communication constitutes an integral part of our daily life as we communicate by verbalizing the things that we think, and we act accordingly. The same reality is valid for the learning environment, and it is even more important to ensure its quality. Communication between teacher and students takes part at the outset of the teaching learning process. Communication caters good teacher-student and student-student relationships and then it provides a basis for effective instruction as the better communication is, the greater the motivation for learning. This is because communication not only includes speech but also seeing, listening, smelling, touching and tasting, which are integral components for learning. In a learning environment, depending on the topic taught, sometimes a visual is better than a verbal expression. However, frequently teachers prefer verbal communication as it is the easiest and the most convenient kind of communication. In addition to that, a good communicator is not only a speaker but also a listener. In this sense, the teacher should be a good listener of students to understand them. What is more, listening to students carefully makes students feel valuable as well.

Most of the educational theorists emphasize the importance of verbal communication in learning. According to Lev Vygotsky's social development theory of learning, learning is a social activity. Vygotsky suggested Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is frequently referred to in second language learning studies. ZPD is a kind of intellectual support supplied by a more efficient person to a less efficient person. In ZPD, Vygotsky lays emphasis on the importance of collaboration and help provided to the student by the teacher in the learning process. ZPD consists of three forms: generality assumption, assistance assumption, potential assumption. Generality assumption suggests with collaboration a person performs more than one task. Assistance assumption explains how a competent person should provide support. Potential assumption suggests providing the most accessible learning for the learner (Kozulin et al., 2003).

On the other hand, communication in the learning environment should not be only one way, such as from teacher to student, from student to teacher or from student to student. On the contrary, communication should be the multidirectional and enable correction, discussion, criticism, and feedback. Feedback is the response of a person presented negatively and positively to another person during and after the action. It is an instrument to promote learning. Feedback provided by the teacher in the classroom should be on time. Feedback should be provided as soon as possible after the event or activity of the student. In addition to that, as each student has his own way of learning and different characteristics, feedback should be provided according to the current level, motivation, and foreknowledge of a student. The teacher's feedback should also be provided in a positive way and should trigger and motivate the student to learn (Race, 2001; Brookhart, 2008). According to the circumstances, the teacher may prefer to use positive or corrective feedback strategies. Positive feedback might be a repetition of a student's correct answer or rephrasing the student reply to deepen it. Corrective feedback aims to show the student his/her incorrect answer. Table 27 presents the kinds of corrective feedback and paragraph below provides an explanation.

Table 27: Corrective Feedback Strategies

Corrective Feedback Strategies	
Giving-Answer Strategies (GAS)	Prompting-Answer Strategies (PAS)
Repetition	Meta-linguistic cues
Recast	Clarification requests
Explicit correction	Elicitation
Give answer	

Anita Ferraire, Johanna D. Moore, Chris Mellish.2007. **A Study of Feedback Strategies in Foreign Language Classrooms and Tutorials with Implications for Intelligent Computer-Assisted Language Learning Systems** (International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education), 392-393.

Corrective feedback strategies consist of two types of strategies: giving an answer and prompting an answer. In giving-answer strategies of feedback, one approach is the teacher demonstrates the student's error by stressing the error, which is called repetition. In recast, the teacher reformulates the student's answer partially or totally. In an explicit correction, as is clear from the name, the student's error is corrected directly. In giving-answer feedback, the teacher does not provide the correct answer; instead, the teacher just completes the student's sentence that he/she has difficulty in finalizing. In prompting-answer strategies, the teacher aims to motivate the student to realize the error. Prompting-answer strategies include meta-linguistic cues, clarification requests, and elicitation. In meta-linguistic cues, the teacher aims to make the student think about whether the answer is correct or not by giving information or asking questions. In clarification requests, by asking questions, the teacher aims to make the student recognize his/her error. In elicitation, to find the correct answer, the student completes the teacher's sentence (Ferraire, Moore, Mellish, 2007).

In addition to oral feedback, feedback might also be given in written form. In written feedback, the teacher provides feedback to projects, assignments, and formative assessments such as short tests quizzes and exams. The teacher should also take into

account the tone of language used while giving written feedback. As in the teaching process, the teacher should be a guide and contributor, instead of being the authority or the boss. Using the appropriate tone is more important in giving written feedback than oral feedback as oral feedback includes gestures, mimics, and other nonverbal signals to convey the message. Additionally, written feedback should also be clear and precise for students to understand it quickly (Brookhart, 2008).

4.6. Personal Pedagogical Knowledge

Personal pedagogical knowledge is the pedagogy of the teacher. But the question is, what knowledge areas does it include? Personal pedagogical knowledge involves not only content knowledge but also a self-constructed knowledge created as a result of personal teaching experience. It is more than the theory; it is about the practice of teaching (Sinikka, 1993). Indeed, personal pedagogical knowledge is a kind of knowledge formed based on the teacher's teaching experiences over time. Below, Table 28 summarizes the knowledge areas of personal pedagogical knowledge.

Table 28: Personal Pedagogical Knowledge

Personal pedagogical knowledge	
Conceptual knowledge	Metacognitive knowledge
Construction	

Ojenen, Sinikka.1993. **A Process in Which Personal Pedagogical Knowledge is Created through the Teacher Education Experience**.(https://goo.gl/XRHTrF),4.

Conceptual knowledge includes subject matter knowledge. Depending on the major of the teacher, it might be geography, mathematics, or history; however, in the framework of this study it is English language skills knowledge. Metacognitive knowledge is self-consciousness and personal knowledge. Construction is the link between previous and continuing knowledge, knowledge formed as a result of experience (Sinikka, 1993). As is clear in Table 28, to develop personal pedagogical knowledge, there are some requirements for the teacher: conceptual knowledge,

metacognitive knowledge, time and also practice. It is not likely that personal pedagogical knowledge is just formed theoretically. Practice and metacognition of the teacher are essential. It is like growing and maturing in developmental psychology. Graduating with a teaching degree can be said to resemble growing. There is no practice and experience, just the knowledge. As maturation is the prerequisite for learning, for personal pedagogical knowledge, the prerequisites are practicing, experience and metacognition.

In addition to having an appropriate degree, practice, and metacognition, teachers also need to have some personal characteristics. It is not only a need but also a necessity for a teacher for some reasons. For instance, as teaching is an interactional and social activity involving human beings, it is a necessity for a teacher to follow the rules of social life and also be a model for students. As is known, students not only learn by hearing and reading but also by seeing and observing. Particularly during puberty, students are prone to take a person as a model. Therefore, the responsibility of the teacher increases as most of the students at high school take their teachers as models. There are even some students who want to study the teaching profession as a result of taking their teachers as models. It is commonly known that a student first likes his/her teacher and then enjoys the teacher's lessons.

In the classroom, which is a social environment, students not only learn from each other but also from their teachers as well. In his theory of social learning, Bandura indicates that at the core of learning there is the observation and taking model. This truth also reflects the significance of a teacher's personal characteristics on students' cognitive and affective development. So, what is personality? It is "the personal qualities or characteristics that are possessed by individuals, including attitudes, beliefs, interests, appreciations, values, and modes of adjustment" (Taylor, Wasicsko, 2000, 2). Regulation of secondary education institutions in Turkey lays emphasis on teachers' characteristics and states that "the teacher serves as a model for the students with the attitudes and behaviors" (1961, 38). It is clear from the literature that personal characteristics of a teacher have an effect on student academic performance in a positive or negative way depending on the characteristics. If a teacher has positive characteristics, it also has a positive effect on student academic performance (Garcia, Kupczynski, Holland, 2011; Ulug, Ozden, Eryılmaz, 2011; Nhlanhla, Thubelihle, 2014).

A qualitative study carried out by Walker (2008) suggests that the teacher should have certain personal and professional characteristics. The first one is preparedness for teaching. This qualification also includes using time efficiently, achievement of student engagement and punctuality (Walker, 2008). Being positive, which includes being optimistic, informing students about their progress and providing praise when necessary, is also a necessary characteristic of a teacher. Having high expectations for students is another characteristic of an effective teacher (Goa, Liu, 2013). Perhaps, nowadays this is one of the most important characteristics of a teacher as there are lots of distractions demotivating students. Hence, it is crucial for a teacher to believe each student can achieve and also to convince each student of this. Of course, this situation requires a teacher to be extraordinary and to adopt a variety of styles. That is to say, to be creative. To do that the teacher may also benefit from technology. As the teacher is also a manager and is responsible for managing the class during the teaching process, the teacher should provide equal time and opportunity for each student to be fair. The teacher should also appeal to the inner world of students by chatting, sharing experiences and spending time with them during the class time or in the breaks. As stated previously, in contrast to being the boss in the class, the teacher should be a guide and a collaborator for teaching. Hence, students should feel comfortable, and relaxed during lessons. It is the task of a teacher to establish such a learning environment and incorporate students in the learning process. This is also a feature of a constructivists teaching environment as it involves engaging students in broad and purposeful learning (Rikers, Gog, Paas, 2008). Moreover, the teaching profession requires a teacher to be kind as the profession involves working with human beings. This also necessitates making teaching time fun. This is especially valid for teaching teenagers as they are prone to be angry and aggressive because of the developmental period they are in (Gentile, Orue, 2012). Another important matter that the teacher should take into account in the context of the developmental period of teenagers is being sensitive to students' feelings and showing students respect. The teacher should also forgive student mistakes as they are still maturing and also admit his/her own mistakes (Walker, 2008). In addition to general personal characteristics of teachers, there are also characteristics of good English language teachers. Park and Lee (2006) list these characteristics as competently teaching the four language skills by using appropriate visual and audio materials, making assessments, minimizing the anxiety of language

learning and implementing the rules consistently. This description fits the knowledge areas of a teacher as it includes qualifications about cognitive knowledge areas (content, pedagogical content and general content knowledge). Furthermore, it is certain that there are also factors affecting teachers'professional knowledge, beliefs, and motivation. To clarify this, educational stages that a teacher participated in from the past to the present beginning from pre-service education and continuing to current training should be explored.

4.7. Factors Influencing Teacher Effectiveness

In general, knowledge bases of a teacher consist of content, pedagogical content and general pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 1987; Day, 1991; Blömeke, Delaney, 2014; Newsome, 2014). It is crucial to define the terminology to be used to label teacher qualification in the pre and in-service process. In the literature, three terms occur: teacher training, teacher education, and formation. Teacher training is solution focused and envisages giving specific and practical instruction. The term teacher education, on the other hand, concentrates more on the theoretical assumptions. The French origin term formation is the one which includes both teacher training and education. The three terms cover the pre-service and in-service developmental activities. In this study, the term teacher education will be utilized for pre-service education, and the term teacher training will be utilized for in-service training activities (Widdowson, 1997). To discover the exact factors influemcing teacher effectiveness, it is essential to explore the processes in the stages that teacher is involved in before and after teaching. According to the literature, there is a strong relation between teacher education and student achievement. As a result, two prominent stages confront us: pre-service and in-service education and training. In the context of pre-service education, there are also sub-factors that have an effect on teacher effectiveness such as characteristics of teacher educators, the teacher education program, the social, schooling and policy context, experience and professional development. Figure 18 illustrates the social, schooling and policy context and teacher knowledge relation (Blömeke, Delanay, 2014, 541).

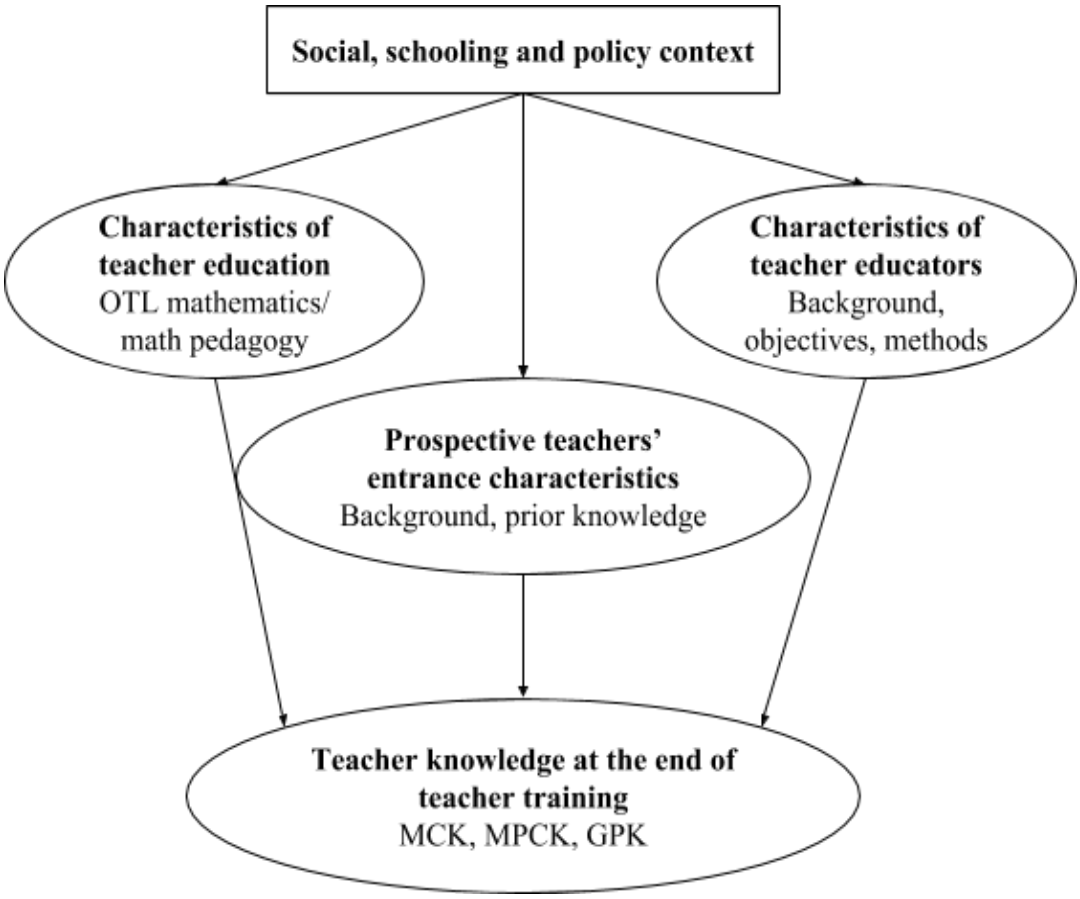

Figure 18: Factors Effecting Teacher Effectiveness

Blömeke, Sigrid, Séan Delaney, **International Perspectives on Teacher Knowledge, Beliefs and Opportunities to Learn. In Blömeke, Hsieh, Kaiser, Schmidt (Eds.),** Assessment of Teacher Knowledge across Countries: A Review of the State of Research (New York: Springer Science, 2014), 541.

As is apparent from the figure 18, the teacher education program, teacher educators, and prospective teachers have characteristics affecting the knowledge base of teachers. As the pre-service stage is the process in which teachers acquire expertise in the discipline studied, the approach adopted and the characteristics of educators in this stage should be considered carefully.

Pre-service Teacher Education: Characteristics of Teacher Education

As the teaching profession is an area of specialization, it requires expertise for a person to teach. To get this expertise, each country has its system to train teachers in various departments and disciplines. Although becoming a teacher varies from major to major, it is necessary to study the subject at least at the level of Bachelor of Arts (B.A.). The length of the B.A. study of English Language Teaching as a Foreign Language may change from country to country. In some countries, it consists of five-year education and in others it takes three years of education to graduate. In Turkey, English Language Teaching undergraduate programs consist of 8 terms and in total a four-year program. The program includes this sentence is not clear, do you mean: 143 credits of lecture, which includes 32 hours of practice, and consists of a total of 159 credits. But the practical lectures cover only school experience (3 credits) and teaching practice (5 credits), for a total of eight credits (CoHE, 2016a). In the undergraduate study process, student teachers get courses on content knowledge, professional teaching knowledge, general knowledge and practice (CoHE, 2007a). To be able to figure out the effects of the pre-service stage on teacher knowledge and, it is essential to focus on models of teacher education programs as well as their curriculum content and distribution of courses.Focusing on these model is crucial as the adopted model designates the weight and distribution of theory, practice, experience, that is, all aspects of a teacher education program. Day claims that in second language teacher education, four models are used as shown in Figure 19 (Day, 1991, 2).

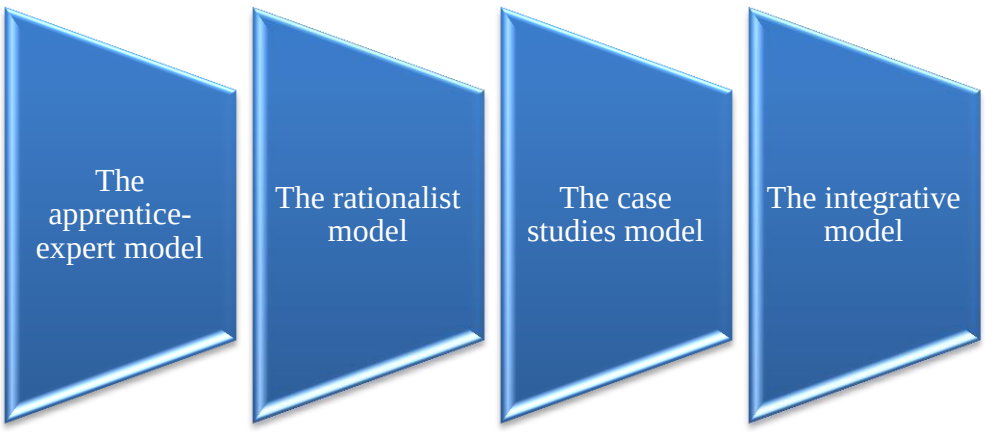

Figure 19: Approaches to Second Language Teacher Education

Day, Richard, R. 1991. Models and the Knowledge Base of Second Language Teacher Education. (**University of Hawai'i Working Papers in ESL**. v. 11. n.2: 1- 13), 2.

The Apprentice-Expert Model

As is clear from the tittle, this model proposes that a trainee collaborate and work with an expert. This model requires the expert to have adequate qualifications to provide the student expertise. The model provides the student with all necessary knowledge except for support knowledge. It is criticized for being an old and a static model; however, it has the advantage of providing experience and observation to the student (Day, 1991).

The Rationalist Model

Instead of expert knowledge and support, in the rationalist model knowledge is transferred to the student and expected to be applied by the student as well. Here just the theoretical knowledge is provided by the field expert through lecture, discussions, readings, etc. and students apply it by themselves without any support. In contrast to the apprentice-expert model in which the knowledge is formed based on experiences, in the rationalist model, the knowledge is established through theoretical instruments. The model takes rationality and objectivity of the knowledge to the forefront. Hence, it primarily provides content and support knowledge, limited to pedagogical and pedagogical content knowledge (Day, 1991).

The Case Studies Model

In this model, the instruction is case based. The model is mainly promoted in medical and law schools as the case is a valuable learning source in these disciplines. However, as it requires composing cases by the experts and there is the lack of conceptual clarity, it was not adopted in second language teacher education. Excluding support, pedagogical and pedagogical content knowledge, the model is just focusing on providing content knowledge to the students. However, experience-based teaching is the strength of the model (Day, 1991).

The Integrative Model

The meanings of the word integrate is “bringing together, combining, and uniting the part into the whole” (Dictionary, 2016). As none of the previously discussed models succeed in bringing all knowledge bases together as a combining and uniting model, the integrative model came into existence. The model successfully provides content, support, pedagogical and pedagogical content knowledge to the students. The model integrates theory and practice as well (Day, 1991).

As is clear from the discussions of models, the adopted model for language teacher education has great significance as it designates the level of the knowledge base and teaching style. In every country, the Ministry of Education must develop a curriculum arising from contemporary philosophy concentrating on practice, experience and observation. In addition, it is also essential that teachers be educated in an undergraduate study process which has a positive effect on effectiveness language teachers. A study carried out with university students reveals that an effective teacher at the university should have the following characteristics: "respectful, knowledgeable, approachable, engaging, communicative, organized, responsive, professional and humorous" (Delenay et al., 2010, 5).

Pre-service Teacher Education: Characteristics of Teacher Educator

In previous sections, the effects that the characteristics of a teacher have on high school students have been discussed. Within this scope, the personal and professional characteristics of a teacher were examined closely. In a similar manner, to ensure qualified and efficient teachers, the characteristics of a teacher educator at the university have an impact on prospective teachers. Even though teacher quality and effectiveness are current issues and have been discussed and studied recently, there has been little interest in or study of teacher educators. Before exploring the characteristics of teacher educators, it is curial to explain the term "teacher educator". The term has a double meaning. At first sight, it might be understood that a teacher educator is a person providing professional knowledge and training for current teachers. However, that is not the term to be explored and focused on in this study. On the contrary, the pre-service stage of prospective teachers is the center of this study. At this point, teacher educators might be defined as "those who provide formal instruction or conduct research and development for educating prospective teachers" (Fischer et al., 2008). From now on, the term instructor will be utilized instead of the term teacher educator. From this definition, it is clear that instructors have an impact upon prospective teachers, especially on their academic performance. It is also predictable that pre-service teacher trainer characteristics contribute to the teaching effectiveness of prospective teachers.

Prospective teachers strongly expect "to have teacher educators who are experts in the field and also a model with the professional and personality traits" (Özçakır Sümen, Cağlayan, 2013, 250). Furthermore, prospective teachers care about the

personal characteristics of teacher trainers as well. Effective instructors have the following features (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2007, 132).

Table 29: Characteristics of Effective Instructors

Responsive	Provides frequent, timely, and meaningful feedback to students.
Enthusiast	Exhibits passion in delivery of curricula, in particular, and representing the field, in general.
Student-Centered	Places students in the center of the learning process, prioritizes instruction in response to student diversity and interests, and possesses strong interpersonal skills.
Professional	Displays behaviors and dispositions deemed exemplary for the instructor's discipline.
Expert	Demonstrates relevant and current content, connects students' prior knowledge and experience with key components of curricula.
Connector	Provides multiple opportunities for student and professor interactions within and outside of class.
Transmitter	Imparts critical information clearly and accurately, provides relevant examples, integrates varied communication techniques to foster knowledge acquisition.
Ethical	Demonstrates consistency in enforcing classroom policies, responds to students' concerns and behaviors, and provides equitable opportunities for student interaction.
Director	Organizes instructional time efficiently, optimizes resources to create a safe and orderly learning environment.

Onwuegbuzie, J. Anthony, Witcher, E. Ann, Kathleen, M.T. Collins, Cheryl, D. Wiedmaier, Chris, W. Moore. 2007. Students' Perceptions of Characteristics of Effective College Teachers: A Validity Study of a Teaching Evaluation Form Using a Mixed-Methods Analysis. **(American Educational Research Journal**, v. 44. no.1: 113-160), 132.

It is clear from the table that instructors' characteristics not only involve providing academic knowledge but also involve aspects such as ethics, motivation and responsiveness.

5. METHODOLOGY

5.1. Research Aims

It is obvious that there is a clear relation between teacher effectiveness and student achievement (White, 2009; Eberle, 2011; Mojavezi, Tamiz, 2012). Although lots of studies on teacher effectiveness have been carried out using quantitative research methodology and investigating content knowledge teaching and pedagogical practice during instruction, there have been few studies on factors influencing the effectiveness of teaching English as a foreign language together with teacher perceptions of their effectiveness in which qualitative methodology was employed in a comparative way (CoHe, 2016c). In most of the studies conducted on English language teacher effectiveness in Turkey, quantitative research design was adopted by the researchers (Bostan, 2005; Bakla, 2012; Akdeniz, 2015; Bilican, 2016).

The aim of the study is to investigate factors influencing the effectiveness of teaching English as a foreign language and also teachers' perceptions about their effectiveness. In a social setting, it is not feasible to control and eliminate obstacles from the learning environment and teaching practice. In addition to teacher knowledge, preservice education, professional development, teaching sources and materials influence teacher effectiveness (Bandura, 1997; Ross, Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy, 2002; Oh, 2010; Yune Kim, 2014). Within the scope of this study, the researcher primarily attempted to analyze the factors that make teaching English as a foreign language challenging for teachers. Correspondingly, the study also intends to explore effectiveness perceptions of teachers of English as a foreign language in Poland and Turkey. This chapter clarifies research questions, research design, participants, sampling, instruments, setting, procedures, data collection, data analysis, trustworthiness, researcher position, limitations of the study and ethical considerations.

5.2. Research Questions

The study intends to explore English teachers' effectiveness in teaching English as foreign language in Turkey and Poland. The following research questions summarize the purpose of the study:

1. How do English language teachers perceive their effectiveness in teaching English in Poland and Turkey?
    1.1. What is the perception of English language teachers in Poland regarding their effectiveness in teaching English?
    1.2. What is the perception of English language teachers in Poland regarding the factors influencing their effectiveness in teaching English?
    1.3. What is the perception of English language teachers in Turkey regarding their effectiveness in teaching English?
    1.4. What is the perception of English language teachers in Turkey regarding the factors influencing their effectiveness in teaching English?
2. How do students perceive their English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland and Turkey?
    2.1. What is the perception of students in Poland regarding their teachers' effectiveness in teaching English?
    2.2. What is the perception of students in Turkey regarding their teachers' effectiveness in teaching English?
3. How is the effectiveness of English language teachers in teaching English in Poland and Turkey?

3.1. How effective do English language teachers in Poland teach English?

3.2. How effective do English language teachers in Turkey teach English?

5.3. Research Design

In every research design, the researchers adopt philosophical and epistemological positions. Furthermore, philosophical and epistemological positions in a study specify and direct the methods, techniques and even the research questions. In brief, there is a close relationship between philosophical and epistemological positions and the research design of a study. As the current study aims to perceive social activity and explanation of it from individual perspectives, interpretivist epistemology is adopted in the study. "The term interpretivism, usually denotes an alternative to the positivist orthodoxy that has held sway for decades. It is predicated upon the view that a strategy is required that respects the differences between people and the objects of the natural sciences and therefore requires the social scientist to grasp the

subjective meaning of social action" (Bryman, 2012, 30). As the current study requires description and interpretation of human activities, qualitative research, which is "sometimes defined as interpretive research", was applied (Stake, 2010, 36).

Yin states that "every empirical study has a research design" (2003, 19). To explore background phenomenon, qualitative methodology is employed in social studies. Yin sorts the features of the qualitative research in the following way (2011, 7):

- Studying the meaning of people's lives, under real-world conditions;
- Representing the views and perspectives of the people
- Covering the contextual conditions within which people live;
- Contributing insights into existing or emerging concepts that may help to explain human social behavior;
- Striving to use multiple sources of evidence rather than relying on a single source alone.

In qualitative research, instead of numbers, the point of interest is words. Through the interpretivist perspective of epistemology, the emphasis is on perceiving the social world. In qualitative design, to explore reality, the inductive approach, in which theory is unraveled following the observations and findings, is employed. In other words, qualitative methodology does not test a theory; on the contrary, it is a process of forming a theory (Bryman, 2012; Flick, 2007). The following figure outlines the inductive process in the qualitative study (Creswell, 2009, 63).

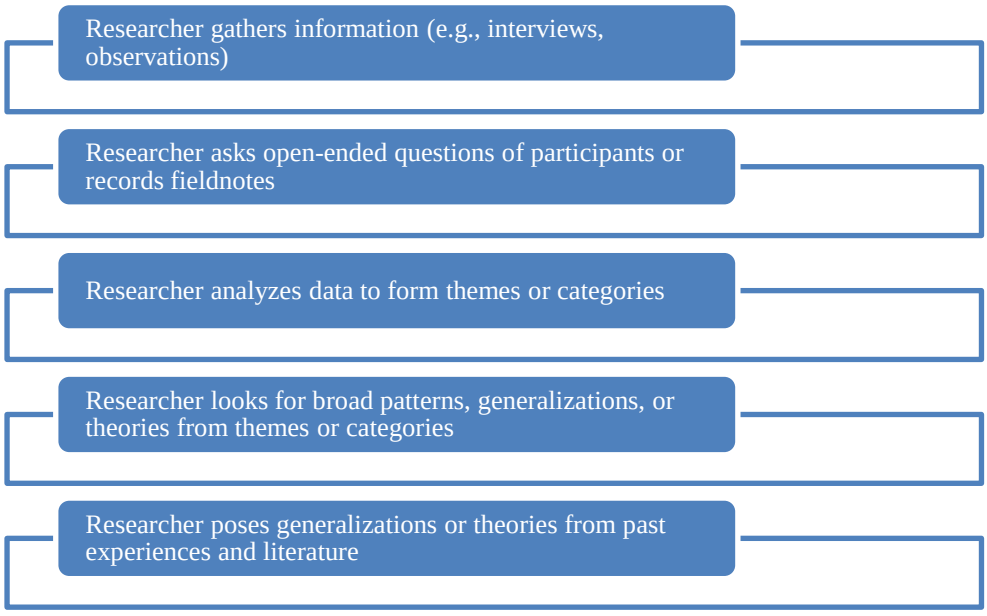

Figure 20: Inductive Process in the Qualitative Study

Creswell, John W., **Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches. (**Thousand Oaks, C.A.: Sage Publication, 2009), 63.

The case study aims to explore the issues in one or more settings. By exploring, the case study intends to describe and explain the phenomena (Berg, Lune, 2012). Depending on the inquiry, various kinds of qualitative methods might be employed in a study by the researcher. Yin proposes four types of case study designs. First of all, he divides the case study designs mainly into two parts: Single-case and multiple-case designs. In a single-case design, if there is just a single unit in a case, it is called "holistic single case design"; however, if there are multiple sub-units in a single case, it is called "embedded single case design". On the other hand, Yin also divides the multiple-case designs into two parts. The first one is called "holistic multiple-case designs" and involves more than one case in a context. The second one is called "embedded multiple-case designs" and involves more than one case, with each case having sub-units of analysis (Yin, 2003, 39).

Multiple case study, which is also called comparative or collective case study, intends to discover different aspects on an issue. By defining various units of analysis, it seeks a comprehensive definition (Creswell, 2007a). Multiple-case study is recommended by Yin (2003) as it has higher external validity and poses more powerful outcomes. To explore English language teachers effectiveness perceptions and factors related to them, holistic multiple-case designs were employed at two public upper-secondary schools including medium and higher-achieving students in Poland and two public upper-secondary schools including medium and higher-achieving students in Turkey. However, multiple-case designs vary depending on the results predicted. If the selected cases in multiple-case designs predict similar results, it is called "literal replication". If the selected cases predict contrasting results, it is called "theoretical replication" (Yin, 2003, 47). As the researcher anticipates different results for various reasons, theoretical replication was adopted in the current study.

5.4. Sampling

In the study, information was obtained via interviews with teachers, focus group interviews with students and classroom observation forms prepared in advance at public high schools where English is taught as a foreign language in Poland and Turkey. Six English teachers and fifteen students from various years (from 1st to 3rd year) were selected as participants for case studies in Poland. Six English teachers and forty five students from various years (from 1st to 4th year) were selected as participants for case studies in Turkey.

To select school districts in both countries, purposeful sampling, which is also called criterion-based selection, was applied (Maxwell, 1996). "Purposeful sampling focuses on relatively small samples, even single cases, selected purposefully to permit inquiry into and understanding of a phenomenon" (Patton, 2002, 46). To select cases, some criteria were determined. The criteria for selecting schools and districts in the study are presented below:

1- Schools should have full-time English Teachers
2- Schools should be public institutions
3- English should be taught as a foreign language
4- Schools should have participants willing to volunteer
5- The school district should have some students of average achievement in English
6- The school district should have some students of higher achievement in English

First of all, to select cases in Turkey, a list of selection criteria which reflects an average English language teaching situation was formed. During the determination of the criteria, expert opinion was obtained from field teachers, principals, teaching fellows and the dissertation committee. From the list which was developed, in consultation with the thesis advisor, the researcher selected a school in the selected district. Before collecting data, the researcher visited the school principal to provide information about the study. In addition to that, the researcher obtained research permission, which was granted by the authorized public body, the local ministry of national education. A short time after the meeting, the principal sent a formal letter

confirming their consent for the study. Then, the researcher had a meeting with the English teachers of the school to inform them about the scope and the purpose of the study. Secondly, to select similar cases in Poland which have several characteristics in common with the cases in Turkey, a committee was established. The committee consists of key persons who are experts in their field, are experienced and have knowledge about the research context. The committee involved a teaching fellow at the University of Warsaw and also the head of Yunus Emre Institute in Warsaw, the official thesis advisor from the University of Warsaw and a Polish teacher who can speak English. After deciding on a school with the participants, a week later another meeting was held. In this meeting, the school principal, the researcher and the advisory council participated. Another meeting was held at the school to prepare a roadmap for the data collection process. After the meeting, in which the aim, scope and benefits of the project were clarified in detail, another meeting was organized in which the researcher and the group leader of English language teachers at the school participated. A final meeting was organized with the researcher and the English language teachers. In the final meeting, the aim, scope, results, and benefits of the project were also explained in detail to the teachers. Furthermore, the researcher also answered the questions raised by the teachers and was able to overcome any hesitations. The researcher also made sure the participants were aware of the anonymity of the study.

Details related to selected schools, teachers and students in Poland and Turkey are specified below.

5.4.1. Features of Selected Schools in Poland and Turkey

At the following, features of the selected schools in Poland and Turkey were presented in detail.

5.4.1.1. School A in Poland

The school is located in a city which is one of the most populated and diverse cities in Poland. The city is found in the center of Poland. Furthermore, the city is one of the most touristic and historical cities in Poland. The district of the school is not in the center of the city. Apartment buildings and living quarters surround the school. The school has served as a public upper-secondary school for 27 years. The school

has only one shift of schooling from 7:25 a.m. to 3:35 p.m. The number of students in each classroom ranges from 15 to 20, with an average of 18. The school possesses 1 science lab, 1 sports hall, 1 library, 1 conference hall, and ICT facilities in the classrooms. At the school, 56 teachers are teaching the various subjects. Field notes taken by the researcher during the study showed that the socio-economic situation of the parents is not high. Poland has a matriculation exam which is conducted at the end of high school and is obligatory for the university admission. Data from the exam shows that the school is in the category of medium-achieving public high schools in Poland (Perspectywy, 2016). The following table outlines the characteristics of School A in Poland.

Table 30: Characteristics of School A

Type of school	Type of education	Operation time	Number of students	Number of teachers	Classroom size	Socio economic level of parents
Public upper secondary school	One shift education	7:25 a.m. 3:35 p.m.	606	56	15-20	Medium and low

5.4.1.2. School B in Poland

The school is located in a city which is found in the center of the Poland. The city is the center of commerce, education, and government. The city is one of the oldest and most historical cities in Poland. The district of the school is near the city center. University buildings, shopping centers, and historical places surround the school district. The school is one of the oldest public high schools serving more than one century and dating back to 1876. The principal of the school has been serving as a principal for a long time after serving as a teacher at the same school. The school includes about 600 students from the first to third year.

The school operates only one shift of schooling between 7:25 a.m. and 3:35 p.m. The school has 600 students from the first to third year. The number of the students in each classroom ranges from 15 to 20, with an average of 18. The school possesses 1 science lab, 1 sports hall, 1 library, and ICT facilities in the classrooms. At the school, 60 teachers are teaching the various subjects. All of the students pass the final exams and most of the students are welcomed by Polish universities. According to data from matriculation exam, which is conducted at the end of high school and is obligatory for university admission the school is in the category of high-achieving public high schools in Poland (Perspectywy, 2016). The following table outlines the characteristics of School B in Poland.

Table 31: Characteristics of School B

Type of school	Type of education	Operation time	Number of students	Number of teachers	Classroom size	Socio economic level of parents
Public upper secondary school	One shift education	7:25 a.m. 3:35 p.m.	600	60	15-20	Medium and high

5.4.1.3. School A in Turkey

School A is located in the central Marmara region of Turkey. The region is the center for commerce, industry and tourism and is the most populated city of Turkey. Hence, the school is in a highly populated area and has a high percentage of immigrants. The district of the school is populated with people from cities where the social and economic conditions are low. The district is one of the newly designated districts, located in a suburban area. Most of the parents in the district receive support from government to meet some basic needs. The school has two shifts of students and operates from 7 a.m. to 7:00 p.m. The school has about 1800 students from the first to fourth year and 26 classrooms. The number of students in each classroom ranges from 30 to 40, with an average of 35. The school possesses 2 special ICT classrooms, 1 science lab, 1 sports hall, 1 library, 1 conference hall, and ICT facilities in the classrooms. At the school, 89 teachers are teaching the various subjects. According to the data in an external assessment for the 2015-16 school year, which is a public body, the school is in the category of middle-achieving high schools in Turkey (OSYM, 2016b). The following table outlines the characteristics of School A in Turkey.

Table 32: Characteristics of School A

Type of school	Type of education	Operation time	Number of students	Number of teachers	Classroom size	Socio economic level of parents
Public upper secondary school	Double shift education	7:00 a.m. 7:00 p.m.	1800	89	30-40	Medium and low

5.4.1.4. School B in Turkey

School B is located in the central Marmara region of Turkey. The region consists of people from other cities in Turkey as it offers employment opportunities. Due to this, the population of the region is very high and the majority of the population is comprised of local immigrants. However, when the district of the school B is compared to the discrict of School A, it is closer to the city center and much more urban. Furthermore, the district where School B is located is one of the oldest districts of the city.

The school, which is a boarding school comprising students from various cities in Turkey, operates one-shift of schooling between 08:30 a.m. and 4:45 p.m. The school has about 606 students from the first to fourth year and 26 classrooms. The number of students in each class ranges from 20 to 25, with an average of 23. The school possesses 1 dining room, 1 dormitory, 2 science labs, 1 sports hall, 1 library, 1 conference hall, and ICT facilities in the classrooms. At the school, 57 teachers are teaching the various subjects. Data collected from the Students Selection and Placement Center from an external assessment in the 2015-16 school year shows that the school is in the category of high-achieving public high schools in Turkey (OSYM, 2016b). The following table outlines the characteristics of School B in Turkey.

Table 33: Characteristics of School B

Type of school	Type of education	Operation time	Number of students	Number of teachers	Classroom size	Socio econo mic level of parents
Public upper secondary school	One shift education	8:30 a.m. 4:45 p.m.	606	57	20-25	Mediu m and high

5.4.2. Features of Selected English Langauge Teachers in Poland and Turkey

As the study centers on the effectiveness of and perceptions about the effectiveness of teachers of English as a foreign language, the English language teachers teaching at the selected upper-secondary schools in Poland and Turkey were invited to provide information. Selection criteria included teaching English as a foreign language at an upper-secondary public high school, having a certificate to teach English, teaching from 1st to 3rd year students at schools in Poland and from 1st to 4th year students at schools in Turkey. To notify teachers about and include them in the study, principals at each school organized a meeting before the data collection process in Poland and Turkey. Later on, group leaders of English teachers at each school in Poland and Turkey organized contact with teachers. Finally, the researcher proceeded with teacher interviews, student interviews and classroom observation. However, except for the teachers at School A in Turkey, none of the teachers allowed video recording during instruction for the classroom observations. Moreover, except for the teachers at School A in Poland, all of the teachers allowed voice recording during the interview. Even though all of the English language teachers at Schools A and B in Poland accepted to take part in the study, at school B in Poland two of the English teachers declined to participate in an interview because of their busy schedules even though they had given permission for their classrooms to be observed. In addition to that, 6 teachers of English as a foreign language at School A and also 6 teachers at School B accepted to take part in the study in Poland. In total, 12 teachers accepted to take part in the study in Poland. The situation was

similar in Turkey. One of the teachers at School A in Turkey was excluded as s/he wasn't a graduate of an English department. Except for that, all of the teachers of English at the selected upper-secondary schools were involved in this study in Turkey. In addition to that, even though all of the English language teachers at School A in Turkey accepted to take part in the study, at School B in Turkey only six of the English teachers accepted to take part in the study as the other two had administrative duties and couldn't participate in the study. Consequently, 6 teachers of English as a foreign language at school A and also 6 teachers at School B accepted to take part in the study in Turkey. In total, 12 teachers accepted to take part in the study in Turkey. Thus, the total number of the teachers accepting to participate in the study in Poland and Turkey is 24. The characteristics of the teachers in Poland and Turkey are presented in Table 35.

Table 34: Characteristics of Teachers Selected for the Study

Selected School	Teacher	Subject	Age	Gender	Degree	Teaching Experience	Overseas Teaching Experience
School A in Poland	PLT1*	English	58	Female	Master's degree	20	No
	PLT2*	English	40	Female	Master's degree	16	No
	PLT3*	English	60	Female	Master's degree	22	No
	PLT4*	English	36	Female	Master's degree	12	No
	PLT5*	English	37	Female	Master's degree	12	No
	PLT6*	English	38	Female	Master's degree	15	No
School B in Poland	PLT7**	English	Not specified	Female	Master's degree	Not specified	No
	PLT8**	English	Not specified	Female	Master's degree	Not specified	No
	PLT9	English	65	Female	Master's degree	40	No
	PLT10	English	62	Female	Master's degree	34	No
	PLT11	English	38	Female	Master's degree	18	No

	PLT12	English	36	Female	Master's degree	16	No
School A in Turkey	TRT1	English	28	Female	Bachelor's degree	3	No
	TRT2	English	30	Male	Bachelor's degree	6	No
	TRT3	English	36	Female	Bachelor's degree	13	No
	TRT4	English	24	Female	Bachelor's degree	2	No
	TRT5	English	37	Female	Bachelor's degree	10	No
	TRT6	English	34	Female	Bachelor's degree	12	No
School B in Turkey	TRT7	English	36	Female	Master's degree	14	No
	TRT8	English	27	Female	Bachelor's degree	4	No
	TRT9	English	38	Male	Master's degree	16	No
	TRT10	English	43	Female	Bachelor's degree	19	No
	TRT11	English	40	Female	Bachelor's degree	17	No
	TRT12	English	33	Female	Bachelor's degree	10	No

* Teachers who didn't allow voice recording during the interview.
** Teachers who didn't accept to take part in the interview.

5.4.3. Features of Selected Students in Poland and Turkey

Apart from the teachers, the study also includes students from different age groups and genders studying at the selected schools in Poland and Turkey. Participation of students was voluntary. At each school, with the help and support of the teachers, the researcher made a face-to-face announcement to the students about the study. The researcher conducted focus group interviews with students who volunteered from each grade. For the students under 18 years old, parental consent form was prepared in Polish and Turkish to inform parents about the study and get their consent for it. To be a student at the selected school, to be a student of teachers who were interviewed, and to be volunteer are the criteria to participate in the focus group interviews conducted in Poland and Turkey. Consequently, in Poland at School A, 4 male students between 16 and 17 years old from the 1st year, 3 male and 4 female

students between 17 and 18 years old from the 2nd year, and 2 male and 1 female students who were 18 years old from the 3rd year participated in the focus group interview. The total number of students accepting to participate in the focus group interview at school A was 14. At School B, 2 male and 7 female students between 16 and 17 years old from the 1st year, 3 male and 2 female students between 16 and 17 years old from the 2nd year, and 1 male and 5 female students who were 18 years old from the 3rd year participated in the focus group interview. The total number of students accepting to participate in the focus group interview at School B was 21. The total number of students participating in the study in Poland was 35. The results proved that female students were more motivated to participate in the study as the number of the female students (19) was higher than the number of male students (15). The age range of the students participating in the study was between 16 and 18. On the other hand, students at School B were more motivated to take part in the study when compared to students at School A. While the total number of the students agreeing to take part in the study at School A in Poland was 14, it was 21 at School B.

Similarly, students from various grades, gender, and age were also included in the study in Turkey. In Turkey at School A, 4 male and 6 female students between 14.5 and16 years old from the 1st year, 5 male and 5 female students between 15 and 16 years old from the 2nd year, 5 male and 6 female students, 17-year-old students from the 3rd year, and 3 male and 11 female students between 17 and 19 years old from the 4th year participated in the focus group interview. The total number of students accepting to participate in the focus group interview at School A was 45. At School B, 3 male and 3 female students between 14 and 15 years old from prep year, 2 male and 2 female students between 15 and 16 years old from the 1st year, 5 male students between 17 and 18 years old from the 3rd year, and 3 male and 3 female students between 17-18 years old from the 4th year participated in the focus group interview. The total number of students accepting to participate in the focus group interview at School B was 21. Total number of students participating in the study in Turkey was 66. The results proved that female students were more motivated to participate in the study as the number of the female students (37) was higher than the number of the male students (29). The age range of the students participating in the study was between 14-18. In addition, students at School A were more motivated to take part in

the study when compared to students at School B. While the total number of students agreeing to take part in the study at School A in Poland was 45, it was 21 at School B.

5.5. Data Sources

To provide triangulation, qualitative data in the study was obtained through in-depth interviews with teachers, focus group interviews and non-participant classroom observation. Table 35 outlines the sources of data.

Table 35: Sources of Data in the Study

Selected School	Data Sources	Data collection methods and instruments	Participants and instruments
School A in Poland	Lessons*	Passive-participant observation	14 course hours of English in the 1st year classrooms 9 course hours of English in the 2nd year classrooms 14 course hours of English in the 3rd year classrooms Total: 37
	Students	Focus group interviews	4 students of the 1st year 7 students of the 2nd year 3 students of the 3rd year Total: 14 students
	Teacher	Individual interviews	6 English language teachers
School B in Poland	Lessons	Passive-participant observation	16 course hours of English in the 1st year classrooms 26 course hours of English in the 2nd year classrooms 14 course hours of English in the 3rd year classrooms Total: 56
	Students	Focus group interviews	9 students of the 1st year 6 students of the 2nd year 6 students of the 3rd g year Total: 21 students
	Teacher	Individual interview s	6 English language teachers

School A in Turkey	Lessons**	Passive-participant observation ***	15 course hours of English in the 1st year classrooms 10 course hours of English in the 2nd year classrooms 8 course hours of English in the 3rd year classrooms 1 course hour of English in the 4th year classrooms* Total: 34
	Students	Focus group interviews	10 students of the 1st year 10 students of the 2nd year 11 students of the 3rd year 14 students of the 4th year Total: 45 students
	Teacher	Individual interviews	6 English language teachers
School B in Turkey	Lessons	Passive-participant observation	17 course hours of English in the 1st year classrooms 4 course hours of English in the 2nd year classrooms 4 course hours of English in the 3rd year classrooms Course hour of English in the 4th year classrooms* Total: 25
	Students	Focus group interviews	6 students of the 1st year 4 students of the 2nd year 5 students of the 3rd year 6 students of the 4th year Total: 21 students
	Teacher	Individual interviews	6 English language teachers
Total classroom observations,as course hour,in the study			151
Total number of the students included in the study			101
Total number of the teachers included in the study			21

* Course hour duration in Poland is 45 minutes
** Course hour duration in Turkey is 40 minutes
*** Video recording allowed in the classrooms

5.6. Data Collection Methods and Instruments

At the following, data collection methods and instruments which were employed in the study clarified.

