FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION POLICY IN PRACTICE: ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION AT A PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

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The main aim of this study was to investigate the alignment between English-as-a-foreign-language instruction implemented at a public high school and the explicit policies set for teaching English at the macro-level. In particular, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy was examined. A qualitative case study was adopted as a research design. Junior year students and their English-as-a-foreign-language teachers were the participants. Using ethnographic methods, data were gathered through field notes, observations, interviews, and documents.

Overall, findings suggested a discrepancy between policy and practice in teaching English. Macro-level policy documents conveyed communicative language teaching and the learner-centered approach as the leading features of intended instruction. According to the policy instruments, characteristics of desired instruction involved the eclectic approach and communicative language teaching as the leading method. However, the field data demonstrated that though a few principles of desired instruction were achieved, traditional

transmissive modes of teaching and learning dominated the classroom-level practices. The interpretation of the findings indicated a lack of alignment between desired and realized instruction. Top-down policy implementation, the impact of teachers' beliefs on their instructional practices, several challenges emerging in instructional policy implementation as well as language learners and their language learning practices were found to be effective in the realization of instructional policy. The study has implications for instructional policymaking and practice for teaching English-as-a-foreign-language in Turkish public high schools, as well as in-service teacher training and pre-service teacher education. Additionally, this study has implications for conceptual, theoretical, and methodological dimensions of instructional policy alignment.

ÖZ

YABANCI DİL EĞİTİM POLİTİKASI UYGULAMASI: TÜRKİYE'DE BİR DEVLET LİSESİNDE YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİMİ

YENİ PALABIYIK, Pınar

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, bir devlet lisesinde uygulanan yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi ile makro düzeyde İngilizce öğretimi için belirlenen politika belgeleri arasındaki uyumu araştırmaktır. Özellikle öğretim politikasının sınıf düzeyinde gerçekleşmesi incelenmiştir. Araştırma deseni olarak nitel bir durum çalışması benimsenmiştir. 11. sınıf öğrencileri ve onların İngilizce öğretmenleri çalışmanın katılımcılarıdır. Etnografik yöntemler kullanılarak saha notları, gözlemler, görüşmeler ve belgeler aracılığıyla veriler toplanmıştır.

Genel olarak, bulgular İngilizce öğretiminde politika ve uygulama arasında bir tutarsızlık olduğunu göstermektedir. Makro politika belgeleri, iletişimsel dil öğretimini ve öğrenci merkezli yaklaşımı amaçlanan öğretimin önde gelen özellikleri olarak aktarmaktadır. Politika araçlarına göre ise, hedeflenen öğretimin özellikleri, eklektik yaklaşımı ve iletişimsel dil öğretimini önde gelen yöntem olarak benimsemektedir. Ancak, saha verileri hedeflenen öğretimin birkaç ilkesine ulaşılmasına rağmen, sınıf düzeyindeki uygulamalarda geleneksel aktarıcı öğretme ve öğrenme biçimlerinin hâkim olduğunu göstermiştir. Bulguların yorumlanması, amaçlanan ve gerçekleşen öğretim arasında bir uyum

eksikliği olduğunu göstermiştir. Tepeden inme politika uygulaması, öğretmenlerin inançlarının öğretim uygulamalarına etkisi, öğretim politikası uygulamasında ortaya çıkan çeşitli zorlukların yanı sıra dil öğrenenler ve onların dil öğrenme uygulamalarının öğretim politikasının gerçekleşmesinde etkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Çalışmanın, Türk devlet liselerinde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi ile hizmet içi öğretmen eğitimi ve hizmet öncesi öğretmen eğitimi için öğretim politikası oluşturma ve uygulama açısından çıkarımları bulunmaktadır. Bu çalışmanın ayrıca öğretim politikası uyumunun kavramsal, teorik ve metodolojik boyutları için çıkarımları vardır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Politika Uyumu, Öğretim Politikası Uygulaması, Yabancı Dil Eğitim Programı, İngiliz Dili Öğretimi, Nitel Vaka Çalışması