5.6.1. Data Collection Methods

Qualitative data is made up of interviews which included “direct quotations from people about their experiences, opinions, feelings, and knowledge”, observations which include “detailed descriptions of people's activities, behaviors, actions, and the full range of interpersonal interactions” and document analysis which include studying excerpts, quotations, or entire passages from organizational sources (Patton, 2002, 4). To collect qualitative data in this study, multiple techniques were employed. To accomplish this, individual interviews, focus group interviews and passive participant observations were applied in this study. Individual interviews were conducted with teachers. Focus group interviews with students from each level were arranged to get students’ perceptions about the factors on effectiveness and their teacher’s effectiveness. Data sources consisted of replies of participants in the interviews and in the individual and focus groups. Furthermore, the researcher employed passive-participant observation. Data sources in the observations included actions of students and teachers, some of which were video recorded in Turkey, during instruction. In each case in both countries, the researcher made use of pre-prepared observation forms. The researcher took descriptive and reflective field notes to support the items in the observation forms.

5.6.2. Data Collection Instruments

To obtain data in the study, passive participant observation, individual interviews and focus group interviews were conducted. Observation forms created by the researcher were used as an instrument to obtain data during classroom observation.

5.6.2.1. Observations

As well as interviews with participants, the researcher employed passive-participant observations as a data collection tool. As “the social behavior has to be observed as it presents itself”, instead of pre-structured observation adopted by positivist researchers, the researcher preferred naturalistic inquiry which compatible with qualitative design (Beuving, Vries, 2015, 68-71). Participant observation is a qualitative data collection technique that requires a researcher to participate in events, activities, customs and intercommunications of the people to explore daily life and tradition (Dewalt, Dewalt, 2006; Schensul, LeCompte, 2013). Additionally,

participant observation necessitates the researcher to record objective observations and personal sensations (Sprandley, 1980). Applying participant observation as a data collection technique in a study has the following benefits (Schensul, LeCompte, 2013, 83-84):

- It is central to identifying and building relationships important to the future of the research endeavor.
- It gives the researcher an intuitive as well as an intellectual grasp of the way things are organized and prioritized, how people relate to one another, and the ways social and physical boundaries are defined.
- It demonstrates—and over time can confirm—patterns of etiquette, political organization and leadership, social competition and cooperation, socioeconomic status and hierarchies in practice, and other cultural patterns that are not easily addressed or about which discussions are forbidden.
- It legitimates the presence of the researcher in the community.
- It provides the researcher with cultural experiences that can be discussed with key informants or participants in the study site and treated as data.
- It facilitates access to situations that might otherwise be hidden from public view.

Furthermore, utilizing participant observation in the current study caters to the triangulation of data collection methods, which provide confirmation and validation (Stake, 2010). In the study, passive-participant observation provides the opportunity for the researcher to confirm the data obtained through interviews, to get data from primary sources during the observation of the instruction, to observe social interaction and the learning environment, and to make objective observations. The researcher developed separate observation forms on teaching language skills and pedagogical knowledge practice based on the literature (Appendix A). During the development of the observation forms, the researcher received helpful reviews from lecturers who are experts on teacher education and curriculum design. Furthermore, the researcher also got expert reviews on language skills teaching from current experts on language skills and as well from the lecturers of the researcher from his undergraduate study. At the end of the review process, the researcher shared the final version of the observation forms with the supervisors in both countries, Poland and Turkey. Spradley refers to various types of participation and Table 30 outlines the types of participant observer (1980, 58).

Table 36: Types of Participation

Degree of Involvement	Type of Participation
High	Complete
	Active
Low	Moderate
	Passive
(No involvement)	Nonparticipation

Spradley, James P, **Participant Observation. (**Orlando: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers, 1980), 58.

As the name suggests, in nonparticipation there is not the participation of the researcher because of cultural or personal reasons. In passive participation, the researcher is located in the observation field but does not communicate. The researcher makes observations at a place and records the activities. In moderate participation, the researcher has two roles: sometimes a participant and sometimes an observer. In active participation, the researcher actively participates in the activities of the people. In complete participation, the researcher participates in the activities of the people at the highest level (Spradley, 1980).

In the study, the researcher first conducted passive participant observations in the case located in the central Marmara region in Turkey in the spring semester between February and March in the 2015-2016 school year. In Poland, the same method was applied to collect data through observations. In this respect, passive participant observations were carried out at a public high school in a city located in central Poland. The researcher completed the observations in the fall semester between September and October in the 2016-2017 school year. In the cases in both Poland and Turkey, passive participant observations were conducted in the classrooms of the teachers who had took part in the interviews. In Poland, none of the participants allowed video recording; however, in Turkey, except for one teacher, all the participants allowed video recording during the instruction of each participant.

5.6.2.2. Individual Interviews

As the study has a qualitative case design, the researcher is the main instrument of data collection. The primary methods of data collection throughout this study are in-depth interview, focus group interview, and participant observation. In this context, interview protocols in English and Turkish (Appendix B) were prepared by the researcher and included questions with topics, guiding the researcher during the interviews. Besides, as suggested by Creswell (2007), the researcher included date, place, interviewer, interviewee, instructions, questions, and acknowledgement in the protocol. Creswell mentions various kinds of interviews for qualitative data collection such as "face to face, telephone, focus group, e-mail and internet interview" (2009, 179). In the study, data were collected through semi-structured face-to-face interviews with open-ended questions for teachers and focus group interviews with open-ended questions for students. In each interview, the researcher recorded information through audio recordings with the permission of the participant. Beyond observation, interviewing allows getting into the inner world of the people to get their experience (Seidman, 2006). Furthermore, "qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit. We interview to find out what is in and on someone else's mind, to gather their stories" (Patton, 2002, 341). As there is not an interview instrument previously employed in the literature review, interview questions composed by the researcher were based on the literature and recommendations of previous studies. In addition to that, an observation form was designed by the researcher to collect data through participant observation which also allows triangulation of methods. Triangulation of methods means employing various kinds of methods such as observation, interviews, and field notes to collect data, and varying data sources in order to better describe the setting (Miles, Huberman, 1994; Lincoln, Denzin, 2003; Creswell, 2007a). In the current study, triangulation refers to the various methods applied (interview with teachers, focus group interview with students and participant observation) and the multiple data sources (teachers, students, scene of actions).

"Many qualitative researchers disagree with the epistemological assumptions underlying the notion of validity" (Seidman, 2006, 25). In contrast to quantitative approaches, various kinds of terms specific to qualitative design are employed in ualitative approaches. Hence, instead of the term "validity", which is commonly

preferred in the quantitative approaches, the term “trustworthiness” is applied in the current study. Hence, during the preparation of the interview questions, the researcher formed various kinds of questions related to the research objective and research questions. To form interview questions catering to the research objective and ensure trustworthiness, the researcher got expert review from the staff at the department and other teachers as well. Furthermore, expert review from the members of the dissertation committee was obtained as well. At the end of the expert review, before collecting data, the researcher and the advisors decided on the final interview questions. Patton (2002) discloses that in interviews, a researcher can pose 6 kinds of questions aiming to reveal opinions, experiences, knowledge, feeling, sensations and demographics. In the study, the researcher addressed questions related to participants’ opinions, experiences, knowledge and background information. In the context of the background information of the participants, the researcher requested the following demographic information from the participants of each interview with teachers in Poland and Turkey:

1. Age
2. Gender
3. Faculty graduated from
4. Major graduated in
5. Years of teaching experience
6. Overseas teaching experience

In advance of each interview with teachers, the researcher got the consent of each teacher for the interview orally and then asked each teacher to sign the consent form (Appendix C).

5.6.2.3. Focus Group Interviews

In the focus group interviews with students in Poland and Turkey, the researcher requested the following demographic information from participants:

1. Age
2. Gender
3. Grade

Furthermore, to ensure trustworthiness, the researcher avoided yes-no questions and questions with short answers. On the contrary, the researcher asked questions to the

participants requiring description and analysis of the situation. To be certain of the comprehensibility of the questions, the researcher encouraged the participants to ask questions during the interview (Merriam, 2009). Furthermore, in advance of each interview and posing interview questions, as suggested by Creswell (2007), the researcher began by talking about himself to prepare participants for the interview. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher got the consent of the participants orally and then asked participants to sign the consent form (Appendix C).

5.7. Setting and Procedures

5.7.1. Setting

As the study is comparative in nature, to provide homogeneity, schools with similar characteristics were selected in both countries. The study includes high-achieving and middle- achieving state upper secondary schools in Poland and Turkey, in varying schools districts accordingly. In Turkey and Poland, middle-achieving upper secondary schools are located in highly-populated districts. The number of students and schools is high in the districts. High- achieving high schools are also located in the same district in both countries. However, it is evident that the socio-economic situations of parents vary when middle and high-achieving high schools are compared in both countries. Further information related to the selected schools in Poland and Turkey was provided under the sampling.

5.7.2. Procedures

In advance of conducting the study in each country, the researcher got the necessary permission from the relevant authorities. As the researcher firstly administrated the study in Turkey, permission for the study was obtained from the review board of the provincial directorate for national education in Istanbul (Appendix D). In Poland, as the school principals have the authority to give permission to conduct a study at their schools, the researcher obtained the required permission from the principals of the selected schools. In that way, the researcher followed the required process in each case and paid regard to ethical considerations which affect trustworthiness and reliability of a study as well (Merriam, 2009). In a qualitative study, participants are required to be informed about the study, benefits and disadvantages should be made

clear, and participants' privacy and confidentiality should be assured (Flick, 2007; Creswell, 2009). Furthermore, it is critical to have admittance from gatekeepers to get in research areas to conduct the study (Creswell, 2009). Before starting the study at the selected schools in both countries, face-to-face meetings were held with school principals with whom the researcher clarified the aim and scope of the study. In this context, purpose, advantages, benefits, risks, voluntariness of participation, confidentiality, data collection techniques to be employed, data collection process, and anonymity of the collected data were made in a detailed manner by the researcher and supervisor. Another meeting with the teachers of English was held to explain the aim and the scope of the study with the participation of the researcher. In the meeting, the researcher clarified data collection techniques to be employed, data collection process, instruments of data collection, and anonymity of the collected data. At the same time, each question raised by the teachers related to the study was answered by the researcher. The researcher prepared an information sheet in the Polish, Turkish and English languages aiming to inform students, teachers and parents about the study (Appendix E). On the information sheet details of the study such as risks, rights, possible benefits, confidentiality, and benefits were made clear by the researcher (Seidman, 2006). The consent forms were signed by each teacher and student at the outset of each in-depth interview and focus group interview. Under a data collection plan formed according to each teacher's teaching program, interviews and classroom observations were conducted by the researcher. Ahead of each interview with teachers and students, the researcher also presented information about the study. Interviews with teachers and focus group interviews with students were conducted at a time and a place convenient for the participant. Consequently, at all schools included in the study, interviews were conducted at the school. Beforehand the each classroom observations, at the time of data collection the researcher received permission from each teacher who had classes. Moreover, the researcher also made public the aim and scope of the study to the students in each class. The researcher conducted the study at the beginning of the spring semester of the 2015-2016 school year at the first school in Turkey. Soon after, the researcher moved to Poland and started data collection at the first selected school. Interviews were conducted till the end of the spring semester. The researcher conducted the classroom observation in the first selected school at the beginning of the fall semester of the 2016-2017 school year. Shortly after, the researcher started data collection at

the second school in Poland. The data collection process was completed at the end of the 2016 in Poland. The researcher collected data over 10 months in Poland. After returning to Turkey at the beginning of 2017, the researcher selected the second school to collect data. By the end of the spring semester of the 2016-2017 school year, the researcher completed the data collection process in the second school in Turkey.

5.8. Data Analysis

To analyze obtained data in the study, the qualitative content analyses method, which is one of the various methods employed to analyze qualitative data, was employed. The objective of content analyses is to serve knowledge by comprehension of the phenomenon behind the study by coding, categorizing and creating of themes of the obtained data content. Conventional content analysis, directed content analysis and summative content analysis are among the types of content analysis. Conventional content analysis aims to characterize a phenomenon which is limited in the literature. In conventional content analysis, researchers don't define any category before the data is analyzed. The data analysis requires researchers to read the transcription over and over again to get familiar with the content. After that, key words are underlined, first impressions through notes are defined and then codes are formed respectively. Later on, codes are transformed into categories depending on the codes. The relation between subcategories allows the researcher to combine subcategories or form new categories. In contrast to theory development in the grounded theory method, conventional content analysis aims to develop concepts and models. Directed content analysis aims to elaborate or extend previously conducted studies and resulting theories about phenomenon. Knowledge about the theory and earlier research enable the researcher to determine the relationships between codes and categories. Hence, the researcher starts the data analysis with previously defined codes and categories. The researcher might start the data analysis either by using the predetermined codes or by reading the transcription over and over to define new codes. Newly obtained categories might contradict the previous ones or support them. As there are existing theories and prior research on the effectiveness of teachers and the researcher aimed to extend research by using a qualitative research methodology in a comparative way, directed content analysis was adopted to analyze data in this study. The last

type of content analysis is summative content analysis. This kind of analysis aims to interpret and discover the content by identifying certain words or content. The data analysis starts with counting key words occurring in the transcription. The frequency of the words is determined in order to identify data patterns and to provide contextualization of the codes. After that, the researcher attempts to explore the meanings under the words (Hsieh, Shannon, 2005).

"The process of data analysis involves making sense out of text and image data. It involves preparing the data for analysis, conducting different analyses, moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data" (Creswell, 2009, 183). Even though there are various data analysis strategies, qualitative data analysis has its own stages to analyze data. The basic components of qualitative data analysis are coding, categorizing and forming themes at the end. The following figure outlines the qualitative data analysis process (Creswell, 2009, 185).

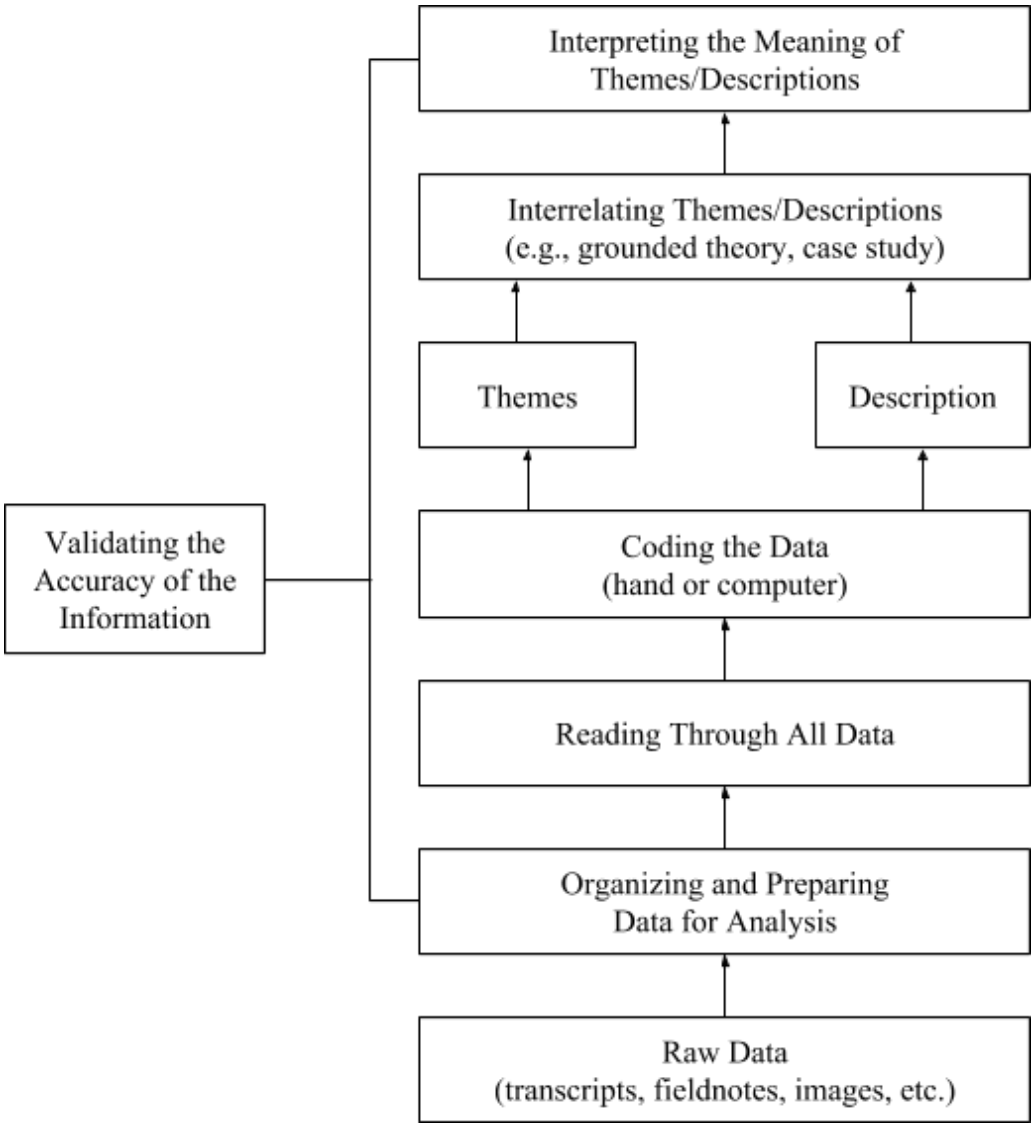

Figure 21: Data Analysis in Qualitative Research

Creswell, John W., **Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches. (**Thousand Oaks, C.A.: Sage Publication, 2009), 185.

Earliest in the order of the analysis process is coding, which means building significant pieces from the raw data. Coding methods are comprised of first cycle and second cycle coding. When compared to first cycle coding, the second cycle coding is more complicated as it requires analytic skills. The first cycle methods involve grammatical, elemental, affective, literary and language, exploratory, and procedural methods.The researcher in this study employed descriptive coding, which is also called topic coding. Descriptive coding is one of the methods under the elemental methods and appropriate for interview transcriptions. Descriptive coding is conducted by summarizing a phrase in the transcriptions, documents, field notes etc.

Descriptive coding is especially advantageous if there are multiple types of interview data such as transcripts, documents, field notes etc. (Creswell, 2007a; Saldana, 2009). Before the coding stage, the researcher transcribed the data from each interview, which is also called raw data, immediately after conducting the interview with each participant. During the transcription, the researcher followed the format of interview transcription suggested by Merriam (2009). Accordingly, on the first page of the transcription, data about the time and place of the interview was provided. In addition to that, double spaceing between the interviewer and the interviewee was used. The researcher also used bold type for the questions asked to the interviewee. Following the transcription, the researcher revised the transcription and took notes ahead of forming codes to get a general sense. Furthermore, the researcher transcribed every single word and sound including interjections of the participant. To be acquainted with the transcription of each interview, the researcher read each interview multiple times as the researcher's own judgement based on experience is an essential component to analyze qualitative data (Seidman, 2006). The second step of the analysis process is combining the pieces of data to obtain categories. Thus, the researcher combined the codes to form categories. The final step is gathering categories under one concept and demonstrating them with graphs, tables and charts to form themes (Creswell, 2007b). However, utmost to successful data analysis is the saturation of the researcher in the data. Besides, depending on the method employed in the study, the type of the analyses adopted in the study might change. In the current study, the researcher used a case-study approach to analyze context and people (Creswell, 2009). To provide reliability in coding and categorizing, each interview transcription was also coded by another expert in the research subject. In addition to that, before forming the final categories in the study, the researcher also obtained the views of experts. To analyze classroom observation data acquired through classroom observation by using observation forms, the researcher used classroom observation data to support formed codes and categories obtained through individual and focus group interviews.

5.9. Trustworthiness

In the qualitative paradigm the terms credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability are adopted instead of validity and reliability as most of the qualitative

researchers disapprove of the positivist assumptions (Siedman, 2006). As a result, the concern of trustworthiness is discussed in detail.

5.9.1. Credibility

Credibility corresponds to internal validity and is about the acceptability and authenticity of the research results (Bryman, 2012). There are many ways to bring about credibility in a qualitative study. In this study, credibility was ensured through extended interviews with participants. Within this scope, the researcher conducted interviews including open-ended questions with each teacher in the selected cases. Furthermore, focus group interviews with open-ended questions were conducted with students of each interviewed teacher. Another credibility tool employed in this study was triangulation. Accordingly, the researcher adopted in-depth interviews, focus group interviews and classroom observations to obtain research data. The researcher also benefited from member checking, which is receiving feedback of interview participants immediately after transcription of interviews. In the study, the researcher took advantage of benefiting from two advisors who are the official advisors of the researcher in Poland and Turkey. In this regard, the researcher practiced peer debriefing by acquiring immediate feedback from each supervisor as well as the dissertation committee.

5.9.2. Transferability

Transferability in qualitative study parallels external validity, which is associated with generalizability of the research results (Merriam, 2009). However, as in the quantitative paradigm, transferability is not the main objective in qualitative studies. Yet, it is essential to find out the transferability of research results in diverse contexts. To ensure transferability in the study, the researcher provided detailed information about the study methodology, the selected cases in each country, the number of the cases and characteristics of each case. The voluntariness of taking part in the sudy was communicated to each participant before each interview orally and via consent forms. To obtain data, the researcher used in-depth interviews with teachers, focus group interviews with students and classroom observations in each classroom of interviewees. With the permission of each participant, the researcher audio recorded each interview with the participants, teachers and students in each

country. Furthermore, data gathering and the analysis process in each country were specified in detail by the researcher.

5.9.3. Dependability

Dependability is related to reliability, which is about the compatibility and consistency of a study. To ensure dependability, the research question should be comprehensible, the role of the researcher should be specified clearly, the collected data should be obtained from suitable cases and participants, the data should be clear of bias, etc. (Miles, Huberman and Saldana, 2014). To provide dependability in the study, the researcher made the reasons for selecting each case clear. Furthermore, the researcher also explained the rationale for including people in each country as participants. To fulfil the criteria, the researcher made face-to-face meetings with the supervisors in each country during the study. Furthermore, after each data collection activity such as a classroom observation or interview with a teacher or student, the researcher provided feedback to the supervisor. In the study, the researcher clarified the data collection, analysis and interpretation steps. Besides, during the data analysis, the researcher also got expert reviews from the supervisors about the techniques employed as well as categories and themes created.

5.9.4. Confirmability

Confirmability is related to neutrality of the researcher. To establish confirmability in a study, procedures, data collection, transformation, conclusions etc. followed during the study should be clarified by the researcher (Bryman, 2012; Miles, Huberman, Saldana, 2014). The researcher prepared a comprehensive protocol which clearly presents the steps of the procedures allowing the replication of the study in another case. Actually, the current study provides confirmability as the same data collection procedures used in Turkey were followed and replicated in Poland to fulfill the criteria of a comparative study. The study fulfills the requirements of and audit trail, which is an essential part of ensuring confirmability. The researcher employed data triangulation through interviews, focus group interviews and classroom observations. To support passive and structured observation, the researcher also took notes supporting the observation statements. Furthermore, during the data collection and

analyses the researcher also got the expert reviews of the supervisors in both countries to provide neutrality.

5.10. Researcher Position

In a study conducted in a constructivist /interpretivist perspective, it is suggested to express the role of the researcher (Creswell, 2009). The researcher is a graduate of teaching English as a foreign language. Soon after graduation within the scope of the Comenius project, he served as an assistant English language teacher at a state high school located in Germany for about a year. Thereafter, he taught English as a foreign language for seven years at various state schools in Turkey. During his teaching at these schools, he witnessed obstacles affecting teachers' effectiveness. Furthermore, findings of a study conducted by the researcher with international students studying at a university in Turkey suggested that the situation is almost identical in the higher education environment. Discussions with the academic staff lecturing at the university where the researcher serves proved that students studying at the various departments and grades at the university had challenges in communicating in English. He noticed that in the education system, there was something wrong in teaching English as a foreign language and decided to attempt to discover obstacles in language skills teaching and practicing pedagogical knowledge affecting teacher effectiveness implicitly or explicitly. The researcher's personal experiences increased his awareness and encouraged him to conduct the current study.

In this dissertation study, as a researcher, who took place at each level of the study, I attempted to do my best to ensure objectvitiy. However, as a person, who grew up, studied and taught English as a foreign language at public schools in Turkey, biases such as my experiences and perspective might influence data interpretation. As suggested by Creswell (2009), I tried to consider ethical issues during the study. In this respect, necessary permissions from institutional boards obtained in Poland and Turkey. Furthermore, the researcher visited and conducted meetings with principals who are also called as gatekeepers in the research sites (Creswell, 2009). To ensure objectivity during the study, I always kept in touch with my supervisors and obtained their expert review.

5.11. Limitations of the Study

In general, the more the cases and participants in a study, the more data acquired. However, it is challenging to include lots of cases and participants in a qualitative case study design as this causes an abundance of data and complications in analysis. Hence, this study involves two cases from each country and the cases do not involve more than one sub-unit; holistic multiple case study design was employed in the current study. In addition to that, in order to increase the number of the cases and participants from whom data is obtained one or more private schools might also have been included in the study to show the contrast. However, in this study selected cases are only public institutions in both countries. Even though English is taught as a foreign language in primary education in both countries, in this study only the participants from secondary education were included in the study. Although the triangulation of data collection is employed in the study, the core of the participats is just teachers and students. In this study, rather than principals and parents, relevant data is acquired from high school English teachers and students. Moreover, longitudinal studies give a chance to observe improvement and differences overtime (Flick, 2007). In the current study, the cross-sectional design is adopted and the data was gathered for a single time period. As the study make use of comparative design, the study data was collected in the spring semester in the 2015-2016 school year in Turkey and the fall semester in the 2016-2017 school year in Poland. Finally, the term teacher effectiveness suggests various dimenions related to classroom management, instructional strategies, using teaching materails, assesment and also teachers' personality traits. However, in this study, personality traits of teachers were not addressed.

5.12. Ethical Considerations

As it should be in each research study, ethical issues in the current study take priority. Ethics in research is being aware of the right or wrong things (Frankel, Wallen, 2009). Procedures to be followed are an essential part of a research project. Within this scope, the researcher got the formal permission from the review board of the provincial directorate for national education of Istanbul, which is the legal authority to provide permission. In Poland, as the school principals have the authority to give permission to conduct a research project at their schools, the

researcher obtained the required permission from the principals of the selected schools. In ethically conducted research, the participant should be respected and informed about the details of the study beforehand (Christian, 2005; Flick, 2007). The researcher also provided information in Turkish and Polish languages about the research scope, period, objective, and instruments to be used to each principal and teacher of English in the selected schools in Turkey and Poland via information sheets (Appendix E). The researcher also informed principals, teachers and students about the number and duration of interviews and observations. In this regard, the researcher's duty is to refrain from harming the participant in any way and protect privacy and confidentiality of research participants (Eisenhauer, Wynaden, 2001; Christian, 2005). Out of respect, the researcher underlined the voluntariness of taking part in the research study during the invitation for the interview. Before each interview, the researcher repeated the voluntariness of participating in the interview. Moreover, the researcher provided consent forms to each participant ahead of each interview. For the students, the researcher provided the consent form, as well (Appendix C). Each consent form presented to students in Poland and Turkey included identical information like providing an opportunity to ask questions for each participant, voluntariness of taking part, the right to withdraw, and confidentiality information (pseudonyms, anonymization of data etc.) about audio recording. To provide anonymity of each selected school, pseudonyms for schools such as School A and B were employed in Turkey and Poland. To keep the privacy of each teacher in Turkey, pseudonyms such as TRT1, TRT2, and TRT3 etc. were employed. For the teachers in Poland, pseudonyms such as PLT1, PLT2, and PLT3 etc. were employed. For the students participating in the focus groups in Turkey and Poland, similar abbreviations were used. To keep the privacy of each student in Turkey, pseudonyms were employed instead of the real names of the students and each focus group interview was called TRFCGRP 1, TRFCGRP 2, and TRFCGRP 3. For the students in Poland, pseudonyms were employed instead of the real names of the students and each focus group interview was called PLFCGRP 1, PLFCGRP 2, and PLFCGRP 3. After the consent and signature of each participant, the researcher initiated the interview. For the participants younger than 18 years old, the researcher prepared parental consent forms in the Turkish and Polish languages (Appendix F). In the parental consent forms, the researcher presented information about the study, duration of the study, risks and benefits of taking part in the study, participant right,

and confidentiality. Some of the teachers and students did not allow audio recording in school A in Poland. Hence, the researcher took notes during the interviews. In Turkey, all participants from School A and School B allowed audio recording during the interview. However, only the teachers and students at school A allowed to be video recorded during classroom observation. The participants were also informed about the data protection of video and audio recordings. The data was only used by the researcher for scientific purposes. The researcher kept electronic data in hard drives protected with passwords and locked in a personal room. After the defense of the dissertation and a certain time period, the researcher will completely delete the collected data by formatting the hard drives.

6. RESULTS

The purpose of this inquiry was to analyze the key factors influencing effectiveness of English teachers and effectiveness perceptions of English teachers in Poland and Turkey. A qualitative comparative multiple case inquiry was employed to achieve the purpose. In this chapter of the study, the results are presented under the following three principal titles: perceptions of English language teachers' about their effectiveness in Poland and Turkey, perceptions of students in Poland and Turkey regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness in teaching English and effectiveness of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey in teaching English.

6.1. Perceptions of Teachers about their Effectiveness in Teaching English

In this part of the study, results related to effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers and the perceptions of English language teachers regarding to the factors influencing their efffectiveness in teaching English in Poland and Turkey were presented.

As the study is comparative in nature, the results are presented respectively. In this regard, results related to effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and the perceptions of English language teachers regarding to the factors influencing their efffectiveness in teaching English in Poland are presented initially. Then results related to effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Turkey and the perceptions of English language teachers regarding to the factors influencing their efffectiveness in teaching English in Turkey are presented next.

6.1.1. Perceptions of English Language Teachers in Poland regarding their Effectiveness in Teaching English

In this part of the study, the results on English language teachers' perceptions about their effectiveness were presented. Data analyses revealed that effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers' in Poland categorized in classroom

management, using instructional strategies, employment of teaching materials, assessment and evaluation.

6.1.1.1. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Classroom Management

To obtain data on classroom management effectiveness of English language teachers in Poland, the researcher conducted teacher interviews. With regard to classroom management, the data provided information about allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements. The data showed that teachers had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT6, PLT9, PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows "Interesting, really. I have the problem generally ummm…with this individual work with an individual student. I concentrate on the group more than on individuals" (PLT1). Another teacher said that, "Definitely no. It is impossible. It's impossible to do it with individual student in application" (PLT6). One other teacher pointed out that:

> Of course not and I've got a lot of guilt about that, but I think I do what I can. Because even if I've got a… I usually have around 18 students in a, in a classroom, in a group. And even if it's not that much because when I started teaching I usually had 30 students in the class which was the case in like 16 years ago, but now it's around 16-18 and it's not enough and when you want to practice grammar, when you want to practice some other things it happens that, that maybe a person is not taken care of because there are lots of things to, to do, so sometimes it happens but, but I really try to spread my attention…equally (PLT12).

In respect to defining classroom rules, the data revealed that most of the teachers stated that teachers defined classroom rules at the beginning of the school year (PLT1, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "But it, it's… so I think that at the beginning of our cooperation, for instance with the first form… so I explain them everything and, and they, they know how to…how to behave and how to exist in the class situation" (PLT9). Even though teachers defined classroom rules, they hadn't collaborated with students to define classroom rules (PLT1, PLT6, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Together. We've got rules for all of us. I mean English teachers, right. We decide it,

that are our rules" (PLT1). Another teacher expressed that, "Well, I think that it is me" (PLT6). One other teacher stated that:

> With lower levels, with small children we did it… we spent some more time on it. Like writing a contract and so on. But now maybe I ask students at the beginning of the year what are the limits, what they wouldn't like to do. But usually I give more of the rules on my own. Like I tell them "OK you can be prepared… unprepared twice in the semester, and since such rules are general to the whole school there wouldn't be much, much point to discuss it because that's, that's like, like almost every teacher has got similar rules, so what's the point in discussing it? There are some general rules which are written in our code and there's some, some, some minimum level of, of, of the rules, of the rules that must be in the students aware of it. If you want to give more freedom to students, you can. But you definitely have to kind of negotiate it with students. But usually you simply stick to the points that are already written and are in the code. Code of behavior, code of learning (PLT12).

Apart from collaboration with students to define classroom rules, the data revealed that teachers allowed students to explain learning difficulties, as well. In connection with allowing students to explain learning difficulties, one of the teachers explained that, "When a problem appears that students stop on the sentence and I ask what is the problem. Well she/he got lost? Why?" (PLT5).

Related to employing various seating arrangements, it was found that part from a few teachers; most of the teachers employed a traditional seating plan during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement. It was also observed that from class to class and from lesson to lesson, teachers didn't change the seating arrangements (PLT2, PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT12). Related to current seating arrangement and varying it according to the teaching topic, one of the teachers stated that:

> No, I don't use any plan I mean they just, so, the, the, the desks, the furniture in the classroom is arranged as it is and they sit in pairs. So they sit wherever they want, either at the back or at the front. So I don't interfere, the way they are sitting. Sometimes, I mean, when they write some written assignments, a test or, or a class test, then they have to sit one at a desk, right? But then after the test they come back and… some of them prefer to sit alone, they are such loners, I think, and some of them they prefer to sit in pairs (PLT9).

Regarding seating arrangement in the classroom, another teacher expressed that:

> I would prefer it to sit around because I think it is much easier, I think, to have a contact with the person, but sometimes it is not possible. It would take too much time because I'm in different classrooms, so usually unfortunately they sit in rows. No I think that the mixture

would be fine. Yes, I would prefer the circle. But it's not possible because you would have to move everything, yes? (PLT10).

6.1.1.2. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Using Instructional Strategies

In this part of the results, effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers' in Poland categorized in using instructional strategies were presented. The data provided information about employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction.

Related to employing a variety of group strategies, it was found that especially most of the teachers at School A preferred whole group teaching during instruction (PLT2, PLT4, PLT5, PLT6). Related to that, one of the teachers stated that, "Very rarely because it doesn't work in these groups. I try but usually one person is working, others not. It is a lack of time. It's lots of noise and the result is poor, too poor. Not worth this time" (PLT1). However, teachers at School B mostly preferred a variety of group strategies (PLT9, PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> Oh yeah, to role play, the simulations… Yeah, role play, yes...Yes, yes, definitely and they like it because… so what I need to… if they have a topic to discuss, let's say, or to do some task, to decide on one thing and to reject something as a group, right, or in pairs. So then they are more, they are more courageous and more open to speak to each other than to speak in front of the class, definitely, it's better for them and then I even have to hush them because they are too loud, yes? But they are really… because I administer this and I go from pair group to another group and they really speak English. They are not pretending, you know, that they speak English while they speak Polish (PLT9).

Related to employing a variety of group strategies, another teacher expressed that:

> But I also try to introduce group work because they are much more talkative when they work in groups, when they work in pairs or in groups of three. Well, it depends on the activity but, but I can say I, I do all of these. I mean, when it's the whole class, it's usually organized in such a way that we have a class discussion. I ask questions, they give their ideas, they agree or disagree with each other. But then the minus of this is that not everybody takes part. In this kind of discussion. But when we introduce pair work or group work it works much better in terms of speaking (PLT11).

Obtained data also revealed that, instead of group strategies, most of the teachers employed pair work during instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT9, PLT12). One of teachers explained this as follows:"So in pairs yes. In pairs yes, but group work no. They don't often work in pair because all this dialogues, right, on this task for Matura, for exam and others, right. They do this, right, through these few years in pairs" (PLT1). Another teacher stated that, "Of course I do give instruction but then they work in pairs, there is a lot of this peer communication also, yes" (PLT2). One other teacher expressed that, "We do a lot of peer revision while preparing for tests. We've got, we do sometimes peer grading of the tests as a part of the formative assessment" (PLT12). Furthermore, it was also observed by the researcher that most of the teachers employed pair work during their lessons.

The data obtained from teachers interviews revealed that teachers mostly employed traditional teaching approaches such as behaviorist methods and grammar-based teaching instead of concentrating on communicative practice by employing communicative teaching methods, especially at School A. Thus, there was not enough communicative practice during instruction (PLT1, PLT5, PLT10). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Because I see that my students cannot really learn from the course book. For example grammar? They read a theory and they don't understand it" (PLT5). Another teacher stated that, "I think that I'm the one who tries to explain too many things to them. They should invent something on their own and sometimes it's difficult but they need some type of explanation, yes?" (PLT10). However, especially the teachers teaching at School B employed communicative practices during instruction (PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers expressed that:

> And I know that they speak English very well but I think it's very important to not only speak English very well but also know certain techniques that will help you to pass the exam well. Simply. They don't, sometimes they don't believe me but it's true. It's, it's, it's pure practice, it's not only speaking English very well but it's practice. So obviously during the last year I do a lot of exam practice but I try to… I, I try to make it not awfully boring but I try to make it, kind of, fun. If possible (PLT11).

Related to communicative practice during instruction, another teacher stated that, "Absolutely, they communicate and I do a lot to make them communicate in different groups, in different pairs, in different setting" (PLT12).

Related to authentic practice, only one of the teachers stated that she had made authentic practice. She stated that "For example, we were talking about the British, English food and they had to prepare recipe, you know? For their favorite food. And I prefer, of course, not reading but speaking, yes?" (PLT10).

Data obtained through teacher interview revealed that teachers mostly employed English as a medium of instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> I prefer English. They want, they require from me to speak English but, of course, sometimes when we are revising, now grammar, for example, in the second classes we have already started grammar book and there are all necessary things there. I try to say something in Polish as well but I try to, I want it to be minimal. Yes, to be minimal (PLT10).

6.1.1.3. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Employing Teaching Materials

Obtained data through interviews with teachers revealed effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers about employing teaching materials during instruction in Poland. With reference to employing teaching materials, the data provided information about using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, and using visuals.

Related to using authentic teaching materials, obtained data revealed that almost all of the teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Of course, the recordings, so it is played and use and umm...sometimes I pick her ideas and copies something like examples, some traditions, something like this because we mix with them for exams, some culture books" (PLT1). Another teacher stated that, "Yeah, definitely authentic materials. I bring, bring, papers, newspapers, magazines… Today, today we did poetry. I think it's the most motivating. If a teacher teaches only through the course book, I think it's limiting and not very motivating for students" (PLT12). Classroom observation data was also consistent with the interview data.

Even though most of the teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their lessons, teachers and especially students claimed that the number of the teaching materials employed by teachers was limited and teachers didn't employ self-developed teaching materials (PLT1, PLT2, PLT6, PLT10). One of the teachers

explained this as follows: “Ummm… Sometimes, I will say, because there are so many things, resources that I don’t really need. For example, yesterday we were playing at another school again which I actually created, yes. So I do sometimes but it is time-consuming” (PLT 2). Another teacher stated that, “Well, this semester, I gave them 2 listening tests, or only one. I am planning another one in some groups. And everything is provided for the teachers by the publishing houses, so I don’t have to construct reading and listening tests by myself” (PLT6). One other teacher expressed that, “Sometimes, yes. Sometimes but to make the story short I think that 24 hours I’ve got now. For the teacher and for woman who is getting older, it’s really very difficult” (PLT10).

In addition to few teaching materials and little self-developed teaching materials usage, the results also revealed that apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers didn’t use online teaching sources or applications during instruction (PLT1, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> I enjoy but I think that now teenagers and children also use lots of Internet, technology and I can’t really catch up with them because what I think is that the internet, computer technology moderates in a way the way you think in a way to learn. And we don't really use it. So I don't really feel well, really up to date. I think that they must have revolution (PLT5).

Another teacher clarified the situations as follows:

> I’m not using e-board although I was trained how to use it but since I don’t have a… I never have classes in the classroom where the e-board is so I really forgot, frankly speaking, how to use it, yes? So I would have to refresh my memory. But if… it depends on the topic, the grammar topic or the, the, this topic we’re doing from vocabulary topics, from the course books so… So we can use the Internet and, and… I mean this is more refreshing for students then just the book, but all in all I can’t say I always use Internet to, to… Mainly course book and some, some photocopiable materials…(PLT9).

One other teacher expressed that:

> We tried two years ago to work with the students online. They were enthusiastic at first but, of course, there was a problem. I tried to, to check systematically but they didn’t want to work systematically on it, OK? So I gave up because there was no point. I gave up. Those who wanted to, they really worked because you had to, you had to give them some kind of exercises and some of them they did it, OK? And some of them didn’t do anything, yes? So afterwards I asked them, “You are free to do all of the exercises all of you want.” Only, you know, a few people, they worked on those exercises. Technology, materials because as I say I’m old enough and I, you know, not always, I use this…(PLT10).

Apart from online teaching sources or applications, except for some teachers, most of the teachers employed visuals during instruction. However, most of the teachers used visuals through media during instruction and it was unsatisfactory (PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers explained that:

> I, of course I use the Internet and we watch short films We listen to, for example, my students and I we all like listening to TED talks because we can choose the topic and we can listen about anything we like. You can choose the, kind of, English they are using because some people are native speakers of English, but you can also hear people from all over the world. And their English is very varied so, so I think it's a very good source of, of, of listening material (PLT11).

6.1.1.4. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Assessment and Evaluation

Within respect to assessment and evaluation, the data provided information about providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and re-teaching following the assessments.

Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, the data revealed that most of the teachers gave feedback for student homework assignments. (PLT5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11). One of the teachers providing feedback explained that:

> Yes, I do. Ummm…Sometimes, I just walk around the classroom and sometimes, I ask them to hand in their homework. I sometimes… umm they tell me it was difficult, they need some help, explanations …OK . I am going through each part once again very clearly and some kind of revision" (PLT6).

Another teacher expressed that, "Yes, of course. of course I write down all the mistakes and first time I'm, I ask them 'You said two children' whether this is, for example, whether this is right or how should you… OK? And then they try, they know, they are aware of the mistakes" (PLT10). One other teacher clarified that:

> If it was obligatory I have to check it but, again, I don't always read every single example because sometimes it's just practice. If it's vocabulary practice I ask them if they have any problems, if they have questions, if there is anything that they didn't know. You know, how to,

> how to solve a, a problem. Then we, then we explain it. But I don't always check everything because it takes a lot of time and I don't really have this time (PLT11).

Related to checking and providing oral and written feedback for student homework assignments, only one of the teachers stated that she had been using online homework assignments to improve and monitor their progress. Regarding that, she said that, "Yeah, I have a good system for…now first classes are going to have it. There is an online resource, so it checks automatically. And I see their progress and they see their mistakes as well. I just have to…." (PLT1). Apart from giving, checking, and providing feedback on oral and written homework assignments, the data also provided information about assessment. Concerning assessment, it was found that all of the teachers frequently made formative assessments during their instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). Related to formative assessment, one of the teachers stated that, "I like quite to measure than not like after month or two but regular quizzes, vocabulary quizzes and ummm…" (PLT2). One other teacher figured out that:

> I have a lot of grades, really. Sometimes I have 10-11 grades because I assess them very frequently. I mean by each class not everybody, but when they contribute something interesting to the class, I assess it. But, on the whole, it is advisable to carry out like 4 exams? No, I think 3, maybe 4. Well, you know I have my own rules, so I am not able to tell you how many exams we are obliged to carry out. As I have just told you, I have a lot of grades, a lot of quizzes, mock exams, tasks, reading, listening tests (PLT6).

Another teacher explained that:

> I've got quite a lot of grades and I also vocabulary tests, yes? So they are every three lessons, four lessons, OK, short tests for plusses, for minuses, short grammar tests. So I, nowadays I have got really a lot of tests, OK? But I try to, try to be systematic, yes? It is very difficult task for the teacher… (PLT10).

Related to formative assessments, one other teacher stated that:

> I do use formative assessment in this way that I do not pay attention to grades and I, kind of, say it openly to my students that, well, XXX, I mean, the grades are some kind of feedback but I would rather tell you what you're good at, what you need to work on. The grade is simply because there is such a requirement, so I'll give you the grade but usually I, I generally give more positive grades than negative grades (PLT12).

Obtained data also revealed that apart from formative assessments, teachers also conducted regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress (PLT1,

PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). Related to summative assessment, one of teachers explained that "Ummm… After each unit, they have got control work, short one. Give them…" (PLT1). Another teacher said that, "Yes, I tell all of them. I also write short quizzes, and also larger tests. Well, they usually write a test but I also check their listening and reading and speaking also. They get marks for all the skills" (PLT5). One other teacher expressed that, "Short tests but not only. Sometimes there are longer when [INAUDIBLE] let's say from the student's book when there is one unit, or after two units there is a longer test, right?" (PLT10).

In addition to formative and summative assessments, teachers also provided oral and written feedback following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). Concerning providing feedback for formative and summative assessments, one of the teachers explained that, "I collect them but with the each writing, check them, put marks, then give them back for them" (PLT1). Another teacher expressed that:

> So I correct the test, give them to see the results and what mistakes they made. They can take a photo of it, yes, but they have to give it back to me. Yes, obviously, that's what I said that they, they, they, they see their tests, right? I… whenever I'm handing the papers back to them so I look at each one and OK John, you made this and that mistake, which was wrong. Now, if you don't, if you still don't understand… because I, I always correct their mistakes, I don't leave them uncorrected, you know? I just… so I correct so that they can see what, what mistakes they made and… ok… and… so I always say…(PLT9).

One other teacher stated that:

> Yes. Yes of course. We try to do it together, to analyze together. For example three years ago final examination students they used to write essays. Because at the examination, I don't know if you know, I have got an article to write for and against essay, opinion essay or formal letter. And [INAUDIBLE] we try to practice. And we try to analyze. I correct all of the mistakes and we try to analyze after every test we try to do it together to explain everything, yes? (PLT10).

Furthermore, obtained data also revealed that apart from providing oral or written feedback for the assessments, most of the teachers, especially at School B, also did re-teaching, if necessary, following a summative assessment (PLT5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). Regarding that, one of the teachers stated that, "I make revision, revision the courses" (PLT5). Another teacher expressed that, "Yes. I

prepare some revision sessions, we go over that again" (P6). One other teacher expressed that:

> So if they, if there were some points that were really hard to understand for them so it resulted with many mistakes and many students making mistakes, so then I explain again. I explain again what… why they make this mistake, they even ask questions why, why did you cross it out here, why couldn't it be like that? So I say because… and I explain, yes? (PLT9).

Also, another teacher at School B explained that:

> Yeah, yeah I mean I will, but we, we…probably I wouldn't have time to, to, to do that individually so I simply explain everything once again to the whole group and maybe I ask them to peer check what they know, what they don't know. And then I test them once again or we, we practice more, but it's probably more with grammar than with the skills (PLT12).

6.1.1.5. Summary of Perceptions of English Language Teachers in Poland regarding their Effectiveness in Teaching English

To define effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland, researcher obtained data through interviews with English teachers. Related to effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland reveal four main categories: (1) effectiveness perceptions about classroom management, (2) effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies, (3) effectiveness perceptions about employing teaching materials, and (4) effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation. Effectiveness perceptions about classroom management are comprised of allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements. English language teachers in Poland have difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction. Concerning defining classroom rules, the data revealed that most of the teachers define classroom rules at the beginning of the school year. However, teachers don't collaborate with students to define classroom rules. With regard to allowing students to explain learning difficulties, it was obtained that teachers allow students to explain learning difficulties during the instruction. Furthermore, teachers also motivate students to respond correctly or incorrectly. Related to employing various seating arrangements, most of the teachers prefer a traditional seating arrangement or horseshoe

arrangement during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement.

Effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland about using instructional strategies involve employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction. Employing a variety of group strategies varies from school to school in Poland. Most of the English Language teachers at School A prefer whole group teaching during instruction instead of varying the strategies. However, English Language teachers at School B mostly adopt a variety of group strategies such as individual, small-group and whole-group during instruction in Poland. Rather than group strategies, most of the English Language teachers at school A and B mostly employ pair work during instruction. Employing communicative practice also varies from school to school as well in Poland. Teachers at School A employ little communicative practice; however, English Language teachers at School B employ enough communicative practice during instruction. With respect to authentic practice, it is clear that most of the teachers don't make authentic practice during instruction. Finally, in Poland, English Language teachers mostly employ English as a medium of instruction.

Effectiveness perceptions of English Language teachers about employing teaching materials consist of using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, and using visuals. Related to using authentic teaching materials, almost all of the English Language teachers employ authentic teaching materials during their lessons; however, most of the English Language teachers don't employ self-developed teaching materials. Furthermore, English Language teachers in Poland also don't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction. Apart from online teaching sources or applications, most of the English Language teachers employ visuals during instruction.

Lastly, effectiveness perceptions of English Language teachers about assessment and evaluation include providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and re-teaching following the assessments. Related to providing feedbacks (oral or written)

for homework assignments, most of the English Language teachers give feedback for student homework assignments. However, only few of the English Language teachers give online homework assignments. Apart from homework assignments, English Language teachers at both schools frequently make formative assessments during instruction. Furthermore, English Language teachers at both schools also conduct regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress. In addition to that, English Language teachers provide oral and written feedbacks following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments; however, only the English Language teachers at School B do re-teaching, if necessary, following summative assessments.

The results of the English Language teacher interviews revealed that, effectiveness perception of English Language teachers teaching at the lower achieving school is lower in some respects when compared with the teachers teaching at higher achieving school in Poland.

6.1.2. Perception of English Language Teachers in Poland regarding the Factors Influencing their Effectiveness in Teaching English

Data analysis obtained through interviews with English language teachers in Poland revealed that factors related to teacher education, personal and social factors, instruction and context influence their effectiveness perceptions in Poland.

6.1.2.1. Factors Related to Teacher education: Pre-service and in-service Education

Regarding factors related to teacher education, two subcategories emerged influencing the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland: Pre-service and in-service education.

Concerning pre-service education, it was evident that teacher comments were mostly related to the curriculum of higher education and to the teaching learning process. In this regard, most of the teachers believed that the pre-service education was mostly theoretical (PLT1, PLT2 PLT5, PLT6). Teachers stated this situation as follows: "Generally I am not satisfied when I look back. I think my knowledge was really theoretical" (PLT2). Regarding theoretical pre-service education, another teacher stated that:

> I guess they were although I strongly believe that just after, you know, graduating from university you don't know much about teaching. You gain this kind of experience with years. And also, I have learned a lot during those 16 years – I have learned a lot of English and I have also learned a lot of, of, well, I gain a lot of experience and a lot of information about, about how to teach, about how to adapt your teaching methods to the particular group of students. Do it's not like you are a graduate from the university and you know everything. I, I think I would make it more practical for teachers, especially (PLT11).

Another teacher explained this situation as: "not really. Only the theory" (PLT1). Related to the teaching learning process, one of the teachers also criticized the teaching methods employed by the instructors during the instruction. She stated that her opinion like this: "I learned everything when I came to school. Why? I don't know why. Because probably there were not proper methods, were no… any innovative forms" (PLT9). Another teacher expressed that, "I think the methods were quite old" (PLT2). The same teacher also criticized the insufficient number of courses on pedagogical knowledge. Related to this, she stated that, "there were not enough courses" (PLT2). Another teacher criticized insufficient number of courses on content knowledge, as well. With respect to that, she explained that:

> Plus I think I, I don't think I learned enough about other fields in philology like about history, literature… I, actually, I quite miss it because right now I'm running a course which is after classes, an extracurricular course, only English literature, well, English language literature, actually, and I, I miss some, some information. I would like to know more so that I could talk more aspects of literature with my students. So I have to make up for it myself (PLT11).

In addition to few courses on pedagogical and content knowledge during their pre-service education, teachers also disapproved of the teaching content, which had alack of theory and information about talented or mixed-ability students (PLT5, PLT6). One of the teachers expressed her idea about this as follows: "Well, I think there aren't lots of classes about how to work with talented students or mixed abilities" (PLT5). Another teacher stated that, "But now since we have multilevel groups so it's, it's, it's not as… as what… as rewarding as it used to be. Yes? Because, frankly, we don't know much about the pupils we teach but still it's the same course of pedagogic work as, as with my class, right?" (PLT9). Related to teaching materials employed by the teachers in their pre-service education, the same teacher mentioned that instructors had not employed any technological tools or online applications. Related to this, she stated that: "We don't use Internet at that time and in English" (PLT5). With respect to employing teaching materials during pre-service education, another teacher said that:

> We didn't have such sources as Internet, you know, some other things. So at that time it was rather difficult …..I graduated from university in 1984… and it was at the end of the 70s, 1970s …. When I started so it was really very, you know, poor, because we used only books and there were not too many of them at the university and of course there were no such things as I say, as Internet, computer or something like that so probably it was not, definitely it was different. And it was more difficult as I say because we used only one book and…(PLT10).

In addition, teachers explained that they had not taken any courses about teaching students with mixed ability (PLT5, PLT6). One of the teachers described this situation as follows: "Something about strong students, teaching at certain different levels and I think that, for example, putting in groups, students who are weak and strong. I think that it doesn't work properly" (PLT6). Apart from a lack of information about teaching mixed-ability students, teachers also criticized practice teaching at schools during their pre-service education. Even though there were teachers who believed they had enough practice teaching at various kinds of schools during pre-service education (PLT5, PLT6, PLT12, PLT11), there were also teachers who criticized the amount of practice teaching during their pre-service education

(PLT9, PLT10). However, in the end it was determined that most of the teachers were satisfied with their practice teaching during pre-service education. One of the teachers satisfied with her practice teaching experince at various kinds of schools stated that, "We had some teaching experience primary school students and secondary school students. And I think it was very effective. Yes. At different levels and different kinds of schools exactly" (PLT5). Another teacher explained that:

> I got a lot of practice during my university study. Teaching practice you mean? Exactly. In the first stage of my education, in the 2nd year, we had practice teaching with primary school students and each of us had like one lesson a month. And later, in the 3rd year, we had to choose one high school and throughout the whole year, we had classes with students, high school students and I think that it is like 5 hours a week throughout the whole year (PLT6).

The other teacher clarified his satisfaction with enough teaching practice as follows:

> We had a lot of teaching practice as well, so…, so yeah. I feel I am quite confident about pedagogy and, and methodology. I cannot complain. Probably you know just like being a student, you know sometimes skip things, sometimes flunk things and that's…that's life. But I have a feeling I was offered a fair treatment I was given thorough preparation but it was my…about my choices if I, if I used it up to my maximum potential or not. But I've got a feeling, yeah, it was quite good. Yeah, I think it was sufficient. I started teaching very early and I combined my teaching practice with my teaching profession, from the very beginning. I had some teaching practice… it was just enough. At the time I feel…I felt it was even too much. But I think it was kind of difficult just to grasp everything. But from the perspective of now I feel it was adequate (PLT12).

The same teacher also expressed his satisfaction with teaching experiences at various kinds of schools. He stated that, "At teachers' college we were required to have the teaching practice in different types of schools and as for that I really, kind of, benefitted from that" (PLT12). Unlike teachers satisfied with their practice teaching experiences, some other teachers criticized the lack of teaching practice during pre-service education. Related to teaching practice offered during pre-service education to teachers, results revealed that the teachers who had graduated from university a long time ago were dissatisfied with the amount of practice teaching they had. Related to that, one of the teachers who had been teaching for 40 years disclosed that:

> Because I was still lacking confidence. Still. So you need to have more practice, yes? I don't really remember how long, how long was it that we had this chance to practice. I don't really

> remember. It was, you know, dim, past and dim, I mean dim past, yes. It wasn't sufficient. I mean it wasn't sufficient but I was glad to have the chance, yes (PLT9).

The other teacher who had many years of teaching experience also criticized the little teaching experience offered during pre-service education. She said that:

> I have never thought how being a teacher but when I went I had practice; I don't know how long it was because as I say it was quite a long time ago. Was it one month? I really don't know but I started my practice in one of the secondary schools in Warsaw and I liked it. Simply. But nothing else. I didn't have another practice I suppose at school. It was only about one month during my studies. At the end I don't think I had enough practice at that time (PLT10).

With regard to in-service teacher education, even though there were lots of professional development activities offered to the teachers, most of them were commercial. For this reason, some of the teachers stated free in-service teacher education activities on pedagogical knowledge offered by public institutions were not sufficient in number (PLT 5, PLT 6, PLT11). One of the teachers reported that, "I can't see. Not enough" (PLT5). Another teacher explained this situation as follows:

> I think that there are not enough such training courses. I think that the number is not sufficient definitely. And if you don't want to do it on your own, for example, you don't… anything that is really I don't want to do. So I must complain about it (PLT6).

Related to the limited number of free in-service teacher education activities, another teacher expressed that, "The problem that we sometimes have is that the ones that are organized, there are quite a lot actually, in Warsaw, but most of them are commercial and you have to pay for them. Which means that, obviously no teacher would like to pay for them with, with their own money" (PLT11). In addition to that, most of the teachers were not satisfied with the in-service teacher education because it was not practical (PLT 2, PLT 5, PLT 6, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers declared that, "Some of them are quite good but mostly they aren't. I am sorry yes. Not practical, I mean, when I went ummm… they were rather theoretical, the same things again" (PLT2). Another teacher specified that, "They read a theory and they don't understand it (PLT5)." Yet other teacher stated that:

> My perception is that sometimes they are too theoretical, not enough practical. And students… I mean teachers hate the most the theory because they want the chunky thing. The thing that they can use, that they can implement just right away. They know the theory, they are educated people what they need is simple… simply the stuff that they can use right away and they can take it from the development course, the training course and then just use it. So I've got a

> feeling that sometimes maybe those courses which are provided are too theoretical. Yeah. I would provide teachers with more practical trainings, development opportunities (PLT12).

Furthermore, related to the content of the in-service teacher education provided by public institutions, some of the teachers believe that content of the in-service teacher education is not up to date (PLT2, PLT5, PLT11). One of the teachers revealed that: "Some of them are quite good but mostly they aren't. Somehow in Poland, all these courses are boring. But I haven't seen much, anything offered that will be of real interest. They have to be very good for us to go" (PLT2). Another teacher stated that, "So I don't really feel well, really up to date. I think that they must have revolution" (PLT5). Another teacher expressed that "new types of activities, so that, you know, we keep our students interested. That's the way, that's the way they are brought up and that's, that's what they expect from us, actually. So, so I guess it's really necessary" (PLT10). Due to the limited number of, amount of practice in and content of the in-service teacher education, some of the teachers were more motivated to take part in the in-service teacher education held by publishers as they found it more practical (PLT1, PLT2). One of the teachers explained that, "I always got something new to influence my works so ummm… just I know who is interesting, who is not. So I choose these speakers were really good to me. Polish and British. Very often I just went to listen to some offers of course books" (PLT1). Another teacher stated that, "I really like going to these, let's say, workshops prepared by publishing houses. Because they, for example, implied offers of the books and there were people who actually wrote the books and practically..." (PLT2).

On the other hand, at the personal level, teachers had the motivation to develop themselves professionally (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3, PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT11, PLT12). Related to professional development on an individual basis, one of the teachers explained that, "I do a lot of reading. I read, for example, foreign languages at school, different magazines and university publications" (PLT6). Another teacher said that, "I choose, now, a lot of online courses, so now I am doing all the time and I started going deeper, let's say, into ICT, modern technologies" (PLT2). One more teacher stated his self-motivation to develop himself professionally as follows:

> I am a member of the International Association of Teachers of English, I regularly go to conferences, I co-organize conferences, I go to workshops, I… whenever I have a possibility I, I travel abroad to speak in conferences or simply to take part in some workshops and, well, of course I read some, some magazines for, for teachers, ELT...Probably I would encourage

> teachers more, teachers of languages, more to study abroad or go to courses, EU funded courses. I think, I think teachers do not use up the potential of, of, of such things in their development (PLT12).

Obtained data also showed that in Poland schools organized in-service teacher education activities for teachers (PLT5, PLT12). Related to that, one of the teachers stated her satisfaction with these activities as follows, "I join courses organized by ummm.... CPA. At school, we have conversing, courses, workshops" (PLT5). Another teacher expressed that, "In our school we teachers of language simply co-operate and we organize our own development trainings for which we invite our head teacher" (PLT12).

6.1.2.2. Personal and Social Factors: Learner-related and Parent related Factors

Regarding personal and social factors, two subcategories emerged influencing the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland: learner-related factors and parent related factors.

Concerning learner-related factors, teachers in Poland identified motivation, cognitive characteristics and emotional conditions (inhibitions) as the factors influencing leaners.

Most of the teachers pointed out that students did not have enough motivation to learn English (PLT1, PLT2, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11). One of the teachers explained this situation as follows: "I actually think they should have inner motivation. Sometimes of course they don't" (PLT2). Another teacher stated that using gadgets was one of the factors student motivation. She expressed that, "Usually this student doesn't want to do anything more, anything special. They are too lazy or just don't want to have more works" (PLT1). Another teacher expressed that:

> And whenever I tell them how to, I don't know, how to write an argumentative essay they seem so bored. They don't really want to listen. And then when they are actually writing this essay, they make the mistakes which come from the fact that they didn't listen when I was talking about it so they, they, I don't know, they somehow refuse to, to learn. Because they think they already know what is necessary to pass the exam well and they don't want to do anything about it (PLT11).

Furthermore, cognitive characteristics of students were one of the factors affecting students' current learning (PLT2, PLT5). Polish teachers underlined the fact that

students had lack of knowledge related to previous learning objectives in the former grade. One of the teachers explained that:

> Because the problem is that they don't have in papers that they have, they are below level ummm…that they are below certain level of intelligence, yes. It can be such school, it can be normal schools right now in Poland, so it is a problem. Because…and another is that they don't have enough knowledge from previous schools, yes (PLT2).

In addition to lack of motivation and cognitive characteristics of students, emotional inhibitions such as losing face, criticism and shyness also hindered students' learning (PLT10, PLT11). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> I've go for example one disadvantaged student, disadvantages student and this person in the final class and this year, because it has always been the problem, the person's afraid of speaking. Have you ever had anyone who is afraid of it? And she, she, she always does something like that, yes? And of course grammar or something, but she don't want to speak, she don't want to say any single word (PLT10).

Related to emotional conditions, another teacher expressed that:

> It's, it's, I think it's a matter of personality. There are people who don't have a problem with speaking, even in a foreign language, even if they make mistakes. They are simply talkative, they talk a lot and they do it whenever they can. And those people don't have this kind of problem, you know, if I come and listen, because they are not afraid of making mistakes because they, they are more for, for, you know, communication. And there are people who are very self-conscious and they don't really like other people – especially the teacher – to hear them making a mistake. So they prefer not to say anything. Which is of course a loss but you can't help it, I mean, it's, it's the kind of person they are, really. And… I don't know. I have an impression that they lose actually on it because people who, who speak more, even if they make a lot of mistakes, they always make a better impression and … of a person who actually speaks very fluently even if they make mistakes. And those people who don't say anything because they want to only produce perfect sentences they are seen as poorer speakers of the language (PLT11).

Apart from the factors arising from emotional inhibitions, lack of awareness about English was also a factor influencing teachers (PLT9, PLT10). One of the teachers expressed this as follows:

> People say, "I like learning other things but I don't like languages." There is also such a situation. One of the students at least – and it was not my student, by the way, she told me, "Don't, don't worry teacher because we have to learn, we would like to be doctors, for example, we have to learn biology, chemistry more. This is our goal. This is our aim and the

> English language we'll manage somehow," yes? And the results are different, as I say (PLT10).

Another teacher stated that "Honestly, we don't care about English; we have other subjects to concentrate on, other subjects that we are not good at" (PLT9).

Concerning parent-related factors, parental involvement and support were in the factors influencing perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness. Teachers in Poland reported that parental support, parental engagement such as parental behavior, collaboration, and support, as well as the socio-economic status of parents including conditions such as broken homes influenced teacher effectiveness. Most of the teachers stated that parental involvement and support were unsatisfactory (PLT1, PLT5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers expressed her opinion as follows: "I don't have my own class. So no. I don't have any contact with parents. So I have just a few conversations with some students who have really low/bad marks. That's it" (PLT 6). Related to lack of parental involvement and support, another teacher stated that:

> In fact, I, since I'm not the form mistress, so my, my, my contacts with parents are very, very limited. So in fact, we can… I can meet them if they… if their kid has poor results because when they have good results their parents don't come and talk to the teacher. But they want to, to know why they results are so poor so what's beneath their performance, their bad performance (PLT9).

Related to parental involvement and support, one of the teachers criticized the fact that parents only got in touch if there was a problem. She explained this as follows: "I don't really have contact with the parents. I don't know, I think the way it works is that if there is no problem, the parents don't need to contact the teacher. So I don't really…" (PLT11). On the other hand, one of the teachers reported that some of the students had low socio-economic status and broken homes as well. She clarified that situation as follows:

> They can do more. They can achieve more. And I think that family background for many of them is really poor. They don't have support from their parents. I don't want to say that these parents are bad. Just to be seen working from the very early morning up to night. So they don't have time for children. I do not have got almost half of students which are not in full families. Only mother or only father or even even no parents but just grandparents brings up this these childs. So maybe sometimes I have students which are just from different parts of Poland and they live here in Warsaw with father's family or friends of their parents (PLT 1).

Teachers in Poland also explained that parents didn't collaborate with them (PLT5, PLT6, PLT9). Related to collaboration, one of the teachers stated that, "I think about the parents. And well they don't really because it is not umm… Only there are serious problem with the students" (PLT5). Another teacher criticized the parents' interrogation instead of collaboration. She stated that, "Unfortunately. Not the cooperation, interrogation" (PLT9).

Moreover, teachers believed that parents' attitude and behavior were also among the factors influencing their effectiveness. Related to parental behavior, one of the teachers stated that:

> So it is difficult to learn if you are not at lesson. Right? So it is difficult for them and they have got more and more material to cope with, so they give up. And parents usually write, "Please, my son/daughter was absent because s/he was ill," which is not true. They do this to protect them but in fact, they make harm to their children. They can't not be sure; really they don't have this possibility. I said before, they are too demanding or just opposite and they always try to give their children everything. They don't demand several things which ummm…… how to say ummm….. Young person should learn some responsibility for their own attitude, their own behavior and I am afraid they don't have this possibility (PLT 1).

6.1.2.3. Instructional Factors: Curriculum-Related Factors

Concerning instructional factors, obtained data also revealed that factors related to curriculum influenced effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland.

Regarding the content of the curriculum, teachers believed that the number of weekly teaching hours was not sufficient (PLT 2, PLT 5, PLT12). One of the teachers stated that, "I think, with three hours a week in a normal public school and just learning in the classroom, it is not enough unless you are very gifted" (PLT 1). Another teacher explained that, "Now there are only 3 hours a week. It is not enough. Because it was 5 hours a week. So that is not sufficient to teach" (PLT 1). Another teacher pointed out that:

> Generally, we believe that we don't have enough, as teachers, we don't have enough teaching hours to cover all the material that's why you've got to, kind of, reprocess the curriculum so to put it in such a way in your teaching that you do everything but it doesn't kind of take too much of your time because you would like to do some other things outside curriculum just to motivate students for example, right? (PLT12).

With respect to the theory and practice balance in the curriculum, some of the teachers believed that the teaching curriculum allowed them to teach in a practical way (PLT5, PLT6). One of the teachers expressed that, "Well I think that most really things are written at school. I found it practical. So really I have heard about the changes of course… And as it is now, it is very practical. It aims to teach students how to use the language, how to speak, how to understand" (PLT 5). Another teacher explained this as follows:

> Right now we have got a new curriculum and that has been designed in a really logical way. So there is focused on communication and I think that it was based on the documents by the Council of Europe. So they have provided some certain skills, productive, interactive skills and it is a curriculum based on this document. I think that there are no gaps actually (PLT 5).

On the other hand, some of the teachers stated that the content of the curriculum was detailed and intense (PLT 1, PLT6, PLT10). One of the teachers expressed that, "There is not enough time" (PLT1). Another teacher stated that, "It is also valid for students. How right it is to expect from students who have 8 hours of lessons in day and 18 courses in week to do good things. Of course we try to motivate students" (PLT6). One other teacher explained that:

> There are too many lessons. If I were, if I had let's say 14-10 lessons I would be an artist now. I'm a craftsman and I try to do my best, OK? I try to do my best, yes? But I don't have enough time. We've got a lot of tests, short tests, because I like to revise – grammar, vocabulary. I really like it, OK, because maybe they will remember something, yes? …to remember about everything, to be really systematic and for me the most problem nowadays is the number of the lessons. There are too many of them for me (PLT10).

Related to the contribution of teachers to the design of the curriculum, almost all of the teachers reported that they did not have any opportunity to contribute to curriculum design (PLT 1, PLT 2, PLT 5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "If I myself influence the system or not? Not really. Nobody has ever asked me my opinion" (PLT 1). Another teacher stated that, "No. It is impossible" (PLT 5). One other teacher expressed that:

> No. And I do not have such aspirations. I don't think so. You've got to be very high in the hierarchy of… in, in some institutions, some pedagogical institutions to, to be able to do it because it's done on, on a ministry level. So... I think it would be difficult. Now, just nowadays, the curriculum is being rewritten once again and maybe next year we're gonna have a new curriculum but I don't think many teachers have this ability to… possibility to, to, to do that (PLT12).

Related to the teaching curriculum, specifically to resources like course books and teaching materials, teachers stated that they had freedom to select materials, which influenced them positively (PLT 1, PLT 5, PLT 6, PLT9). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Exactly. Right now, we have got a wide range of teaching materials. I can't complain" (PLT 6). Another teacher stated that, "I can choose the course book, I can use different materials" (PLT 5). One other teacher expressed that, "But since the book I'm using, I like it because it's important for the teacher to like the book, yes? It's our choice to choose the course book" (PLT9). However, one of the teachers explained that material selection freedom for teachers was not sufficient. She stated that, "Yes I would like to give them, you know, to give the teachers more freedom to select their own materials, yes? To, to make English really great pleasure kind of entertainment" (PLT10). Besides the freedom to select teaching materials and course books, another factor affecting teaching effectiveness was the flexibility of the curriculum. One of the teachers stated that the teaching curriculum of English was flexible enough. She explained that:

> Yes, it's generally, it's, it is flexible but it, it must be flexible because, as I said, our students are a very high level students so we have to, well, we have to adapt the curriculum and we have to adapt whatever we are supposed to do with them to their possibilities, to their, you know, to their current knowledge…(PLT11).

On the other hand, teachers in Poland also criticized the external assessment called the "Matura" as it affected the design of teaching and caused demotivation for students (PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> And sometimes certain techniques have to be, I don't know, modified, according to the kind of group you are working with. And that's basically what I do during the first two years. During the last year, when it's mostly exam preparation what I do in the classroom is obviously very much influenced by, by, by the exam because I, I, I want to be responsible, right, a responsible teacher and I actually take part in the responsibility for their result at the exam (PLT11).

Another teacher stated that the external assessment caused demotivation of learning for students. She said that:

> It's structured and it's demotivating in the way that it's simply… doesn't have much to do with the real communication. So I usually tell my students, "OK guys so we, we, we need the course for three years so 1.5 year we learn English and the next 1.5 year we learn Matura. Because… that's that and they…(PLT12).

6.1.2.4. Contextual Factors

Concerning contexual factors, obtained data also revealed that factors related to context of teaching influenced effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland. The contextual factors include chracteristics such as initial teacher education, learning environment, salary, and teacher inspection and evaluation.

Regarding initial teacher education, one of the teachers stated that they did not get any feedback about their teaching performance to improve and advance their teaching (PLT2). She explained this as follows:

> I wasn't supervised, that I would really like to be supervised, I mean somebody to tell me my mistakes and so. And I actually never had it. I actually applied this year for this headmaster to do it. Because before, it was like on paper. You know, we have this steps: you start…. You always had this supervisor, but you know how it looks like. They signed the papers. Nobody ever visited me. And I would like to but how can I tell the other teacher who is my supervisor, "Please, come if they…Ok, let's tell the headmaster that I visit you four times this semester." Do you understand? I think it looks like that (PLT 2).

Some of the teachers criticized the learning environment as it consisted of students with mixed ability and there was no ability grouping of students (PLT 1, PLT 2, PLT 5, PLT10). One of the teachers pointed out that:

> Well, I try. ...Sometimes it is very difficult. Because they have really different abilities in English level. Well, I see that boys are better in English level. It is because they play lots of computer games and they are very fluent. So they are very good learners. It is a problem (PLT 5).

Another teacher stated that:

> Of course I've got problems because I say that this is not a very… the level is really different. We try to divide students from different classes according to the level of the language… Yesterday a boy asked me the question: "How can you recognize that there is one woman and two women" in, in a written form, you understand? It was written "women" w-o-m-e-n and he didn't know whether this is singular or plural form. So I was a little bit confused I have to say. [INAUDIBLE] really. Because it was surprising for me. Level is very different, you know? My groups, let's say they… the level is, the level is quite OK because it's upper intermediate (PLT10).

Another teacher declared that, "I told them, the ones who are very good to buy a second book that they can use in the classroom and for example, they think it is boring for them what they are doing. It's difficult" (PLT2).

Another contextual factor is about the salary of teachers. Some of the teachers criticized the low salary of the teachers in Poland (PLT 6, PLT9, PLT10). Regarding salary, one of the teachers stated that, "I think that the situation will be better if the teachers were paid more. They wouldn't escape from schools. Definitely!" (PLT 6). Another teacher expressed that:

> By April I will have been 60 years old so I think it is enough but, of course, according to the regulations, rules in our country I will have to work more. And even, I think this is not very good for the students as well but the problem is that when we are retired we don't have enough money. Some of us, at least in the public education, to live. So we have got a lot of teachers here who are retired and they still work. At least a few hours, yes? (PLT10).

Finally, some of the teachers in both cases criticized the limited number of teacher inspections and evaluations (PLT2, PLT11). Regarding inspection and evaluation, one of the teachers at School A stated that:

> The principal should visit you and also if you are doing this steps, let's say, you have your supervisor, who is actually paid for being a supervisor. They should visit you and they should help you with writing because we have to write some… like reports, we have exams, you know that. And our salary depends on it also (PLT 2).

Another teacher at School B expressed that, "What I don't like is that there's no control over whether we do the things we are supposed to do. Whether we, we prepare, we prepare our students for the exam the way we should. Nobody checks that" (PLT11).

6.1.2.5. Summary of Factors Influencing Perceptions of English Language Teachers in Teaching English in Poland

Results revealed that four main factors influence the effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland: (1) factors related to teacher education, (2) personal and social factors, (3) instructional factors, and (4) contextual factors. Factors related to teacher education are comprised of pre-service education and in-service teacher education. Regarding preservice education, content, teaching-learning process and teaching materials employed during the undergraduate education

influence perception of English language teachers effectiveness. With respect to content, theoretical pre-service education, insufficient number of courses on pedagogical knowledge, lack of theory about teaching talented or mixed-ability students and lack of courses about teaching students with mixed ability are the factors influencing perception of English language teacher effectiveness in Poland. Related to the teaching-learning process, teaching methods employed by the teachers during pre-service education is a factor. Regarding teaching materials, lack of technological tool and online application usage by the teachers during pre-service education is a factor influencing teacher effectiveness. Related to teacher education another factor affecting perception of perceptions teachers effectiveness in Poland is in-service teacher education. Few number of free in-service teacher education activities, theory based trainings, and the lack of up-to-date and motivating content of in-service teacher education are the factors within the scope of in-service teacher education. However, in Poland in-service teacher education activities are also offered by the schools as well. It is clear that teachers in Poland are motivated to take part in in-service teacher education activities organized at school and institutions outside of school.

Apart from teacher education, personal and social factors originating from learners and parents also influence perception of English language teachers' effectiveness. Learner-related factors consist of lack of learner motivation, cognitive characteristics, emotional inhibitions such as losing face, criticism and shyness, and lack of awareness towards English. Parental factors such as parental involvement and support, social status such as broken homes, parental collaboration, and parents' attitude and behavior influence teacher effectiveness. However, lack of parental support, social status such as broken homes, and parents' attitude and behavior are the issues experienced by the teachers at School A in Poland.

The third category, instructional factors, influencing the perception of English language teacher effectiveness includes curriculum-related factors. Curriculum-related factors involve content and teaching material. These factors include few numbers of weekly teaching hours, detailed and intense content, no opportunity to contribute to design of the curriculum, freedom of material selection and flexibility in the English teaching curriculum.

Contextual factors are the final factor influencing perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland. Initial teacher education, learning environment consisting of students with mixed ability, salary of the teaching staff, and inspection and evaluation of teachers are the factors that emerged in the category of contextual factors.

6.1.3. Perceptions of English Language Teachers in Turkey regarding their Effectiveness in Teaching English

In this part of the study, the results on English language teachers' perceptions about their effectiveness were presented. Data analyses revealed that effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers' in Turkey categorized in classroom management, using instructional strategies, employment of teaching materials, assessment and evaluation.

6.1.3.1. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Classroom Management

With regard to classroom management, the data provided information about allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, and employing various seating arrangements.

With regard to allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction, the data revealed that all of the teachers had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11). Related to that, one of the teachers explained that:

> No! Because classrooms consist of about 35 students. I think 35 students in a language class are very high. We have a problem like this. I wish there were ability groups. For example, in a classroom five of the students understand the things that I teach in the book. Most of the students have low level. Hence, when I do something, most of the students might not understand that (TRT1).

Another teacher stated that, "No! It is impossible. It is impossible to spare time for each student. As far as possible… If there is a positive or negative cases, in that case I must allocate more time only in such cases unfortunately..." (TRT5). One other teacher said that "Actually, I can't allocate time. I try to push my limits. There is nothing to do" (TRT6). Another teacher from school A explained this as follows: "I allocate more time to the students who are more motivated. For others, if a student is uninterested, I can't force him/her" (TRT7). Another teacher expressed that, "I allocate time. Especially, during group works, pair works, I try to help each of them as much as possible. However, can I achieve it 100 per cent? It is not clear!" (TRT9).

With respect to defining classroom rules, teachers pointed out that even though some of the teachers defined classroom rules, most of the teacher didn't define classroom

rules. One of the teachers defining classroom rules explained this as follows: “Of course! At the beginning of the school year, I discuss it with students” (TRT1). Another teacher stated that:

> I generally prefer to have classroom rules. I do not have any problems. Sometimes, there occur some problems. There might be students with problem. We have also at this school. We have students who have a major disciplinary problem in each course. In summary, I try to explain this to the students. At first, I prefer to make my speeches in Turkish language to eliminate students’ complaint that I didn’t hear and understand the speeches in English (PLT5)

Unlike some teachers defining classroom rules, some of the teachers explained that they didn’t define any rules at School A (TRT2, TRT4). One of the teachers expressed that, “I do not have too much rule-making in this regard” (TRT2). Another teacher explained that, “I do not have a rule. I do not know the rules in the classroom because it is absurd to me that English teachers are normative because this language (English) requires freeness” (TRT4). Unlike the teachers at School A, most of the teachers defined classroom rules at School B (TRT7, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> We decide the rules at the beginning of the school year. If object to some of the rules, I explain them; they are convinced. If they are not convinced, we can change it. However, they are generally convinced. Because each of the rule is for the benefit of students. Not speaking Turkish during the instruction. Obligatory English questions and responses. Discussions in English. Medium of instruction is English. Not to join the courses after the teacher (TRT9).

The data also revealed that teachers defining classroom rules didn’t collaborate with students to define the rules at School A. Related to collaboration with students, one of the teachers who defined classroom rules stated that, “There are already rules at school. Students are reminded at the beginning of the year. In class of 40 persons, one by one… It is impossible. On the rules are reminded” (TRT5). Unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B expressed that they had collaboratively defined the classroom rules (TRT8, TRT9, TRT11). Related to that, one of the teachers stated that, “Of course, I ask students what kind of rules they want to add, what is your expectation. We decide it together” (TRT8). Another teacher expressed that, “Yes! We decide it together. I don’t decide on it by myself” (TRT9).

Related to employing various seating arrangements during instructions, it was found that apart from a few teachers at School B, almost all of the teachers employed

traditional seating arrangements during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as a horseshoe or modular arrangement (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT8, TRT10, TRT11). One of the teachers stated that:

> When I was studying at the university, there were twenty persons in a classroom. The number of the persons in a classroom was maximum twenty-five persons. The seating arrangement was horse nail. So, we could see each other. Especially in the prep class, we used to use horse nail seating arrangement a lot. At least, in the speaking courses to see each other. At this school, it is impossible. Classrooms are crowded (TRT1).

Another teacher stated that, "I wish I could use horse nail seating arrangement. However, in that case, the persons in my classroom would be less than twenty persons" (TRT5). One other teacher at School B expressed that, "We can't do anything else for the 1st grades as the seats are fixed. I change students who are introvert and extrovert. When we make speaking practice, I take three students to the board. That's it" (TRT7).

6.1.3.2. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Using Instructional Strategies

In this phase of the results, effectiveness perceptions of teachers in Turkey about using instructional strategies are presented. The data acquired provided information about employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction.

Related to employing a variety of group strategies, the data revealed that instead of employing a variety of group strategies such as individual, smallgroup and wholegroup, almost all of the teachers mostly employed whole group teaching during their instruction (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT5, TRT10, TRT11, TRT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Unfortunately, it is impossible. Actually, it is because of the crowded classrooms. I think, classes should be less crowded consisting of students with small numbers to teach and learn language. 35 students in a classroom are too many" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that:

> Instead of group work, I usually make pair works as making group work is harder than pair work because it is difficult to organize. When students come together, there happens noise, ambience is damaged. Pair work is easier. Student tries to make pair work only with the desk mate. There is no need to make any further organization. Of course, there happens a little noise even making pair works (TRT3).

Related to using a variety of group works, one other teacher expressed that, “I have only two courses ... In that case it is impossible to make group work, or cluster. I'm trying to follow the teaching curriculum like crazy” (TRT5).

The data obtained also revealed that, instead of a variety of group strategies, most of the teachers mainly employed pair work during instruction (TRT1, TRT3, TRT7, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10). One of the teachers explained this as follows: “I use pair works; however, I don’t use small groups” (TRT1). Another teacher said that, “I usually make pairs works instead of small group works” (TRT3). Related to employing pairs work, one other teacher expressed that, “We don’t always make activities. However, I use pair works in my instruction effectively” (TRT10).

In addition to little small group work, data obtained from participants and classroom observation also revealed that teachers mostly employed traditional teaching approaches such as behaviorist and grammar-based teaching activities instead of concentrating on communicative practice by employing the communicative language teaching method. Thus, most of the teachers stated that there was not enough communicative practice during instruction (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT8). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> As I have just explained, I make my students dialogues. I try to make my students speaking and writing activities. However, in speaking unfortunately… Actually, during speaking skill, the aim is to make students to speak with each other, on one side. However, I can’t make my students that too much. I am not effective on teaching speaking skill as that learning environment doesn’t allow me to do that (TRT1).

Another teacher stated that, “Nowadays, we have not been making speaking activities as we do not have enough time for that” (TRT4). One other teacher explained that, “I can’t use communicative language teaching. To pass each test, to teach grammar rules. I don’t know after how many years the students will be able to communicate” (TRT5). One of the teachers at School B expressed that:

> If a student benefits from technology, plays video games or watch some series, learns something by this way. At least, students are interested in these things. Students listen something there. Students aren’t exposed to these things. As they are not exposed, they can’t learn. I think, we should expose them (TRT8).

In addition to too little communicative practice, the data also revealed that there was a lack of authentic practice in speaking employed by teachers during instruction (TRT1, TRT4). One of the teachers stated that:

> For example this year, I wanted a student to prepare a sports magazine in English. He wanted to prepare a sports magazine about football. I accepted him to prepare a sports magazine about football. I wanted another student to prepare a fashion magazine, again in English. I wanted from another student to introduce, give information, the country which she wanted to visit like tourist guide. We give students such kind of projects. But we cannot always do these things; we can do once in a year (TRT1).

Another teacher stated that, "We teach grammar, we teach vocabulary. We don't teach listening. Speak! How will that student speak? I had also such problems in the past. I only want student to make listening activities at home. Please watch TV series at home if there is any that they are interested in" (TRT4).

However, some of the teachers at School B expressed that they had made authentic practice during instruction (TRT7, TRT10, TRT11). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "We have a student of the day reporting the news of the day. Before starting the instruction, each student reports the news of the day at different day" (TRT10). Another teacher stated that, "Depending on the teaching subject, I used to benefit from newspapers. I used cut the newspapers, the relevant parts, I used deliver it to the students and ask students questions. However, nowadays we have internet connection. I open the page and do this way" (TRT11).

Apart from little authentic and communicative practice employed by teachers in Turkey, the data obtained through interviews also suggested that almost all of the teachers didn't use English as a medium of instruction. Especially teachers teaching at school A stated that it was impossible for them to use English as a medium of instruction (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Unfortunately, I can't use English as a medium of instruction" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that:

> I tried to use English as a medium of instruction in the first semester. Especially, for a few months, I focused on that very much. However, only a part of students were able to understand some very easy things. Some others were not able to understand that easy things. At the very beginning, when I told students to be quiet and get permission to answer in English, they didn't know what the statements mean. Now, in a case like that, when I use English as a medium of

> instruction, it forms a negative impact on students learning. Students start to ignore me (TRT2).

Related to using English as medium of instruction, one other teacher said that:

> When I first started to teach English as this school, I tried to use English as a medium of instruction. Yet, I also made mistake. I should take steps backward. Maybe, students would understand importance of English in progress of time. I had to take steps backward. They didn't understand. They explained me they hadn't understood. They stated that in that way, their achievement in English would be worse (TRT6).

Unlike the teachers at School A, teachers at School B expressed that they had used English as a medium of instruction (TRT9, TRT10, TRT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> Here, medium of instruction is English, not Turkish. If we have some difficulties, or need it, we might use Turkish. Except from this, medium of instruction in the 1st and 2nd grades is English as well. However, in the 3rd and the 4th grades, because of the YGS, as I have just explained, they might be a little bit reactive. However, if there is instruction, medium of instruction is English (TRT9).

Another teacher expressed that:

> Of course we use English as a medium of instruction. We use English as a medium of instruction for everything, even to teach grammar. At this school, most of us speak English mostly. We don't use Turkish in our courses. However, if we had difficulty, when most of the students didn't understand the subject, with one or two Turkish words, I support students. However; I mostly use English as a medium of instruction (TRT10).

6.1.3.3. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Employing Teaching Materials

In this phase of the results, effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Turkey about employing teaching materials are presented. The data acquired provided information about using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries during instruction.

Related to using authentic teaching materials, the data revealed that almost all of the teachers, especially the teachers at School A, didn't employ authentic teaching materials during their lessons (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6). Related to using authentic materials, one of the teachers stated that, "I am searching from internet. Actually, I can't say that we use magazines or articles; however, I try to

look for something from internet, from some of the blogs of teachers as far as I have the opportunity to do that. There's already a lot of sharing. I try to use that opportunity" (TRT6). However, unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B expressed that they had employed authentic materials (TRT9, TRT10). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> Except from the courses books, we also share articles with students. We don't deliver the newspapers as much as the journals. We also share photos or pictures cut from the journals. If we don't use newspapers, we use online newspapers, online news. However, we mostly deliver articles. We bring articles on current events. We make some activities related to current events on the articles (TRT9).

Apart from employing few authentic teaching materials, teachers at School A also reported that the number of the self-developed teaching materials was low (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT6). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "I haven't done anything else (bringing teaching material) like that till now. Actually, there is something like that. I have four teaching hour in a week. In four courses, I try to keep on track the curriculum. I have really no time to do anything extra" (TRT1). Another teacher expressed that, "I used to that at lower-secondary school a lot; however, I have never done this at upper- secondary school" (TRT2). One other teacher stated that, "I want students to make projects. Except from this, I don't do anything else" (TRT4). Unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B expressed that they had developed their own teaching materials (TRT10, TRT12). One of the teachers stated that, "I develop it, but it does not happen every day. I can develop it once a week, but I can mostly develop two times a week" (TRT12). In addition to few teaching materials and little self-developed teaching materials usage, the results also showed that apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers didn't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction (TRT2, TRT3). Only one of the teachers used online teaching sources and applications. Related to that, she stated, "I created an internet blog. I can't directly upload videos. They have copyrights. However, I write video links. I am going to develop it more. I am planning to upload more advanced level things" (TRT5).

Except for the one teacher, the others didn't use online teaching sources or applications. One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> I thought this. It was a few years ago. I formed e-mail groups to deliver student homework, not only homework sometimes activities or something extra. However, our school was not an

> Anatolian high school at that time. The situation of children was worse in all respects. It didn't work. I tried to do that with students at Anatolian high school. I can admit that I ignored. However, I could do it. It could be a better thing (TRT3).

However, some of the teachers at School B explained that they had used online sources or applications during instruction (TRT9, TRT10). One of the teachers expressed that,"We use it for writing skill. We generally prefer online homework for writing. It gives us the opportunity to check it out of school. And, we instantly evaluate and provide the feedback for students. Later on, we also want from students to send the corrected version of the writing" (TRT9).

Apart from online teaching sources or applications, except for a few teachers employing visuals only through media, most of the teachers didn't use visuals during instruction except from the course book (TRT2). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> By the way, the smart board now has a lot of features both in terms of visual and auditory so that's way I am trying to make students to learn permanently by using songs and visuals. I don't use any other teaching material except from this. If there were a language teaching classroom with full of visuals, sound system like a lab, we would make a more effective listening activity (TRT2).

However, it was different at School B. Even though on the walls of the classroom, teachers didn't hang any posters related to the teaching topic even at School B, most of the teachers expressed that during instruction they had employed visuals (TRT7, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10). One of the teachers explained that, "There is a web site called slide share. I benefit from it to teach grammar which is a lot there" (TRT7). Another teacher stated that, "we have course books compatible with the smart board. We have software. We can use it. Except from this, we have internet access. We have the opportunity to watch videos or music on YouTube or any other website" (TRT9).

Finally, the results also showed that almost all of the teachers motivated students to use dictionaries during instruction (TRT1). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Yes, of course, the dictionary will always be there together with students. I charged one of the students to check it" (TRT1).

6.1.3.4. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers about Assessment and Evaluation

With regard to assessment and evaluation, the data acquired provided information about providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments**,** and re-teaching following the assessments.

Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, the data obtained revealed that almost all of the teachers didn't check homework or provide feedback (written and oral) for the student homework assigments. One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> Actually, I don't check homework. I assign a student to check homework. I want a student to control it. However, at the end of the semester, I don't check the homework control list because I really know very well which student did homework and which students didn't do homework. I am aware of that, in my mind. At the beginning of the course, if I try to check homework, I think, I spend 15-20 minutes (TRT3).

Related to using online homework assignments, almost all of the teachers didn't use any online homework assignments for students. Especially during the classroom observation, it was noticed that even though some of the teachers used online teaching sources and applications for teaching, most of the teachers didn't use online homework assignments. Instead of online homework assignments, almost all of the teachers preferred paper-based homework assignments. However, unlike teachers at School A, most of the teachers at School B expressed that they had checked and provided feedback for student homework (TRT7, TRT9, TRT11, TRT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> I check and make correction on the false parts, as well. If there is subject mostly misunderstood, we had the opportunity to teach it again. However, we make the assessment of the homework differently. It is also related with the time. Sometimes, I get the homeworks and check it by myself, sometimes I use peer check and sometimes we do it altogether in the classroom (TRT9).

Another teacher expressed that, "I absolutely provide feedbacks for homework. For example, I spend a lot time for writing homework. When I teach main course, I check grammar and vocabulary homework and focus on the parts that hadn't been understood by students" (TRT11).

Apart from giving oral or written feedback for homework assignments and employing online tools to deliver homework assignments, results also clarified that especially at School A, almost all of the teachers didn't make formative assessments during their instruction (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "At the time of teaching, I ask oral question related to the teaching topic. When we make reading activities, I ask questions to check understanding of students" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that:

> I don't think that I can do formative assessments sufficiently. As I have explained, we have 40 minutes course period and the classroom are very crowded. I don't think that I can assess each student's learning. Hence, while scoring each student at the end of the semester, I don't sleep with a clear conscience. I think maybe some of the students get scores that weren't deserved (TRT2).