To my lovely son Mert

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MNE	Ministry of National Education
BED	Board of Education and Discipline
LPP	Language Policy and Planning
LEP	Language Education Policy
FLE	Foreign Language Education
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EU	European Union
CCSSs	Common Core State Standards
Pre-K	Pre-Kindergarten
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
MALL	Mobile Assisted Language Learning
PPP	Presentation, Practice, Produce
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
CoE	Council of Europe
GTM	Grammar Translation Method
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
FLA	First Language Acquisition
ALM	Audiolingual Methodology
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
IWB	Interactive Whiteboard
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
SSC1	Social Sciences Class 1
SC1	Science Class 1
SC2	Science Class 2
MC1	Mathematics Class 1

MC2	Mathematics Class 2
Pdf	Portable Document Format
Apps	Applications
PE	Physical Education
CIK	Claim of Insufficient Knowledge
PPK	Personal Practical Knowledge
INSET	In-Service Teacher Training

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents background to the study. It involves the purpose of the study and research questions. Also, the overall significance of the study is discussed. Last, the key terms used in the study are defined.

1.1. Background to the Study

One of the early questions posed by the language planners Rubin and Jernudd (1971, cited in Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003) was "Can language be planned?", and it received an affirmative response from Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) based on the review of language policy and planning (LPP) initiatives in the Pacific Basin. The authors further claimed that planning is undertaken in order to meet a variety of goals (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003). In this regard, a framework for language planning goals was drawn by Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) involving two main tenets: LPP goals and cultivation-planning goals.

Drawing on the division of LPP into two areas as overt (explicit, planned) and covert (implicit, 'unplanned') by Baldauf (1994), Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) listed four main types of LPP approaches: i) status planning, ii) corpus planning, iii) language-in-education planning, iv) prestige planning. While status planning is about the society (e.g., officialisation, nationalisation, etc.), corpus planning is concerned with the language itself (e.g., grammatication, lexication, etc.). Language-in-education planning is exclusively about learning, whereas prestige planning is about the image (e.g., language of science, language of high culture, etc.).

Differentiating between language planning affecting various segments of the society and language-in-education planning which causes a change in only the education sector, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) conceptualized language-in-education planning in terms of nothing but formal education structure. In this regard, Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) also labeled language-in-education planning as language education planning (LEP), or it is defined as acquisition planning (Cooper, 1989). Therefore, LEP refers to the learning goals, which are related to the users, and these can be achieved through the formal education system (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003). Here the main concern is setting criteria for the processes in the educational system. In so doing, the goal is to regulate "what languages will be taught, to whom, for what latency, in what manner, using what material, as well as how success will be assessed" (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003, p. 217). To that end, Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) developed a framework for LEP consisting of seven crucial pieces of policy development: access policy, curriculum policy, method and material policy, personnel policy, resourcing policy, community policy, and evaluation policy.

In simple terms, access policy deals with what languages should be taught to whom. Making a decision on which languages to be taught follows the concern for decisions relating to curricular issues. In countries where curriculum is centrally developed and authorized, it is the Ministry of Education which controls the what and the how of the instruction, the ministry is also responsible for the production and delivery of the instructional materials. There is little space for community policy within such a centrally developed curriculum policy context. Also, methods and materials policy is strongly linked to curriculum policy especially in countries where the curriculum is centrally managed. The resulting situation becomes a prescribed methodology, and the use of centrally produced and approved textbooks. Lastly, evaluation policy is crucial in order to decide whether the program reached its objectives or not (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997, 2003).

In addition to the above-mentioned policy planning on form, cultivation planning as the second principle in Kaplan and Baldauf's (2003) framework centers on function. In other words, cultivation-planning for language-in-education policy aims at generating language learning programs and mainly concerns how to meet the needs of the various groups possessing different reasons and backgrounds for language learning. Foreign and second language (L2) learning is associated with this aspect, and so school-based programs are developed in many countries (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003).

Turkey is identified as an expanding circle country (Kachru, 1985), and in such countries, English is used as a language of wider communication with other communities all over the world. In essence, globalization and the spread of English as the language of international communication (Crystal, 2003) have influenced the language education policies of non-English-speaking countries such as Turkey and Japan (Kachru, 1992). In a similar vein, the impact of globalization can be easily observed in the foreign language education (FLE) policy designed in the context of Turkish education due mainly to the intense focus on English as the most preferred foreign language of study. That is, education reforms have almost always resulted in lowering starting age for teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) and these reforms have always followed curriculum development and/or upgrade for teaching EFL.