Unlike the teachers at School A, most of the teachers at School B expressed that they made formative assessments (TRT7, TRT8, TRT9, TRT11). One of the teachers expressed that, "I use portfolio. We have a portfolio, we collect the entire student products obtained through group works and pair works" (TRT8). Another teacher stated that, "We make quizzes at certain intervals" (TRT9). In addition that, it was also observed by the researcher that teachers mostly preferred summative assessments instead of formative assessments as there were a lot of students in a classroom and the teachers thought that the number of the weekly teaching hours for English was low. Apart from formative and summative assessments, teachers also provided oral and written feedback following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments (TRT3, TRT6, TRT8, TRT9, TRT11, TRT12). In respect to providing feedback for formative and summative assessments, one of the teachers explained that:

> Yes, after evaluating the exams, I show the papers to all the students to see their mistakes. After that, I explain questions mostly made mistake in each class. This is the question most of the students made mistake. There should be something like that. While explaining this, I also summarize and revise the teaching topic again. I am definitely referring like that (TRT3).

Another teacher stated that:

> For example, after assessment, I analyze it; which questions and what kind of questions were not answered by students. Actually, I show the results all of the students. I do not expect them to demand. After the assessment (meaning evaluation), I deliver all the exam papers. I want students to check them. I want my students to review and evaluate where they had made

> mistakes or hadn't made mistake. I want my students to notice imperfect answers. They might not understand because of the exam excitement (TRT6).

The other teacher expressed that, "After the evaluation of each test, I definitely deliver the papers to the students. They both check the points and mistakes. I always make short explanations on the paper" (TRT11).

Furthermore, the data also revealed that apart from providing oral or written feedback for the assessments, most of the teachers didn't do re-teaching, if necessary, following the summative assessments. Regarding that, one of the teachers stated that:

> I don't make any re-teaching after the assessment results. I wouldn't like to do that because it is not the teacher who is responsible for learning. Students have also responsibilities. Student who had the lowest grades are the persons who are uninterested and don't listen to the teacher (TRT3).

However, unlike the teachers at School A, the teachers at School B expressed that they did reteaching, if necessary, following the summative assessments. (TRT7, TRT8). One of the teachers stated that, "I detect the unlearned part and we do it together. I explain students that I will ask some questions again related to that subject. If there is any necessity to revise and teach it again, I do it" (TRT7). Another teacher expressed that, "When there is a case like that, I make re-teaching" (TRT8).

6.1.3.5. Summary of Perceptions of English Language Teachers in Turkey regarding their Effectiveness in Teaching English

To define perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness, researcher obtained data through interviews with teachers. Perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey reveal four main categories: (1) effectiveness perceptions about classroom management, (2) effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies, (3) effectiveness perceptions about employing teaching materials, and (4) effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation. Effectiveness perceptions about classroom management are comprised of allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules and employing various seating arrangements. Teachers in Turkey have difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction. Defining classroom rules by English language teachers varies from school to school in Turkey. Some of the teachers at School A define classroom rules but most of the teachers don't define classroom rules.

However, most of the teachers at School B define classroom rules. In addition to that, teachers at School A don't collaborate with students to define classroom rules while teachers at School B collaborate with students. Related to employing various seating arrangements during instruction, apart from a few teachers at School B, almost all of the teachers employ a traditional seating arrangement during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement.

Effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies involve employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction. Instead of employing a variety of group strategies such as individual, smallgroup and wholegroup, almost all of the Turkish teachers employ whole group teaching during their instruction. Rather than using varying group strategies, most of the teachers mainly employ pair work during instruction. However, teachers don't use communicative practice during instruction. Even though teachers at School A don't make authentic practice, teachers at School B make authentic practice during instruction. Furthermore, teachers at School A rarely or don't use English as a medium of instruction while teachers at School B use English as a medium of instruction.

Effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Turkey about employing teaching materials consist of using authentic teaching materials, developing teachers' own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries. Related to using authentic teaching materials, almost all of the teachers, especially the teachers at School A, don't employ authentic teaching materials during instruction; however, unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B employ authentic materials. Besides not employing authentic teaching materials, teachers at School A don't use self-developed teaching materials while some of the teachers at School B employ self-developed teaching materials. Using online teaching sources or applications during instruction also varies from school to school in Turkey. While few of the teachers at School A prefer using online teaching sources or applications during instruction, teachers at School B mostly use online teaching sources or applications. Using visuals also changes from school to school. While the teachers at School A don't use visuals a lot during instruction, teachers at School B mostly use visuals during instruction. Finally,

almost all of the teachers in Turkey motivate students to use dictionaries during instruction at both schools.

Lastly effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Turkey about assessment and evaluation include providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and re-teaching following the assessments. Providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments varies from school to school in Turkey. Almost all of the English language teachers at School A don't check homework or provide feedback (written and oral) for student homework assignments while English language teachers at School B provide feedback (written and oral) for student homework assignments. However, English language teachers at both schools don't use online homework assignments for students. Furthermore, almost all of the English language teachers at School A don't make formative assessments during instruction while English language teachers at School B make regular formative assessment. Apart from formative assessments, English language teachers conduct regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress. Apart from formative and summative assessments, English language teachers also provide oral and written feedback following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments. However, contrary to the English language teachers at School A, most of the English language teachers at School B do re-teaching, if necessary, following summative assessments.

The results of the English language teacher interviews revealed that, effectiveness perception of English language teachers teaching at the lower achieving school is lower in some respects when compared with the teachers teaching at higher achieving school in Turkey.

6.1.4. Perception of English language teachers in Turkey regarding the Factors Influencing their Effectiveness in Teaching English

Data analysis obtained through interviews with English language teachers in Turkey revealed that factors related to teacher education, personal and social factors, instruction and context influence their effectiveness perceptions in Turkey.

6.1.4.1. Factors Related to Teacher education: Pre-service and in-service Education

Regarding factors related to teacher education, two subcategories emerged influencing the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey: Pre-service and in-service education.

Concerning pre-service education, two subcategories emerged influencing the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness: curricular factors and factors related to university teachers.

Regarding curricular factors, Turkish teachers stated that content, teaching and learning process, and resources, namely teaching materials, influenced their current effectiveness. Regarding content, especially teachers who obtained pedagogical knowledge via pedagogical formation training stated that it was too short and too intensive (TRT4, TRT12). One teacher explained this as follows: "In my opinion, 6 months training is not enough. As it was intensive, it should be one year at least. Instead of learning a new subject in a short period, learning it in a long process contributes permanent learning" (TRT4). Another teacher stated that:

> I guess it was compressed as it was a formation program. As it was compressed and fast, we didn't have the opportunity to practice. Always classroom discussions were conducted: however, we couldn't make any presentation in front of the classroom or teach something. I would like to have more practices at the universities. We have a lot theory: however, in the practical direction we have a lot of missing (TRT12).

Related to teaching and learning process in the pre-service stage, teachers emphasized the lack of practical teaching, prioritizing exams more than teaching were sources of ineffectiveness (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT9, TRT10, TRT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "I do not think clearly that assessment and evaluation and developmental psychology were very adequate because it was more exam based. It was theoretically good but inadequate in practice" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that, "Memorizing something and getting

high points is different because there is nothing in your mind on the next day. It is just memorizing. But if people try to learn something by experiencing and practicing it, I think it's more memorable, permanent" (TRT4). One other teacher stated that:

> I make no bones about that I do not know why as you know to be appointed by the state, it is necessary to take part in the public personnel selection examination. After my graduation from university, I joined private teaching institution (dershane) and I learned the courses there better to be successful in the public personnel selection examination. I do not know why I could not learn them during my graduate study. Major area courses were not taught by major area course teachers. Instead, teachers from department of classroom teaching were teaching. That might be one of the reasons (TRT3).

In addition to the teachers at School A, the teachers at School B also stated that during the pre-service education, there was little practice during the instruction. One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> It was theoretically fine: however, it wasn't enough practically. Theoretically, we obtained lot information on methodology. Lots of activities for all age groups were conducted practically rather than those for young people. We had few courses practically (TRT9).

Related to theory-based teaching during pre-service education, another teacher at the School B expressed that:

> Practically not very convenient courses, either on speaking. Hardly ever. That's why we tried to learn something through trial and error, experiences. I don't think that I got educated very well on listening and speaking during the pre-service education. In Turkey, it is the biggest problem. How can we teach as we are not competent teachers? Furthermore, most of us have never been to foreign countries. In that way, it is impossible to make language education (TRT10).

In relation to this, some of the teachers criticized the lack of authentic practice as well (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "Persons studying foreign language should listen to that language from the native speaker of the language via staying at least three or six months in abroad. Namely, they should experience it" (TRT2). Regarding authentic practice during pre-service education, another teacher stated that:

> I went to America in the summer of third grade, one year before graduation. I was with my friends at the airport. They were my friends at the same department. Everyone around us was speaking English and we did not understand anything even though we had been learning English for years. We were going to be an English language teacher. We had a lot difficulty to understand. Unfortunately, we realized that we had not understood anything (TRT3).

Furthermore, the teachers stated that in addition to the lack of practical teaching and authentic practice during instruction, the practice teaching at schools was not sufficient for them (TRT2, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11). Related to practice teaching, one of the teachers stated that, "I think there is no problem with the theory: however, they should be more serious on teaching practice. The university that I had studied was one of the few universities serious on teaching practice. But despite that I do not think that there was enough teaching practice" (TRT2). Another teacher expressed that, "In practice, there was no opportunity for the teacher to improve his / her self-development. I think teaching practice should be longer than a period" (TRT9). One other teacher stated that, "At my school where I had been making teaching practice, I had made observation only one or two times. Except from this, the teacher left me in the class for teaching. There was no academic support (TRT10).

Concerning teaching materials, some of the Turkish teachers stated that during the pre-service education, university teachers did not employ sufficient materials, especially online tools, during the instruction (TRT1, TRT4, TRT8, TRT12). One of the teachers made this clear as follows: "For example, there was no smart board in our school or our teacher did not bring a cassette player such a tape cassette or a cd to play. Our teacher did not have tools like this" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that, "Even in a high school, there is a smart board: however, we had projector. It was frequently out of order. It did not work all the time" (TRT4).

Another factor within pre-service education is teacher-related factors. Regarding university teachers lecturing at the undergraduate level, Turkish teachers criticized the characteristics of the university teachers. In this scope, some of the Turkish teachers explained that some of university teachers hadn't had sufficient subject expertise (TRT1, TRT3, TRT10). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "It was very difficult to achieve that course for us because our instructor taught us very superficially as if we had already known everything" (TRT1). Another teacher expressed that:

> There were lots of problems related to academic competence. For instance, there wasn't any foreign teacher (native speaker of English) at our university. Alright, a foreign teacher is not a total solution; however, it is very essential in the context of the pronunciation. We had a phonetics teachers, s/he couldn't pronounce some words correctly. How can a teacher teach phonetics? Later on, students learned the pronunciation of the words incorrectly (TRT10).

Furthermore, one of the teachers criticized the elderliness of the university teachers. She stated, “The teachers who had been teaching classroom management course was unfortunately very old. He had to retire. That is why he was not so effective” (TRT3).

Another category which was discovered related to teacher education was in-service teacher education. Regarding in-service teacher education, teachers stated that they were not willing to take part in activities. There were various reasons for teachers’ unwillingness to take part in in-service teacher education activities. The first one was that in-service teacher education activities did not contribute to teacher promotion (TRT3, TRT6). Related to that, one of the teachers stated that, “I do not think that there is a promotion system motivating teachers to take part in in-service teacher education activities” (TRT3). Another teacher explained that, “There is no promotion system in general” (TRT6). Secondly, the teachers criticized the ineffectiveness of teacher trainers serving in in-service teacher education avtivities (TRT6, TRT7, TRT8, TRT9). One of the teachers expressed that “because generally the trainers are not very competent persons” (TRT6). Another teacher stated that:

> I am mentioning about this as I have been took place numerous in-service teacher education activities. First of all, there should be expert persons in the activities. I generally think it is obvious that a large majority of the activities conducted by the Ministry of National Education are unnecessary or inadequate. The experts are teachers like us. They were selected and educated for a short time. They conduct teacher education activities in the context of the dissemination activities (TRT9).

In addition to trainers, teachers also criticized the content of the organized trainings as they were not motivating or up to date (TRT6, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11). One of the teachers explained this as follows: “I would like to lay the cards on the table that no seminar taught me anything that I hadn’t not known. It is like nailing jelly to the wall. I think it is just bubbling and chattering” (TRT6). Another teacher expressed that:

> In seminars, we had witnessed that some of the courses or activities were not related with teacher needs. The participation for the seminars was obligatory for teachers. That situation reduces the productivity of the activity. After participating in a few activities with no productivity or benefits, you are not willing to join in the next activities. Therefore, it is useful if a seminar program is prepared depending on the needs of the teachers and if the teachers who are in need are participated in the activities, it would be more beneficial (TRT9).

Furthermore, some of the teachers were not satisfied with the in-service teacher education due to the lack of practice (TRT7, TRT12). One of the teachers declared that:

> They always try to do something at limited times. You can be late for today like that… They either do something like that or teach without inclusion. However I don't enjoy like that. If we make education for 5 or 6 days together, at the beginning, teachers should be informed and teachers should have the opportunity to speak (TRT7).

Another teacher expressed that, "I can say, for example, that some activities might have conducted to keep the teacher active" (TRT12).

Moreover, from the perspective of some of the teachers, the number of the in-service teacher education activities arranged by authorities was not satisfactory (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT7). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "A seminar in professional sense has not been arranged yet till now" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that, "No matter what its age, a teacher must constantly develop himself. So I think it is necessary to arrange courses that will enable teachers to improve themselves in holiday seasons so that we can keep face with modern age as a teacher" (TRT2). Administrative reasons related to school management also caused loss of motivation for teachers to take part in in-service teacher education (TRT3, TRT7, TRT8). According to one teacher, school management or local ministry of national education announced the in-service teacher education activities late. One of the teachers explained this situation as follows:

> We had an ill luck like that. The local ministry of national education notified our school teachers about the activity late. So, we missed the first two days of the activity. We continued to join activity from the third day. As we joined the activity from the third day with my colleagues and English language teachers group, we had insufficiency and disconnection (TRT3).

Related to administrative reasons, another teacher expressed that:

> The information obtained from the school management wasn't announced to the teachers. I heard about that in-service teacher education activity via one of my colleague. I would like to express that announcement issue is problematic. If there is information, it generally wasn't announced (TRT8).

Furthermore, teachers were not willing to take part in in-service teacher education activities because of individual reasons such as being too busy, and some of the teachers do not take part in in-service teacher education activities despite not having

a reason for not participating (TRT3, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> I have never take part any seminar related to evaluation after my graduation, namely after I had started teaching. For seven years, I have not participated in the seminars. I do not do anything else. Actually, I need to update my content knowledge. I think, unfortunately we ignore pedagogical knowledge; I push it into the background. For instance, I do not have any effort on to develop it. I did not think it why I had not done anything. However, sometimes I go online, review forums and websites related to our job. Of course, when it comes to a topic that is interesting, of course I read about it but I have no interest in particular, no struggle (TRT3).

Another teacher stated that, "Nowadays, in Istanbul circumstances I do not have time. I do not cope with because of traffic or something like that. I think it is easier in little towns" (TRT5). One other teacher explained the reason of unwillingness to take part in in-service teacher education as follows:

> I have not taken part in in-service teacher education activities recently. I am aware that I need to take part however I can't allocate time for it. After a certain time in teaching profession, you are going backwards, regressing. We should develop ourselves more. I have been a teacher for eleven years. We could be in a better position (TRT6).

6.1.4.2. Personal and Social Factors: Learner-related and Parent related Factors

Regarding personal and social factors, two subcategories emerged influencing the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey: learner-related factors and parent related factors.

Related to learner-related factors, it was mentioned by Turkish teachers that students had lack of motivation and emotional inhibitions such as lack of awareness towards English, anxiety, prejudice about English, and fear of failure. Most of the teachers declared that students had lack of motivation for some reasons such as socio-economic conditions, living environment and personal reasons (TRT1, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT8). Related to reasons arising from economic reasons, one of the teachers figured out that:

> If the students have the necessary motivation, they already learn. All kinds of problems are solved. Students tell me, "I cannot do it anymore. It is impossible. You are beating the air". They have to support their family. So this kid is having time hand over problem when I give him a 3-month period homework. He tells me that, "Teacher I might not hand it over on time. I work" (TRT5).

The same teacher also explained that living environment also influenced student motivation and learning. She stated the situation as follows:

> Living environment! Living environment! They do not have a role model around them! Maybe because they have not observed any story of success around them. This is essential because, "Why should I study? I do not have a model around me." So they do not get very serious (TRT5).

Related to lack of student motivation, another teacher said that:

> I have mostly classroom management, using methods, techniques and communication problem. I think that it is because of the students. Mostly I try to be as sympathetic as I can do. I have never been a hard despot teacher. I always try to behave like a friend; however, we are in a situation that students don't take many things seriously (TRT1).

Apart from the factors arising from personal and socio-economic reasons, teachers declared that emotional inhibitions such as lack of awareness towards English, anxiety, prejudice about English, and fear of failure caused lack of motivation and learning (TRT1, TRT3 TRT4, TRT5, TRT8, TRT10, TRT12). Regarding to anxiety, one of the teachers stated that, "Student says I can speak but I am going to pronounce it false. Student doesn't pronounce the answer of a question. Pronunciation! Student thinks that s/he wouldn't make right pronunciation" (TRT5). Another teacher expressed that, "As there are chattering students in the classroom, there are some students who have the anxiety of being laughed at by others and staying silent for low self-esteem" (TRT8). Related to emotional inhibitions, one other teacher explained that:

> Try to relieve him as much as you want, there are still students who can't achieve it. It changes from person to person. There are also wonderful students. It is a psychological issue. It is difficult to achieve it. If there were some foreign teachers teaching English, s/he can achieve it easily. S/he would gain confidence (TRT10).

Regarding emotional inhibitions of students, some of the teachers explained that in addition to anxiety, prejudice and lack of awareness, students have the fear of failure. One of the teachers stated that:

> For example, today before the interview, in my class I wanted a student to form a dialogue and perform it in the next class. Students afraid of speaking in front of classroom. Forming sentences in front of the classroom is frightening students. Student assumes that s/he is going to make pronunciation mistake and everybody will laugh at him. There are still students in this mood and they are at high school…(TRT1).

Another teacher stated that, “There is something like that. For example you ask a question to a student. Despite s/he knows the answer, s/he doesn’t answer the question” (TRT5).

Some of the teachers explained that some of the students were not aware of the importance of English as a language or they have some learning prejudices (TRT3, TRT6). One of the teachers explained this as follows: “We have students who have learning objective; however, in general we can’t pronounce something like that, especially at the general high school level” (TRT3). Related to the lack of awareness, another teacher expressed that, “Student should also have motivation. We can’t explain the importance of that language (namely English) to the students” (TRT6).

With reference to prejudice, one of the teachers explained that, “Students don’t like English as they have prejudices developed in the past. They have thoughts like ‘I will not achieve it, I don’t know, I can’t learn.’ I have lots of students who got surprised when s/he achieved” (TRT4).

In addition to learner-related factors influencing the perceptions of English language teachers’ effectiveness, teachers in Turkey stated that factors such as parental support and collaboration also influenced their effectiveness. With reference to parent-related factors, teachers explained that they didn’t get support from parents and had difficulty in engaging them (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6). Teachers figured out that lack of collaboration, prioritizing the external assessment more than learning, and lack of awareness towards English were the reasons behind lack of parental support and collaboration. Regarding parental collaboration in general, some of the teachers explained that parental collaboration was not satisfactory (TRT1,TRT6). One of the teachers explained that, “Only parents of a student's is in touch with me very often” (TRT1). Another teacher stated that, “Parents should provide material aid and spiritual support for their children. They should do this as they care about their children, for the future of the society; however, to be frank, we don’t get much support from parents” (TRT6).

However, in contrast to the teachers at School A, the teachers at School B stated that parents had collaborated with teachers (TRT7, TRT8, TRT9). One of the teachers explained this as follows:”There are a lot of parents and everyone is here. Parents

interrogate students' points. They ask why they got low points (50). However, we are happy to collaborate with parents and their intense interest" (TRT8).

Related to prioritizing the external assessment or assessment pressure by parents, one of the teachers explained that:

> Unfortunately, we don't get any support from parents. I would like to give you an example. Parents were very opposed to even buying the books that we had identified as study aid. Even some of them come to school to discuss with us, 'Why do we buy this book? Why don't the teachers use the books provided by the local ministry of national education? Why do we spend too much money like that?' I tried to explain them how beneficial the book (provided by the local ministry of education) wasn't. The study aid would be more beneficial and English language is essential but unfortunately…Parents think like that, students wouldn't have English in the external assessment (TRT1).

With respect to lack of awareness of parents towards English, one of the teachers stated that, "Except a few parents, they do not have that awareness of English because they don't know why the English language is learnt. They are not aware of that. They do not realize how important English is for their children" (TRT4).

6.1.4.3. Instructional Factors: Curriculum-Related Factors

In addition to the factors such as teacher education as well as personal and social factors, instructional factors also influenced the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey. With reference to instructional factors, teaching curriculum was the leading factor.

In the context of the teaching curriculum, obtained data revealed subcategories such as content, resources, and assessment. Related to the content of the teaching curriculum of English, teachers explained that the teaching curriculum was intense, the number of the weekly teaching hours for English was few, the content of the course books provided by the state was inappropriate and unmotivating for students due to not being up to date, and finally the content was not flexible enough (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT8). Related to inappropriate content of the English teaching curriculum, one of the teachers explained that, "Now the book is very simple actually. It's nice to be simple because our children are already in the low level. For example, starting from the alphabet, but starting from the alphabet, there was a book starting from the alphabet for the ninth grade!" (TRT 2). Related to inappropriate content, another teacher stated that:

> For some students it is low, for some students it is high. Unfortunately, there is no balance. As you know, English teaching curriculum level is A1 for 1st grade. It is too low for 1st grade students. As if they were learning English for the first time, as if they were in the 4th and 5th grade of primary school (TRT3).

With respect to content, one other teacher explained that, "The content is not satisfactory. Practices are not enough. There are not enough speaking activities. It is also not interactive. I can't teach listening as the book is not compatible with the smart board" (TRT8). Moreover Rela, teachers also criticized the content as it was not motivating and up to date (TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11, TRT12). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "The content is not up to date. It is not nice. To be frank, it is not interesting; I mean both visually and as a design. How should I explain? I think it should include more activities for daily life speaking" (TRT6). Another teacher expressed that, "It is low, too low. Actually I think, some people who had lack of knowledge prepared that book. A person who can speak English wouldn't prepare that book so complicated like that" (TRT4). One other teacher stated that:

> Nowadays, we have been using an A2 level book for 2nd grade students. There is no listening. I tried to get a part of it; however, I couldn't get the other parts. When I open the book, I come up with irrelevant pages with strange text. The authors tried to match it with the Turkish culture but this time something ridiculous has come out (TRT8).

Teachers also stated that weekly teaching hours for English lessons were low and should be increased. Related to that, teachers also criticized the intense and detailed content (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT8, TRT10). Concerning the weekly teaching hours of English, one of the teachers declared that, "But of course I cannot say that 6 teaching hours in a week for a big classroom is enough" (TRT6). Another teacher stated that:

> I have been teaching for the 2nd grade students. Nowadays, I have been teaching for the and 4th grade students. 4th grade students have 2 hours English, 3rd grade students have 4 hours English, 2nd grade students have 6 hours English in a week. If that was be 6 hours for all, I could teach listening and reading. I think, weekly teaching hour for English, for a foreign language is low (TRT4).

Regarding weekly teaching hours, one other teacher said that:

> In the 1st grade, student had six hours English in a week. At an Anatolian high school, six hours in a week is low. I think, students need more English courses, more extensive English. When it was six hours, the curriculum was comfortable. We taught lots of think and had more

> time, as well. Last year, I had the project of book reading. We were reading books to the children. This year, weekly teaching hour was decreased to four. So it is extensive. There is a book that we have to finish. Actually four books. Namely, students' book, workbook, wordbank, and grammar book (TRT1).

Teachers expressed that the content of English was too intense and detailed as well. One of the teachers explained this as follows: "A teacher shouldn't have the anxiety to finish the subject at the end of the school year. If a teacher didn't have anxiety on that, s/he would be more effective" (TRT2). Another teacher stated that:

> There is one more. We have a very intense curriculum. 40 minutes course and 5 minutes break! 40 minutes course and 5 minutes break! Eight teaching hours. In a week, forty teaching hours. By the way, a set of elective courses which are in fact the set of courses that the children wanted or not. I mean, we should also motivate children. They should come to here willingfully (TRT6).

Teachers also provided information about lack of contribution to the curriculum. All of the teachers stated that they hadn't had the opportunity to participate in the design of the English curriculum (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT9, TRT11). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "I have never thought that I had contributed for the design of the curriculum" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that, "I do not think they care about us or anything. Is there any teacher who thinks s/he was cared? Is there any? I am asking you! I wonder" (TRT5). Furthermore, some of the teachers and students also criticized the inflexibility of the curriculum (TRT2). One of the teachers criticized it as follows:

> The worst suffering of teachers living in small places is that practicing the centrally-designed curriculum. I think, it is not suitable for that living environment. In the simplest term, a teacher teaching in a small town or village can't teach what the party is or can't tell about the celebrations which are celebrated in Britain (TRT2).

With reference to teaching materials, some of the teachers stated that they hadn't had the freedom to select and use material except for the books provided by the Ministry of National Education (TRT3, TRT5, TRT8, TRT10). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "If we had the alternatives, we would select the books accordingly" (TRT3). Another teacher stated that:

> I don't believe that the Ministry (of National Education) doesn't care English language teaching at general high schools. At the Anatolian high schools, maybe. Hah! Is there something missing out there? Of course, there is. Again, we are not free on books! Similar problems, that's why I solved it in a hilarious way. We distribute photocopies (TRT5).

One other teacher expressed that, "We have no freedom of choice of resources. You know we cannot use additional resources. There should be freedom" (TRT8). Another factor found during data analysis was assessment. Teachers stated that external assessment held at the end of the upper-secondary education for the admission to university caused demotivation of students (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11). One of the teachers explained this issue as follows: "Parents think as following: 'Students will not have questions related to English in the exam (LYS& YGS).' Actually, I'm making a little inference out of here. Both students and parents have an approach based on exam rather than language learning" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that:

> Especially at high school, during the university placement examination (LYS&YGS) students don't have questions on English. We have lots of problems on that. Actually, there shouldn't be questions on English, as well. I don't think that there should be. There should never be English in the external assessment. We don't need to teach English to the students forcibly. This is something that affects both children who want to learn and teacher. I didn't teach English as there is less than one month for the YGS exam. They are totally focused on the exam right now. Clearly, the English language teaching of me does not mean anything to them. I don't want to teach because of that motivation (TRT3).

The other teacher expressed that the external assessments (The ones held at the end of lower and upper secondary education) caused anxiety for students. Related to anxiety, one of the teachers said that:

> If the student had at a certain level of learning anxiety, s/he doesn't learn this time. You know more or less. Indeed this TEOG increases the anxiety of students especially. The students who had the TEOG exam by experiencing too much stress are alienated from English in the next school year (TRT2).

With respect to loss of motivation arising from external assessment, one other teacher expressed that, "The final grade (4^{th}) students do not want attend the English courses and do not want to do anything. If your try students to do something in the English course, it is unwilling. Why? Because students want to focus on the university exam!" (TRT12). Related to the weak motivation of students due to external assessment at the end of upper-secondary education, one other teacher stated that, "I taught English to the 3^{rd} and 4^{th} graders. They had the exam anxiety. Furthermore, as there weren't any English questions in the external assessment, lack of awareness towards English was increased" (TRT6).

In addition to LYS and LGS assessments, teachers also stated that the external assessment called the TEOG, which is held at the end of lower-secondary education for admission to upper-secondary education, affected students' current learning as well (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11). The teachers at School A and School B expressed that the TEOG assessment negatively affected students learning. One of the teachers at School A explained this as follows: "Only on the test, after all, a multiple choice exam. A disadvantage in this sense. I would make measurements on four basic skills and set the classes accordingly" (TRT1). Another teacher stated that, "TEOG is an test-based assessment. I do not think it contributes language skills learning" (TRT3). One of the teachers at School B explained that, "One of my students explained me that teacher please assess me with the multiple option test; otherwise, I don't understand. Student expressed that s/he can't understand without multiple option test because s/he learned like that, through tests" (TRT8). Another teacher expressed that:

> Students learned to think exam based. They lost the ability of analyze and evaluation. We have been having lots of problems to teach students interpretation logic, critical thinking power and critical thinking. This is not only a problem faced during teaching English but also a very serious problem during teaching Turkish language (TRT10).

One other teacher stated that:

> We have students with high points of external assessment. However their speaking skill… One of the students answered 20 English questions right in the external assessment; however, s/he can't mention about her/himself or parents with three sentences. That means their English level is not good. S/he only memorized or did tests (TRT9).

6.1.4.4. Contextual Factors

Besides teacher education, personal and social factors and instructional factors, contextual factors influenced the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey. Learning environment, double-shift schooling, teacher promotion, inspection and evaluation, administrative tasks, teacher collaboration, employment of substitute teaching staff, and elective courses constituted the subcategories of contextual factors. In addition to that, learning experiences and conditions in previous grade, which might be categorized under contextual factors, also influenced the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey.

Obtained data revealed that the learning environment at schools had some disadvantages that made teacher effectiveness challenging. All of the teachers stated that classes were too big, there was no special classroom for language teaching, and students were not grouped by ability (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT8, TRT10, TRT11, TRT12). Regarding overcrowded classess, one of the teachers stated that, "I think classrooms should be smaller to teach and learn language. Thirty-five people is too many in class" (TRT1). Related to large classess influencing teacher effectiveness, another teacher said that:

> Our classrooms are very crowded at that school. I am teaching at the 1st graders. Average number of the students in a classroom is forty. You are more or less observing. Can you imagine forty students are learning something or having assessment on speaking skill in such a small classroom? That's why we have a bit of problem physically. The number of students in a classroom is higher. So, we have problem (TRT2).

Another teacher at the School B expressed that, "The number of the students in a classroom should be fewer for language teaching. For example 15 or 16 students in a classroom is perfect. 20 students in a classroom is acceptable; however, more than 20 students, 30 students is more" (TRT11). One other teacher explained that, "There should be fewer students in the classrooms because language learning requires few students. The more the number of students in a class is, the lower the brain intake level of children is" (TRT4). Also, one other teacher stated that, "The classrooms are very crowded. If I attempted to make a speaking assessment one by one, I wouldn't have time for teaching" (TRT3). Related to the learning environment at school, students' statements were also compatible with teachers'.

In addition to overcrowded classes, some of the teachers also criticized the learning environment due to not grouping students by ability (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT7, TRT8, TRT10). One of the teachers explained this as follows:

> For example, in one of my classes that I teach, five of the students are very good at in English. They have the English knowledge level the course book requires; however, the other students don't have the English knowledge in that level. I think, they should be divided into the groups according to their English level. The higher-achieving students might be gathered in a classroom and teachers teach accordingly. (TRT1).

With respect to no ability grouping in the classroom, another teacher stated that, "Each student doesn't have the same English level. Related to English, there are students who have better English knowledge compared with the other students or

there are also students who are very bad at English, for instance" (TRT2). Even though there were ability groupings of students at the second case, teachers also complained that there were students with lower and higher levels in a classroom. One of the teachers explained this as follows: "I always have students who have little or much knowledge of English in a classroom" (TRT7). Another teacher expressed that, "Even though it is class A (the best one), there might be some students who are bad at English" (TRT10).

In addition to overcrowded classes and no ability grouping of students, teachers criticized the lack of special classrooms for language teaching (TRT5, TRT2, TRT9). One of the teachers explained this issue as follows: "However, there should be at least a classroom special for language teaching" (TRT5). Another teacher said that, "I think classrooms should be quieter and consist of few students. If there were a language teaching classroom with full of visuals, sound system like a lab, we would make a more effective listening activity", (TRT2). One other teacher expressed that:

> I wish there was a classroom for language teaching. In that way, we could form the optimum learning environment. There wasn't any problem in that way. When we go to any other classroom, there might be unsatisfactory learning environment. However, if you have a language classroom and students come to that classroom for the instruction, we can make any arrangement in that case (TRT9).

Through data analysis the researcher also found that double-shift schooling, teacher promotion, inspection and evaluation, administrative tasks, teacher collaboration and teaching staff were issues related to teacher effectiveness. Some of the teachers stated that double-shift schooling also influenced their effectiveness (TRT1, TRT5, TRT6). One of the teachers explained this as follows: "According to teaching plan, we terminate teaching at 7 p.m., at the end of the day, in the evening. I make video watching activities at that time. After five o'clock, perception level of students starts to decrease" (TRT5).

The lack of promotion system was also one of the factors influencing teacher effectiveness. Some of the teachers stated that there should be a promotion system for teachers (TRT2, TRT9). One of the teachers explained that, "We have discussed at the beginning of the interview as well. There should be promotion system to distinguish working and not working teachers" (TRT2). Another teacher expressed that, "If you teach at a public school, there is no difference that you are a good

teacher or a bad teacher. No one else forces you. You are not fired from the job and the profession. If you feel yourself inefficient on some issues, you want to develop yourself" (TRT9). Besides the promotion system, one of the teachers also criticized the inspection and evaluation system for teachers. He explained this as follows: "We had a teacher but he had not taught anything. This is one of the complaints I heard most. It is unacceptable to hear the critics my students for one of my colleagues. I am the most uncomfortable person in that case" (TRT2). Another teacher stated that administrative tasks such as taking part in the disciplinary committee prevented teachers from teaching and hindered their effectiveness. Related to that, she stated that, "I am responsible for disciplinary committee. I have a club at school. When I spend time for all these things... I spend time for those stuffs instead of spending for in-service teacher education, for my students. It causes loss of time, decrease in performance" (TRT6). The same teacher also complained about lack of collaboration between teachers. Regarding teacher collaboration, she explained that, "We can do more work with English teachers. We can do something with the teachers from other schools. Actually, there are lots of things to do. I think we can arrange something in a suitable time" (TRT6). Regarding the contextual factors, another teacher criticized substitute teacher employment (TRT5). She explained this as follows:

> Maybe s/he (the substitute teacher) studied an associate degree program on tourism or studied at any other department. And then, s/he teaches here… And, what happens? Later on, the students lose one year. A very important one year, at least one year. My students from general high school that I have been teaching nowadays have serious problems. These students are 4th graders. They had a substitute teacher in previous year (TRT5).

Apart from the factors arising from the current context, the contextual factors arising from the previous grades and schools also influence teacher effectiveness. Almost all of the teachers stated that learning experiences and conditions in previous grades and schools, namely lower-secondary education, might cause demotivation of students and hinder current learning experiences (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11). Related to this issue, disadvantages in lower-secondary education such as an insufficient number of English language teachers, language teaching managed by another subject teacher, and the use of traditional teaching methods caused lack of motivation towards learning English (TRT1,TRT2,TRT6). This situation influenced student learning of English in the current grade and teacher effectiveness as well. Related to disadvantages in the

previous grade, one of the teachers expressed that, "They made me a complaint like this. We did not have English language teacher. Another subject teacher taught English to us" (TRT2).

Another teacher said that:

> Students' in front of you should have understanding level to understand the listening text. It is essential; however, we have serious problem about learning and understanding level of the students. Most of the students declared that they had no English teacher in the class or for example visual arts, music teachers taught English. Students admitted that they had not understood English (TRT1).

One other teacher stated that:

> In the present case, student does not have learning level he is supposed to be. He cannot even tell me how old he is. For example, very interesting, there are some students who don't know the alphabet or confusing numbers such as 12-20. During initial days of our meeting at the beginning of the school year, we shoot the breeze. A student can't tell the time. We needed to teach it again (TRT6).

Teachers at School B also complained about previous learning experiences of students. One of the teachers explained that:

> So it is very difficult for us keep far students from the memorization-based learning. The biggest problem is that. I wish, they didn't know anything else in English. I wish, we could start from the beginning. If so, I didn't have these problems. In that way, students could get it easily. Students have problems on using the knowledge and it is really difficult to change this (TRT11).

Another teacher at School B expressed that:

> Here, we need to start teaching English from the beginning. Not even the beginning, we also need to change some mislearning, I mean pronunciation. Because while learning vocabulary, students only learnt the Turkish of the vocabulary, not the pronunciation. Students don't know how to read, how to pronounce or how to use it in a statement (TRT9).

6.1.4.5. Summary of Factors Influencing Perceptions of English Language Teachers in Teaching English in Turkey

It is clear that four main factors influence the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey: (1) factors related to teacher education, (2) personal and social factors, (3) instructional factors, and (4) contextual factors. Factors related to teacher education are comprised of pre-service education and in-service teacher education. Regarding pre-service education, content, teaching

learning process, teaching materials employed during the undergraduate education, and teachers serving at the universities influence perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey. With respect to content, especially for English language teachers who participated in the pedagogical formation program, the content is too short and intensive. With respect to teaching learning process, theoretical pre-service education with little practice and authentic practice during the instructions namely theory-based instructions and insufficient practice teachings in schools are factors influencing perceptions of English language teachers effectiveness. Regarding teaching materials, lack of technological tool or online application usage by the teachers during pre-service education is a factor influencing the perception of English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey. The final factor influencing perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness is teachers with lack of subject expertise and lack of motivation because of elderliness. Another factor related to teacher education is in-service teacher education. Lack of contribution to teacher promotion, in effectiveness of teacher trainers, not motivating and up-to-date content, lack of practice during teaching learning process, insufficient number of in-service teacher education activities, administrative reasons, and individual reasons comprise the factors related to in-service education. However, it is clear that English language teachers in Turkey have little motivation to take part in in-service teacher education activities at the personal level.

Apart from the teacher education, personal and social factors originating from learners and parents also influence perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness. Learner-related factors consist of lack of motivation arising from living environment, economic and personal reasons, and emotional inhibitions such as lack of awareness towards English, anxiety, prejudice about English, and fear of failure. However, lack of motivation arising from living environment and economic reasons are the issues faced by the English langauge teachers at School A. Parental factors such as parental involvement and support and parental collaboration influence the perceptions of English langauge teachers' effectiveness. However, lack of collaboration, prioritizing external assessment (YGS-LYS) more than learning, and lack of awareness towards English are the reasons behind lack of parental support and collaboration experienced by only the English langaueg teachers at School A in Turkey.

The third factor influencing perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness is instructional factors, and it includes curriculum-related factors. Curriculum-related factors involve content, resources, and assessment. Content includes factors such as innappropraite, unmotivational and not up-to-date content, few number of exercises, few number of weekly teaching hours, intense and detailed content, lack of contribution to and inflexibility in the curriculum. Resources include factors such as lack of freedom in teaching material selection. Assessment involves factors such as external assessments causing anxiety for students and affecting current learning.

Contextual factors are the final factor influencing perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness. Learning environment, including overcrowded classes, lack of special classroom for language teaching, no ability grouping of students, double-shift schooling, teacher promotion, inspection and evaluation, administrative tasks, teacher collaboration, employment of substitute teaching staff, learning experiences and conditions in previous grades and schools such as few number of English language teachers and substitute teacher employment, teaching methods employed, elective courses, and high mobility of teachers constitute the factors related to contextual factors.

6.2. Perception of Students regarding their Teachers' Effectiveness in Teaching English

In this part of the study, the results on students' perceptions about their English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland and Turkey were presented. To obtain data on the perceptions of students regarding their teachers' effectiveness in teaching English, focus group interview with students were conducted.

6.2.1. Perception of Students in Poland regarding their Teachers' Effectiveness in Teaching English

Data analyses revealed that students' perceptions regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland categorized in classroom management, instructional strategies, employment of teaching materials, assessment and evaluation.

6.2.1.1. Effectiveness Perceptions of Polish Students about Classroom Management

To obtain data on the perceptions of students about their teachers' classroom management effectiveness in Poland, the researcher conducted focus group interviews with students and classroom observations. With regard to classroom management, the data provided information about allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements.

The data showed that students' statements on teachers' allocating sufficient time for each person during the instruction were similar to teachers' statements (Estera, Teodor, Jakub). In regard to allocating time for each student during instruction, one of the students stated that:

> I already know all the stuff we have been learning through these 2 years here. I already knew that. And well, most of the class has some troubles with the subjects and the teacher usually focuses on them, so they can learn better. I usually get to sit back and relax because I don't... there really isn't much other material for me to do. But nowadays, for now I have, I kind of have that issue that I am not progressing too much. Because the teacher is focusing on the students that have more problems than I do. So for me it is just usually sitting with my phone on my leg or sleeping (Teodor).

Another 3rd year student expressed that, “I suppose no, but it’s not bad because in our group we are all pretty even as it comes to our English level so… yeah, so… I suppose it’s… there is no need” (Jakub). In respect to defining classroom rules, the data revealed that unlike teachers, students stated that teachers didn’t define any classroom rules (Damian, Aron, Bazek, Janek, Artur, Teodor, Piotr). One of the final grade students explained this as follows: “I don’t think we have like rules that. We can do whatever we want. As long as we don’t kill each other” (Artur). Another 1st year student stated that, “We have got only the rules as a whole. It is school rules. Things like, ‘Don’t use the phone.’ But everybody uses the phone” (Damian). Related to establishing classroom rules, another 2nd year student said that, “I think no. She didn’t tell us about any rules, but through the year when we do something wrong, for example using our telephones, she tells us about it: Don’t use your phones! ” (Janek). Another 2nd year student at the School B stated that, “I don’t really remember something like that. And the rules in the classroom are not strict at all so we can eat or drink, for example” (Piotr).

Related to collaboration in defining classroom rules, some of the students also stated that teachers themselves defined the classroom rules instead of defining the rules collaboratively (Estera, Martyna). One of the 2nd year students explained that, “We do what we want and the teachers sits and she doesn’t know who. We have a pencil case with the phone inside and the teacher doesn’t look inside” (Estera). Another 1st year student expressed that, “I think not. But it’s, I think, all of us agree with this rules” (Martyna).

With regard to providing positive reinforcement, one of the 1st year students expressed that, “She’s impatient; OK, thank you very much go to the another” (Kacper). In addition to using positive reinforcement, obtained data also proved that most of the teachers motivated students to respond correctly or incorrectly (Joacob, July, Kacper, Weronika). Regarding that, one of the 2nd year students explained that, “Even if we have some passive students in the class, the teacher doesn’t let them stay quiet all the time and she asking them questions. She motivates them all the class” (Jacob). Another 1st year student expressed that, “She ask the question and when students don’t know or wait some time to, to, to… this words come to the head” (Kacper).

Apart from using positive reinforcement, the data revealed that teachers allowed students to explain learning difficulties (Teodor, Oly). In connection with allowing students to explain learning difficulties, one of 3rd year students stated that, "She asks if we have any good questions and questions us about the new vocabulary we have to do then during the subject" (Teodor). Another 2nd year student said that, "In the lesson, if we have any problem, she go to her table and explains and we can ask her. We have no problems with communication with her" (Oly). Related to employing various seating arrangements, it was found that teachers mostly preferred traditional seating arrangement (Artur, Teodor, Aron, Damian, Olga, Ania, Kinga, Kacper, Klaudia,). Regarding that, one of the 3rd year students explained that, "It's hard to say but ?? horse is more ummm… We can listen more than back to back and we can focused to teacher, what teachers says and what teacher do" (Gita). Related to seating arrangement, another 3rd year student stated that:

> It depends if I want to do something or not because if I wanted to do anything in the lesson, I prefer back to back because I can hide behind someone. So I can act like do something but I am only sleeping and teacher doesn't see. I can even cheat on test because the person in front of me can move her test next to me… (Artur).

With regard to seating arrangement, one other 2nd year student expressed that, "It is really traditional but it is like table with 2 chairs at 20. So it is a typical Polish-like classroom" (Aron).

6.2.1.2. Effectiveness Perceptions of Polish Students about Using Instructional Strategies

In this part of the results, effectiveness perceptions of Polish students about English language teachers' using instructional strategies during instructions were analyzed. To acquire data, the researcher obtained data through student focus group interviews. The data provided information about employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction.

Related to employing a variety of group strategies, students at School A stated that teachers mostly employed whole group instruction (Jola, Damain). One of the 2nd year students said that, "No. But only when we are active in the lesson and when we answer the question which she asks, she gives us some good marks" (Jola). However, students at School B stated that teachers mostly preferred a variety of group

strategies, such as individual, small-group and whole-group (Magdalena, Jakub, Aleksandra, Julia, Sebastian). Related to that, one of the 3rd year students expressed that, "Yeah, we have lots of, lots of styles, lots of types of teaching and we work in groups, we have some role plays that are just to learn us how to pass the exam" (Magdalena). Another 2nd year student at School B stated that:

> We, I think that we mainly talk with him or in groups and we do a lot of teamwork and he also makes us think, like, he gives us some questions that we need to really think about the problem and sometimes he doesn't really gives us the answer because he wants us to, I don't know, know it on our owns, or something like that (Julia)

Obtained data also revealed that, instead of group strategies, most of the teachers employed pair work during instruction. Related to using pair works during instruction, students' statements were similar to teachers' statements (Emilia, Damain). Concerning using pair work during instruction, one of the 1st year students stated that, "Dialogues, usually dialogue (Damian). Another 1st year student at School B explained that, "We sometimes, she sometimes make groups in our class. When we have to translate some words or, or something in… But we usually work in pairs" (Emilia).

Related to communicative practice during instruction, students' statements were similar to teachers' statements on lack of communicative practice (Estera, Janek, Aron, Damian). One of the 2nd year students explained this as follows: "She talks to us all the time. She looks for a question when we must speak about that theme. Sometimes, we answer the questions in the book but she speaks and speaks and speaks. I am passive, very passive" (Estera). Another 2nd year student stated that, "She focuses on the grammar on the test. And also in classroom but she doesn't forget about the words. If we don't know, she explains. So it is more grammar, less of words but it is umm……She don't forget about the words" (Janek). One other 2nd year student said that, "My teacher likes to ummm…my teacher uses the ??scan-it style of teaching English grammatics" (Aron). Regarding little communicative practice during instruction, one of the 1st year students stated that, "She always use English. She never speaking in Polish, so it's a good thing" (Damian). However, students at School B stated that they had enough communicative practice during instructions (Ania, Kacper, Karol, Piotr, Magdalena, Claudia). Related to that, one of the 2nd year students expressed that:

> In my opinion our teacher is an excellent speaker. And as [INAUDIBLE] said during our lessons we focus on speaking mostly. And I think that's the main goal, the key, of our teacher. In my opinion, rather active speaker than passive listener because, as we, as we mentioned, we speak a lot during the lesson (Karol).