To cite a few, primary education reform in 1997 and the so-called "4+4+4" reform in 2012 both of which resulted in extending compulsory education from 5 years to 8 (Law 4306, dated 18.08.1997) and then from 8 years to 12 (memorandum dated 11.04.2012 and numbered 28261). In addition, these reforms included regulations for lowering the grade for teaching EFL, so a new English language curriculum reform for primary education including grades 4-8 was proposed in 2006 (Ministry of Education) [MEB], 2006) based on the primary education reform in 1997 and this curriculum for primary education was upgraded in order to involve grades 2 and 3 (MEB, 2013) based on "4+4+4" education reform. Following this more recent regulation, EFL curriculum for

upper secondary education has also been upgraded as a continuum of the curriculum developed for grades 2-8 (MEB, 2014).

As a country presenting characteristics of centralized education system, macro-level policy design and micro-level implementation are undertaken in Turkey (Wang, 2006), in that it presents characteristics of a policy development at the national level via legislation and political processes and their implementation at an institutional level (e.g., schools) by the individuals like teachers (Ricento & Hornberger, 1996) which results in a top-down model of curriculum planning (Deng, 2010). In very general terms, curriculum planning refers to the process of decision-making vis-à-vis anything and everything composing the outcome of schooling. There appear a few models conceptualizing decision-making at multiple levels (see, e.g., Doyle, 1992a, 1992b, as cited in Deng, 2010; Glatthorn, 2000; Glatthorn, Boschee, & Whitehead, 2009; Goodlad et. al., 1979).

At a broader level, three primary contexts of curriculum planning can be identified, i.e., institutional, programmatic, and classroom. Institutional curriculum planning attempts to respond to the demands of society and makes decisions on the broader goals of education. The programmatic curriculum planning as the second builds a bridge between the institutional and the classroom curriculum planning. The main concern is to convey the expectations and ideals of the institutional curriculum planning into the classroom level. Third, classroom curriculum planning involves the events jointly constructed by the students and the teachers in the four walls of the classroom (Doyle, 1992a, 1992b, as cited in Deng, 2010). Within such an understanding of curriculum-making, levels of decision-making can create sort of hierarchy, in that a curriculum developed to reflect the ideals of the institutional level, i.e., *the intended*, the use of intended curriculum at school by the teachers, i.e., *the implemented*, and the outcomes students achieve as a result of implemented curriculum, i.e., *the experienced* (Goodlad et al., 1979, see also Westbury, 2008). In this regard, education reforms have always been performed by the government, and the Ministry of National Education (MNE) is the authority on

the top in providing administrative arrangements for the schools in Turkey. In addition, Board of Education and Discipline (BED) on behalf of MNE is responsible for preparing the school curriculum of Turkey from pre-school to upper secondary education and by-products of the curricula such as the textbooks. Therefore, all these initiatives are expected to design teaching and learning inside the classrooms (Deng, 2010). As might be expected from a top-down model, English curriculum for upper secondary education which was revised in 2014 designed to address instruction in all types of schools, i.e., vocational and academic in all parts of the country (P. Savaş, personal communication, December 14, 2017).

Though such a conceptualization of curriculum planning is still prevalent in several countries all over the world, the way curriculum planning and implementation are understood have moved away from a fidelity perspective focusing on the correspondence between the implemented and intended use of the innovation (Fullan & Pomfret, 1977). In other words, it is no longer assumed that teachers will implement the curricular change the way it is desired; instead, curriculum-making has been associated with multiple processes operating at different levels (see, e.g., Doyle, 1992a, 1992b, as cited in Deng, 2010; Glathorn, 2000; Glathorn et al., 2009; Goodlad et al., 1979). Such an understanding of curriculum-making provides space for the active role of less visible actors such as teachers and students in the realization of any curricular change, on account of the fact that multiple levels of curriculum-making starts with the prescription of desired instruction and move towards the realized instruction in the classroom. Therefore, multiple levels of curriculum-making involve strands such as operational curriculum (Goodlad et al., 1979) and/or taught and learned curriculum (Glatthorn, 2000) in an attempt to shed light on the classroom curriculum-making.

More recently, the enacted curriculum has been slightly differentiated from the taught curriculum (see, e.g., Remillard & Heck, 2014; Doyle, 1992a, 1992b, as cited in Deng, 2010) grounding on the idea that what the teacher intends for

instruction and how instruction is realized in practice differs as students' behaviors, manners and attitudes influence the classroom level realization of the curriculum. Drawing on this more recent understanding of curriculum-making at multiple levels and the increasing importance given to the roles of teachers and students as well as the increasing attention to the classroom level practice, a study investigating characteristics of intended and realized instruction from top to down should follow the same path in order to pay more attention to the voice of less visible actors of the program, i.e., teachers and students. However, Doyle (1992a) argues the preoccupation of curriculum field with themes of innovation and change; for the reason that changing the buildings and teachers are difficult and more expensive than the curriculum itself in order for the governments respond to the social demands and political circumstances. A similar aspect might be observed within the present context involving so many educational reforms in general and curriculum development initiatives for teaching EFL in particular, yet the scarcity of research examining the impact of these initiatives on the micro-spaces of the policy which are the schools and the EFL classrooms has been high on the agenda.

Exploring the policy in practice for teaching EFL necessitates a brief review of historical background on language teaching methodology. Within the history of language teaching, there occurred some factors influencing the rise of new approaches and methods. Starting with the World War II, the need for teaching oral skills in foreign languages emerged. This was followed by some other factors such as immigration and internalization of education in 1950s which also resulted in new types of language programs. More recently, globalization, the rise in the use of Internet, and English as a global language perspective has created a new demand for reconsidering the existing policies and practices for language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Long, 2015). It is without doubt that a fine working system of LEP must reflect rising trends with respect to approaches and methods in language teaching. In the history of language teaching methodology, there are a few prominent approaches and methods as: i) Audiolingual Methodology (ALM), ii) Communicative Language Teaching

(CLT), iii) Post-communicative Period—Eclecticism and Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), iv) Post-Method Pedagogy (see, e.g., Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Tejada Molina, Perez-Canado, & Luque Agullo, 2005).

Dating back to the Second World War, Audiolingualism was one of the most influential methodologies in language teaching. It was followed by CLT which was a principled response to the failure of ALM (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Although CLT received much attention and accepted by various agents, i.e., government authorities, textbook writers and teachers, perhaps Swan (1985a, 1985b) was the first who criticized CLT methodology.

The criticisms toward CLT continued for a long time and resulted in the post-communicative period, i.e. eclecticism. In simple terms, eclecticism refers to choosing among various methods, yet there were some opponents of the idea mainly because there were not clear cut principles to characterize it (Johnson & Johnson, 1999; Long, 2015). Rodgers (2001) introduced "Disciplined Eclecticism" which refers to an instructional program emerging as a result of the mixture of elements from several methods, in that practices from different approaches are combined, yet their philosophical foundations are still similar. The second and more recent school of thought which is based on the Communicative Methodology is the TBLT. It has been identified as "an attempt to respond to the growing demand for accountable communicative LT [language teaching] programs designed for learners with real-world needs for functional L2 abilities" (Long, 2015, p. xii). Similar to eclecticism, TBLT is conceptualized as being independent from a specific method; rather the idea is the use of different methods in order to fulfill tasks with different learning outcomes. These might be language-centered tasks i.e., grammar, and/or learning-centered tasks (e.g., problem-solving tasks) and so forth (Kumaravadivelu, 1993, 2006).

Perhaps such conceptualizations of language teaching methodology free from a certain method resulted in the shift from method-based to post-method pedagogy

(Kumaravadivelu, 2006) which can be accepted as the most recent trend in the area of language teaching methodology. While CLT and its extension TBLT have been high on the agenda due perhaps to the importance given the communicative approach, the post-method condition introduced a different perspective. In other words, the communicative approach is found to be culture-bound, and so reflect assumptions of teaching and learning dominant in Western cultures. These Western methods (e.g., CLT) are criticized for being guided by "one-size-fits-all-cookie-cutter approach," assuming common clientele with common goals (Kumaravadivelu, 2003). Such a radical criticism of the methods introduced alternative ways of understanding the nature of language teaching, which resulted in a kind of attention shift from methods and approaches to the language teacher. However, while a top-down approach to learning and teaching is supposed in the methodology route (Rodgers, 1990), the post-method condition implies a more bottom-up approach which strengthens the teacher as the decision maker in the teaching and learning practices according to the localized needs of the context (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