With respect to communicative practice during instruction, another 3rd year student explained that:

> And also I think that the whole lesson is like a conversation between us and our teacher so all the time we communicate. I think I'm, like, I wouldn't describe myself as an observer, but if I have a problem I have no, like, I, just ask if that's a problem for me. But I'm not, like, constantly active in a way, like active (Magdalena).

Related to authentic practice, students stated that there was too little authentic practice in speaking employed by teachers during instruction (Gita, Daniel, Marcin, Aleksandra). Especially students stated that authentic practice and activities in speaking were not sufficient. One of the 3rd year students explained this as follows:

> I'd try to, instead, make learning attract for them by making interactive lessons with technology, organize school trips, organize different kinds of lessons, inviting guests and native speakers etc. so that the students would have a wide variety of things to learn and also I'd try to make, I'd try to have classes (Gita).

Another 1st year student stated that, "I think it is better not to be in the classroom. For example, we can go outside and we can speak in our real life, not sitting around a table and writing" (Marcin). One other 1st year student said that, "I think it is good that we don't sit at tables or in English lessons we can go outside" (Daniel).

Data obtained through focus group interview revealed that teachers mostly employed English as a medium of instruction. Students stated that teachers employed English as a medium of instruction (Janek, Valeska, Emilia, Dorota). One of the 2nd year students explained this as follows: "Sometimes English but sometimes in Polish. She is both because some part of our group doesn't understand English. And also she helps us in English" (Valeska). Another 2nd year student stated that, "She always uses English. She never speaking in Polish, so it's a good thing" (Janek). One other 1st year student at School B explained that, "I like that when we don't, when we don't understand something, some word, in English she try to explain it in English. Not in Polish. And that's good" (Emilia).

6.2.1.3. Effectiveness Perceptions of Polish Students about Employing Teaching Materials

Obtained data through focus group interviews with students revealed effectiveness perceptions of Polish students about English language teachers' employing teaching materials. With reference to employing teaching materials, the data provided information about using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries.

Related to using authentic teaching materials, obtained data revealed that almost all of the teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their instruction. With respect to using authentic teaching materials, students' statements were similar to teachers' statements. Some of the 2nd year students stated altogether that, "Yes, we watch movies" (Janek, Magdalena, Klaudia, Aleksandra, Weronika, Martyna). Another 3rd year student expressed that, "I think that plenty of them. Videos, some lectures, some, some parts of books" (Magdalena). One other student explained that, "So we don't have one book. But she… on every lesson she brings something. Like an article or a video" (Klaudia).

Even though most of the teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their lessons, students claimed that the number of the self-developed teaching materials employed by teachers was limited (Aron, Bazek, Daniel). Related to that, one of the 2nd year students said that, "He only use books like the main books, basic books, yes, and sometimes he use other types of information that it is so rare that I only can like ummm…. I don't know. Maybe that like on lesson, we just talk in the book" (Aron). Another 2nd year student expressed that, "Our teacher just umm.. we usually use only books and exercise books but she sometimes, like we know it, brings us some other exercises and some other worksheets or exercises" (Bazek). One other 1st year student pointed out that, "I think she gives us a piece of paper with exercises and that is it. Because there is nothing else. Just the students' book" (Daniel).

In addition to few teaching materials and little self-developed teaching materials usage, the results also revealed that apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers didn't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction (Estera, Gita, Aron, Olga, Emilia, Kacper). One of the 2nd year students stated that, "No. Only our lovely course book" (Estera). Another 3rd year student expressed that, "If I were an

English teacher now, I'd try to, instead, make learning attract for them by making interactive lessons with technology" (Gita). One other 1st year student at School B expressed that, "Our teacher is… can't use computer and, and modern technique. So we haven't these things but we have… we had to…Jak przynieść? [How to say "przynieść"?] Wachlarz? [Hand-held folding fan]" (Emilia). Another 1st year student at School B stated that, "It's… she, she, she have her age and I think – I don't know – but I guess that she'll, she maybe she don't know about solutions in Internet or something like this. We don't, we don't use social media or read newspapers" (Kacper). Apart from online teaching sources or applications, except for some teachers, most of the teachers employed visuals during instruction. However, most of the teachers used visuals through media during instruction and it was unsatisfactory and wasn't sufficient (Teodor, Jola, Olenka, Olga, Emilia, Kacper, Aleksandra, Julia, Klaudia, Magdelana). One of the 3rd year students explained this as follows: "But only sometimes we watch films" (Teodor). Another 2nd year student stated that, "Also we watch some movies in English, videos when we have free time" (Jola). One other 3rd year student pointed out that, "I think the teacher should add more movies in the whole year, not separately" (Olenka). Students at School B also stated that teachers had used visuals during instruction but they explained that it wasn't sufficient. One of the 1st year students explained that:

> For example, I heard the, from the different students from different teacher that they had, for example, they were watching the Sherlock Holmes and before the watching they get a list on the vocabulary from first 45 minutes and they had to learn them. And before watching the teacher checked students from this words, "OK, you learned it, you are understand it, you can watch the movie." And after first 45 minutes give the next part of vocabulary, learn it for the next lesson we will continuing. And I think it's easy, is nice because it's, you know, watching TV. "Oh, everything, I understand everything," because I had learned the vocabulary and it's nice because it's on the list. It, not, OK, "Find the vocabulary in, in book, learn it, it's from this to this." I like it, it's for me I, I… if I learn all, I'm, I'm safety and I, I'm, I know that I know…(Kacper).

Another 2nd year student at School B explained that:

> I think that our lessons are really fine and I like going to them but what I would add by myself is watching movies because it's, like, sometimes we are… everyone is so tired because, like, in our school… I don't know how it happens but every class has a hard week in the same time, so sometimes we are all so tired and [INAUDIBLE] and we just want to watch movie and sometimes the teacher let us to do it but not always. Sometimes we do grammar then and…

> yeah. But it's OK 'cause I think that we have to learn even if we look tired, but if I was a teacher I would just go for watching movies (Julia).

Finally, the results also showed that almost all of the teachers motivated students to use dictionaries. Related to using dictionaries during instruction one of the 1st year students expressed that, "She said the meaning of the words and I said that I thought that it's different also and she said OK take your phone and check it" (Kacper).

6.2.1.4. Effectiveness Perceptions of Polish Students about Assessment and Evaluation

Data obtained through student focus group interviews provided information on assessment and evaluation of teachers. Within respect to assessment and evaluation, the data provided information about providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments**,** and re-teaching following the assessments.

Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, the data revealed that most of the teachers gave feedback for student homework assignments (Estera, Emilia,Kaceper, Kinga, Julia,). Some of the 2nd year students stated that, "Yes. Next lesson. Always. On the paper, no. She talks with me about what is wrong" (Estera, Teodor, Gita). Regarding giving oral and written feedback for student assignments, another 3rd year student pointed out that:

> Usually just questions us about our homework. She checks our homework personally only if she is mad at us. Then, she checks it personally, everyone's homework. And well…when she checks it personally, she usually ..it is usually more important whether we did it or not. As if we do it wrong, she corrects us but doesn't punish us for it (Teodor).

One other 3rd year student said that, "She checks our homework and she question about what is in first question or two questions. We check everyone must check it on the every lesson" (Gita). One of the 2nd year students stated that:

> For most of the lesson, we just check the homework; it is like for half an hour. We have to check in common but I think, that'll be ok if our group was smart and fast in English but it is not to some. Who has done homework and later we just check it like together. She asks one person to read one exercise, that person reads it, that's it. That is how we check it. One by one (Bazek).

Apart from giving, checking, and providing feedback on oral and written homework assignments, the data also provided information about assessment. Related to formative assessments conducted by teachers, students' statements were similar to teachers' statements (Bzek, Olga, Kacper, Aleksandra). One of the 2nd year students explained that, "That are just have some short tests, we do learn some new words, things like that because we have a lot of short tests, but I think it is all" (Bazek). Another 1st year student at School B expressed that:

> We get a lot of papers about grammar and tenses when we are doing it, and she said that she will be asking us every lesson one person. And I think it's good because at the beginning I was angry because it means that I have to learn every lesson's vocabulary, new vocabulary, but after few lessons I recognized that it's good because when we had the test after more lessons I, I had known a lot of words from this asking because I was hearing when she's asks somebody and I had known that this is this, this is this because I heard it. It was every lesson so I, I was hearing it every day, every next lesson and I think it, it was helping (Kacper).

Obtained data also revealed that apart from formative assessments, teachers also conducted regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress. Students' statements were consistent with teachers' statements (Estera, Olenka, Jola, Martyna). Regarding summative assessment, one the 2nd year students explained that, "She works on course book and sometimes writes a test but easy. One day in a month" (Estera). Another 1st year student expressed that, "We have the short test about grammar, after unit, all unit, we have a big test, big exam with all grammar and vocabulary" (Martyna).

In addition to formative and summative assessments, teachers also provided oral and written feedback following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments.

With regard to proving feedback for formative and summative assessments, students' statements were similar to teachers' statements (Estera, Jola, Aleksy, Kacper, Julia, Karol). Related to written corrective teacher feedback on an assessment, one of the 2nd year students said that, "Yes she takes it in circles. But one line, red line of course. And I have to take one time mistake" (Estera). Another 2nd year student stated that, "She write on the paper what did we do wrong and she answer" (Jola). In addition to that, one of the 1st year students said that, "Yes. When someone doesn't know his note, he can go to her all the time. She explains it" (Aleksy). Students at School B also stated that teachers had provided oral and written feedback following assessments. One of the 1st year students explained this as follows:

> And now it was smaller test but we have short test about vocabulary, asking every lessons and this small writing episodes [INAUDIBLE] lessons about vocabulary and also the extra, extra essays some, some who wants can write the extra essays for better mark, and she check it and give us back and show the mistakes and talk. For example with me (Kacper).

Another 2nd year student at School B expressed that:

> He gives us the exams… He gives us our exams back and when someone, like, you know, messed up the exam, he's like talking with the person, like, OK, so you need to practice on this and he always gives us an opportunity to correct ourselves, like, a second exam from the… for the same material so you can, you know (Julia).

Furthermore, obtained data also revealed that apart from providing oral or written feedback for the assessments, most of the teachers, especially at School B, also did re-teaching, if necessary, following a summative assessment. With regard to re-teaching following summative assessments, students' statements were similar to teachers' statements. One of the 2nd year students said that the teacher did re-teaching if necessary following summative assessments (Jola, Ania, Martyna). One of the students explained this as follows: "I think she will revise all this on maybe one lesson and write, we will rewrite this again. Because…" (Ania).

6.2.1.5. Summary of Perception of Students in Poland regarding their Teachers' Effectiveness in Teaching English

To define perceptions of students in Poland regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness, researcher obtained data through focus group interviews with students in Poland. Related to perceptions of students in Poland regarding their English language teachers effectiveness reveal four main categories: (1) effectiveness perceptions about classroom management, (2) effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies, (3) effectiveness perceptions about employing teaching materials, and (4) effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation. Effectiveness perceptions about classroom management are comprised of allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements. The data showed that students' statements on classroom management were similar to teachers' statements. Students in Poland also state that their English language teachers in Poland have difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during

instruction. Concerning defining classroom rules, the data revealed that most of the teachers define classroom rules at the beginning of the school year. However, students also stated that teachers didn't collaborate with students to define classroom rules. With regard to allowing students to explain learning difficulties, students also explain that teachers allow students to explain learning difficulties during the instruction. Furthermore, students also stated in line with the teachers' statements that teachers motivate students to respond correctly or incorrectly. Related to employing various seating arrangements, students declare most of the teachers prefer a traditional seating arrangement or horseshoe arrangement during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement.

Perceptions of students in Poland regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland about using instructional strategies involve employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction. Student focus group interview data on using instructional strategies was consistent with teacher interview data. Accordingly, employing a variety of group strategies varies from school to school in Poland. Most of the English Language teachers at School A prefer whole group teaching during instruction instead of varying the strategies. However, students state that English Language teachers at School B mostly adopted a variety of group strategies such as individual, small-group and whole-group during instruction in Poland. Rather than group strategies, students express that most of the English Language teachers at school A and B mostly employ pair work during instruction. Employing communicative practice also varies from school to school as well in Poland. English language teachers at School A employ little communicative practice; however, English Language teachers at School B employ enough communicative practice during instruction. With respect to authentic practice, it is clear that most of the teachers don't make authentic practice during instruction. Finally, in Poland, English Language teachers mostly employ English as a medium of instruction according to statements of students in Poland.

Perceptions of students regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland about employing teaching materials consist of using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or

applications, and using visuals. Student focus group interview data on employing teaching materials was consistent with teacher interview data, as well. Related to using authentic teaching materials, students state that almost all of the English Language teachers employ authentic teaching materials during their lessons; however, most of the English Language teachers don't employ self-developed teaching materials. Furthermore, English Language teachers in Poland also don't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction. Apart from online teaching sources or applications, students express that most of the English Language teachers employ visuals during instruction.

Lastly, perceptions of students regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland about assessment and evaluation include providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and re-teaching following the assessments. Student focus group interview data on assessment and evaluation was consistent with teacher interview data, as well. Related to providing feedbacks (oral or written) for homework assignments, most of the English Language teachers give feedback for student homework assignments. However, only few of the English Language teachers give online homework assignments. Apart from homework assignments, English Language teachers at both schools frequently make formative assessments during instruction. Furthermore, English Language teachers at both schools also conduct regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress. In addition to that, English Language teachers provide oral and written feedbacks following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments; however, only the English Language teachers at School B do re-teaching, if necessary, following summative assessments.

The results on perceptions of students in Poland regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness were in line with teacher interview. Accordingly, perception of students at school A in Poland regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness is lower in some respects when compared with the perception of students at school B in Poland.

6.2.2. Perception of students in Turkey regarding their Teachers' Effectiveness in Teaching English

In this part of the study, the results on students' perceptions about their English language teachers' effectiveness in Turkey were presented. Data analyses revealed that students' perceptions about their English language teachers' effectiveness in Poland categorized in classroom management, instructional strategies, employment of teaching materials, assessment and evaluation.

6.2.2.1. Effectiveness Perceptions of Turkish Students about Classroom Management

To obtain data on the perceptions of students about classroom management effectiveness of teachers in Turkey, the researcher conducted focus group interviews with students. With regard to classroom management, the data provided information about allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements.

With regard to allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction, the data revealed that all of the teachers had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction. Students' statements were similar to teachers' statements (Damla, Ender, Perihan, Gül, Recai, Rahime, Kadim, Beren, Nisa, Salim, Sinem). Related to that, one of the 2nd year students stated that, "As there are so many students in the classroom, we have even little time for replying. To provide time for my friend, I speak a little too. Hence, it is also a disadvantage for us" (Perihan). Apart from overcrowded classes, one of the 3rd year students explained the reasons of allocating insufficient time for each student during instruction in a different way. She explained this as follows:

> I do not agree with that. If I were a teacher, I would try to include and motivate students. I would try to address the whole class. As my friend said, our teacher allocate more time for the students who are more motivated. I think, our teacher should allocate time for passive students (Gül).

Another 4th year student's statements were consistent with the 3rd year student's statements Gül. The 4th year student stated that:

> I don't think that our teacher allocates sufficient time for each person during instruction. It is in the 3rd grades, our class consists of 27 students. In some classes, the number of the students might be 47-50. If there are a lot of students in the classroom, the teacher can't allocate time for each person. Our class consist of 27 students; however, the teacher can't allocate time, as well. In general, the teacher allocates time for students who have motivation and sitting at the front rows. The teacher doesn't want to allocate time for students sitting at the back rows. She can't allocate time (Rahime).

One of the 1st year students stated that, "There are some of our friends who haven't got motivation. They are sleeping at the back of the classroom. The teacher is not interested with them" (Kadim).

With respect to defining classroom rules, students pointed out that most of the teachers didn't define any rules at School A (Gül, Gürbüz, Eda, Seyfi, Fazilet). One of the 3rd year students indicated that, "We do not specify a written rule. It depends on the process. Teacher explains that we are going to do that, we do it" (Gül). Related to that, one of the 1st year students stated that, "In the first semester, I didn't define classroom rules. I don't know, we didn't. We do it in a personal way. After all, we are not first graders (primary school). As we are 1st graders at high school, everyone is aware of…" (Gürbüz). Another 4th year student stated that, "We do not have classroom rules. It depends on the day of instruction. So from the beginning ... It used to be better in primary school" (Fazilet).

Unlike the teachers and students at School A, most of the teachers defined classroom rules at School B. Students at School B also stated that their teachers defined classroom rules (Mert, Asiye). One of the 1st year students expressed that, "We should be quiet during the instruction and should not use our mobile phones. There is our mobile phone on the desk but we don't use it. Mobile phones should be switched off and close to the teacher" (Asiye). The data also revealed that teachers defining classroom rules didn't collaborate with students to define the rules at School A. In contrast to school A, students at school B stated that their teachers collaborated with them to define classroom rules (Erdal, Asiye, Sinem, Salim, Yahya). One of the students expressed that, "We can't say that these are teachers rule. We also contribute to define classroom rules. The teacher also gets our opinion" (Erdal).

It was observed by the researcher that most of the teachers motivated students to respond correctly or incorrectly. Concerning motivating students, students stated that teachers tried to motivate them to respond correctly and incorrectly during

instruction (Özge, Mirza,Cenk). Related to that, one of the 3rd year students stated that, "Teacher motivates me. Actually, I am more motivated to learn English than last year with the help of my teacher" (Özge). Another 2nd year student explained that, "Teacher forces to motivate students. She asks a question unexpectedly. For example, she asked me…" (Mirza). Regarding motivating students, one of the 1st year students indicated that, "Sometimes she wants reply from unmotivated students who don't raise fingers to motivate them" (Cenk).

The data revealed that most of the teachers allowed students to explain learning difficulties. Students indicated that teachers allowed them to explain learning difficulties during instruction. One of the 1st year students explained this as follows: "In general, the teacher asks lots of questions. At the end of the learning topic, he tells us to ask questions without hesitation. The teacher also tells that as you hesitate, you have difficulty to learn. He tells something like that" (Kadim). Related to employing various seating arrangements during instructions, it was found that apart from a few teachers at School B, almost all of the teachers employed traditional seating arrangements during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as a horseshoe or modular arrangement.

Related to seating arrangements, students' statements were similar to teachers'. Students also stated that teachers didn't employ various seating arrangements and mostly preferred traditional seating arrangements (Gürbüz, Kadim, Ender, Fazlı, Perihan, Ayşe, Gül, Ayşegül, Alican, Duru, Fazilet, Eda, Sinem). One of the 1st year students pointed out that:

> For example, I want my teacher to use horse nail seating arrangement as you have organized now as it provide us to respond the teacher, to see each other. Sometimes, there might be some students sleeping at the back of the class. This seating arrangement (horse nail) allows us to respond all of the students in the classroom (Gürbüz).

Another 4th year student expressed that, "Previously, there were 40 students in our classrooms. Nowadays, our classroom consists of 17students. 20 students are already absentee. Can the teacher use horse nail seating arrangement in a classroom where there are 17-18 students? I think, yes" (Fazilet).

6.2.2.2. Effectiveness Perceptions of Turkish Students about Using Instructional Strategies

In this phase of the results, perceptions of students about their teachers using instructional strategies during instruction are presented. To obtain data, the researcher conducted focus group interviews with students. The data acquired provided information about employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction.

Related to employing a variety of group strategies, the data revealed that instead of employing a variety of group strategies such as individual, small group and whole group, almost all of the teachers employed whole group teaching during their instruction. Students' statements were similar to teachers' statements. Students also stated that teachers used mostly whole group teaching during instruction (Damla, Gizem, Kadim, Ender, Recai, Faruk, Eren, Alican, Yahya). Related to that, one of the 1st year students stated that, "As my friend has just pointed out we generally don't make small group works; however, in all of the activities teacher makes the activities with the students sitting at the front row" (Kadim). Another 1st year student expressed that, "If I were an English language teacher, I would use small group works with four persons. I would try them to collaborate with each other" (Damla). Related to employing pairs work, students' statements also supported the teachers' statements. Related to pair work during instruction, one of the 3rd year students expressed that, "Sometimes we make dialogues with two or three persons. You read it together. Your partner reads and then you read" (Recai).

Related to employing communicative practices during instruction, students' statements were consistent with teachers' statements (Cahit, Cenk, Nihan, Eda, Recai, Baran, Duru, Sinem, Atacan). One of the 1st year students stated that, "We only use course book activities. If we made some dialogues, it would be helpful for us for speaking" (Cenk). Related to lack of communicative practice, another 2nd year student pointed out that:

> If I were a teacher, I didn't want my students to memorize vocabulary for reading because when I memorize, I forget it. I sit somewhere else and I always memorize something. Sometimes, it sticks in my mind; later on you don't use half of the words. After all, it is a disadvantage (Özlem).

Another 3rd year student stated that:

> I would like to learn English at high school and I feel that I am too late. I think only writing, going to the blackboard, underlining is not sufficient. I think it is more effective to collaborate and make speaking with each other. We have been being taught grammar since 4th grade of primary school. We have been studying grammar till now. I think that is because the courses are boring. It has some effect. There should be more speaking. Hence, I haven't learnt English (Nihan).

Another 3rd year student expressed that:

> I think, education is grounded on the memorization. Between units, while learning a new unit, from one topic to another, we only learn the vocabulary of the previous unit. For example, while we are trying to speak with a person, we know the vocabulary; however, we can't put them in an order. We know the word but we can speak as we don't know how to put them in an order (Recai).

Regarding lack of communicative practice, one of the final grade (4th year) students emphasized the abundance of writing activities instead of communicative activities. She explained that, "I think it is mostly writing. Only writing. When I open my notebook, I recognize that we mostly made writing activities. I would only write the examples" (Duru). One of the final grade students stated that, "We always learn the same topics: grammar, tenses. Unfortunately, we use notebook in which there is only grammar and tenses. There is nothing more" (Eda).

In addition to too little communicative practice, participants also stated that there was a lack of authentic practice in speaking employed by teachers during instruction. Especially students stated that authentic practice and activities on speaking and writing were not sufficient (Cahit, Ender, Faruk, Özlem). In respect to little authentic communicative practice, one of the 1st year students stated that, "After teaching the rules, I think there should be opportunity of each person to speak one by one, opportunity to make dialogue. For example, students learn everything here, at school; however, when s/he speaks with a person out of school, s/he stops!" (Cahit). Another 2nd year student expressed that:

> I imagine that it would be better like that. For instance, our teacher teaches us. Suppose that a person who can speak the language very well, sits next to us for 40 minutes. I wish, we could communicate with him/her, ask questions about the course. Suppose that an English native speaker speaks enough Turkish for example to communicate with us. Suppose the person is very good at English and mentoring us during instruction. It would be perfect (Ender).

3rd year students also criticized the lack of authentic practice during instruction. Related to that, one of the students stated that:

> In front of the white board, teacher tells students, write! That's all. I think, nowadays, there have been trying to solve this. At the beginning of the first semester, an American person called Maxim Joseph was invited to our school. The person communicated with us in English. It was a good interaction. However, except from that…. Students enjoyed that interaction. However, now teacher writes something on the white board and re-reads it or asks 40-50 questions which don't motivate students to answer (Faruk).

Another 2nd year student criticized the lack of authentic practice in the writing skill. She expressed that:

> When I was a student at lower-secondary school, there was a project. I used to write a foreign friend in abroad, such as exchanging letters. We used to spend time in a course to write a letter or respond a letter. The penpal used to explain how it was in his/her country. We used to respond him/her. We used to learn using vocabulary in that way. As we wanted to reply, we always tried to use vocabulary (Özlem).

Apart from little authentic and communicative practice employed by teachers in Turkey, the data obtained through focus group interviews suggested that almost all of the teachers didn't use English as a medium of instruction. Students also expressed that teachers hadn't used English as medium of instruction (Cahit, Gürbüz, Kadim, Faruk, Özge). One of the 1st year students explained this as follows:

> Our teacher always instructs in Turkish. Of course, it is better to use Turkish as medium of instruction as most of the students wouldn't understand English if teacher uses English as medium of instruction; however, I think English should be mostly used in English courses as a medium of instruction (Cahit).

Another 1st year student stated that, "I wish English was used a medium of instruction all the time. I think, after a while, it is going to be understood. I think so. For example, in my previous school, English was employed as a medium of instruction" (Gürbüz).

Unlike the teachers at School A, teachers at School B used English as a medium of instruction. Similar to the teachers at School B, the students also stated that their teachers employed English as a medium of instruction (Yahya, Beren, Mert, Emir). One of the students expressed that, "There is a rule like that. Turkish language should not be spoken during the courses" (Emir). Another student stated that,

"Teachers want from us to speak English and keep Turkish a bit backward, even to forget" (Beren).

6.2.2.3. Effectiveness Perceptions of Turkish Students about Employing Teaching Materials

The data obtained through student focus group interviews revealed perceptions of students about their teachers employing teaching materials in Turkey. The data acquired provided information about using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries during instruction.

Related to using authentic teaching materials, the data revealed that almost all of the teachers, especially the teachers at School A, didn't employ authentic teaching materials during their lessons (Hasret, Cahit, Nihal, Pelin, Gürbüz, Özlem, Fazlı, Gül, Özge). One of the 1st year students expressed that, "Except from the course book and smartboard, our teacher doesn't use any other teaching material. Sometimes, he uses smartboard and sometimes course to teach" (Hasret). Another 3rd year student said that, "teacher brings worksheets except from the course book for a few times" (Gül). However, unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B had employed authentic materials (Sinem, Baha, Tarık, Mesut). One of the 3rd year students expressed that, "We learn English via posters, brochures, pictures on the smart board and making comments on them" (Baha). Another student stated that, "The most common thing that the teacher brings a part of a newspaper, a kind of article. We read it and discuss on it" (Mesut). Apart from employing few authentic teaching materials, at School A teachers rarely used self-developed teaching materials (Gürbüz, Fazlı, Özge, Faruk). Related to that, one of the 1st year students expressed that, "For instance, I have really difficulty on grammar. I wish, there were some various teaching cards, and materials to be used" (Gürbüz). Another 2nd year student stated that, "She doesn't prepare anything else" (Fazlı). Unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B employed self-developed teaching materials (Furkan, Atacan). One of the 3rd year students expressed that, "Sometimes our teacher brings and uses self-developed materials such as cartons and posters" (Furkan). In addition to few teaching materials and little self-developed teaching materials usage, the results also showed that apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers hadn't used online teaching sources or applications during instruction.

However, some of the teachers at School B they had used online sources or applications during instruction (Atacan, Baha). One of the 3rd year students expressed that, “The teacher generally uses computer and visuals. At the end of the books that we finished reading, teacher organizes competitions. The teacher actively uses technology” (Baha).

Apart from online teaching sources or applications, except for a few teachers employing visuals only through media, most of the teachers didn’t use visuals during instruction except from the course book. Related to that, one of the 1st year students stated that, “I think, there should be a language classroom with vocabulary and their Turkish meanings on the wall. For instance, there should be a classroom just for language teaching” (Damla).

However, it was different at School B. Students stated that their teachers had used visuals during instruction (Atacan, Baha, Mesut, Tarık). One of the 3rd year students expressed that, “The teacher mostly uses the series. For example, the topic was romanticism in the literature, related to that we watched series” (Baha). The same student stated that, “We learn English by using posters, brochures, pictures on the smartboard and discuss it” (Baha). To summarize, there was a clear difference between the teachers at school A and B in using visuals. It was evident that teachers at School B employed visuals during instruction.

Finally, the results also showed that almost all of the teachers motivated students to use dictionaries during instruction. Students from all grades also stated that teachers had required them to bring and use dictionaries in English courses (Gizem, Kadim, Mine, Perihan, Özge, Rahime, Cemre). One of the 1st year students expressed that, “As there might be some unknown vocabulary, the teacher wants us to bring dictionary and look up in the dictionary” (Kadim). Another 2nd year student said, “We should have dictionary in addition to reading book and notebook. We look up the unknown vocabulary in the dictionary and take note it” (Mine). One of the 3rd year students stated that it was an obligation for students to use dictionary during instruction. She explained this as follows: “it is check by a student if students have their dictionary or not. It is necessary to bring the dictionary all the time. If we don’t bring the dictionary, we get negative score” (Özge).

6.2.2.4. Effectiveness Perceptions of Turkish Students about Assessment and Evaluation

The data obtained through student focus group interviews provided results on the effectiveness perceptions of Turkish students about their teachers' assessment and evaluation in Turkey. With regard to assessment and evaluation, the data acquired provided information about providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments**,** and re-teaching following the assessments.

Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, the data obtained revealed that almost all of the teachers didn't check homework or provide feedback (written and oral) for the student homework assignments (Melek, Faruk, Dilan, Cansel, Recep, Gamze, Nihal, Alican, Fazilet). Related to that, one of the 2nd year students expressed that, "I check the homework. I am the assigned person to check the homework. I warn students who don't do homework. I only check who did homework or not" (Melek). Another 3rd year student stated that:

> It is something like that. For instance, teacher gives homework from workbook, from page… to page… To check the homework, the teacher assigns a student. When it is homework check time, the assigned student checks the homework. The assigned person generally has low level of English. The person looks at the notebook and sees a lot of writings on it. OK, it is done. And then, the person hands over the check list to the teacher (Faruk).

Another 4th year student stated that, "Some others check the homework. Here, it is really unknown who did homework and who didn't homework. It is all balled up" (Alican).

However, unlike teachers at School A, most of the teachers at School B had checked and provided feedback for student homework (Beren, Erdal, Atacan, Baha). One of the 3rd year students expressed that, "The teacher himself checks the homework" (Atacan). Another student stated that, "We learn English by using posters, brochures, pictures on the smartboard and discuss it" (Baha). Another student stated that, "The teacher checks the homework one by one" (Erdal).

Apart from giving oral or written feedback for homework assignments, results also clarified that especially at School A, almost all of the teachers rarely made formative assessments during their instruction (Ender, Melek, Eren, Faruk, Özge, Alican). One

of the 3rd year students explained this as follows: “Our teacher doesn’t make any exam. Generally at the end of the semester, the teacher makes quizzes. Like that…” (Eren). Another 4th year student expressed that:

> I don’t think that our teacher makes enough assessments. There might be something like that. At the end of the course, our teacher can take our friends one by one to the blackboard and ask questions or some other teaching material such as something that he brought classroom that we can solve. How many people did it we can understand it very well by this way. The teacher and we can understand by this way (Alican).

Unlike the teachers at School A, most of the teachers at School B had mostly made formative assessments (Mert, Sinem). One of the students expressed that, “After teaching a subject, for example, the teacher makes exercises, quizzes, tests on it” (Mert). The data obtained also revealed that apart from the formative assessment, teachers conducted regular summative assessments to monitor students’ progress (Gizem, Gürbüz, Pelin). Related to that, one of the 1st year students stated that, “We have two short exams. The results of these exams affect my performance score. The exams involve all the topics of grammar that we had learnt” (Gizem).

Apart from formative and summative assessments, teachers also provided oral and written feedback following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments (Cenk, Gürbüz, Cahit, Beren). One of the 1st year students explained this as follows: “We can see our mistakes on the exam paper. We can review it. At the end, as the exam is important, we correct our mistakes” (Gürbüz).

Furthermore, the data also revealed that apart from providing oral or written feedback for the assessments, most of the teachers didn’t do re-teaching, if necessary, following the assessments (Cahit, Gürbüz, Perihan, Ender, Nihan, Özge, Ayşegül, Faruk, Eren). One of the 1st year students expressed that, “When we made mistakes in the exams, the teacher explains it to us. Teacher tells us to study the topic at home to compensate it” (Gürbüz). Another 2nd year student stated that, “For example, teacher says I would not expect it from you. The teacher tells us we have some learning insufficiency” (Perihan). However, unlike the teachers at School A, the teachers at School B had made re-teaching, if necessary, following the assessments (Erdal, Ceyda). One of the students expressed that, “It is not only we got low points. When one of the students gets low point, teachers offer her/him to re-teach the subject” (Ceyda). Another student stated that, “After the teacher reviewing the tests,

s/he recognized that ten of the twenty students made mistakes at one part of the test. S/he expressed that you had made mistakes here, if you didn't understand it, I can explain it again" (Erol).

6.2.2.5. Summary of Perception of Students in Turkey regarding their Teachers' Effectiveness in Teaching English

To define perceptions of students in Turkey regarding their English language teachers' effectiveness, researcher obtained data through focus group interviews with students in Turkey. Related to perceptions of students in Turkey regarding their English language teachers effectiveness reveal four main categories: (1) effectiveness perceptions about classroom management, (2) effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies, (3) effectiveness perceptions about employing teaching materials, and (4) effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation. Effectiveness perceptions about classroom management are comprised of allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements. Apart from interview with teachers, at the end of the student focus group interview in Turkey data obtained providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, as well. The data showed that students' statements on classroom management were similar to teachers' statements. Students in Turkey also state that their English language teachers in Turkey have difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction because of the big size classrooms.

Effectiveness perceptions about classroom management are comprised of allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements. Students stated that English language teachers in Turkey had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction. Defining classroom rules by teachers varies from school to school in Turkey according to students statements. Some of the teachers at School A define classroom rules but most of the teachers don't define classroom rules. However, most of the teachers at School B define classroom rules.

In addition to that, regarding the collaboration on defining classroom rules, students' perceptions at school A and B also vary. Students at School A state that teachers don't collaborate with them to define classroom rules while teachers at School B collaborate with students. With regard to providing positive reinforcement, all of the students expressed that almost all of the teachers employ positive reinforcement and praise students during instruction. Furthermore, students also state that English language teachers at school A and B also motivate students to respond correctly or incorrectly. In addition to that, teachers allow students to explain learning difficulties. Related to seating arrangements, students' statements were similar to teachers'. In this respect, apart from a few teachers at School B, almost all of the teachers employ a traditional seating arrangement during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement.

Effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies involve employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction. Students state that instead of employing a variety of group strategies such as individual, small group and whole group, almost all of the Turkish teachers employ whole group teaching during their instruction. Rather than using varying group strategies, most of the teachers mainly employ pair work during instruction. However, teachers don't use communicative practice during instruction. Even though students express that teachers at School A don't make authentic practice, teachers at School B make authentic practice during instruction. Furthermore, teachers at School A rarely or don't use English as a medium of instruction while teachers at School B use English as a medium of instruction.

Effectiveness perceptions of students in Turkey about employing teaching materials consist of using authentic teaching materials, developing teachers' own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries. Related to using authentic teaching materials, students state that almost all of the teachers, especially the teachers at School A, don't employ authentic teaching materials during instruction; however, unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B employ authentic materials. Besides not employing authentic teaching materials, teachers at School A don't use self-developed teaching materials while some of the teachers at School B employ self-developed teaching

materials. Using online teaching sources or applications during instruction also varies from school to school in Turkey. While few of the teachers at School A prefer using online teaching sources or applications during instruction, teachers at School B mostly use online teaching sources or applications. Using visuals also changes from school to school. While the teachers at School A don't use visuals a lot during instruction, teachers at School B mostly use visuals during instruction. Finally, almost all of the teachers in Turkey motivate students to use dictionaries during instruction at both schools.

Lastly effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation include providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and reteaching following the assessments. Providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments varies from school to school in Turkey. Almost all of the teachers at School A don't check homework or provide feedback (written and oral) for student homework assignments while teachers at School B provide feedback (written and oral) for student homework assignments. However, teachers at both schools don't use online homework assignments for students. Furthermore, almost all of the teachers at School A don't make formative assessments during instruction while teachers at School B make regular formative assessment. Apart from formative assessments, teachers conduct regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress. Apart from formative and summative assessments, teachers also provide oral and written feedback following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments. However, contrary to the teachers at School A, most of the teachers at School B do re-teaching, if necessary, following summative assessments.

The results of the teacher interviews and student focus group interviews about teacher effectiveness were in harmony and similar. However, the results revealed that, effectiveness perceptions of students at school A about their English language teachers teaching at the lower achieving school is lower in some respects when compared with students at school B in Turkey.

6.3. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Teaching English

In this part of the study, the results on effectiveness of English language teachers' in Poland and Turkey were presented. To obtain data on effectiveness of English language teachers' in Poland and Turkey, researcher conducted classroom observations in Poland and Turkey. The data obtained through classroom observations presented that it was also in harmony with the data collected through teacher interview and student focus group interview.

6.3.1. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Poland in Teaching English

Obtained data revealed that effectiveness of English language teachers' in Poland categorized in classroom management, instructional strategies, employment of teaching materials, assessment and evaluation.

6.3.1.1. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Poland about Classroom Management

With regard to classroom management, the data provided information about allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, and employing various seating arrangements.

Related to allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, the data showed that teachers had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction. It was observed by the researcher that, eventhough the number of the students in the classroom was few, teachers couldn't allocate enough time for each student. During the instructions, one of the teachers assigned students some tasks while she was making speaking assessment (PLT2). In addition to that, most of the teachers adopted pair work or whole group work instead of employing individual work with an individual student (PLT1, PLT2, PLT6, PLT9, PLT11, PLT12). With regard to providing positive reinforcement, except for one teacher (PLT2), it was observed that almost all of the teachers employed positive reinforcement and praised students during instruction (PLT1, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). One of the teachers used statements such as "thank you, good, very well, lovely" during instruction (PLT9). To praise and provide positive

reinforcement, another teacher employed “excellent, perfect, thank you very much, thanks, fantastic, very good” (PLT11). One other teacher said “lovely, thank you, correct” (PLT1). Apart from providing positive reinforcement, teachers also made an effort to motivate students. Teachers employed various statements to motivate students during instruction. (PLT2, PLT7, PLT10). One of the teachers stated that, “It is easy, believe me. Why are only some people reply” (PLT2). To motivate students during instruction, another teacher employed expressions such as, “Anything else! Come on what tense is used here guys?” (PLT7). One other teacher employed these statements to motivate students “You do not want to talk to me! That’s a pity. Do not worry. Is there anyone who wants to talk to me?” (PLT10)

Apart from using positive reinforcement, the data revealed that teachers allowed students to explain learning difficulties, as well. During the classroom observation, it was discovered that teachers permitted students to explain their learning difficulties by listening carefully to their questions (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). In some cases, it was observed that teachers also allowed students to explain their learning difficulty in the Polish language to eliminate misunderstanding (PLT1). During the observation, another teacher took a personal interest in the student who had learning difficulty and explained the question in detail (PLT2). In order to allow students to explain their learning difficulties, during the classroom observation teachers employed various statements, as well. One other teacher used statements such as, “Are you good? Are you OK? Anything else?” (PLT8).

Related to employing various seating arrangements, it was found that part from a few teachers, most of the teachers employed a traditional seating plan during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement. The data obtained through classroom observation was similar to the teacher interview and student focus group interview. During the classroom observations, it was observed that instead of employing various seating arrangements such as a horseshoe or modular arrangement, except for a few teachers, most of the teachers employed traditional seating arrangements. It was also discovered that teachers didn’t need to change seating arrangements depending on the student profile, teaching subject etc.

6.3.1.2. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Poland about Using Instructional Strategies

To obtain data on effectiveness of English language teachers in Poland about using instructional strategies, the researcher conducted classroom observations.

The data provided information about employing a variety of group strategies, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction.

Related to employing a variety of group strategies, it was found that especially most of the teachers at School A preferred whole group teaching during instruction (PLT2, PLT4, PLT5, PLT6). Following figure obtained during the instruction revealed that teachers mostly prefer whole group teaching.

Figure 22: Whole Group Teaching

However, teachers at School B mostly preferred a variety of group strategies (PLT9, PLT11, PLT12). Following figure was obtained during a small group-work of a teacher during the classroom observation (PLT11).

Figure 23: Small Group Teaching

In addition that, classroom observation revealed that teachers mostly employed traditional teaching approaches such as behaviorist methods and grammar-based teaching instead of concentrating on communicative practice by employing communicative teaching methods, especially at School A. Thus, there was not enough communicative practice during instruction (PLT1, PLT5, PLT10). Following figure revealed that students sit in a traditional seating arrangement, allowing limited communication between students.

Figure 24: A sample of Traditional Seating Arrangement

Related to authentic practice, the data obrtained during the classroom observation was in harmony with the teacher interview and student focus group interview. During the classroom observation researcher witnessed that only one of the teachers at school B employed authentic practice (PLT12). In this respect, the teacher used video recorded interview to support to teaching subject conducted with a native speaker of English who was a friend of the teacher.

In addition to that, data obtained through classroom observations were also in harmony with the teacher interview and student focus group interview. In each classroom of school A and B in Poland, researcher observed that almost of the teachers employed English as a medium of instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). When students needed extra information about learning subject, teachers explained it in English, as well.

6.3.1.3. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Poland about Employing Teaching Materials

Obtained data through classroom observations with observation forms revealed effectiveness of English language teachers in Poland aboutemploying teaching materials during instruction. Classroom observation data was also consistent with the teacher interview and student focus group interview data. With reference to employing teaching materials, the data provided information about using authentic

teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries.

Related to using authentic teaching materials, obtained data revealed that almost all of the teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT12). During the observation, it was observed by the researcher that one of the teachers visited webpage of the newspaper to relate and give an example on the teaching subject. He also read an essay on the newspaper and discussed it with students (PLT9).

During the classroom observations, in addition to newspapers in English language, it was observed by the researcher that teachers also employed authentic teaching materials such as movies (PLT11). One of the teachers used a short film, presented at the following, in English in her instruction to support the teaching content.

Figure 25: A Sample Authentic Material Use

Even tough most of the teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their lessons, as claimed by teachers and students; the number of self-developed teaching materials employed by teachers was limited during the classroom observation. It was witnessed by the researcher during the classroom observation that, teachers mostly employed course books instead of employing self-developed teaching materials.

Following figure obtained during the instruction of a teacher revealed that the course books were the main teaching material for teachers.

Figure 26: Course Book as a Main Teaching Material

In addition to few self-developed teaching materials usage, classroom observation results also revealed that apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers didn't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction. It was witnessed by the researcher that, only one of the teachers used online teaching applications during instruction (PLT2).

Figure 27: A Sample of Online Teaching Material Use

As it is clear on the figure that, during the instruction teacher delivered access keys to students to join the online application via their mobile phones (PLT2). It was observed by the researcher that students had higher motivation during the instruction while teacher was using online applications for the teaching content.

Apart from online teaching sources or applications, except for some teachers, most of the teachers employed visuals during instruction. Classroom observation data was similar to teacher interview and students focus group interview data. During the classroom observations, it was discovered by the researcher that teachers occasionally used visuals through media such as visuals through computer and projector. The researcher also observed that apart from visuals through media teachers used visuals such as pictures and posters in the English course on classroom boards. Following figure obtained druing the classroom observation proved the active use of printed visual material use by English language teachers in Poland.

Figure 28: A Sample of Visual Material Use

Finally, the results also showed that almost all of the teachers motivated students to use dictionaries (PLT4, PLT6, PLT9, PLT11). During the classroom observations conducted by the researcher, it was noticed that teachers motivated students to use dictionaries when necessary. One of the teachers let students to use Oxford dictionaries to check the meaning of a word during instruction (PLT6). Another

teacher wanted students to use dictionaries while teaching prefixes (PLT11). One other teacher wanted students to use dictionaries to check the meaning of the word "tuberculosis" (PLT9). During the interview, the same teacher stated that, "I tell him, ok, to, to take your mobiles and check the word or you have a text, short text to, to do, to read and whenever you, you find a word the meaning of which you don't understand you can check it." (PLT9). It was also observed by the researcher that in some of the classes, there were dictionaries in the bookcases in the classroom (PLT4).

6.3.1.4. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Poland about Assessment and Evaluation

Within respect to assessment and evaluation, classroom observation the data provided information about providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and re-teaching following the assessments.

Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, as stated by students in the focus group interview and teachers in the interviews, the data revealed that most of the teachers gave feedback for student homework assignments. (PLT5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11). In this respect, teacher visited each student to check and provide feedback for the assigned homework (PLT11). Some other teachers preferred providing oral feedback by reviewing the homework assignment together with all students (PLT9, PLT10). However, during the classroom observations, it was observed by the researcher that most of the teachers adopted paper-based homework assignments instead of using online homework assignments (PLT5, PLT6, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11).

Apart from giving, checking, providing oral and written feedback for homework assignments and online homework assignements, classroom observation data also provided information about assessment. Concerning assessment, consistent with the data of teacher interview and student focus group interview, it was observed by the researcher that all of the English language teachers in Poland frequently conducted formative assessments during their instruction (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). Following figure clarifies a

sample of quiz conducted by a teacher to make vocabulary practice in reading skill teaching (PLT1).

Figure 29: A Sample of Formative Assessment

Another teacher made an online quiz with the participation of students through their mobile phone (PLT2).

Figure 30: A Sample of Online Formative Assessment

During the classroom observation, teachers used online quiz at the end of the course to make teaching practice and diagnose the learning level of students.

Obtained data through classroom observations also revealed that apart from formative assessments, teachers also conducted regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12). During the classroom observations, it was observed by the researcher that at the end of the units, teachers made summative assessments. In addition to formative and summative assessments, teachers also provided oral and written feedback following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments (PLT1, PLT2, PLT3 PLT4, PLT5, PLT6, PLT7, PLT8, PLT9, PLT10, PLT11, PLT12).

The data obtained through classroom observation also supported the interview data of teachers. During the classroom observations, it was observed by the researcher that teachers handed back exam papers to students and did re-teaching after explaining student mistakes (PLT11). Another teacher provided information and made an explanation after the assessment (PLT2).

6.3.1.5. Summary of Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Poland in Teaching English

To define effectiveness of English language teachers in Poland, researcher obtained data through classroom observations. Related to effectiveness of English language teachers in Poland, data was categorized in four main categories: (1) effectiveness about classroom management, (2) effectiveness about using instructional strategies, (3) effectiveness about employing teaching materials, and (4) effectiveness about assessment and evaluation. Effectiveness about classroom management are comprised of allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, allowing students to explain learning difficulties, providing positive reinforcement for students, and employing various seating arrangements.