Research on policymaking has always laid emphasis on the need for understanding the connections between macro and micro dimensions of language use as long as language policy implementation is concerned (Hult, 2010; Johnson, 2009b, 2010; Ricento, 2000). In other words, of particular importance in LPP research is the connection between macro policy and its micro-level practice. However, research on LPP has also pointed out the discrepancy between what is desired at the macro level and what is realized within the micro space of the policy (Liddicoat, 2014; Gafaranga & Niyomugabo, 2013; Mortimer, 2013; Valdiviezo, 2013; Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). Kırkgöz (2007a) assumes an indispensable gap between the top-down policies and their practice within the context of centralized education systems. From this perspective, a close examination for the alignment of FLE policy for teaching EFL with its practice in a public high school is crucial. Exploring the alignment between policy and practice may help to highlight the difficulty of policy implementation in centralized education systems and the significance of well-

aligned language teaching programs to prepare young individuals for their future careers.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Considering the realities of a centralized education system and the dominant instructional practices of the EFL teachers in Turkey (see Chapter 2), findings of a study investigating the congruence between policy and practice might reveal expected results, i.e., the incongruence between desired and realized instruction. Also, the possibility of employing post-method pedagogy in such a centralized education system can be questioned given the fact that almost all the decisions about the FLE programs (e.g., the syllabus, instructional materials, course hours, assessment practices, etc.) at state schools are made by the MNE. Though being constrained within the structure of a centralized education system, language teaching practices might well be reconstructed inside the foreign language classrooms by language teachers and their students as the actors of the program.

Therefore, this study aims to provide an in-depth analysis of the desired and realized instructional practices for EFL within different domains of the FLE policy developed for upper secondary education in Turkey. In other words, the present study explores the alignment of EFL instruction at micro level to macro level policies as well as the prescriptions of the educational program. To be more precise, firstly, this study aims to investigate characteristics of instruction desired by the government authorities which are pronounced in explicit instructional policy documents. Secondly, the study aims to analyze characteristics of instruction prescribed by the policy instruments as these documents reflect the viewpoints of the educational authorities for desired instruction in teaching EFL at junior year (grade 11) classes of public high schools. Thirdly, the present study aims to provide a closer look at what happens in day to day realities of EFL classes at junior year (grade 11). The study also brings the voices of the teachers and the students as the main actors of the program.

In conclusion, this study lies at a three-way intersection in order to elaborate policy-making and practice for teaching EFL at public high schools; LPP in general and LEP in particular forms the first way while levels of curriculum making is the second, and language teaching methodology is the third. Within such a centralized education system, characteristics of desired instruction for teaching EFL at all levels are developed by the policy makers and ministerial bodies in Turkey. These characteristics identify how an effective teaching should be like. Although English has long been the first compulsory foreign language taught at upper secondary level, there is no arrangement for examining if the program employs language teaching with the characteristics desired at the macro level or if the instruction desired at the macro level appropriate for the recent trends in language teaching methodology. To sum up, to ensure that an instructional program reaches its aims, strong alignment between policy and its practice is necessary.

1.3. Research Questions

With these purposes in mind, this case study aims to answer the following overarching research question with its sub-questions:

How does the implementation of instructional policy at a public high school align with the instruction outlined for English language education at the policy documents and instruments?

> 1) What instructional characteristics are specified by the policy documents (namely, Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education)?

2) What are the main characteristics of instruction for teaching English as a foreign language as specified by the policy instruments (namely Official Bulletin of MNE, 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, English Curriculum for Grade 11, The Instructional Material "Sunshine English 11")?

3) How does the instructional policy developed for teaching English as a foreign language realize at a public high school in Turkey?

    i. What are the instructional practices of the teachers in EFL classroom?

    ii. How do language learners experience the instructional policy in EFL classroom?

1.4. Significance of the Study

Globalization and technological innovation change the world, pushing many nation-states to desire effective change in education (OECD, 2019). For this reason, a series of education reforms and policy initiatives are introduced from time to time. However, due mainly to less attention paid to the implementation aspect, these initiatives fail to live up to reality (OECD, 2019). Poor alignment is also among other factors preventing policies from reaching the schools (OECD, 2019). Therefore, studying policy in practice would provide direct attention to the implementation aspect, and such a study would contribute to an increase in interventions that are better aligned with the realities of an instructional program in general. In this sense, this study will be noteworthy in the following ways.