During the classroom observation, it was obtained that English language teachers in Poland had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction. With regard to allowing students to explain learning difficulties, it was obtained that teachers allow students to explain learning difficulties during the instruction. Furthermore, during the observations conducted by the researcher that English language teachers also motivated students to respond correctly or incorrectly. Related to employing various seating arrangements, most of the teachers preferred a

traditional seating arrangement or horseshoe arrangement during instruction instead of employing varying seating arrangements.

Effectiveness of English language teachers in Poland about using instructional strategies involve employing a variety of group strategies, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction.

In line with the teacher interview and student focus group interview, it was witnessed by the researcher that employing a variety of group strategies varied from school to school in Poland. Most of the English Language teachers at School A preferred whole group teaching during instruction instead of varying the strategies. However, English Language teachers at School B mostly adopt a variety of group strategies such as individual, small-group and whole-group during instruction in Poland.

Furthermore, employing communicative practice also varied from school to school as well in Poland. Teachers at School A employed little communicative practice; however, English Language teachers at School B employed enough communicative practice during instruction. With respect to authentic practice, it is clear that most of the teachers didn't make authentic practice during instruction. Finally, data obtained through classroom observations were also in harmony with the teacher interview and student focus group interview. In each classroom of school A and B in Poland, researcher observed that almost of the teachers employed English as a medium of instruction

Effectiveness of English Language teachers about employing teaching materials consist of using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals and motivating students to use dictionaries. Related to using authentic teaching materials, it was observed that almost all of the English Language teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their lessons; however, most of the English Language teachers didn't employ self-developed teaching materials. Furthermore, English Language teachers in Poland also didn't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction. Apart from online teaching sources or applications, most of the English Language teachers employ visuals during instruction. Finally, during the classroom

observations conducted by the researcher, it was noticed that teachers motivated students to use dictionaries when necessary.

Lastly, effectiveness of English Language teachers about assessment and evaluation include providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and re-teaching following the assessments. Related to providing feedbacks (oral or written) for homework assignments, it was observed that most of the English Language teachers gave feedback for student homework assignments. However, only few of the English Language teachers gave online homework assignments. Apart from homework assignments, English Language teachers at both schools frequently make formative assessments during instruction. Furthermore, English Language teachers at both schools also conducted regular summative assessments to monitor students' progress. In addition to that, English Language teachers provided oral and written feedbacks following the evaluation of formative and summative assessments; however, only the English Language teachers at School B do re-teaching, if necessary, following summative assessments.

The results of the classroom observation revealed that, the data obtained through classroom observations was consistent with teacher interview and student focus group interview.

6.3.2. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Turkey in Teaching English

Obtained data through classroom observation revealed that effectiveness of English language teachers' in Turkey categorized in classroom management, instructional strategies, employment of teaching materials, assessment and evaluation.

6.3.2.1. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Turkey about Classroom Management

With regard to classroom management, the data provided information about allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, employing various seating arrangements, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, and allowing students to explain learning difficulties.

With regard to allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction, classroom observation data was cinsistent witht the teacher interview and student focus group interview data. Classroom observation revealed that all of the teachers, especially at school A, had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student because of the overcrowded classroom (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6). The figure presented at the following proved the teacher and student statements.

Figure 31: Overcrowded Classrooms

In addition to that, it was witnessed by the researcher that as the learning environment and the number of the students in the classroom didn't allow, teachers were not able to employ various seating arrangements during the instructions. It was the traditional seating arrangement adopted by most of the teachers in each classroom. During the classroom observations, it was also observed that teachers didn't change the seating arrangements from class to class and from instruction to instruction. However, in some classes at school B, it was noticed that seats didn't allow the teacher to employ various seating arrangements as the seats were fixed to the ground.

With regard to providing positive reinforcement, it was observed that almost all of the teachers employed positive reinforcement and praised students during instruction (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11, TRT12). During the classroom observation, it was noticed by the researcher that one of the teachers stated, "OK, thank you so much. Very good" (TRT11). Another teacher stated that, "Congratulations! Thank you my friend! They prepared very well." (TRT6). To praise and provide positive feedback, another teacher used statements such as, "Well done! Very good! Thank you!" (TRT1). In addition to using positive reinforcement during instruction, the data also proved that most of the teachers motivated students to respond correctly or incorrectly. It was observed by the researcher that most of the teachers motivated students to respond correctly or incorrectly (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT5, TRT6, TRT7, TRT8, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11, TRT12). During classroom observation, to motivate students one of the teachers asked, "Anyone else?" (TRT9). To motivate an unmotivated student, another teacher used statements such as, "I can help you to explain it" (TRT12). Another teacher said to one of the unsure students, "Alright? It is not a problem. Please tell me" (TRT1). Apart from using positive reinforcement, the data revealed that most of the teachers allowed students to explain learning difficulties (TRT1, TRT3, TRT5, TRT6, TRT9, TRT10, TRT11, TRT12). Especially classroom observation data provided information about allowing students to explain their learning difficulties. Concerning, to check students' learning difficulties, one of the teachers asked, "Do you have any questions?" (TRT11).

6.3.2.2. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Turkey about Using Instructional Strategies

In this phase of the results, related to effectiveness of English language teachers in Turkey about using instructional strategies are presented. The data acquired through classroom observations provided information about employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction.

Related to employing a variety of group strategies, classroom observation data revealed that instead of employing a variety of group strategies such as individual, smallgroup and wholegroup, almost all of the teachers mostly employed whole group teaching during their instruction (TRT1, TRT2, TRT3, TRT5, TRT10, TRT11, TRT12). Consistent with the teacher interview and focus group interview with students, it was also observed by the researcher during the classroom observation that, learning environment with lots of students in each classroom forced teachers to edopt whole group teaching. Another figure obtained through classroom observation of TRT 2 clearly revealed the whole group instruction.

Figure 32: A Sample of Wholegroup Instruction

The data obtained through classroom observation also revealed that, instead of a variety of group strategies, most of the teachers mainly employed pair work during instruction. Classroom observation data was consistent with the interview data of teachers and students. During the classroom observations, it was observed by the researcher that teachers mostly prefered pair work, instead of small group work such as cooperative grouping, flexible grouping, and ability grouping with differentiation.

In addition to little small group work, data obtained from participants and classroom observation also revealed that teachers mostly employed traditional teaching approaches such as behaviorist and grammar-based teaching activities instead of concentrating on communicative practice by employing the communicative language teaching method. The interaction was dominated by teachers. Instead of student-student interaction during instruction, teachers at school A, mostly preferred teacher-student interaction in which teacher-dominated interaction took place.

In addition to too little communicative practice, the data also revealed that there was a lack of authentic practice in speaking employed by teachers during instruction. However, some of the teachers at School B expressed that they had made authentic practice during instruction. With the help of smart board adapted in the learning environement, the teachers mostly benefited from newspapers and native speakers. However, low speed internet connection was a problem for teachers to employ authentic practices a lot at school B, as well.

Apart from little authentic practice employed by English language teachers in Turkey, the data obtained through classroom observations also suggested that almost all of the English language teachers at school A didn't use English as a medium of instruction. Classroom observation data was consistent with the interview data. During the classroom observations, it was witnessed by the researcher that except for a few words in English or some exceptional situations, teachers, especially at School A, mostly preferred Turkish as a medium of instruction (TRT1, TRT4). However, unlike the teachers at School A, teachers at School B expressed that they had used English as a medium of instruction.

6.3.2.3. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Turkey about Employing Teaching Materials

In this phase of the results, effectiveness of English language teachers in Turkey about employing teaching materials is presented. The data acquired through classroom observations provided information about using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries during instruction.

Related to using authentic teaching materials, the data revealed that almost all of the teachers, especially the teachers at School A, didn't employ authentic teaching materials during their lessons. It was witnessed by the researcher that almost all of the teachers at school A employed course books as a main teaching material. However, it was observed by the researcher that unlike the teachers at School A, some of the teachers at School B employed magazines and journals in English. In addition to that, it was also observed by the researcher that teachers at School A didn't use any self-develped teaching material during the instruction. Furthermore, in contrast to teacher interview data obtained at school A, the researcher didn't witness any self-developed teaching material use during the observation period.

In addition to few self-developed teaching materials usage, classroom observation results also showed that apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers didn't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction, especially at school A. At school A, teachers also had the opportunity such as smartboard and internet connection to use online teaching sources however teachers mostly use smartboard to teach the content of course book. Except from the parallel course book content provided by the book companies, teachers at school A didn't use extra online teaching sources or applications. The figure presented at the following clearly presented online course book content, mostly preferred by the teachers at school A.

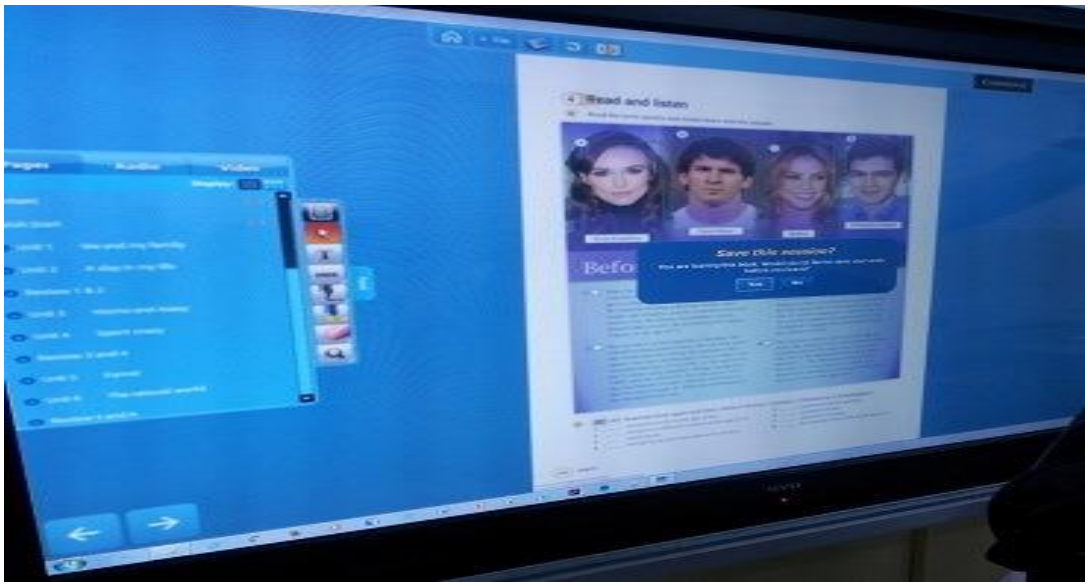

Figure 33: Online Coursebook Content

However, as it was also stated in teacher interviews and witnessed by the researcher during the classroom observation, some of the teachers at School B employed online teaching materials, except from the online course book content.

Apart from online teaching sources or applications, except for a few teachers employing visuals only through media, most of the teachers didn't use visuals during instruction except from the course book. Following figure obtained during the classroom observation at school A clarify lack of visual use during the instruction.

Figure 34: A Sample of Visual Use

As it is clear in the figure that almost all of the teachers didn't use any kind of paper-based visuals, such as pictures, teacher or student-developed pictures, or posters. In addition to that, on the walls of the classroom, teachers didn't hang any posters related to the teaching unit. It wasn't different at School B. On the walls of the classroom, teachers didn't hang any posters related to the teaching topic even at School B. However, it was witnessed by the researcher that only one of the teachers employed online visual to start discussion during the instruction.

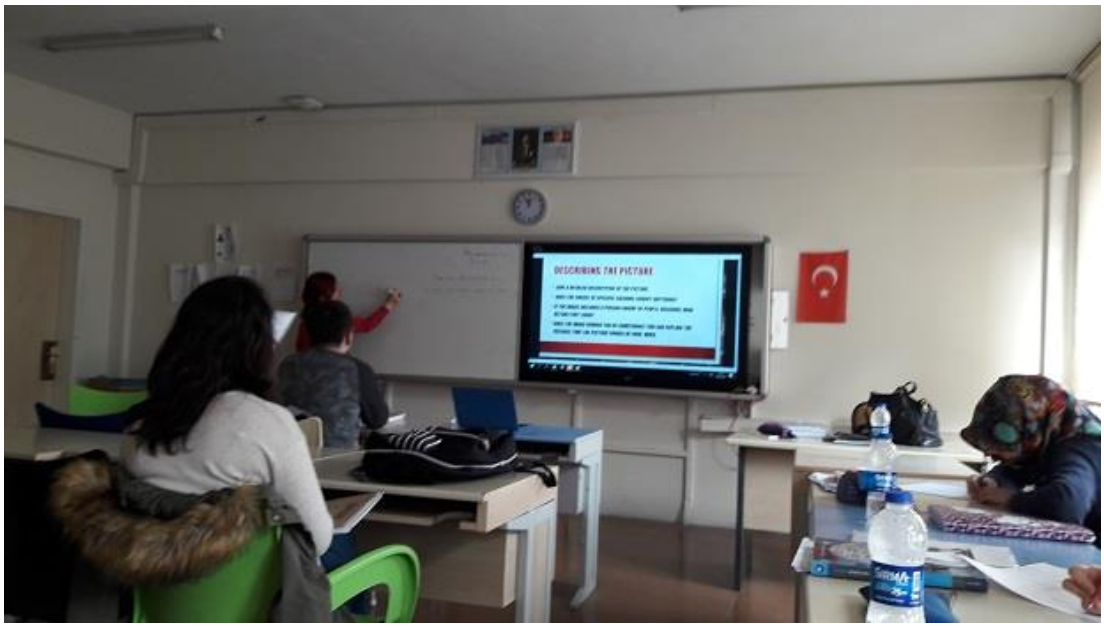

Figure 35: Using Online Visuals

Finally, the results also showed that almost all of the teachers motivated students to use dictionaries during instruction. Observation data was also consistent with interview data. It was observed by the researcher that during classroom observation, teachers required students to use dictionaries when necessary. Especially at School B, most of the teachers also allowed and required students to use dictionary applications on their mobile phones (TRT1, TRT2, TRT4, TRT11, TRT10).

6.3.2.4. Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Turkey about Assessment and Evaluation

With regard to assessment and evaluation, the data acquired through classroom observations provided information about providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments.

Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, consistent with the teacher interview and student focus group interview data obtained through classroom observations revealed that almost all of the teachers didn't check homework or provide feedback (written and oral) for the student homework assigments. During the classroom observations, it was witnessed by the researcher that teachers assigned students to check student homeworks. Furthermore, part from not checking student homework assignment, teachers mostly didn't provide feedback for student homework assignments. In contrast to teachers at school A, teachers at school B mostly checked and provided feedbacks for student homework assignments.

Related to using online homework assignments, almost all of the teachers didn't use any online homework assignments for students. Especially during the classroom observation, it was noticed that even though some of the teachers used online teaching sources and applications for teaching, most of the teachers didn't use online homework assignments. Instead of online homework assignments, almost all of the teachers preferred paper-based homework assignments.

Apart from giving oral or written feedback for homework assignments and employing online tools to deliver homework assignments, classroom observations presented results on assessment. It was observed that most of the teachers at school A didn't employ formative assessment. The data was consistent with teacher interview and student focus group interview. However, most of the teachers at School B conducted formative assessment regularly during the instruction. Teachers at school B mostly preferred quizzes as a formative assessment. In line with the teacher interview and student focus group interview, it was also observed by the researcher that teachers, especially at school A, mostly preferred summative assessments instead of formative assessments as there were a lot of students in a classroom and the teachers thought that the number of the weekly teaching hours for English was

low. Furthermore, it was also observed by the researcher that teachers at school A and B provided written and oral feedbacks for students at the end of the assessments.

6.3.2.5. Summary of Effectiveness of English Language Teachers in Turkey in Teaching English

To define effectiveness of English language teachers in Turkey, researcher obtained data through classroom observations. Related to effectiveness of English language teachers in Turkey, data was categorized in four main categories: (1) effectiveness about classroom management, (2) effectiveness about using instructional strategies, (3) effectiveness about employing teaching materials, and (4) effectiveness about assessment and evaluation. Effectiveness about classroom management are comprised of allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, employing various seating arrangements, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, and allowing students to explain learning difficulties.

With regard to allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction, classroom observation data was consistent with the teacher interview and student focus group interview data. Classroom observation revealed that all of the teachers, especially at school A, had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student because of the overcrowded classroom. In addition to that, it was witnessed by the researcher that as the learning environment and the number of the students in the classroom didn't allow, teachers were not able to employ various seating arrangements during the instructions. With regard to providing positive reinforcement, it was observed that almost all of the teachers employed positive reinforcement and praised students during instruction. In addition to using positive reinforcement during instruction, the data also proved that most of the teachers motivated students to respond correctly or incorrectly and allowed them to explain their learning difficulties.

Related to effectiveness of English language teachers in Turkey about using instructional strategies, the data acquired through classroom observations provided information about employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, employing communicative practice, employing authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction. Related to employing a variety of group strategies, classroom observation data revealed that instead of employing a variety of group strategies such as individual, small group and whole group, almost

all of the teachers mostly employed whole group teaching during their instruction. The data obtained through classroom observation also revealed that, instead of a variety of group strategies, most of the teachers mainly employed pair work during instruction. It was also observed that there was little communicative practice, especially at school A. In addition to too little communicative practice, the data also revealed that at school A, there was a lack of authentic practice employed by teachers during instruction. In addition to that, teachers at school A didn't use English as a medium of instruction.

In respect to employing teaching materials, the data acquired through classroom observations provided information about using authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries during instruction. Related to using authentic teaching materials, the data revealed that almost all of the teachers, especially the teachers at School A, didn't employ authentic teaching materials during their lessons. In addition to few self-developed teaching materials usage, classroom observation results also showed that apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers didn't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction, especially at school A. Apart from online teaching sources or applications, except for a few teachers employing visuals only through media, most of the teachers didn't use visuals during instruction except from the course book. Finally, the results also showed that almost all of the teachers motivated students to use dictionaries during instruction.

With regard to assessment and evaluation, the data acquired through classroom observations provided information about providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments.

Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework, consistent with the teacher interview and student focus group interview data obtained through classroom observations revealed that almost all of the teachers didn't check homework or provide feedback (written and oral) for the student homework assignments. Furthermore, related to using online homework assignments, almost all of the teachers didn't use any online homework assignments for students. Apart from

giving oral or written feedback for homework assignments and employing online tools to deliver homework assignments, classroom observations presented results on assessment. It was observed that most of the teachers at school A didn't employ formative assessment while almost of the teachers at school B employ formative assessment. In addition to that, teachers mostly employed summative assessment. Furthermore, it was also observed by the researcher that teachers at school A and B provided written and oral feedbacks for students at the end of the assessments.

The results of the classroom observation revealed that, the data obtained through classroom observations was consistent with teacher interview and student focus group interview.

7. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The purpose of this study is to analyze the key factors influencing perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness and effectiveness perceptions about English language teachers in Poland and Turkey. A qualitative comparative multiple case study design was employed to achieve the purpose.

In this chapter conclusions of the study are presented under the following two principal categories: factors influencing the perceptions of English language teachers' effectiveness and effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey.

7.1. Factors Influencing Perceptions of English Language Teachers' Effectiveness

Factors influencing teacher effectiveness involve factor of teacher education, personal and social factors, instructional factors, and contextual factors.

The factor of teacher education includes pre-service education and in-service education. Learner-related factors and parent-related factors are the subcategories of personal and social factors. Instructional factors include teacher-related factors and curriculum-related factors. Contextual factors consist of factors such as initial teacher education, learning environment, salary, teacher inspection and evaluation, learning environment, double-shift schooling, teacher promotion, administrative tasks, teacher collaboration, employment of substitute teaching staff, and elective courses.

The pre-service education stage is the final phase of formal education in which teachers are equipped with basic knowledge and skills necessary to teach their subject area. It is obvious in the literature that there is a strong relation between the characteristics of pre-service teacher education and teacher practice (Tabancalı, Çelik, 2013; Can, 2015; Gomendio, 2017). Especially teaching practice in different teaching settings, which is also known as a practicum and provides opportunity to observe and experience teaching practice in real teaching and learning environments,

has a crucial role in enhancing the connections between theory and practice as well as teacher effectiveness (Danielewicz, 2001; Mulholland, Wallace, 2001; Poulou, 2003; Atay, 2007; Krysher, Robinson, Edwards, 2015; Iaochite, Filho, 2016). Hence, it would be beneficial to increase the practicums during pre-service education to enhance the effectiveness of English teachers in Poland and Turkey. In some other studies conducted in Poland and Turkey, it was found that the teaching practicum during pre-service education was unsatisfactory for pre-service teachers (Uztosun, 2016).

Furthermore, apart from theory, practical teaching activities during instruction also support teachers' learning and professional development. Related to this, in Poland and Turkey instructional practices during pre-service education should be more practical as this influences teacher effectiveness positively (Gowie, 2010). In addition to instructional practices, instructional strategies employed by the lecturers in Poland should also be up to date with the paradigm (Akar, 2006). Correspondingly, studies conducted with pedagogical formation certificate students in Turkey also revealed that there were few practical learning activities because of the lack of the time during instruction (Dalgıç, Doyran, Vatanartıran, 2012; Şahin, 2016; Demirtaş, Kırbaç, 2016). Consequently, as current pedagogical formation programs in Turkey only last three, six or twelve months and contain few practical learning activities, the programs should be extended over a longer period of time.

In relation to university teachers' personality traits and subject matter expertise, especially Turkish teachers expressed the lack of subject matter expertise and desirable some personal traits of university teachers. A previous research shows that there is a positive connection between university teachers' subject matter expertise and personal traits and pre-service teachers' subject matter preparation and effectiveness (Goldhaber, Brewer, 2000; Wilson, Floden, Ferrini-Mundy, 2002; Palmer, Dixon, Archer, 2015). Consequently, it might be helpful to intensify and deepen subject matter knowledge of pre-service teachers to influence the effectiveness of teachers positively in Turkey. Simultaneously, current developments require teacher education institutions to employ the latest teaching tools, especially educational technology, computers and information technology, as these positively affect pre-service teachers' knowledge competences and are also related to teacher effectiveness (UNESCO, 2002; Andreu, Naussbaum, 2008; Ertmer, Ottenbreit-

Leftwich, 2014; Aşkım, Kurt, Özer, 2015). However, as stated by the participants in this study, both in Poland and Turkey the use of educational technology, computers, information technology and online applications in pre-service teacher education by lecturers at teacher education institutions is not common (Lorencowicz, et al, 2014; Sadi et al, 2008; Çuhadar, Yücel, 2010; Öztürk, Öztürk, Kaya, 2016; Uğur, Kocadere, 2016).

In addition to factors related to pre-service education, factors related to in-service education are also said to influence teacher effectiveness. There is a close relationship between the quality of education in-service education and teacher effectiveness (Pan, Franklin, 2011; European Commission, 2015; Ortaçtepe, Akyel, 2015). However, Turkish teachers' motivation to participate in in-service teacher education activities is lower than Polish teachers (Çakır, 2013; Gokmenoglu, Clark, Kiraz, 2016).

As stated in this dissertation, there are some drawbacks of in-service teacher education such as lack of practice, lack of up-to-date content, infrequency of opportunities, administrative factors, cost of the courses, and lack of effect on promotion influencing Polish and Turkish teachers' participation in in-service teacher education (Kösterilioğlu, 2014; Pepeler, Keskin, Ayhan, 2016; Çelen, Kösterilioğlu, Kösterilioğlu, 2016). The frequency and characteristics of organized in-service training activities by MoNE are unsatisfactory (Gönen, Kocakaya, 2016). Furthermore, the content of the organized in-service teacher educations in Turkey is not motivating as teachers' needs were ignored, training was too theoretical, and trainers presented lack of knowledge (Uzunöz, Akbaş, 2012; Sıcak, Parmaksız, 2016; Yurtseven, Yılmaz, Esen, 2015). In addition to the frequency of and the content included in in-service teacher training, another factor which impacted Polish teachers' participation in in-service teacher education is the necessity to participate in such events for promotion or salary bonuses. In Turkey taking part in the in-service teacher education is just a part of professional duty (European Commission, 2015). Even tough teachers in Poland complain about the low number of free courses offered, Poland is one of the European countries covering travel expenses for in-service teacher education and providing free in-service teacher education activities (European Commission, 2015). However, the content of teacher development

activities organized by local teacher development centers in Poland is not diverse enough to motivate teachers to take part (Bogucka, 2007).

Together with teacher education, namely pre and in-service education, as the learning process requires interaction and motivation, learners' characteristics influence instructional activities in the classroom. "Motivation is usually associated with commitment, enthusiasm, and persistence to achieve goals" (Guerrero, 2015, 96). Related to this, learners are expected to be motivated and actively engaged. Students' current level of motivation, intrinsic or extrinsic, influenced learning (Dörnyei, 1998; Harmer, 2007a; Anjomshoa, Sadighi, 2015; Alizadeh, 2016). However, in this study especially lower-achieving students with a low social- economic level had lower motivation in Poland and Turkey. Studies conducted on different dates revealed that there was a relationship between socio-economic level or factors and motivation of learners for learning (Amrein, Berliner, 2003; Gayton, 2010; OECD, 2012; Kormos, Kiddle, 2013; Khansir, Jafarizadegan, Karampoor; 2016). Especially teachers in Turkey stated that students had lack of awareness towards English and learning English as a foreign language. This finding is consistent with the findings of other studies conducted on learner motivation. In the study on teacher challenges of classroom management, it was also found that lack of learner awareness was one of the obstacles faced by the teachers (Şanlı, 2015). Furthermore in Turkey, learner motivation is affected by communicative perception of learners (Öz, Demirezen, Pourfeiz, 2015). The behavior of learners in Turkey hindered learning more than the behavior of learners in the typical OECD country (OECD, 2015b). It is clear that attitudes towards language and language learning have an effect on foreign language learning (Ushida, 2003; Oroujlou, Vahedi, 2011; Papaya, 2012). Apart from attitude, emotional inhibitions such an anxiety also impact language learning in a negative way (Phillips, 1992; Zheng, 2008). Correspondingly, the level of anxiety is related to learner achievement. When the level of anxiety increases, the level of failure increases as well (Nishitani, Matsuda, 2011).

Parental collaboration, involvement and support are also factors influencing teacher effectiveness. Even though some of the studies conducted on parental involvement don't reveal a direct relationship between parental involvement and student achievement, most of the studies demonstrated that parental collaboration, involvement and support have a positive impact on learning outcome, namely

academic achievement (Keith, et al, 1993; Fan, Chen, 2001; Wang, 2014; Wilder, 2014; Arens, Jude, 2017). Parental involvement in the teaching learning process influences teacher effectiveness in a positive way (Hoover-Dempsey, Bassler, Brissie, 1992; Fisher, Yifat, 2015). However, the study demonstrated that parental involvement and support at lower-achieving upper-secondary schools both in Poland and Turkey are unsatisfactory. Barriers to parental collaboration and involvement arise from various factors. In Poland, low socio-economic status and broken homes are the main reasons behind lack of parental involvement and support while external assessment and lack of awareness towards English are the motives behind lack of parental involvement and support in Turkey. Educational level of parents has an impact on parental involvement (Lee, Bowen, 2006; Al-Matalka, 2014; Magwa, Mgari, 2017). The socio-economic condition of parents is another determinant influencing parental involvement (Radu, 2011; Magwa, Mgari, 2017).

In addition to factors such as teacher education as well as personal and social factors, instructional factors also influence teacher effectiveness in Poland and Turkey. In both countries, curriculum-related factors involve the low number of the weekly teaching hours, intense and detailed content, and lack of opportunity to contribute to the design of the curriculum. Instructional time is essential for a teacher to balance theory and practice. The more the teacher has time for instruction, the more the teacher allocates time for each person in the classroom. Instructional time has an impact on quality learning and student achievement as well (Brown, Saks, 1986; Jez, Wasmer, 2015). According to an OECD report, in most countries teaching time at the upper-secondary level is less than at the pre-primary level (2016, 431). Overall teaching time for all subjects in Poland and Turkey is lower than the OECD average (OECD, 2016). Furthermore, teachers' contribution to and participation in curriculum development is influential for teaching quality. Teachers should be engaged in the curriculum development process to increase the ownership (Huffman, Thomas, Lawrenz, 2003).

Using instructional materials during instruction is an essential part of the teaching-learning process. In general, the basic instructional material employed by the teachers of various disciplines at schools is the course book. Course book selection also has an impact on the quality of language learning (Şimşek, Dündar, 2017). In addition to that, key resources play a role in the effectiveness judgements of teachers

(Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, 2002). In parallel with the findings obtained in this study, teacher autonomy in course book selection varies in Poland and Turkey. Course books of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in primary, lower and upper-secondary education are prepared and delivered for free by the Ministry of National Education all around Turkey. Yet, during the material selection process, namely the course book, Turkish teachers have no role in selecting, defining and varying course books throughout the teaching learning process (Işık, 2013; MoNE, 2016). The lack of control and autonomy of Turkish teachers on textbook material affects the learning atmosphere (Brodin, 2014). However, in Poland course book preparation and role of EFL teachers in selection changes in favor of teachers. EFL course books are not provided by the Ministry of Education for free in Poland. Thus, teachers have more autonomy about course books in Poland. Polish teachers can choose more than one textbook from an approved list by the Ministry of National Education. Apart from course books, teachers in Poland also have the opportunity to form their teaching program and choose curricula, which is then approved by the school head (Eurydice, 2015). However, curriculum in Turkey is developed by the Ministry of National Education at the central level. Teachers and schools have no autonomy in defining any alternative curriculum. As shown in this study, the English teaching curriculum is more flexible and teacher friendly in Poland than in Turkey. In addition to that, in Turkey the content of the English curriculum is criticized by teachers as it is not motivating or up to date, includes few exercises, and is too extensive. A review of the literature related criticisms about the content of the English curriculum provides findings similar to those obtained in this study. Visuals in the English course books are not functional as they are not large enough. Furthermore, some of the activities in the course book are not up to date (Merter, Şekerci, Bozkurt; 2014). This study's findings revealed that the English curriculum is overloaded, and these findings were similar to the results of other studies conducted on the English curriculum (Seçkin, 2011). Furthermore, the external assessment conducted to place students in universities in Turkey is also a factor influencing student learning performance and teacher effectiveness. Study findings discovered that external assessment caused anxiety, affected current learning of the students, and also influenced teacher effectiveness. The literature about the effects of external assessments also stated that external assessments caused loss of interest towards courses at school and caused anxiety (Şahin, Günay, Batı, 2006; Kumandaş, Kutlu,

2015). Furthermore, anxiety influences learning performance of students adversely (Latha, Ramesh, 2012; Tuan, Mai, 2015). Students with high anxiety had feeling of failure and academic ineffectiveness (Erözkan, 2014).

Besides factors such as teacher education, personal and social factors and instructional factors, contextual factors also have an impact on teacher effectiveness in both countries. One of the contextual factors experienced by English language teachers in Poland and Turkey is mixed-ability classes. Even though external assessments are held at the end of the lower-secondary school in Poland and Turkey, it is inevitable for a teacher to have students with various levels of English proficiency. The current study found that the learning environment consisting of mixed-ability students influenced teaching English as a foreign language adversely in Poland and Turkey. Previous studies related to mixed-ability classes also support these findings. Mixed-ability classes cause teaching difficulty for teachers, especially in classroom management and teaching strategies (Al-Subaiei, 2017). On the other hand, studies on ability grouping discovered various findings. Even though there are some studies proving no effect of ability grouping on student achievements, other studies revealed that ability grouping effects student academic achievement and self-esteem (Abadzi, 1985; Slavin, 1990; Gamoran, Adam, et al., 1995; Duru-Bellat, Mingat, 1998). Besides students with mixed ability, the number of students in the learning environment, namely the class size, influences the quality of language education in Turkey (Coskun, 2011; Mutlu, Kaşlıoğlu, 2015). Turkish teachers involved in this study complained about overcrowded classrooms and a steady increase in the number of students. OECD indicators on the average class size demonstrate that average class size in all secondary education in Turkey is higher than the OECD and European countries' average. For Poland, the situation is the opposite. Average class size in all secondary education in Poland is lower than the OECD and European countries average (OECD, 2016). The literature presents differing findings related to benefits of small class size. Class size effects the time allocated to each student in the classroom. Small size classes are beneficial for both high and low achievers (Konstantopoulos, 2008). In addition to that, class size designates teaching practices, group activities, interaction between students and teachers, teachers' workload, assessing students' learning, helping students with special needs, marking students' exercise, and classroom management (Bourke,

1986; Epri, Yaman, 2010; 2016). Small class size impacts cognitive and non-cognitive scores of students significantly (Fredriksson, Öckert, Oosterbeek, 2011). In addition to class size, classrooms also impacted learning. In Poland, almost every teacher participating in this study stated that they had their own classroom to teach English and students visited classrooms for instruction. However, Turkish teachers and students participating in this study stated that there was no special classroom for language teaching and this was one of the challenges hindering English language learning. Another factor influencing teachers both in Poland and Turkey is inspection and evaluation. Teachers participating in this study in Poland and Turkey expressed that inspection, guidance and evaluation was not satisfactory. In Poland, evaluation is comprised of two aspects: external evaluation and internal evaluation. External evaluation, which includes evaluation of school quality and reviewing compliance with legislation, is conducted by superintendent offices at the regional level. Internal evaluation of public schools, which aims to develop school quality and individual development of teachers, is conducted by the school principals on a yearly basis (OECD, 2015a; CES, 2015). In Turkey, regional governmental bodies are responsible for school evaluation. As in Poland, in Turkey external evaluation of the schools is administered by education inspectors and aims to check schools' compliance with the regulations and to improve the quality of school education. External evaluation of schools is conducted by provincial educational directorates located in each province in Turkey. Internal evaluation at schools in Turkey is conducted by school principals (European Commission/EACEA/Eurydice, 2015c; OECD, 2015b). In addition to that, there is a correlation between teacher evaluation tools and teacher effectiveness and student achievement (Nelson, 2012; Taylor, Tyler, 2012). Parallel to the findings in this study, teachers in Turkey have negative perceptions of school supervision. Teachers believe that inspections don't contribute to motivation towards teaching or professional development (Uçar, 2012; Aslanargun, Tarku, 2014). In Poland, a similar situation exists. Teachers believe that appraisal and feedback have little influence on their teaching in the classroom (Hernik et al, 2013). In the light of this information, to ensure the quality of schools and teachers in both Poland and Turkey, it might be beneficial to increase the frequency and quality of external and internal evaluations of teachers in both countries. Furthermore, low salary is another issue voiced by teachers participating in this study in Poland. In public schools, basic statutory salaries of the teachers are

decided at the central level (European Commission, 2015d). Teachers' salaries at public schools in Poland are lower than average salaries of teachers in OECD countries (OECD, 2016). There exists a clear relation between teacher income and school productivity and student performance (Dolton, Marcenaro-Gutierrez, 2011; Imberman, 2015; Brittion, Propper, 2016; Varga, 2017). The results of the current study show that there are many more contextual factors influencing Turkish teachers' effectiveness than factors influencing Polish teachers' effectiveness. Unlike Polish teachers, Turkish teacher participating in this study expressed that double-shift schooling, teacher promotion, administrative tasks, teacher collaboration, employment of substitute teaching staff, learning experiences and conditions in previous grades and schools namely insufficient number of English teachers, teaching methods employed, elective courses, and high mobility or change of teachers constitute the factors influencing their effectiveness of teaching English as a foreign language.

Double-shift schooling is a way of educating more students with more teachers via morning and afternoon schooling sessions. Double-shift schooling aims to increase the number of students accessing education. It also targets to decrease the number of students in a classroom as it divides the education sessions into two parts in a day (Linden, 2001). However, despite these benefits of double-shift school, there are lots of drawbacks of such schooling on school management, student academic achievement and teacher effectiveness. Double-shift schooling has an impact on teaching/learning time, student academic performance and is an obstacle for school management, as well (Kurebwa, Lumbe, 2015; Mapolisa et al, 2015). As stated by the students participating in this study, students experience poor academic performance during afternoon classes (Dimitrova, 2016). Double-shift schooling also forces students to start education early in the mornings and finish late in the evenings. Such a situation also causes a shortage of breaks (ERG, 2016). Another issue related to teacher effectiveness expressed by the Turkish teachers participating in this study is teacher promotion. Actually, a promotion system is a kind of measurement of teacher effectiveness and motivation to promote quality of education. Promotion is a kind of incentive to motivate and reward teachers to work harder (Akindele, 2014). Promotion positively motivates teachers to work harder thus increasing students' academic achievements (McEwan, Santibañez, 2005;

Karachiwalla, 2010). However, in the Turkish education system, apart from teachers serving at tertiary education, all other teachers, including those at public primary, lower and upper-secondary schools, have no promotion incentives. However, the Turkish Ministry of National Education has been making efforts to improve the teaching profession. Related to this, Turkish MoNE shared the teacher strategy document which also includes targets on career development and rewarding of teachers (MoNE, 2017). Unlike Polish teachers, Turkish teachers participating in this study also expressed that in addition to double-shift schooling and teacher promotion, administrative tasks also influenced them adversely. Besides their teaching responsibilities teachers also take part in some administrative tasks such as discipline committee or other similar committees related to school management. Other than committee memberships, "collecting money from pupils, investigating a pupil's absence, keeping and filing records, setting up and maintaining ICT equipment, managing data" are in the categories of tasks not included in the professional duties of teachers (NUT, 2010, 40). Turkish teachers taking part in this study expressed that these kinds of administrative tasks, especially taking part in discipline committee, took up significant amount of their time. In addition to that, administrative tasks burdened and negatively influenced teachers' professional tasks, namely teaching (Van Tonder, Fourie, 2015). Besides, there exists a clear relation between administrative tasks and teacher effectiveness. Administrative tasks negatively influence effective classroom management of teachers (Van Tonder, 2008). Besides administrative tasks, teacher collaboration was one of the contextual factors influencing Turkish teachers' effectiveness of those participating in this study. Teacher collaboration is a part of professional development through learning each other's experience and knowledge (Avalos, 2011). Teacher collaboration has a positive impact on teacher performance and student achievement (Ronfeldt, Matthew, et al, 2015). Teacher collaboration also improves knowledge, skills and effectiveness of teachers (Williams, 2010; Burns, Darling-Hammond, 2014). Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) conducted by the OECD also revealed that teachers who took part in collaborative learning used innovative pedagogies and had a higher level of job satisfaction and effectiveness. Unfortunately the results of the study revealed that there was too little collaboration among English teachers in Turkey (OECD, 2014).

English language teachers are one of the types of teachers that are most in demand by the Ministry of National Education in Turkey. Beginning English language education in 2nd grade in primary school boosted the need for English language teachers in Turkey. Even though lots of English teachers are assigned by the Ministry of National Education to the schools all around Turkey, this may not meet the need for English teachers. In case of a lack of teachers, the local ministry of national education employs substitute teaching staff to meet the need for teachers. Teachers participating in this study stated that employment of substitute teaching staff had a negative influence on student achievement in primary and lower-secondary education. As a consequence of that, at the upper-secondary level teachers had some challenges in teaching English as students had lack of previous knowledge in subjects to be taught due to the low performance and ineffectiveness of substitute teachers (Öğülmüş, Yıldırım, Aslan, 2013). In addition to that, employment of substitute teachers is a disadvantage for the quality of education. Substitute teacher employment reduced the efficiency of education (Ekinci, 2010). Teachers and students taking part in this study also stated that the number of elective courses provided in the English instruction wasn't satisfactory. Participants expressed that the low number of English teachers negatively influenced having elective courses. As discussed earlier, in some regions such as Istanbul and Southeast Anatolia, the average number of students in each classroom at public upper-secondary schools is higher than the number in the classrooms at public upper-secondary schools located in other regions in Turkey (MoNE, 2015a). Consequently, to provide elective courses such as English literature at public upper-secondary schools, the number of the English language teachers assigned to teach English as a foreign language should be increased in Turkey. The final contextual factor influencing Turkish teachers' effectiveness of teaching English as a foreign language is high mobility of teachers. Actually, this finding was voiced by the students taking part in this study. Students expressed that during the lower-secondary education they had experienced lots of change of English teachers and that caused loss of motivation to learn English. The findings of other studies conducted on the effects of teacher turnover and its impact on motivation are also consistent with the findings of this study. Teacher turnover adversely influenced students' motivation which is a key component for learning (Naz et al, 2012). Teachers teaching at public schools in Turkey have to work at least 3 years to change the school in a province or to go out of a province (MoNE, 2015d).

However, if a need for teachers occurs, the local ministry of national education might employ substitute teachers. Substitute teachers aren't subject to the same laws as the assigned teachers; hence, they have the opportunity to change schools each year or resign from teaching in the middle of the school year. Consequently, this situation results in lack of learning for students, multilevel groups and a challenge for teachers of English. Change of teachers harmed students' academic achievement (Özdoğan, 2001; Ronfeldt et al, 2011). Even though teacher turnover has some advantages as there is the possibility of replacement of low-performing teachers with high-performing teachers, research on teacher turnover also revealed the downside of the high rates of teacher turnover (Adnot et al., 2016). Each new teacher started teaching the subjects from the beginning. As expressed by the Turkish participants of this study, high rates of teacher turnover caused repetition of teaching subjects (Guin, 2004). Correspondingly, teacher turnover adversely affects the quality of instruction (Hanushek et.al, 2016).

The data obtained revealed that effectiveness of teachers in Poland and Turkey is influenced by identical categories, namely factors related to teacher education, personal and social factors, instructional factors, and contextual factors. However, when subcategories are examined, it is obvious that factors influencing teacher effectiveness vary in Poland and Turkey. Furthermore, the study discovered that contextual factors influencing Turkish teacher effectiveness are much higher in number than the contextual factors influencing Polish teachers.

7.2. Effectiveness Perceptions of English Language Teachers in Poland and Turkey

Effectiveness perceptions of English language teachers in Poland and Turkey are categorized under four main categories: (1) effectiveness perceptions about classroom management, (2) effectiveness perceptions about using instructional strategies, (3) effectiveness perceptions about employing teaching materials, and (4) effectiveness perceptions about assessment and evaluation.

Classroom management is the "actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional learning" (Evertson, Weinstein, 2006, 4). It is evident from this definition that classroom management is not only about academic learning but also about social-emotional learning. Social-

emotional learning involves the noncognitive dimension of education that is essential for students' achievement in this era (Hamadani, Darling-Hammond, 2015). To achieve a high-quality lesson, the teacher needs to apply classroom management skills, which are indicators of teacher effectiveness (Gordon, 2001; Marzano, Marzano, Pickering, 2003; Stronge, 2007; Tauber, 2007). Effectiveness perceptions about classroom management are comprised of skills including allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction, defining classroom rules, collaborating with students to define classroom rules, providing positive reinforcement for students, motivating students to respond, allowing students to explain learning difficulties and employing various seating arrangements (Stronge, 2007). The current study revealed that both Polish and Turkish teachers had difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction. Recognizing the level of development and academic needs of each student and allocating sufficient time for each student is an essential part of classroom management. Effective time management is crucial for student achievement (Ogundipe, Falade, 2014). Depending on the student needs, teachers should provide time for each student to practice, review and apply new learning as well as relate it with previous learning (Mcleod, Fisher, Hooever, 2003). With respect to defining classroom rules, the data obtained revealed that most of the Polish teachers defined classroom rules at the beginning of the school year. However, defining classroom rules by teachers varied from school to school and not all of the teachers participating in this study defined classroom rules in Turkey. Concerning collaboration with students in defining classroom rules, the situation was mixed. The study found that Polish teachers didn't collaborate with students in defining classroom rules while only some of the Turkish teachers who defined classroom rules collaborated with students in defining them. Classroom rules are essential for efficient classroom management. Defining classroom rules, which is a skill of efficient teachers, is a kind of building consensus on expectations between teacher and students (Gettinger, Kohler, 2006). Involving students in the formulation process of classroom rules is also a sign of teacher effectiveness (Stronge, 2007; Bager, 2012). Establishing classroom rules is a way of reducing disruptions in the learning environment. In the classrooms where the classroom rules are defined clearly, disruptions occur less than in classrooms which classroom rules aren't defined. In addition to that, defining classroom rules influences learning and behavior of students (Marzano, Marzano, Pickering, 2003). In general, teachers prefer to define

classroom rules at the beginning of the school year to inform students briefly about the rules. However, that shouldn't be an imposition. Including students in the rule establishment process develops the relation between teacher and students. Furthermore, when students are involved in the process of rule establishment, it is more likely for them to obey the defined rules as they are a part of that process (Erwin, 2004). Research on defining classroom rules supports the notion that it affects academic achievement of students. However, English teachers in both Poland and Turkish do not generally collaborate with students to define classroom rules.

In the learning environment, instructional activities are not solely conducted with the rules defined and adopted by teacher and students. As a social environment consisting of learners having cognitive and behavioral characteristics, taking into account learners' emotional features is a requirement for teachers to be efficient in classroom management. Positive reinforcement, which is one of the basic behavioral operations and approaches to classroom management, aims to strengthen desired behavior. "Positive reinforcement strengthens the original behavior" (Mcleod, Fisher, Hooever, 2003, 97). Positive reinforcement aiming to engage students in learning is given in various; however, teacher praise is the most common (Landrum, Kauffman, 2006; Stronge, 2007). In the current study, with regard to providing positive reinforcement, almost all of the teachers in Poland and Turkey used positive reinforcement to praise students' positive academic behaviors during instruction. Correspondingly, teachers in Poland and Turkey also motivated students to respond correctly or incorrectly, which is also a part of positive reinforcement. There is a positive relation between positive reinforcement and academic achievement of students. Positive reinforcement presented by teachers increase the academic achievement of students (Abbas, Khurshid, 2013; Mandah, Gbarato, 2016). In addition to motivational activities and behaviors of teachers, the characteristics of the learning environment play a role in learner motivation, collaboration and cooperation, as well. One of these characteristics of the learning environment is the seating arrangement adopted by the teacher. The current study found that most of the teachers taking part in this study in Poland and Turkey preferred traditional seating arrangements during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as a horseshoe or modular arrangement. One of the basic components of classroom management, the seating arrangement employed by the teacher is also a

sign of the adopted teaching strategy (Mcleod, Fisher, Hooever, 2003). Seating arrangements adopted by teachers are also a way of maintaining student attention during instruction (Evertson, Weinstein, 2006). If the teacher usually employs a traditional seating arrangement that means whole group teaching rather than a variety of group strategies is being employed. Correspondingly, adopting a traditional seating arrangement pushes students into a passive position, which is disapproved of by constructivist theory as this theory gives the priority and responsibility of learning to the student instead of the teacher. Moreover, a traditional seating arrangement is not beneficial in multigrade classrooms (UNESCO, 2015). Because activeness of students during instruction influences engagement and learning in a positive way (Woolfolk Hoy, Weinstein, 2006). On the other hand, using the learning environment thoughtfully has an impact on teacher and learner attitudes (Denton, 1992). Furthermore, the adopted seating arrangement also influences the attainment of language skills. Adopting a horseshoe or U-shape seating arrangement positively influences the speaking ability of high school students (Mala, 204). Employing various seating arrangements depending on the characteristics of learners and the subject being learned influences participation of students. Unfortunately, neither teachers in Poland nor teachers in Turkey make better use of a variety of seating arrangements (Hilal, 2014).