First of all, the present study investigates features of desired instruction for FLE at public high schools expressed in macro policy documents. On the other hand, Liddicoat (2014) drew attention to the main characteristics of language-in-education policies from the perspective of pedagogy, and he claimed that

pedagogy is not viewed as a problem to be resolved, but rather focusing on reform aspects of language education such as changing curriculum and materials have always been the matter of interest. Even though there are some studies examining macro-level language policy initiatives in the local context (see, e.g., Kırkgöz, 2009; Köksal & Şahin, 2012; Seyratlı-Özkan, Karataş & Gülşen, 2016), a detailed analysis of these documents with specific reference to policies influencing EFL instruction at upper secondary education is not available in Turkey. Therefore, this study contributes to the literature on LPP research both in the national and international arena by exploring characteristics of desired instruction for FLE in explicit policy documents.

In the local literature on LPP, Kırkgöz (2009) called for the analysis of official documents to reveal the macro-level policy decisions and to use survey findings to disclose the policy in practice. In line with this request, in the current study, official policy documents are analyzed to demonstrate instructional features desired as part of FLE; however, the present study deserves particular attention due mainly to the analysis of policy instruments, which would be more effective in exploring desired instruction for teaching EFL at public high schools. Going further, the study adopted the approach that the best way to demonstrate the policy in practice would be possible via the analysis of classroom observations and interviews with the program actors rather than making use of survey findings. From this perspective, this study also fills the gap in the national context by presenting classroom-level practice of the policy.

On a more recent scholarship on educational policy implementation, a two-fold mission of the researcher is required to uncover what works, for whom, and under what conditions (Honig, 2006; Cohen-Vogel et al., 2015). Unlike traditional research on implementation, there is a desire for the researcher to be actively involved in the implementation process while simultaneously studying it (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2015). On account of the fact that being an active member of the institution will reveal much more than "a description of conventional systems" (Rampton, 2007, p. 591). In this respect, the present study will be a

much-needed addition to the policy implementation knowledge base. The researcher of this study had been an active member of the institution for five years when the data collection procedure started. Moreover, the researcher did not only investigate classroom-level instruction in junior year classes (grade 11) but also taught English in one of the junior-year classes in order to understand the implementation process better.

Another significance of the study stems from its conceptualization of the curriculum. Rather than a single document drawn by different stakeholders such as the teachers and material writers, this study aims to shed light on different levels of curriculum-making. Not only the teachers but also the students are identified as the actors within the curriculum-making procedure, and so the realization of LPP at the micro-level. The researcher believes that such an aspect would reflect the realized instruction in EFL classes better than the previous studies using teachers' perceptions (see, e.g., İnceçay, 2012; Wang, 2008; Şahin, 2013) or practices (see, e.g., Kırkgöz, 2008; Yeni-Palabıyık & Daloğlu, 2016) as the sole data source.

Therefore, this research study is also significant in its attempt to hear the voices of the less visible actors of the LPP, i.e., the language learners. There has been a gap in focusing on language learners. With the sociocultural turn, language teacher education has shifted its emphasis on the learner in the 1970s and 1980s to teacher cognition and teacher-learning (Johnson, 2006). However, Ellis (2009) criticizes this view by noting that teaching and teachers can never be effectively understood without exploring learners and learning. From this perspective, this study can indirectly contribute to teacher education research via its close reference to language learning and learners. Besides, the late Prof. Dr. Cem Alptekin called for research on language learners in local context due mainly to the huge amount of research on various aspects of teacher education such as pre-service teacher education, in-service teacher training, and novice teachers (B. Eroz, personal communication, October 13, 2015). Though a substantial proportion of research on EFL learning and teaching has been reported to be

conducted in the local context, there appears a lack of research investigating the experiences of language learners in terms of the classroom-level realization of curriculum and so the realization of language education policy (see, e.g., Alptekin & Tatar, 2011; Aydınlı & Ortaçtepe, 2018).

As discussed in the later sections, the current study draws on diverse lines of research to introduce a conceptual framework that would provide a better explanation for a top-down policy in practice. Such a frame currently does not exist in Turkey. Even though some theoretical ideas are developed to study policy in some countries such as the USA and Australia, the model introduced in this study provides the first step in developing a framework to study policy and practice within a centrally designed education context in Turkey.