Effectiveness perceptions of teachers about using instructional strategies are composed of employing a variety of group strategies, employing pair work, communicative practice, authentic practice, and using English as a medium of instruction during instruction. The current study found that employing a variety of group strategies by teachers differed at schools in Poland and Turkey. In Poland, teachers teaching at a school including medium-achievers adopted whole group teaching while teachers teaching at a school including higher achievers mostly adopted a variety of group strategies such as individual, small-group and whole-group during instruction. In Turkey, most of the teachers adopted whole group teaching. The study conducted by Gajewska-Dyszkiewicz et al (2014) also revealed that in the language classroom, the interaction of students in groups is higher than in the teacher-dominated instruction. However, in Turkey classroom interaction is far from ideal. Instead of employing a variety of group strategies such as individual, small-group and whole-group, almost all of the Turkish teachers included in this

study employ -group teaching during their instruction. Actually, in mixed-ability classes, the teacher should differentiate instruction in the classroom setting as differentiated instruction plays an essential role in student achievement and attitudes (Koeze, 2007; Karadağ, Yaşar, 2010; Muthomi, Mbugua, 2014; DeFrancesco, 2015). However, the study findings revealed that teachers taking part in this study in Poland and Turkey mostly preferred whole-group activities and pair work instead of differentiating instruction. Group work, whole-class activities, small group work and pairs work are all useful instructional strategies. Each strategy has its own advantage. Whole-class strategies include lecturing, discussion, debate, teacher demonstrations, and providing directions. Lecturing, which is one of the whole-class strategies, doesn't require teachers to spend time for preparation and instruction. In a classroom where whole-class strategies are adopted, the instruction is teacher-centered. In contrast to whole-class strategies, small-group strategies are time-consuming and give students responsibility for learning and opportunity for participation. Small-group strategies are comprised of cooperative learning, collaborative learning, project groupings, and loosely formed groups. Cooperative learning includes individuals in groups, and the group members try to learn in a noncompetitive way. Cooperative learning has some drawbacks such as high social interaction, multi-level group members, and group members with different personalities. When compared to cooperative learning, responsibility of group members for learning is higher in collaborative learning. The teacher is a facilitator and students have more freedom in collaborative learning. As is evident from its name, collaborative learning requires learners to cooperate and complete a task together. In the project groups, the aim is to accomplish a task such as a product or presentation with the members of groups. It is much more time consuming when compared to cooperative and collaborative learning. In contrast to cooperative learning, collaborative learning, project groupings, and loosely formed groups aim to complete basic tasks in a short time. They are appropriate for encouraging communication in language teaching. Working in pairs is one of the group strategies aiming to pair learners depending on their abilities, knowledge or some other skills. When compared with other group strategies, there is not much interaction between group members in pair work as the group consists of only two persons. However, working in pairs doesn’t require social skills and that might be an advantage for the introverted learner. Working in pairs can be comprised of unequal pairings, student partnerships, and random pairing.

Unequal pairing is also called student mentoring. There is a mentor with the responsibility of providing help and advice. In contrast to unequal pairings, in student partnerships students have identical responsibilities. In the student partnership, paired students work together to complete a task in a particular time. If the time is short random paring is preferred to practice a topic for a short time (Mcleod, Fisher, Hooever, 2003). Group work improves students' learning as it provides the opportunity to learn from each other rather than the teacher. As foreign language learning requires social skills, group work is one of the activities encouraging social interactions of the students (Lee, 2014). When compared to teacher-directed teaching, small group learning provides students in-depth learning, develops communication skills, and leads to higher marks in the end (Oakley, Barbara, et al, 2004). The learning pyramid suggested by Dale also divides learning into two groups: passive and active. For active learning, it is necessary for learners to participate, discuss, and experience real things (Dale, 1946). Especially small group and pair work activities provide learners active and permanent learning as they require learners to participate, discuss and experience. Findings on employing group strategies in this study are also consistent with the TALIS findings obtained by the OECD. Accordingly, Polish teachers employed techniques such as small groups and longer projects to make students active more often (Hernik et al, 2013).

Communication is a part of the learning environment as a social space. Furthermore, communication is a part of the foreign language teaching/learning process. "Learning skill is not simply a behavior (like practice) or a mental process (like restructuring) but one of collaboration construction" (Thornbury, 2005, 63). Hence, students should be in the center of all activities and be active in the classroom. In the communicative language teaching method, students have some roles. Accordingly, the learner is an active negotiator; not just a passive receiver but also a contributor (Nunan, 1989). The findings of the current study on communicative practice are consistent with the findings on employing various group strategies during instruction. In addition to employing little small group work and a lack variation in group work, the data obtained from participants and classroom observation also revealed that in Poland employing communicative practice varied from school to school. Communicative practice was especially adopted by teachers teaching at the higher achieving school. The study conducted by Gajewska-Dyszkiewicz et al (2014) discovered that English

communication was limited and teacher talk in English courses was higher. The findings of this study are in line with that. In Turkey, teachers mostly employed traditional teaching approaches such as activities based on behaviorist theory and grammar-based teaching methods instead of communicative practice based on the communicative language teaching method. Findings in the literature on employing communicative activities during instruction are consistent with the finding of the current study. Turkish teachers weren't able to employ communicative activities because of the challenges they encountered (Coskun, 2011; Hunutlu, 2011; Brodin, 2014). In the Polish context, communicative practice in Polish state schools is affected by exam-based (Matura exam) practice and is a challenging task for teachers (Cirocki, 2011). One of the main objectives in communicative language teaching is to organize authentic and meaningful classroom activities (Richards, Richard; 2002). Authentic practice is an essential part of language learning as it makes students active. In brief, authentic means original. Authentic practices during instruction enable learners to have real and meaningful language experiences (Ranta-Nillku, 2009). For instance, authentic speech is a speech of a native speaker instead of a speech just spoken for a language learner. Here the objective of authentic speech is to make the listener get used to hearing real language (Harmer, 2007a). Authentic activities enhance the engagement of students (Stronge, 2007). The current study revealed that most of the teachers in Poland and Turkey didn't make authentic practice during instruction. In addition to that, the study also explored the language of instruction employed by teachers in Poland and Turkey. Accordingly, in Poland, teachers of English taking part in this study expressed that they had mostly employed English as a medium of instruction; however, the situation wasn't the same in the Turkish context. While the teachers at the higher achieving school employed English as a medium of instruction, teachers at the lower achieving school employed the native language, Turkish, as a medium of instruction. This finding is in line with the previous findings obtained in this study concerning communicative practice. English as a medium of instruction means employing English as a language of instruction where English isn't spoken as a native language (Madhavan, McDonald, 2014). In many English classes, English language teachers use English as a medium of instruction to train students' ear, provide extensive English input and encourage students to speak and listen to English. In a classroom where English is used as a medium of instruction, the English proficiency of students is influenced in a positive

way (Wong, 2009; Rogier, 2012; Lo, Lo, 2014). As discovered in this study, teachers have some challenges such as lack of learner motivation and insufficient confidence to carry out English medium instruction (Gökmenoğlu, Gelmez-Burakgazi, 2013). Some studies which are in line with the finding of this study revealed that Turkish teachers adopted Turkish more than English as a medium of instruction in English courses (Kılıçkaya, 2006; Beşıbek et al, 2014).

Effectiveness perceptions of English teachers in Poland and Turkey are comprised of employing teaching materials consisting of authentic teaching materials, developing their own materials, using online teaching sources or applications, using visuals, and motivating students to use dictionaries. In many traditional English foreign language classrooms at public schools, course books and worksheets were the basic teaching materials employed by the teachers. However, recent changes and development especially in technology has changed the teaching practices in traditional classrooms. In addition to textbooks and some other materials, online teaching materials are being employed during instruction. In many classrooms, students have the opportunity to connect to the virtual world via internet, computer, and smartboards. These technological tools enable learners to access a wide range of sources such as text, image, sound, video and multimedia sources, which are authentic sources as well (LeLoup, Ponterio, 1997). Even though course books are composed to teach language, the primary purpose of the authentic materials such as television programs, conversations of native speakers, magazines, and advertisements is not teaching but to provide real-life information for native speakers (Polio, 2014). Apart from basic teaching materials, authentic materials are favorable in the educational context, especially for teaching foreign language. Using authentic materials is a way of motivating students, which is the backbone for learning (Harmer, 2007a; Al Azri, Al-Rashdi, 2014).

Authentic materials employed by teachers during instruction influence students' attitudes towards English (Kılıç, Genç İlter, 2015). Turkish students taking part in this study stated that they had negative attitudes towards English. Actually, the findings obtained on using authentic materials by teachers are consistent with and related to negative attitudes of Turkish students. The current study revealed that related to using authentic teaching materials, almost all of the teachers employed authentic teaching materials during their instruction in Poland; however, in Turkey

only the teachers teaching at the higher achieving school employed authentic teaching materials. This finding is consistent with the literature. Authentic material usage during instruction should be increased in Turkey (Sarp Simpson, 2014). Apart from existing teaching materials, depending on the context and needs of students, teachers might design their own teaching materials (Howard, Major, 2004). Materials developed by teachers are essential for effective learning outcomes, increasing self-confidence and motivating learners (Pardo, Téllez Téllez, 2009; Kablan, Topan, Erkan, 2013). However, the current study found that in Poland, most of the teachers didn't employ self-developed teaching materials, and in Turkey only the teachers at the higher achieving school employed self-developed teaching materials during omit instruction. The findings in the study on using self-developed materials are in line with the findings in the literature. As teachers don't have sufficient knowledge or experience in material design, designing self-developed materials is a challenge for Turkish teachers (Bozkurt, Akalın, 2010). Besides, self-developed teaching material, using online teaching materials during instruction is vital in in today's classrooms. A teacher can benefit from computers, web tools, and mobile tools to conduct a course by using online teaching materials and sources. Most of the classrooms are equipped with a computer, smart board, and internet nowadays. Internet-based language teaching provides learners authentic learning materials, text with a variety of color, type and size, active and interactive materials, instant feedback, individualized learning opportunities, various programs, games, and simulations for learning (Agarwal, 2010). Using the internet in education also motivates students, provides a fun teaching atmosphere, and allows the teacher to use various approaches in teaching (Brändström, 2011). However, the current study showed that in Poland and Turkey, the use of online teaching sources and applications isn't satisfactory. Apart from a few teachers, most of the teachers didn't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction in Poland. In the Turkish context, the situation is not different. Only teachers at the higher achieving school used online teaching sources or applications during instruction. This finding is in line with the literature. In Poland and Turkey, e-readers, digital cameras and mobile phones are rarely used in instructions. Furthermore, the percentage of students using such devices is the lowest in Poland and Turkey for all of Europe. ICT use density in courses by teachers in Poland and Turkey is lower than the EU average. Moreover, teachers' use of the interactive board in Poland and Turkey is inadequate (European Commission, 2013).

In addition to using online teaching sources, visuals as teaching materials comprise an essential part of quality instruction. Visuals in language teaching are used for various purposes. Visuals might be used as a part of warming up activity, discussion initiator, or teaching tool for grammar. Visuals provide students the opportunity to use their imagination and improve creativity (Krčelić, Matijević, 2015). Visual aids such as pictures, videos, slides, and posters employed during instruction helped teachers and learners to learn language skills in the teaching-learning process (Al Mamun, 2014). Furthermore, using visuals enables teachers to vary teaching, increase students' interest and motivation, increase students talking, help students to comprehend subject matter, and save time (Danile, 2013; Alduasis, 2012; Gilakjani, 2012; Kausar, 2013). Visual aid employment enables teachers to engage students in reading texts as well (Yunus, Salehi John, 2013). The study revealed that visual use in instruction differed from school to school in Poland and Turkey. Both in Poland and Turkey while teachers teaching at the lower achieving school didn't use visuals frequently, teachers teaching at the higher achieving school used visuals frequently. The findingd obtained in this study on using visuals arein line with the literature. Turkish teachers' use of visuals in instruction isn't satisfactory (Aslan, Turan, 2016). As discussed before, the main teaching material employed by Turkish teachers for teaching is the course book (Coşkun Demirpolat, 2015). Besides online applications, sources, and visuals, using dictionaries is an essential part of language teaching. As the learning process proceeds, learners don't master all the vocabulary as they are not native speakers of English. Even in the native speaking context, speakers sometimes need to consult a dictionary to learn the exact meaning of a word. Learners of English as a foreign language get help to understand the meaning of a word from the language teacher or peers in classroom. Sometimes, depending on personal preference or the situation, learners either use bilingual or monolingual and paper or electronic dictionaries. Even though it is not suggested for learners to consult the dictionary all the time as it inhibits guessing from the context, it is clear that using dictionaries during the teaching learning process allows learners to enhance their knowledge, and confidence, increase their capacity, take an active role during learning, and obtain instant feedback (Pousi, 2010; Radhika, 2015). Mobile dictionary use by learners encourages learning outside of the learning environment without time and setting limitations (Rahimi, Miri, 2014). The current study discovered that almost all of the teachers in Poland and Turkey encouraged students

to use dictionaries during instruction. This finding on use of dictionaries in foreign language learning in Poland and Turkey is in line with the literature. Learners in Poland use a bilingual dictionary, Polish-English, English-Polish more frequently (Lew, 2004). Furthermore, depending on the grade, use of dictionary differs in the foreign language learning process. Higher grade students prefer to use a dictionary more in Turkey (Melanlıoğlu, 2013).

Finally effectiveness perceptions of teachers in Poland and Turkey about assessment and evaluation include providing feedbacks (oral or written) for homework assignments, using online homework, making formative assessments, making summative assessments, providing oral and written feedback following the assessments, and reteaching following the assessments.

Even though the influence and importance of homework has been debated nowadays, homework is an integral part of the learning process. Homework aims to make practice or preparation for students. Student learning and participation is affected by the time spent on homework (Stronge, 2007). Effectiveness of homework is influenced by many variables. "Accommodations, organization, structure of assignments, technology, home–school communication, and students' home life all influence the effectiveness of homework" (Carr, 2013, 170). In addition to that, effective homework should give students the opportunity to practice, apply, self-assess, and extend current knowledge on a learning topic (Frey, Fisher, 2010). Value and effectiveness of homework are influenced by checking and reviewing it. Thus, it is essential for teachers to check and provide feedback for student homework as feedback contributes to student learning (Stronge, 2007; Blazer, 2009; Frey, Fisher, 2010). There is a relation between reviewing homework and achievement. Reviewing student homework influences students' leaning achievement (Hwang, 2011). Related to providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments, the current study revealed that most of the teachers in Poland provided feedback for student homework assignments while teachers in Turkey didn't provide feedbacks (written or oral) for the student homework assignments. This finding is consistent with the literature. As found in this study, checking homework takes much time for Turkish teachers (Özer, Öcal, 2013). A study conducted by the Turkish Education Association (TED) on effectiveness of teachers revealed that some of the teachers in Turkey didn't check or provide feedback for student homework regularly (TED,

2009). In line with the finding of this study, Turkish teachers don't check student homework sufficiently (Çeliköz, Selimoğlu, 2017). On the other hand, teaching and learning international survey (TALIS) conducted by the OECD in many countries in the world presented a different results compared to the findings of this study on teachers' checking and providing feedback on students' homework. According to the survey, about half of the teachers don't check students' exercise books or homework in Poland (OECD, 2013), which is lower than the OECD average. In addition to checking and providing feedbacks on homework, the kind of homework assigned by a teacher is also important. Nowadays, technology has an essential place in daily life. In the education sector as well as teaching learning process, and especially in language learning, technology use is indispensable. Development in technology provides opportunities for teachers to prefer either traditional or web-based homework assignments. Students also have positive attitudes about online homework (Altun, 2008; Doorn, Janssen, O'Brien, 2010). Using online homework influences student performance positively (Burch, Kuo, 2010; Richards-Babb, et al, 2011; Dodson, 2014). Furthermore, online homework influences student motivation. Students who have online homework have higher motivation to complete the homework and spend more time on homework (Chu, Man, 2010; Hunter, 2015). The current study revealed that online homework was preferred by a minority of teachers in Poland. In Turkey, most of the teachers didn't use online homework assignment for students. Findings in the literature also suggested that students preferred activity-based (project, design, etc.) homework more than paper-based homework (Duru, Çöğmen, 2017).

In addition to different kinds of homework assignments, online or traditional paper-based, assessment is a way of determining achievement of students learning outcomes and areas of student needs. Assessment is used not only to measure for the effectiveness of a lesson but also to discover the progress and engagement of students. Assessment is a way of determining the attainment level of instructional and school goals (Stronge, 2007). Depending on assessment results, teachers regulate instruction considering the needs of students in the classroom. Assessment is in short a way of checking and providing feedback about learning, understanding and academic improvement of students. To check students understanding of a subject, formative and summative assessment is employed by teachers. As discussed earlier

in this study, there are differences between formative and summative assessments. Formative assessment aims to give feedback to students to improve instruction while summative assessment determines learner competency. As formative assessment aims to improve instruction, it focuses on the process while summative assessment focuses on the results (Fisher, Frey, 2007). The current study presented various results on making formative assessment in Poland and Turkey. Accordingly, Polish teachers frequently made formative assessments during instruction. However, in Turkey only the teachers at the higher achieving school made formative assessments while teachers at the lower-achieving school didn't frequently make formative assessment due to some reasons such as overcrowded classes. In addition to that, teachers conducted regular summative assessments in Poland and Turkey. The findings obtained in this study are in line with the literature. For teachers in Turkey, class size is an obstacle to their assessment preference (Han, Kaya, 2014). Furthermore, FL language teachers in Turkey mostly preferred traditional assessment methods more than formative assessment (Öz, 2014). Moreover, FL language teachers in Turkey adopt fewer formative assessments and more summative assessments (Büyükkarcı, 2014; Gogri, Shaikh, Iyengar, 2013). Making formative assessments is hard to achieve for Turkish teachers (Vingsle, 2014). In Poland, teachers mostly employ formative assessments during instruction in contrast to teachers in Turkey.

Providing feedback to inform students about their performance on formative and summative assessments is also a significant for making up lack of learning. Besides, providing feedback is a characteristic of effective teachers (Stronge, 2007). The type and purpose of feedback provided by teachers for students differ. Teacher should be aware of the timing, amount, mode and audience while giving feedbacks. Variables such as time and frequency of the feedback, the amount, oral, written or visual, and individual or group all have importance while providing feedback. In the context of assessments, timing should be taken into account by the teacher. Soon after the assessment, the teacher should provide feedback and answer student questions (Brookhart, 2008). The current study revealed similar results in providing feedback for formative and summative assessments. Teachers in Poland and Turkey taking part in this study provided oral and written feedback following the formative and summative assessments both in Poland and Turkey. In contrast to this finding,

Meden and Atay (2017) found that Turkish teachers were insufficient in providing feedback following the assessments. At the end of the assessments conducted by teacher, it is usual for learners not to reach all instructional goals as the learning environment contains learners with different cognitive affective psychomotor features. Due to this, especially formative assessment came into prominence as it aims to improve the instruction and make up for lack of learning. In addition to providing feedback following the assessment, it might be imperative for a teacher to reteaching the subject studied. The current study found similar results on reteaching following the assessments in Poland and Turkey. Unfortunately and unexpectedly, only the teachers at higher achieving schools in Poland and Turkey reteaching, if necessary, following the assessments.

7.3. Implications for Practice and Future Research

Findings of the current study presented such factors influencing perceptions of English teachers' effectiveness as teacher education, personal and social factors, instructional factors, and contextual. The study also revealed the effectiveness perceptions about English teachers in classroom management, using instructional strategies, employing teaching materials, and assessment and evaluation in Poland and Turkey. Based on the results, the following implications are provided:

During the pre-service education of English teachers in Poland and Turkey, instead of theory-based education, pre-service teachers should be offered more practices during the instructions. Especially, Turkish pre-service teachers studying in an EFL department should have the opportunity to do practice teaching at various kinds of schools as they will teach at various schools during their teaching career.

Pre-service teachers in Poland and Turkey should be offered differentiated instruction more than traditional teacher-oriented instruction, and it should be supported with technological teaching materials and tools as well as online teaching applications and sources.

Pre-service teachers in Poland should be offered more courses on pedagogical knowledge. In addition to that, teachers should be offered more theoretical and practical knowledge on how to teach talented or mixed-ability students during their teaching in the future.

In school in Turkey, the need for teachers should be met with the teachers who have graduated from a school of education. Even though there are lots of teacher candidates who have graduated from a school of education and are waiting to be appointed, pedagogical formation programs are still allowing graduates of programs outside of schools of education to obtain a teaching certificate. If there is a need for teachers in some area and a pedagogical formation program exists, the quality of the pedagogical formation program should be increased by extending the duration of the program, increasing practice teaching, etc.

During the pre-service education phase in Turkey, some concrete steps should be taken to increase the quality of pre-service education. Accordingly, the subject expertise of teaching staff should be improved and the number of teaching staff with more motivation, enthusiasm, and commitment to professionalism should be increased.

English teachers teaching English as a foreign language in Poland and Turkey should be offered practical, motivating and up-to-date content in in-service teacher education programs. Teacher educators serving in in-service teacher education programs should have more expertise in Turkey. Opportunities to attend free in-service teacher education programs should be provided in Poland. In Turkey, sources of in-service teacher education programs and collaboration with universities or other related institutions should be increased. Turkish teachers should also have the opportunity to have in-service teacher education programs at the school where they teach. Furthermore, the number of the in-service teacher education programs offered by school administration should be increased in Turkey. Some steps, such as a promotion system, should be taken to increase the motivation of Turkish teachers to attend in-service teacher education programs.

Workshops, seminars and meetings should be established to foster the relationship between parents and teacher, especially at the schools including parents with low social and economic level in Poland and Turkey. Furthermore, online networking opportunities between parents and teachers should be employed by school management so that parent-teacher collaboration and communication can increase, especially with busy parents, in Poland and Turkey. The frequency of parent meetings held at schools, especially public upper-secondary, should be increased to improve the collaboration between parents and teachers in Turkey.

It is necessary for teachers of English in Poland and Turkey to more clearly recognize student characteristics. Accordingly, foreign language teachers in Poland and Turkey should recognize their students' most outstanding motivational features by observing classroom behavior of students. To increase learner motivation, teachers in Poland and Turkey should enhance the parental collaboration, joint programs with counseling services at schools. Teachers in Poland and Turkey also need to develop themselves via in-service development activities or personal efforts to decrease the emotional inhibitions of learners. Furthermore, various activities, teaching practices, and teachings methods should be employed for students in Poland and Turkey to eliminate students' emotional inhibitions such as lack of awareness towards English, anxiety, prejudice about English, and fear of failure. On the otherhand in Turkey, the number of students in classrooms at public upper-secondary education should be decreased; language classrooms furbished to teach just English should be established in Turkey.

To increase the percepitons of teacher effectiveness, student achievement, teacher collaboration, the sharing of knowledge and experience between teachers should be increased in Turkey. Moreover, to decrease teacher burn out and increase motivation and enthusiasm professional development activities should be organized in Poland and Turkey.

In Poland and Turkey, some socio-economic issues should be taken into account to increase the attendance and motivation of students. Furthermore, the pressure of external summative assessments such as YGS and LYS in Turkey in Poland on students should be decreased. School-based external summative assessments should be organized in Turkey to decrease the harmful effects of external summative assessments on students and teaching practices at school especially in Turkey.

Curriculum should be more flexible and collaborative in Turkey. Accordingly, as each school has its own characteristics with various teacher and student features, school management and teaching staff should have the right to contribute to the curriculum depending on the needs of a particular school.

In Poland and Turkey, the number of the weekly teaching hours of English as a foreign language should be increased. In Turkey, the content of the teaching curriculum should be less detailed, intense and more practical.

Teachers in Turkey should have the possibility to choose teaching material selection, especially the course book. Furthermore, the content of the English curriculum should be improved, updated, and made more motivating for students. The teaching content of the English curriculum should be revised to make it practical adding more exercises.

To increase the time allocated to each student during instruction, class size should be reduced in Turkey. Furthermore, language classrooms especially for English language teaching equipped with teaching tools and materials should be organized in Turkey. In addition to that, at the beginning of the school year, students' English knowledge level should be measured and classrooms should be determined accordingly to decrease the multi-level students in each classroom in Turkey.

The frequency and quality of inspection guidance and evaluation in Poland and Turkey should be increased. For a higher quality inspection, inspection based on a promotion system should be initiated in Turkey. The salary of teachers in Poland should be increased.

In Turkey, some contextual factors influencing teacher effectiveness perceptions should be eliminated. Double-shift schooling should be abandoned as this will increase the amount of time at school as well as the motivation of students. Furthermore, administrative tasks for teachers shouldn't be allowed to hinder teacher effectiveness in Turkey. Administrative tasks should be conducted at a suitable time in order not to interfere with teaching responsibilities at school. Elective courses in English should be increased at public upper-secondary schools in Turkey. The high turnover of teachers should be decreased. The lack of English teachers should be overcome and substitute teacher employment should be abandoned. As a result, it is evident that factors influencing Turkish teachers' effectiveness perceptions are much higher in number than the factors influencing Polish teachers' effectiveness perceptions. The factors influencing teachers' effectiveness perceptions of teachers in Turkey should be minimized and eventually eliminated.

To increase the effectiveness of instruction and meet learning needs of each student in the classroom, English teachers should allocate sufficient time for each student during instruction. To achieve that, the number of students in each class should be decreased as teachers in Turkey point out that overcrowded classes are an obstacle

for allocating sufficient time for each student. Even though the number of students in each classroom in Poland at public upper-secondary schools is reasonable, teachers in Poland may have difficulty in allocating sufficient time for each student. In-service teacher education activities should be initiated for teachers to provide theoretical information about the significance of allocating sufficient time for each student during instruction.

During the teaching-learning process, as a model to students, teachers should be aware of their attitudes, behavior, and practices at school and especially in the classroom. Teachers should be aware of democratic values and the need for collaboration with students. This is significant for teachers adopting constructivist and student-oriented teaching practices. In Poland and Turkey, teachers should collaborate with students at each step of the teaching and learning process. Students should be included in the process of determining classroom rules as they are a part of the social structure and have responsibility, as well.

As discussed earlier, constructivist teaching requires teachers to give responsibility and freedom to the learners during instruction. Furthermore, teachers should use teaching practices in line with constructivist teaching. For instance, the type of classroom arrangement employed by teachers provides information about teachers' adaptation of either a behaviorist or constructivist teaching paradigm. Most of the teachers prefer traditional seating plan during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement in Poland and Turkey. It is essential to use various seating arrangements depending on the teaching topic, learner characteristics, etc. To increase teachers' awareness about that, during the pre-service education it might be beneficial to increase practice teaching for teachers in Poland and Turkey. Furthermore, inspectional activities should be increased to guide teachers to use various seating arrangements in Poland and Turkey. Teachers in Turkey should also be offered in-service teacher education programs at schools to gain insight about classroom teaching practices on classroom management such as using various seating arrangements.

As teachers complain about classroom size, the number of students in overcrowded classes should be decreased to allow teachers to employ various group strategies in Turkey. To be able to employ a variety of group strategies such as individual, small-group and whole-group in classrooms in Turkey, the knowledge level of students

should be determined at the beginning of the school year. Depending on the abilities of students, teachers should use ability grouping as well. Disadvantages such as few number of English teachers stemming from basic education should be eliminated in Turkey.

To refresh teachers' knowledge on constructivist teaching and the communicative language teaching method, which aims to engage students during the language teaching process, Turkish teachers should be offered in-service teacher education programs at school or jointly conducted with universities. To offer practical language teaching, the number of students in each classroom should be decreased and language classrooms especially for language teaching should be organized.

To enable learners to have real and meaningful language learning experiences and to enhance the engagement of students, teachers in Poland and Turkey should make authentic teaching practice during instruction. Accordingly, instead of traditional teacher-oriented instruction with conventional teaching materials, teachers should use technology and extra-curricular activities to make authentic teaching practice.

To train students' ear, provide extensive English input and encourage students to speak and listen to English, teachers in Turkey should use English as a medium of instruction. As the lack of learner motivation is one of the obstacles encountered by teachers in Turkey, English as a medium of instruction should be used to motivate learners in Turkey. However, to able to us English as a medium of instruction obstacles such as negative prior learning experiences, ineffective teaching and unfavorable contextual factors experienced in previous grades, should be eliminated in Turkey.

Authentic material usage during instruction should be increased in Turkey. Apart from the centrally designed curriculum and teaching material and the course book, teachers should be given responsibility in designing and contributing to the teaching curriculum. Accordingly, teachers should be provided sufficient time during their paid working hours to prepare and design teaching material in Turkey. During pre-service education, teachers should take part in more practical activities about designing and developing teaching material. During service, teachers should be offered trainings about designing and developing teaching materials.

Even though in many classrooms students have the opportunity to connect to the virtual world via internet, computer, and smart boards, teachers in Poland and Turkey don't use online teaching sources or applications during instruction frequently. To provide an enjoyable and more engaging teaching-learning environment, teachers should use online teaching sources or applications more frequently in Poland and Turkey. Teachers should be offered trainings about the advantages of using online teaching sources or applications. During pre-service education, university teachers should make use of online teaching sources or applications to be a role model for future teachers. Authorities at the ministerial level in Poland and Turkey should initiate alliances with technology companies on recent educational practices and sources. Teachers should also be encouraged to use online tools to assign homework in Poland and Turkey.

Teachers should decrease the frequency of homework to provide feedback (written or oral) for student homework assignments in Turkey. Furthermore, teachers should be encouraged to use online homework tools to provide feedback without time and space limitations. Moreover, the number of students in each classroom should be decreased to maximize the time allocated to give feedback for each student's homework. In contrast to assigning the same homework assignment for the whole class, teachers in Turkey should be provided training on giving individualized homework assignments.

To increase learning and ensure attainment of learning outcomes, teachers in Turkey should make more formative assessments rather than traditional assessment methods. To achieve this, teachers should be encouraged to use online teaching tools to provide instant feedback for students and save time. Furthermore, teachers should be motivated to use various teaching approaches such as the flipped classroom, which is suitable for crowded classrooms, to save instructional time.

Related to employing various seating arrangements, most of the teachers prefer a traditional seating plan during instruction instead of employing various seating arrangements such as horseshoe or modular arrangement in Poland and Turkey. Teachers in Poland and Turkey should be provided professional development activities to use seating arrangements and a variety of group strategies. In addition to that, teachers should be motivated to use a variety of group strategies instead of mostly using pair works both in Poland and Turkey. Accordingly, in Turkey, the

number of the students in each classroom should be decreased and double-shift shooling should be abandoned as soon as possible.

Teachers in Turkey should use authentic teaching matertials more commonly. In addition to that both in Poland and Turkey, teachers should be provided professional development activities and motivated to use self-developed teaching materials. In addition to that, the time spent by teachers to prepare extra teaching materials should be taken into account for teacher salary in Poland and Turkey. On the other hand, teachers in Poland should be provided the opportunity to use online teaching sources and materials. In this respect, smart boards should be established in the learning enviroments in Poland. Furthermore, teachers should be provided professional development activities about using online teaching sources and materials. Related to that, especially teachers in Turkey should employ teaching materials such as authentic teaching materials and visuals to increase learner motivation. Instead of appointing students to check student homework assignments, teachers in Turkey should allocate time to check and provide feedback on student homework assignments. Teachers also should be provided professional development activities on homework assignments, and the importance of providing feedbacks.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Observation Forms

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS OBSERVATION FORM

Directions: This form is to be used for the observation of English language teachers during instruction.

Observed class: **Observed grade:** **Observed course:**

Observed unit: **Observed subject:** **Observer:**

Date: **Observation duration:**

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Classroom Management and Organization	Provides learning activities for their students that are appropriate in their level of difficulty.	
	Maintains momentum in the pacing of instruction.	
	Devotes adequate time for students' responses.	
	Allows student practice of subject matter.	
	Structures new information, relate it to prior knowledge.	
	Provides, clear, specific, timely and corrective feedback on students' performance.	
	Identifies and resolves discipline problems in a timely and accurate manner.	
	Motivates students (externally and internally) depending on students' characteristics.	
	Uses time efficiently.	

	Allows students to explain their difficulties of understanding.	
	Plans and prepares for the organization of the classroom.	
	Involves students in the process of establishing and maintaining rules and routines.	
	Keeps students actively involved in the teaching and learning process.	
	Consistently and fairly enforces the rules for all students.	

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Classroom Management and Organization (contd)	Limits disruption by anticipating potential problems.	
	Have materials prepared and ready for use in advance of the lesson.	
	Praises students, reinforces positive behaviors, and establishes trust within the classroom.	
	Directs her/his attention and instruction to each student equally.	
	Able to handle the majority of disciplinary situations within the classroom, without involving administrators.	
	Uses step-by-step directions for procedures to be followed in a given activity.	

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Instructional Models and Strategies	Allows students work and learn together, encourage students to provide hints, models, and prompts for each other (reciprocal teaching).	
	Guides students during learning and application (zone of proximal development)	
	Enables group inquiry for learning and teaching (Inquiry -based learning, problem based learning, constructivist learning.	
	Uses a variety of assessment practices to monitor student learning formative and summative assessments.	
	Follows up her/his assessments with reteaching and enrichment as needed.	
	Uses scaffolding techniques (Modelling, thinking aloud, giving hints).	
	Provides high levels of active practice by all students, guided student practice; feedback and correctives; and independent practice.	
	Selects strategies to propel the students' learning.	
	Uses daily plan and calendars for long-term, weekly.	
	Uses warm-up activities at the beginning of the course.	
	Makes clear and smooth transitions between subjects.	
	Plans instruction based on student performance and interest levels.	

	Plans a blend of whole-group, small-group, and individualized instruction.	
	Uses appropriate teaching strategies based on the content, the students, and other factors such as time and resources.	
	Recognizes individual and group differences among her/his students and accommodates those differences in their instruction.	
	Uses a variety of grouping strategies, including cooperative grouping, flexible grouping, and ability grouping with differentiation.	
	When necessary, uses one-on-one tutoring.	
	Considers student attention spans and learning styles when designing lessons.	
	Forms a communicative learning environment (Allows teacher-student or student-student	
	Implements rules and expectations for governing classroom interactions.	
	Is aware of students' individual differences (cultural, gender, background) in classroom	
	Forms active, strategic, self-conscious, self-motivated, and purposeful learning	
	Motivates students to respond questions correctly or incorrectly.	
	Clearly explains homework, checks, reviews it regularly and gives corrective feedback.	

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Personal Characteristics	Is positive, enthusiastic, motivated and takes pleasure in teaching.	
	Recognizes and values Individual differences	
	Believes in their students and expects all of them to learn, regardless of their skill levels and starting points.	
	Forms positive, supportive and warm classroom environment.	
	Treats students equally and shows respect to all students.	
	Values what students say.	

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER'S
LANGUAGE SKILLS TEACHING OBSERVATION FORM

Directions: This form is for the observation of English language teachers' teaching of language skills of English as a Foreign Language.

Observed class: **Observed grade:** **Observed course:**

Observed unit: **Observed subject:** **Observer:**

Date: **Observation duration:**

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Listening Skill Teaching	Gives a purpose for each listening	
	Establishes (prepares) learning environment and remove distractions.	
	Creates a context to prepare students for listening (by asking further questions, using visuals, stories etc.) before listening.	
	Teaches the key vocabulary needed to understand the listening text.	
	Asks students questions about the gist of a listening text.	
	Asks students questions that require specific information about the listening text.	
	Asks students questions that require intention of speaker in the listening.	
	Helps decoding the text, explains phonological features such as ellipsis, assimilation etc.	
	Gives students a chance to ask questions about what they have listened.	
	Replays the listening passage if students fail to understand.	

	Uses authentic texts for listening.	
	Uses listening texts appropriate to current English level of students.	
	Uses his/ her own recorded dialogues.	

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Speaking Skill Teaching	Adjusts his/her voice level and takes precautions so that students can hear him/her adequately.	
	Welcomes the grammatical mistakes of her/his students.	
	Encourages his/her students to interact in English during the course in the speaking skill.	
	Uses target language (English) mostly for the instruction in the speaking skill.	
	Uses activities which stress that verbal communication (role plays, simulations etc.) for a reason or function in the speaking skill.	
	Teaches students to practice ways of eliciting an interjection or preventing one in the speaking skill.	
	Teaches students to use particular grammar or vocabulary for speaking on a specific.	
	Does presentation sessions and gives feedback to the students.	
	Gives the rubric to the students and asks them to evaluate their peers and then let them defend themselves if they do not agree.	
	Teaches language functions such as refusing, apologizing, threatening, offering etc.	
	Adjusts his/her speaking speed	

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Reading Skill Teaching	Wants students to scan and skim the text.	
	Designs activities related to bottom up and top down processing.	
	Uses instructional strategies that are compatible with students' learning styles.	
	Provides extension/enrichment activities to reinforce reading instruction.	
	Uses questioning techniques that foster the development of higher-order thinking skills.	
	Asks questions to check comprehension.	
	Allows students to use dictionary.	
	Uses authentic text.	
	Uses students' background knowledge about the text in the reading skill.	

	OBSERVED BEHAVIOR	COMMENTS
Writing Skill Teaching	Teaches spelling correctly in the writing skill.	
	Teaches writing legibly in the writing skill.	
	Teaches punctuation in the writing skill.	
	Teaches about the organization (layout) of a particular text.	
	Teaches using grammar correctly in the writing skill.	
	Designs activities to develop note-taking skills of students.	
	Designs activities to develop creative writing skills of students.	
	Asks students to form blogs and write.	
	Benefits from social media tools for writing.	
	Uses virtual clipboard as a tool in writing.	

Appendix 2: Interviews Protocols

Interview Protocol for Polish Teachers

Introduction

Hello, my name is Bünyamin BAVLI. I am a research Assistant at Yıldız Teknik University, Educational Sciences Department. At the same time, I am also a PhD student at the same department. In my dissertation, I study how English Language Teachers perceive themselves in the context of Language skills and pedagogical knowledge and practice of them as a Foreign Language Teachers and the factors that affect their language skills and pedagogical knowledge and practice efficacies. The information that you will provide as an English Language teacher has a huge importance for our study.

Before starting the interview, I would like to inform you that your participation is strictly voluntary and may be discontinued at any time during the interview. You may also decline to answer any question during the interview. Any information you share with me will not be used to identify you or your school. You will remain anonymous in any research presentations or publication.

In addition to that, I would like to remind you that I will record the interview. However, if at any time you would prefer that I turn the record off, please let me know, and I will do so immediately. I think our interview will take approximately 1 hour. I want to start with your permission to interview questions. Do you have any questions before we begin?

Demographic Information

Age:

Gender:

Graduated Faculty/Major:

Years of Job Experience:

Overseas teaching experience*:*

- Did you have courses related to Pedagogical Knowledge at your pre-service (university) study? If so, which courses did you have?
- Do you think pedagogical knowledge was taught sufficiently at your pre-service (university) study? If not so, Why?
- Does pedagogical knowledge help your language teaching? Why?
- Does your Ministry or affiliated institutions provide you professional development opportunities to develop your pedagogical knowledge? Do you find organized training activities sufficient? Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities do you do to develop or update your pedagogical knowledge?
  Is there anything else you want to add?
- Did you have courses on each skill (Listening, speaking, reading, writing) at your pre-service (university) study? If so, which courses did you have?
- Do you think courses related to language skills were taught sufficiently at your pre-service (university) study? If not so, Why?
- Do you think courses on each skill (Listening, speaking, reading, and writing) that you had at your pre-service (university) study help you to teach language skills efficiently? Could you please explain?
- Does your Ministry or affiliated institutions provide you professional development opportunities to develop your language skills teaching knowledge? Do you find organized training activities sufficient? Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities do you do to develop or update your knowledge on each language skill? Do you think that you should be encouraged or motivated on that? Why?
- Is there anything else you want to add?
- Do you have problems on classroom management, using teaching methods and techniques, and communication to teach language skills efficiently? Could you please exemplify?
- Do you think that you allocate sufficient time for each student and deal with each student to teach language skills efficiently in your courses? Can you adjust your teaching according to each student and class? Could you please explain?
- Do you have sufficient materials and equipment to teach language skills efficiently in your courses? Can you develop your own material? Do you think that you can use materials and equipment efficiently? Could you please explain?
- Is it possible for your students to communicate with peers and with you in your courses? Could you please explain?
- Do you think that you get the sufficient support from parents to teach language skills? Could you please explain?
- Do you think that you have contribution for preparing English Language Curriculum preparation? Could you please explain?
- Do you assess your students during and at the end of your courses? Could you please explain?
- Do you believe that you are efficient on teaching each language skill (Listening, speaking, reading and writing)? If not so, what is the reason? Could you please explain?
- What are the factors that influence your teaching and assessment of language skills in a positive or negative way in your courses? Could you please exemplify?
- What do you need to teach each language skill (Listening, speaking, reading and writing) efficiently? Why?

- Do you use methods and techniques that are suitable for student level in a sufficient level? If not so, Why? Could you please explain?
- Do you integrate each skill with another while teaching language skills? Could you please explain?
- What would you do if you were the responsible authority in the name of effective teaching of language skills?
- How do you define yourself as a person during the instruction in the classroom? An authority? A guide? A friend? Could you please explain?

- Do you give students homework assignment? Do you check and provide feedback (oral or written) for your homework assignment? Could you please explain?
- Do you define any classroom rule? If so, do you think that your student can contribute to define classroom rules? What are your thoughts about classroom rule? Could you please explain?
- Do you provide brief information about the learning topic of the day at the beginning of the each instruction? If so, Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities do you conduct for students who have learning difficulty or lack of motivation? Could you please explain?
- What is your idea about learning environment and seating arrangement of your classroom? Could you please explain?
- Is there anything else you want to add?

Interview Protocol for Polish Students

Introduction

Hello, my name is Bünyamin BAVLI. I am a research Assistant at Yıldız Teknik University, Educational Sciences Department. At the same time, I am also a PhD student at the same department. In my dissertation, I study how English Language Teachers perceive themselves in the context of Language skills and pedagogical knowledge and practice of them as a Foreign Language Teachers and the factors that affect their language skills and pedagogical knowledge and practice efficacies. The information that you will provide as an English Language teacher has a huge importance for our study.

Before starting the interview, I would like to inform you that your participation is strictly voluntary and may be discontinued at any time during the interview. You may also decline to answer any question during the interview. Any information you share with me will not be used to identify you or your school. You will remain anonymous in any research presentations or publication.

In addition to that, I would like to remind you that I will record the interview. However, if at any time you would prefer that I turn the record off, please let me know, and I will do so immediately. I think our interview will take approximately 1 hour. I want to start with your permission to interview questions. Do you have any questions before we begin?

Demographic Information

Age:

Gender:

Grade:

Graduated Lower-Secondary School:

English Course Grade:

- How do you define your English language teacher during the instruction in the classroom? An authority? A guide? A friend? Could you please explain?
- How do you explain the teaching style of your English teacher? Please explain.
- Do you think that your teacher allocate sufficient time for each student and deal with each student to teach language skills efficiently in your courses? Can your teacher adjust teaching according to each student and class? Could you please explain?
- Does your teacher have sufficient materials and equipment to teach language skills efficiently in English courses?
- Can your teacher develop his/her own material? Do you think that your teacher can use materials and equipment efficiently? Could you please explain?
- Is it possible for your students to communicate with peers and with you in your courses? Could you please explain?
- Do you think that your parents provide sufficient support for you to learn English? Could you please explain? Does your teacher assess your learning during and at the end of English courses? What kind of activities does she/he use to assess your learning? Could you please explain?
- Does your teacher give you homework assignment? Does your teacher check and provide feedback (oral or written) for your homework assignment? Could you please explain?
- Does your teacher define any classroom rule? If so, do you think that you can contribute to define classroom rules? What are your thoughts about classroom rule? Could you please explain?
- Does your teacher provide brief information about the learning topic of the day? If so, Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities does your teacher conduct for students who have learning difficulty or lack of motivation? Could you please explain?
- How you define yourself during the instruction? Passive? Active? Could you please explain?
- What is your idea about learning environment and seating arrangement of your classroom? Could you please explain?
- Is there anything else you want to add?
- What kind of activities does your teacher conduct to teach and assess listening skill? Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities does your teacher conduct to teach and assess speaking skill? Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities does your teacher conduct to teach and assess reading skill? Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities does your teacher conduct to teach and assess writing skill? Could you please explain?
- Does your teacher allow you to consult dictionary during the English courses? Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities does your teacher do after assessment and evaluation of your English test? Could you please explain?
- Does your teacher use Polish or English as a medium of instruction? Could you please explain?
- What kind of activities to be done by your teacher to teach each language skill (listening, speaking, reading and writing) efficiently? Could you please explain?
- If you were a teacher, how would you teach English? Could you please explain?
- Is there anything else you want to add?

Interview Protocol for Turkish Teachers

Giriş

Merhaba, Bünyamin BAVLI ben. Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışıyorum. Aynı bölümde aynı zamanda ve doktora öğrencisiyim. Doktora tezimde İngilizce öğretmenlerinin kendilerini yabancı dil öğretmeni olarak nasıl değerlendirdiklerini ve İngilizce öğretim yeterliğini etkileyen sebepleri araştırmaktayım. Bir İngilizce öğretmeni olarak sunacağınız görüşler araştırma için önem taşımaktadır. Görüşmeye başlamadan önce yapacağımız görüşmenin gizli olduğunu, benim dışımda hiçbir kişinin bilmeyeceğini, araştırma raporunda, size, kurumunuza, ilçenize ve ilinize ait bilgiler siz müsaade etmediğiniz müddetçe kesinlikle yer almayacağını ifade etmek isterim. Bununla birlikte, yapacağımızı görüşmeyi kayıt altına alacağımı belirtmek isterim. Ancak müsaade etmemeniz durumunda kaydı istediğiniz zaman durdurabilir ya da iptal edebiliriz. Görüşmemizin ortalama 1 saat süreceğini düşünüyorum. Müsaadenizle görüşme sorularına başlamak istiyorum.

Demografik Bilgiler

Yaşınız:

Cinsiyetiniz:

Mezun olduğunuz fakülte/bölüm:

Öğretmenlik Hizmet süreniz:

Yurt dışı Öğretmenlik tecrübeniz:

- Üniversite eğitiminizde öğretmenlik meslek bilgisine yönelik dersler aldınız mı? Aydıysanız, hangi dersleri aldınız?
- Öğretmenlik meslek bilgisinin size yeterli düzeyde öğretildiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Neden?
- Öğretmenlik meslek bilgisinin size dil öğretiminde yardımcı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Neden?
- Bakanlığınız ya da bağlı bulunduğunuz üst kurum öğretmenlik meslek bilginizi geliştirmeye yönelik mesleki gelişim imkânları sunuyor mu? Düzenlenen eğitim faaliyetlerini yeterli buluyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmenlik meslek bilginiz geliştirmek ve güncellemek için ne gibi çalışmalar yapıyorsunuz?
- Başka eklemek istediğiniz bir şey var mı?
- Üniversite eğitiminiz boyunca her dil becerisine (Dinleme, okuma, konuşma ve yazma) yönelik ayrı ayrı dersler aldınız mı? Aydıysanız, hangi dersleri aldınız?
- Üniversite eğitiminiz boyunca her dil becerisine yönelik aldığınız derslerin size yeterli düzeyde öğretildiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Üniversite eğitiminiz boyunca her dil becerisine yönelik aldığınız derslerin dil becerilerini etkili bir şekilde öğretmenize yardımcı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Bakanlığınız ya da bağlı bulunduğunuz üst kurum her dil becerisi öğretimine yönelik mesleki gelişim imkânları sunuyor mu? Düzenlenen eğitim faaliyetlerini yeterli buluyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Her dil becerisine yönelik bilgilerinizi geliştirmek ve güncellemek için ne gibi çalışmalarda bulunuyorsunuz? Bu yönde teşvik edildiğinizi ve teşvik edilmeniz gerektiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Neden?
- Başka eklemek istediğiniz bir şey var mı?
- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin etkili öğretiminde sınıf yönetimi, öğretim yöntem ve tekniklerini kullanma ve iletişimde problemler yaşıyor musunuz? Örneklerle açıklar mısınız?
- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin etkili öğretiminde sınıfta her öğrenciyle yeterli düzeyde ilgilenebildiğinizi ve her öğrenciye yeterli düzeyde vakit ayırabildiğinizi düşünüyor musunuz? Öğrenci ve sınıfa göre öğretim yapabiliyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin etkili öğretiminde ihtiyaç duyduğunuz materyal, araç-gereçleri sahip misiniz ve geliştirebiliyor musunuz? Bu materyal, araç ve gereçleri etkili bir şekilde kullanabildiğinizi düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Derslerinizde öğrencilerinizin birbiriyle ya da sizinle iletişimde bulunmaları mümkün müdür? Açıklar mısınız?
- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin etkili öğretiminde velilerden gerekli desteği alıyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- İngilizce öğretim tasarımının oluşturulmasında katkınız olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Ders sürecinde ve sonunda öğrencinin öğrenmesini ortaya çıkaracak değerlendirmeye yer veriyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Her dil becerisini (dinleme, okuma, konuşma, yazma) öğretiminde etkili olduğunuza inanıyor musunuz? Eğer etkili değilseniz neden etkili olmadığınızı düşünüyorsunuz? Açıklar mısınız?

- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin (dinleme, okuma, konuşma, yazma) öğretimini ve değerlendirmesini olumlu ya da olumsuz şekilde etkileyen unsurlar nelerdir? Örneklerle açıklar mısınız?
- He dil becerisini (dinleme, okuma, konuşma, yazma) etkili bir şekilde öğretebilmek için nelere ihtiyaç duyuyorsunuz? Neden?
- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin (dinleme, okuma, konuşma, yazma) öğretiminde öğrenci düzeyine uygun yöntem ve teknikleri yeterli düzeyde kullanıyor musunuz? Eğer kullanamıyorsanız, açıklar mısınız?
- Bir dil becerisinin öğretiminde diğer dil becerilerinden faydalanıyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Dil öğretiminden sorumlu otorite olsaydınız dil becerilerinin etkili öğretimi adına neler yapardınız? Neden?
- Dersinizde kendinizi nasıl tanımlarsınız? Otorite mi, rehber mi, arkadaş mı? Açıklayınız?
- Ev ödevi verir misiniz? Ev ödevlerini kendiniz kontrol edip dönüt (sözlü ya da yazılı) verir misiniz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Dönem başında sınıf kuralı belirliyor musunuz? Eğer evet ise, sınıf kuralı belirlemede öğrencilerinizin katkısı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Sınıf kuralı ile ilgili düşünceleriniz nelerdir? Açıklar mısınız?
- Derse başlamadan önce öğrenme konusuna yönelik bilgilendirme yapıyor musunuz? Eğer evet ise, açıklar mısınız?
- Öğrenme güçlüğü ve motivasyon eksikliği yaşayan öğrencilere yönelik ne tür faaliyetler yapıyorsunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğrenme ortamı (derslik) ve oturma düzeni konusunda görüşleriniz nelerdir? Açıklar mısınız?
- Başka eklemek istediğiniz bir şey var mı?

Interviews Protocol for Turkish Students

Giriş

Merhaba, Bünyamin BAVLI ben. Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri bölümünde araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışıyorum. Aynı bölümde aynı zamanda ve doktora öğrencisiyim. Doktora tezimde İngilizce öğretmenlerinin kendilerini yabancı dil öğretmeni olarak nasıl değerlendirdiklerini ve İngilizce öğretim yeterliğini etkileyen sebepleri araştırmaktayım. İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen bir birey olarak bu konuda sunacağınız görüşler araştırma için önem taşımaktadır. Görüşmeye başlamadan önce yapacağımız görüşmenin gizli olduğunu, benim dışımda hiçbir kişinin araştırma raporunda, size, okulunuza, ilçenize ve ilinize ait bilgiler siz müsaade etmediğiniz müddetçe kesinlikle yer almayacağını ifade etmek isterim. Bununla birlikte, yapacağımızı görüşmeyi kayıt altına alacağımı belirtmek isterim. Ancak müsaade etmemeniz durumunda kaydı istediğiniz zaman durdurabilir ya da iptal edebiliriz. Görüşmemizin ortalama 1 saat süreceğini düşünüyorum. Müsaadenizle görüşme sorularına başlamak istiyorum.

Demografik Bilgiler

Yaşınız:

Cinsiyetiniz:

Sınıfınız:

Mezun olduğunuz ortaokul:

İngilizce notunuz:

- Dersinizde öğretmeninizi nasıl tanımlarsınız? Otorite mi, rehber mi, arkadaş mı? Açıklayınız?
- Derslerinizde öğretmeninizin ders anlatım şeklini nasıl tanımlarsınız? Açıklar mısınız?
- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin etkili öğretiminde öğretmeniniz sınıfta her öğrenciyle yeterli düzeyde ilgilenebildiğini ve her öğrenciye yeterli düzeyde vakit ayırabildiğini, söz hakkı tanıdığını düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Derslerinizde dil becerilerinin etkili öğretiminde öğretmeniniz materyal ve araç-gereç kullanıyor mu? Öğretmeniniz kendisi materyal geliştiriyor mu? Bu materyal, araç ve gereçleri etkili bir şekilde kullanabildiğini düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Derslerinizde öğretmeninizle ve arkadaşlarınızla iletişimde bulunmanız ve görüş belirtmeniz mümkün müdür? Açıklar mısınız?
- Dil becerilerinin etkili öğretilmesine ve öğrenmenize velinizin gerekli desteği sağladığını düşünüyor musunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Ders sürecinde ve sonunda öğretmeniniz öğrenmenizi ortaya çıkaracak değerlendirmeye yer veriyor mu? Bunlar nelerdir? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeniniz ev ödevi veriyor ve kendisi kontrol edip dönüt veriyor mu? Açıklar mısınız?
- Dönem başında öğretmeniniz sınıf kuralı belirliyor mu? Eğer evet ise, sınıf kuralı belirlemeye katkınız olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz? Sınıf kuralı ile ilgili düşünceleriniz nelerdir? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeniniz derse başlamadan önce öğrenme konusuna yönelik bilgilendirme yapıyor mu? Eğer evet ise, açıklar mısınız?
- Öğrenme güçlüğü ve motivasyon eksikliği yaşayan öğrencilerle ilgili öğretmeniniz ne tür faaliyetler yapıyor? Açıklar mısınız?
- İngilizce dersinde kendinizi nasıl tanımlarsınız? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğrenme ortamı (derslik) ve oturma düzeni konusunda görüşleriniz nelerdir? Açıklar mısınız?
- Başka eklemek istediğiniz bir şey var mı?
- Öğretmeniniz dinleme becerisine yönelik ne tür öğretim ve değerlendirme faaliyetleri yapıyor ve nasıl yapıyor? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeniniz konuşma becerisine yönelik ne tür öğretim ve değerlendirme faaliyetleri yapıyor ve nasıl yapıyor? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeniniz okuma becerisine yönelik ne tür öğretim ve değerlendirme faaliyetleri yapıyor ve nasıl yapıyor? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeniniz yazma becerisine yönelik ne tür öğretim ve değerlendirme faaliyetleri yapıyor ve nasıl yapıyor? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeninizin İngilizce sözlük kullanımına izin veriyor mu? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeniniz yazılı sonrası öğrenme eksikliğinize yönelik ne tür faaliyetler yapıyor? Açıklar mısınız?
- Öğretmeniniz derste konuları anlatırken İngilizceyi mi yoksa Türkçeyi mi kullanıyor? Eğer evet ise, neden? Açıklar mısınız?

- He dil becerisini (dinleme, okuma, konuşma, yazma) etkili bir şekilde öğretilmesi adına başka ne tür faaliyetlerin yapılması gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Siz İngilizce öğretmeni olsaydınız, İngilizceyi nasıl öğretirdiniz? Açıklar mısınız?
- Başka eklemek istediğiniz bir şey var mı?

Appendix 3: Informed Consent Form

I, the undersigned, confirm that (please tick box as appropriate):

1.	I have read and understood the information related to study which was presented in the Information Sheet dated ……, …….	☐
2.	I have been provided the opportunity to raise questions related to study and my participation in the interview.	☐
3.	I admit that I am voluntarily participating in the study.	☐
4.	I am aware that I have the option and opportunity to withdraw at any time without providing any reasons. I have been informed that withdrawing causes no penalty or interrogation.	☐
5.	Researchers clearly explained me the procedures related to confidentiality such as use of pseudonyms, anonymisation of data, etc.	☐
6.	During the interviews, researchers informed me about audio and video recoring will be conducted if allowed by me.	☐
7.	Researchers provided me information about the use of the data in research, publications and, archiving of the obtained data.	☐
8.	I am aware that other researchers have the authority to access obtained data only if they obey to preserve the confidentiality of the data.	☐
9.	My name can be used in the study and outcomes of the study such as reports and publications.	☐
	I do not allow the reseachers to use my name in this study.	☐
10.	I agree to to put my signature and date on this informed consent form.	☐

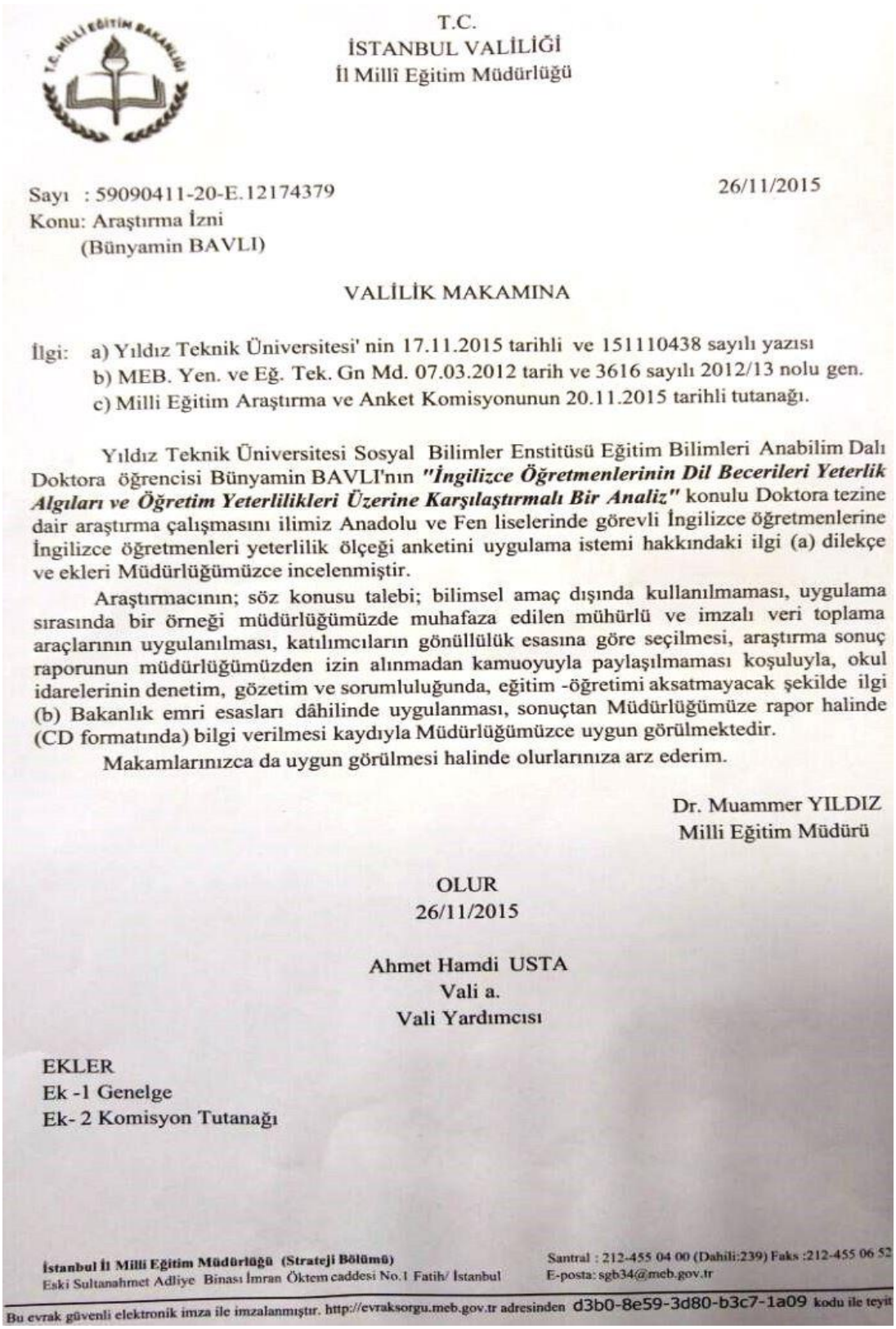
Participant:

_____ _____ _____

Name of Participant Signature Date

Researcher:

Appendix 4: Research Permission



T.C.
İSTANBUL VALİLİĞİ
İl Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 59090411-20-E.12174379 26/11/2015
Konu: Araştırma İzni
(Bünyamin BAVLI)

VALİLİK MAKAMINA

İlgi: a) Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi' nin 17.11.2015 tarihli ve 151110438 sayılı yazısı
b) MEB. Yen. ve Eğ. Tek. Gn Md. 07.03.2012 tarih ve 3616 sayılı 2012/13 nolu gen.
c) Milli Eğitim Araştırma ve Anket Komisyonunun 20.11.2015 tarihli tutanağı.

Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Eğitim Bilimleri Anabilim Dalı Doktora öğrencisi Bünyamin BAVLI'nın ***"İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Dil Becerileri Yeterlik Algıları ve Öğretim Yeterlilikleri Üzerine Karşılaştırmalı Bir Analiz"*** konulu Doktora tezine dair araştırma çalışmasını ilimiz Anadolu ve Fen liselerinde görevli İngilizce öğretmenlerine İngilizce öğretmenleri yeterlilik ölçeği anketini uygulama istemi hakkındaki ilgi (a) dilekçe ve ekleri Müdürlüğümüzce incelenmiştir.

Araştırmacının; söz konusu talebi; bilimsel amaç dışında kullanılmaması, uygulama sırasında bir örneği müdürlüğümüzde muhafaza edilen mühürlü ve imzalı veri toplama araçlarının uygulanılması, katılımcıların gönüllülük esasına göre seçilmesi, araştırma sonuç raporunun müdürlüğümüzden izin alınmadan kamuoyuyla paylaşılmaması koşuluyla, okul idarelerinin denetim, gözetim ve sorumluluğunda, eğitim -öğretimi aksatmayacak şekilde ilgi (b) Bakanlık emri esasları dâhilinde uygulanması, sonuçtan Müdürlüğümüze rapor halinde (CD formatında) bilgi verilmesi kaydıyla Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmektedir.

Makamlarınızca da uygun görülmesi halinde olurlarınıza arz ederim.

Dr. Muammer YILDIZ
Milli Eğitim Müdürü

OLUR
26/11/2015

Ahmet Hamdi USTA
Vali a.
Vali Yardımcısı

EKLER
Ek -1 Genelge
Ek- 2 Komisyon Tutanağı

İstanbul İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğü (Strateji Bölümü)
Eski Sultanahmet Adliye Binası İmran Öktem caddesi No.1 Fatih/ İstanbul
Santral : 212-455 04 00 (Dahili:239) Faks :212-455 06 52
E-posta: sgb34@meb.gov.tr

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Appendix 5: Information Sheet in Polish

Informacja o Badaniach

Wstęp

Nazywam się Bünyamin BAVLI. Pracuję jako asystent na Uniwersytecie w Yildiz w Turcji, gdzie przygotowuję rozprawę doktorską dotyczącą nauczania języka angielskiego w P olsce i Turcji. Promotorem mojej pracy jest prof. dr hab. Joanna Madalińska-Michalak, pracownik naukowy Wydziału Pedagogicznego Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego. W związku z II etapem badań (zbieranie danych w Polsce) goszczę obecnie na Wydziale Pedagogicznym Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego.

Jaki jest cel moich badań?

Prowadzone przeze mnie badania służą poszerzeniu wiedzy pedagogicznej z zakresu nauczania języków obcych i pracy nauczycieli. W pracy dążę przede wszystkim do rozpoznania czynników decydujących o skuteczności nauczania języka angielskiego w szkołach średnich w Polsce i Turcji. Prowadzone przeze mnie badaniach są realizowane w ramach grantu The Scientific and Technological Research Council of - TÜBİTAK (Komitetu Badań Naukowych i Technologicznych).

Na czym polegają badania?

W ramach badań są prowadzone indywidualne wywiady z nauczycielami języka angielskiego. Nauczyciele będą informowani o celu i zakresie badań. Czas trwania każdego wywiadu to około 45-50 minut. Wywiady będą nagrywane (nagrania audio).

W badaniach zostaną wykorzystane także wywiady grupowe z uczniami. Wywiady te będą prowadzone z grupą co najmniej 6 uczniów z każdej klasy, w której nauczany jest język angielski. Uczniowie, podobnie jak biorący udział w wywiadach nauczyciele, będą informowani o celu i zakresie badań. Wywiady będą prowadzone

w czasie dogodnym dla uczniów. Wywiad grupowy będzie trwał około godziny i będzie nagrywany (nagrania audio).

W badaniach będą także prowadzone nieuczestniczące obserwacje zajęć w klasie. W ramach obserwacji zostanie położony nacisk na pracę nauczyciela języka angielskiego w trakcie zajęć lekcyjnych. Obserwacja będą nagrywane (nagrania wideo).

Jakie są możliwe słabości bądź ryzyko w braniu udziału w tym badaniu?

Nie są znane żadne słabości lub ryzyko udziału w badaniach. W badaniach szczególną uwagę poświęcamy zapewnieniu anonimowości i poufności osobom badanym. Po przeprowadzonych badaniach (wywiadach) zostanie przesłany uczestnikom badań transkrypt wywiadu, tak aby osoby te mogły się zapoznać z nim i wyrazić zgodę na dalsze prace analityczne nad zebranym materiałem empirycznym.

Jakie są zalety w braniu udziału?

Nauczyciele będą mieli okazję powiedzieć o swojej pracy w trakcie wywiadów oraz odsłonić swoje doświadczenie zawodowe i umiejętności w zakresie prowadzenia lekcji. Uczniowie będą mieli możliwość przedstawienia swoich pomysłów na nauczanie języka angielskiego. Szkoła będzie miała okazję wziąć udział w międzynarodowym badaniu naukowym. Ponadto, badanie przyczyni się do wyprowadzenia szeregu wskazówek dotyczących kształcenia i doskonalenia nauczycieli w Polsce i Turcji.

Co się będzie działo po zakończeniu badań?

Badania mają prowadzić do podniesienia jakości nauczania języka angielskiego w szkołach średnich w Polsce i Turcji oraz podniesienia jakości edukacji nauczycieli języka angielskiego – edukacji zarówno w toku studiów na uczelniach akademickich, jak i edukacji w ramach ciągłego doskonalenia zawodowego. Badania mogą przyczynić się doskonalenia programów nauczania języka angielskiego w Polsce i w Turcji. Badanie będzie również doskonała okazją do zacieśniania więzi między tymi krajami i nawiązywania współpracy między instytucjami obu krajów.

Czy udział w badaniach jest obowiązkowy?

Uczestnicy nie są zobowiązani do wzięcia udziału w tym badaniu. Można się wycofać w dowolnym momencie z badań bez podania przyczyny i bez konsekwencji.

Co należy robić, jeśli pojawi się jakiś problem, wątpliwość?

Jeśli w trakcie badań wystąpią jakiekolwiek sytuacje trudne, wątpliwe, to będziemy starali się odpowiadać na każdą z takich sytuacji i je rozwiązywać. W tej sprawie prosimy o kontakt z prof. dr hab. Joanną Madalińską-Michalak j.madalinska@uw.edu.pl.

Czy udział w badaniu jest poufny?

Tak. Wszystkie informacje, które zostaną przekazane w trakcie badań będą chronione przed dostępem osób trzecich do nich i będą anonimowe. Raport z badań zostanie tak opracowany, aby osoby go czytające nie wiedziały o kim jest mowa, chyba że będziemy mieli wyraźną zgodę z Twojej strony. Nikt inny niż naukowcy nie będą mieli dostępu do danych, które zostaną zapisane w komputerach chronionych hasłem. Dane będa przechowywane przez 5 lat.

Dane kontaktowe naukowców:

Prowadzący badania	**Badacz Współpracujący**
Bünyamin BAVLI Wydział Edukacji Uniwersytet Techniczny Yıldız Kampus Davutpaşa B 316 E-mail: bunyaminbavli@gmail.com Telefon: 729 493 190	Prof. dr. hab. Joanna Madalińska- Wydział Pedagogiczny Uniwersytet Warszawski ul. Mokotowska 16/20 E-mail: j.madalinska@uw.edu.pl. Telefon: 600 010 345

Dziękujemy za poświęcenie czasu na zapoznanie się z opisem badań

Information Sheet in Turkish

Bilgi Formu

GİRİŞ

Benim adım Bünyamin BAVLI, Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim Ana Bilim Dalında araştırma görevlisi olarak çalışmaktayım. Ayrıca, aynı bölümde doktora öğrencisiyim. Doktora tezimde "İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Dil Becerileri Yeterlik Algıları ve Öğretim Yeterlikleri Üzerine Karşılaştırmalı bir Analiz" başlıklı çalışması yapmaktayım. Bu kapsamda Türkiye ve Polonya'da devlet liselerinde görev yapmakta olan İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin yabancı dil öğretiminde karşılaştıkları problemlerin neler olduğu, bu problemlerin öğretmen etkililiğini ne yönde etkilediği tez çalışmasının kapsamını oluşturmaktadır. Tez çalışması Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırma Kurumu (TÜBİTAK) tarafından da finanse edilmekte olup araştırmanın öğretmen yetiştirme, hizmet içi eğitim faaliyetlerinin niteliği, eğitim programı tasarımı v.d. konularda katkı sağlayacağı düşünülmektedir.

ÇALIŞMA NASIL YÜRÜTÜLECEKTİR?

Çalışma öğrencilerle 40-45 dakika sürecek yüz yüze görüşmeler şeklinde yürütülecektir. Görüşmede araştırmacı tarafından daha önce hazırlanmış araştırmaya yönelik kapalı uçlu sorular yöneltilecektir. Öğrenci görüşmeye gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ettiğinde, görüşme öncesi araştırmanın amacına yönelik bilgilendirme ayrıca yapılacaktır. Görüşmenin toplamda en fazla 60 dakika sürmesi beklenmekte ve kayıt altına alınması planlanmaktadır. Öğrenci ile yapılacak olan görüşmeler okul müdürü ve ders öğretmeninin bilgisi ve izni dâhilinde gerçekleştirilecek olup öğrencinin uygun olduğu zaman ve mekân tercih edilecektir.

ÇALIŞMADA YER ALMANIN RİSKLERİ NELERDİR?

Öğrencinin çalışmaya katılmasında herhangi bir risk ya da dezavantaj bulunmamaktadır. Görüşmeye katılan öğrencilerin kişisel bilgileri gizli tutulacak olup kesinlikle başka kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Öğrencinin yüz yüze görüşmeye katılmayı kabul etmesi durumunda görüşme kayıtları katılımcılarla teyit amacıyla paylaşacaktır. Böylelikle herhangi bir yanlış anlaşılma ve yazım hatasının önüne geçilecektir. Araştırmada öğrencilerin şahsi ve kimlik bilgileri talep edilmemektedir. İlçe adı, okul adı gibi bilgiler gizli tutulacak olup öğrencilerin gerçek isimleri yerine takma isim kullanılacaktır.

ÇALIŞMADA YER ALMANIN FAYDALARI NELERDİR?

Araştırmaya katılarak çocuğunuz İngilizce öğrenme tecrübesini ve bu süreçte yaşadığı zorlukları paylaşma imkânı bulacaktır. Ayrıca uluslararası bazda yapılan ve ülkemiz eğitim sistemine ve özelinde yabancı dil olarak öğretilen İngilizce öğrenme ve öğretme sürecine katkı sağlamış olacaktır.

KATILIMCI HAKLARI

Çocuğunuz araştırmada yer alma mecburiyeti olmadığını ve katılımının gönüllülük esasına göre olduğunu belirtmek isteriz. Ayrıca, çocuğunuz görüşmeye katılmayı kabul etse dahi görüşmeden çekilme hakkına her zaman sahiptir.

GİZLİLİK

Çocuğunuzun kimlik bilgileri araştırmada talep edilmemektedir. Çocuğunuzun adı-soyadı, okulu, sınıfı, öğretmeni gibi bilgiler gizli tutulacak olup ikinci kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Çocuğunuzun görüşme anında sağladığı bütün bilgiler gizli tutulacaktır. Görüşmelerin yazıya dökülmesi sırasında gerçek isim yerine takma isim kullanılacaktır. Bilimsel araştırma amacıyla elde edilen bilgilere araştırmacı dışında kesinlikle başka kişiler erişmeyecektir. Bilgiler

araştırmacının kontrolünde muhafaza edilecektir. Araştırma İstanbul İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğünün izni, okul müdürü ve ders öğretmeninin bilgisi dâhilinde gerçekleştirilmektedir.

SORU VE PROBLEMLER İÇİN İRTİBAT BİLGİLERİ

Araştırmacı	**Danışman**
Araştırma Görevlisi Bünyamin Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Davupaşa Kampüsü B 316 E-posta: bunyaminbavli@gmail.com Telefon: 0 212 383 55 75	Prof. Dr. Mehmet GÜROL Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Davupaşa Kampüsü B 314 E-posta: gurolmehmet@gmail.com Telefon: 0 212 383 48 18

Appendix 6: Parental Consent Forms

Parental Consent Form in Polish

Formularz świadomej zgodydla rodziców

WSTĘP

Nazywam się Bünyamin BAVLI - jestem pracownikiem naukowym na Wydziale Studiów Edukacyjnych Uniwersytetu Yildiz Teknik w Turcji, gdzie przygotowuję rozprawę doktorską. Obecnie jestem wizytującym pracownikiem naukowym na Wydziale Pedagogicznym Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego. Prowadzę badania pt. „Efektywność nauczycieli języka angielskiego w zakresie rozwijania umiejętności językowych i wykorzystania wiedzy pedagogicznej. Studium porównawcze.

pod kierownictwem prof. dr hab. Joanny Madalińskiej-Michalak. Badania są realizowane w ramach projektu naukowego finansowanego ze środków TUBITAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey). Celem badań jest zdobycie wiedzy na temat podobieństw i różnic w zakresie nauczania języka angielskiego Polsce i Turcji oraz czynników wpływających na pracę nauczycieli języka angielskiego w publicznych szkołach średnich w obu państwach. Badanie udzieli informacji na temat przygotowania nauczycieli do pracy w szkole, ich kształcenia oraz doskonalenia zawodowego. Wyniki badań mają prowadzić do wyprowadzeniu rekomendacji wskazujących na obszary konieczne do zmian w celu poprawy jakości nauki języka angielskiego w Polsce i Turcji.

JAK PRZEPROWADZONE ZOSTANIE BADANIE?

Badanie przeprowadzone zostanie w formie bezpośredniego wywiadu z uczniem. Jeśli uczeń dobrowolnie wyrazi zgodę na wywiad, prowadzący badanie wyjaśni uczniowi zakres badania przed jego rozpoczęciem. Wywiady zajmą godzinę i będą nagrywane. Będą one przeprowadzane w szkole lub innym dogodnym dla ucznia miejscu.

RYZYKO ZWIĄZANE Z UDZIAŁEM W BADANIU

Nie istnieje żadne znane ryzyko lub przeciwskazanie do uczestnictwa w badaniu, ponieważ dokładamy starań, aby ochronić poufność Państwa dziecka. Jeżeli

wyrażają Państwo zgodę na uczestnictwo dziecka w wywiadzie, prowadzący badanie prześle transkrypcję wywiadu, przed jego analizą, aby upewnić się, że dziecko nie zostało źle zrozumiane.

KORZYŚCI Z UDZIAŁU W BADANIU

Biorąc udział w badaniu, Państwa dziecko będzie miało możliwość refleksji nad swoimi doświadczeniami w nauce języka angielskiego. Ponadto, będzie miało szansę wziąć udział w międzynarodowym badaniu naukowym, które pomoże udoskonalić edukację w Polsce i Turcji.

PRAWA UCZESTNIKÓW

Państwa dziecko nie ma obowiązku brać udziału w badaniu. Może w każdej chwili zrezygnować z udziału w badaniach bez podawania powodu.

A JEŚLI WYSTĄPI PROBLEM?

Skargi lub pytania, związane ze sposobem, w jaki zajmować będziemy się dzieckiem podczas trwania badania, proszę kierować do prof. dr. hab. Joanny Madalińskiej-Michalak, której szczegółowe dane kontaktowe podane są poniżej.

POUFNOŚĆ

Wszystkie informacje, których udzieli dziecko będą utajnione w taki sposób, że osoby czytające sprawozdania z badań nie będą wiedziały, kto wziął w nich udział. Aby zachować poufność, podczas transkrypcji zostaną użyte pseudonimy. Nikt poza prowadzącymi badanie nie będzie miał dostępu do danych, które zostaną bezpiecznie zapisane w chronionych hasłem komputerach i bezpiecznie przechowywane przez pięć lat.

KONTAKT W RAZIE PYTAŃ LUB PROBLEMÓW

Prowadzący Badanie	Współprowadzący
Asystent naukowy Bünyamin Wydział Pedagogiczny Uniwersytet Warszawski ul. Mokotowska 16/20 E-mail: bunyaminbavli@gmail.com Telefon: 729 493 190	Prof. Dr. Hab. Joanna Madalińska- Wydział Pedagogiczny Uniwersytet Warszawski ul. Mokotowska 16/20 E-mail: j.madalinska@uw.edu.pl Telefon: 600 010 345

POZWOLENIE NA UDZIAŁ W BADANIU

Jako rodzic lub opiekun prawny, zezwalam _____ (imię i nazwisko dziecka) na udział w badaniu opisanym w tym formularzu.

Data urodzenia dziecka

Podpis rodzica lub opiekuna prawnego Data

_____

Po podpisaniu, kopię dokumentu otrzyma rodzic lub opiekun prawny.

Parental Consent Form in Turkish

Veli İzin Formu

GİRİŞ

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ÇALIŞMA NASIL YÜRÜTÜLECEKTİR?

Çalışma öğrencilerle 40-45 dakika sürecek yüz yüze görüşmeler şeklinde yürütülecektir. Görüşmede araştırmacı tarafından daha önce hazırlanmış araştırmaya yönelik kapalı uçlu sorular yöneltilecektir. Öğrenci görüşmeye gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ettiğinde, görüşme öncesi araştırmanın amacına yönelik bilgilendirme ayrıca yapılacaktır. Görüşmenin toplamda en fazla 60 dakika sürmesi beklenmekte ve kayıt altına alınması planlanmaktadır. Öğrenci ile yapılacak olan görüşmeler okul müdürü ve ders öğretmeninin bilgisi ve izni dâhilinde gerçekleştirilecek olup öğrencinin uygun olduğu zaman ve mekân tercih edilecektir.

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Öğrencinin çalışmaya katılmasında herhangi bir risk ya da dezavantaj bulunmamaktadır. Görüşmeye katılan öğrencilerin kişisel bilgileri gizli tutulacak olup kesinlikle başka kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Öğrencinin yüz yüze görüşmeye katılmayı kabul etmesi durumunda görüşme kayıtları katılımcılarla teyit amacıyla paylaşacaktır. Böylelikle herhangi bir yanlış anlaşılma ve yazım hatasının önüne geçilecektir. Araştırmada öğrencilerin şahsi ve kimlik bilgileri talep edilmemektedir. İlçe adı, okul adı gibi bilgiler gizli tutulacak olup öğrencilerin gerçek isimleri yerine takma isim kullanılacaktır.

ÇALIŞMADA YER ALMANIN FAYDALARI NELERDİR?

Araştırmaya katılarak çocuğunuz İngilizce öğrenme tecrübesini ve bu süreçte yaşadığı zorlukları paylaşma imkânı bulacaktır. Ayrıca uluslararası bazda yapılan ve ülkemiz eğitim sistemine ve özelinde yabancı dil olarak öğretilen İngilizce öğrenme ve öğretme sürecine katkı sağlamış olacaktır.

KATILIMCI HAKLARI

Çocuğunuz araştırmada yer alma mecburiyeti olmadığını ve katılımının gönüllülük esasına göre olduğunu belirtmek isteriz. Ayrıca, çocuğunuz görüşmeye katılmayı kabul etse dahi görüşmeden çekilme hakkına her zaman sahiptir.

GİZLİLİK

Çocuğunuzun kimlik bilgileri araştırmada talep edilmemektedir. Çocuğunuzun adı-soyadı, okulu, sınıfı, öğretmeni gibi bilgiler gizli tutulacak olup ikinci kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Çocuğunuzun görüşme anında sağladığı bütün bilgiler gizli tutulacaktır. Görüşmelerin yazıya dökülmesi sırasında gerçek isim yerine takma isim kullanılacaktır. Bilimsel araştırma amacıyla elde edilen bilgilere araştırmacı dışında kesinlikle başka kişiler erişmeyecektir. Bilgiler araştırmacının kontrolünde muhafaza edilecektir. Araştırma İstanbul İl Milli Eğitim Müdürlüğünün izni, okul müdürü ve ders öğretmeninin bilgisi dâhilinde gerçekleştirilmektedir.

SORU VE PROBLEMLER İÇİN İRTİBAT BİLGİLERİ

Araştırmacı	Danışman
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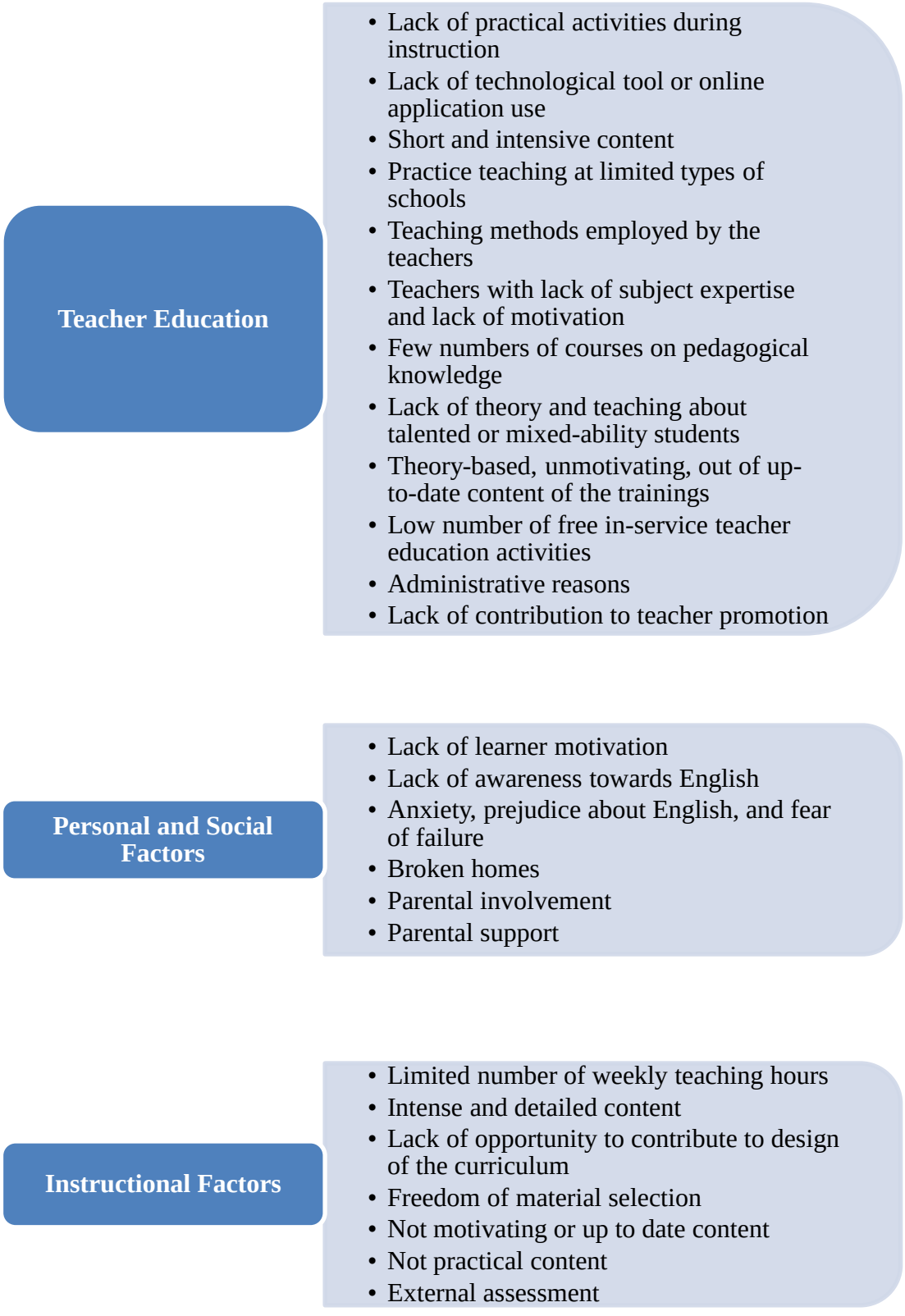
KATILIM İZNİ

Veli ya da Vasisi bulunduğum, _____ 'nın (çocuğun adını ve soyadını yazınız) yukarıda açıklanan araştırma çalışmasına katılmasında sakınca yoktur.

Çocuğun doğum tarihi

Veli ya da Vasi İmza Tarih

Appendix 7: Codes of the Study



Contextual Factors

- Overcrowded classes
- Diverse learners
- Lack of special classrooms for language teaching
- Inspection and evaluation
- Salary
- No ability grouping of students
- Double-shift schooling
- Teacher promotion
- Administrative tasks
- Teacher collaboration
- Employment of substitute teaching staff
- Learning experiences and conditions in previous grades and schools
- Few elective courses
- High mobility of teachers

Classroom Management

- Allocating sufficient time for each person during instruction
- Defining classroom rules
- Collaborating with students to define classroom rules
- Providing positive reinforcement for students
- Motivating students to respond
- Allowing students to explain learning difficulties
- Employing various seating arrangements

Using Instructional Strategies

- Employing a variety of group strategies
- Employing pair work
- Employing communicative practice
- Employing authentic practice
- Using English as a medium of instruction

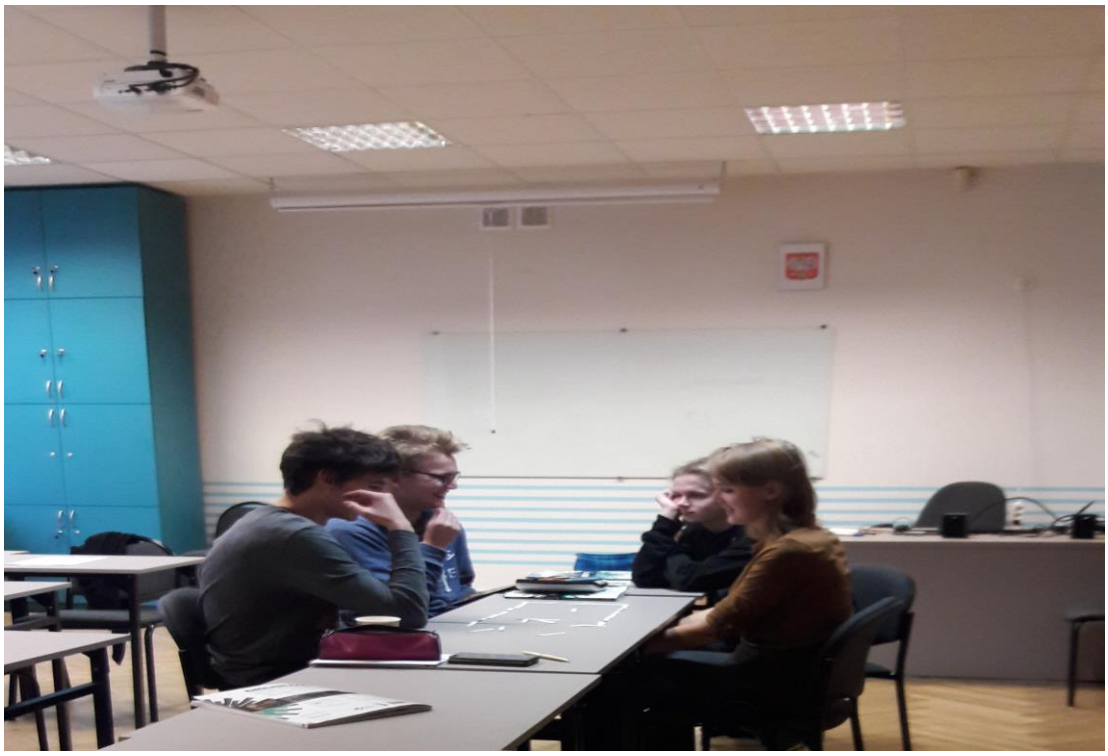
Employing Teaching Materials	• Using authentic teaching materials • Using self-developed materials • Using online teaching sources or applications • Using visuals • Motivating students to use dictionaries
Assessment and Evaluation	• Providing feedback (oral or written) for homework assignments • Using online homework • Making formative assessments • Making summative assessments • Providing oral and written feedback following the assessments • Re-teaching following the assessments

Appendix 8: Photos of Interviews and Classroom Observation

Nr	Godz	Poniedziałek	Wtorek	Środa	Czwartek	Piątek
0	7:25- 8:10					
1	8:15- 9:00		1a-1/2 j.angielski 2			
2	9:05- 9:50		1a-1/2 j.angielski 2			
3	10:05-10:50	3e-1/2 r_angielski 2	2c-1/2 r_angielski 2	2c-1/2 r_angielski 9	3e-1/2 j.angielski 2	
4	11:00-11:45	3e-1/2 r_angielski 2	3e-1/2 r_angielski 2	2c-1/2 r_angielski 9	3e-1/2 r_angielski 2	1a-1/2 r_angielski 2
5	11:55-12:40	1a-1/2 j.angielski 2	3e-1/2 j.angielski 2	2c-1/2 j.angielski 9	3e-1/2 r_angielski 2	1a-1/2 r_angielski 2
6	13:05-13:50	1a-1/2 r_angielski 2	1a-1/2 r_angielski 2	2c-1/2 j.angielski 9	2c-1/2 j.angielski 2	kl.3 s. 2
7	14:00-14:45	2c-1/2 r_angielski 2	1a godz.wych 2	(~~ogłuchł~~ classroom observation)	kl.1 s. 2	
8	14:50-15:35	kl.2 s. 2	(Classroom observation 22/11/16)			

Class. obs.: Continues

Interview:



JĘZYCZNE
Scotland
CANADA

Access
Workbook

CURRICULUM VITAE

Arş. Gör. Bünyamin BAVLI

Birim	:	EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ
Bölüm	:	EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ
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Doktora, Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim, 2012-

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Lisans, Anadolu Üniversitesi, İngilizce Öğretmenliği, 2002-2006

Yabancı Diller

Almanca, Orta

İngilizce, Çok İyi

Akademik Unvanlar/Görevler

Arş. Gör., Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi, Eğitim Fakültesi, 2014 - Devam Ediyor

Mesleki ve İdari Deneyim

İngilizce Öğretmeni, Müdür Yardımcısı, Proje uzmanı, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Şanlıurfa, Diyarbakır, İstanbul, 09.09.2007 - 30.10.2014

İngilizce Öğretmeni, Kağıthane Zuhal İlköğretim Okulu İstanbul, 20.09.2004 - 01.01.2005

Araştırma Alanları

Eğitim Programları ve Öğretim

Desteklenen Projeler

"İngilizce Öğretmenlerinin Dil Becerileri Yeterlik Algıları ve Öğretim Yeterlikleri Üzerine Karşılaştırmalı Bir Analiz", BAP Doktora, 2015-09-01-DOP03, Araştırmacı, Devam Ediyor

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Atıflar

ISI Web of Science Dizinlerinde Taranan Dergilerdeki Atıflar : 2
Diğer Uluslararası Yayınlardaki Atıflar : 11
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