This study investigates policy and practice relation in terms of EFL instruction in upper secondary education. Herein lays the most crucial significance of the study, mainly because this research attempts to analyze the congruence among macro-level policy decisions for instruction, their prescription at instructional policy instruments, and classroom-level realization of instruction via hand in hand practices of teachers and students in the EFL classes. To that end, the study will contribute to exploring how EFL instruction executed at a public high school is congruent with the intended instruction defined in macro policy documents and instruments for curriculum implementation (i.e., curriculum guide and instructional materials).

Many scholars have identified the need for coherent policies in an attempt to achieve better student outcomes as a result of the implementation of an instructional program (Coburn, Hill & Spillane, 2016; Cohen-Vogel, Sadler, Little & Merrill, 2020; Mohamud & Fleck, 2010; Polikoff, 2012; Raselimo & Thamae, 2018; Troia et al., 2016; Troia et al., 2018). In education policy implementation scholarship, classroom instruction is put at the epicenter of student learning. Thereafter, all the decisions and instruments are developed to enrich the outcomes of student learning. In this sense, the importance of local

context and the interaction between policies, people, and the places have been received attention to providing program effectiveness in implementation research (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2015; Honig, 2006).

Bearing on research suggesting the influence of other factors on teaching and learning practices more than the standards itself (see, e.g., Beck, 2007; Loveless, 2012), alignment studies have called for investigating the situated context in which the standards and/or prescriptions of policies are realized by considering several aspects such as the characteristics of teachers and classes, teachers' values, beliefs and interpretations, and even the sociopolitical and cultural factors (Beach, 2011, Cohen-Vogel et al., 2020; Troia et al., 2016). From this perspective, this study lies at the nexus of policies, people, and places to shed light on various factors that exert influence on the realization of instructional policy on the way from top to down.

When local and international literature on alignment is reviewed, it is seen that there is quantitative orientation in the area of international studies on alignment (Edgerton, Desimone, & Yang, 2017; Mack-Stephenson, 2015; Polikoff & Porter, 2014; Polikoff, 2012; Suwarno, 2011). Though there appears a trend towards qualitative orientation by collecting data through interviews with various stakeholders (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2020; Cooper, 2020; Spillane, 1999; VanDerStuyf, 2020; Vera, 2019), the main concern in alignment research still emphasizes the extent to which implementation of the policy is associated with the idealized policy arguments. In the end, the results of these studies mainly show weak associations (Atta, 2015; Cohen-Vogel et al., 2020; Polikoff & Porter, 2014; Porter, McMaken, Hwang & Yang, 2011; Spillane, 1999; Troia et al., 2018; Vera, 2019). In this respect, this research is significant because its concern is not the extent to which policy implementation is aligned with the policy claims. Instead, it is concerned with the way policy is realized in its context and how this realized instruction is associated with the characteristics of instruction intended for teaching EFL at the policy documents and instruments. Therefore, rather than pointing out misalignment between the intended and

realized instruction, this study attempts to reveal how this weak alignment appears on the way from top to down.

Searches in the YÖK National Dissertation Search Engine and Google scholar database on instructional policy alignment in K-12 education programs found no thesis or peer-reviewed articles that discussed the link between macro policy and micro implementation for teaching EFL in the local context. Instead, research on alignment in the local context has mainly focused on the coherence between curriculum and instruction (Aksoy, 2020; An, 2020; Karabacak, 2018), or there is some research investigating coherence between supra-national policy documents (i.e., Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) and instructional policy instruments (Fişne, Güngör, Guerra & Gonçalves, 2018). In other words, how the language teaching and learning practices for EFL are taken place in the state schools and if this instruction matches with the characteristics of instruction prescribed within policy documents remain a mystery. From this perspective, in the local literature, there is a need for an in-depth analysis on the coherence between the macro-level FLE policies for teaching EFL and their realization at micro-level language teaching and learning. Therefore, this research will be a pioneer study to serve FLE in Turkey by portraying an instructional policy's journey from top to down until it realizes in the life of individual students. Grounding on all these factors, this study is claimed to be significant both theoretically and practically.

1.5. Definition of Key Terms

The terms explained below are used in this study. They are defined in relation to the purpose of the study:

Instructional Policy: It refers to educational policies developed to improve classroom-level instruction; these include the content and manner of the instruction such as the themes chosen for teaching, particular pedagogies,

approaches, and methods recommended for the teaching of the content as well as types of assessment to determine student mastery of the content.

Policy Implementation: It involves the application of policy decisions and the use of policy instruments such as curriculum and syllabus at schools and inside the classrooms by the actors such as teachers.

Alignment: Coherence between policy and practice, it is the desired connection between the main components of language education, especially among different types of curriculum such as written, taught, learned and assessed.

Policy documents: It refers to any document which is prepared by the educational reformers in order to design teaching and learning practices at educational institutions. Policy documents in this research includes Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act (1983, 2018), Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education (2006, 2009), Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions (2013-2017), Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education (2017).

Policy Instruments: These include instructional policy instruments in order to reflect macro policy aims and goals in classroom level practice. In this study, Official Bulletin of MNE (2015-2017), English Language Teaching Curriculum for Upper Secondary Education (2014), Curriculum for Teaching English at Grade 11 Classes (2014) and Instructional Material "Sunshine English 11" (2017) form the policy instruments.

Public High School: It is the upper secondary state school which provides education for four years after the middle school.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of the literature review is to present a summary of the literature that sets the background of the study. In this regard, firstly, the historical background of the structure of the K-12 education system in Turkey, with a particular focus on upper secondary education, is reviewed. Secondly, how the concept of alignment is defined in different studies by different researchers is reported; also, what instructional policy alignment means is explained briefly. Thirdly, the conceptual framework of the study, which incorporates multiple levels of the LPP framework and curriculum-making, is presented. After that, an overview of language teaching methodology, focusing on current trends in teaching English, is provided. In the last part of the chapter, a review of research studies on LPP and alignment, as well as FLE policy in Turkey is shown.

2.1. The Structure of K-12 Education System in Turkey

Education has always had an important role in the modernization and development of the Turkish society. During the Ottoman Empire, primary and secondary education first became possible for the civilian community through the establishment of Secondary Schools called *Rüşidiye* in the 19th century (MEB, 2012a). With the foundation of the Republic of Turkey in 1923, education underwent a significant change as in all other fields in the country. With the act of "The Law for the Unification of Education" in 1924, all schools were united under the Ministry of Education. This meant the centralization of the Turkish education system. Therefore, the Ministry of Education became the major decision-maker in regard to policy-making, administrative duties (e.g., the appointment of teachers), as well as designing the national curriculum and

selecting the textbooks that will be used in state schools. With this act, the five-year primary school also became compulsory.

In 1973, another major reform was initiated regarding the Turkish education system; "The Basic Law of National Education," numbered 1789, was put into use. This act specifies the objectives and basic principles of Turkish national education as well as the general structure of the education system. In this respect, the Turkish national education system involves two main divisions: formal and non-formal education. Formal education includes all stages of schooling from pre-school to higher education. In other words, the schooling process in the Turkish education system is composed of pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education, and higher education. Non-formal education refers to all the educational practices that are organized together with or without formal education. These can be literacy courses designed for adults, vocational courses as well as in-service training for people working in different occupations.

Primary education reform was released in 1997. As aforementioned, this reform extended primary education from five to eight years. Following the change in the structure of basic education, the need to change the curricula of the primary and secondary education levels was recognized. In 2005, curriculum development process was executed, reflecting a student-centered teaching model instead of the teacher-centered model. These new curricula were, in essence, put into practice to adopt European Union (EU) standards and reflect the educational perspective of the EU in the Turkish education system (OECD, 2005).

The education system in Turkey has experienced another major change in 2012. As noted above, this so-called "4+4+4" education reform has extended compulsory education from eight to twelve years. Therefore, the structure of the K-12 education system is composed of three divisions: four years of primary education, four years of lower secondary education, and four years of upper secondary education (MEB, 2012b). Currently, lower secondary education

institutions are composed of general education middle school and Imam Hatip middle school (i.e., a religious vocational middle school). As for upper secondary education, another two-division structure is in hand: 1) general upper secondary education programmes, 2) vocational and technical upper secondary education programmes (OECD, 2020). The former involves academic high schools, such as Anatolian high schools, sciences high school, and social sciences high school. The latter involves high schools introducing vocational and technical education in several fields (e.g., health, mechanics, etc.). Apart from these, special needs education programmes are also available all through the compulsory education period (OECD, 2020).

2.1.1. The System of General Upper Secondary Education Programmes in Turkey

General high schools are the first upper secondary education institutions of the Republic Era (Türk, 2015). According to the "The Basic Law of National Education" numbered 1789, the aim of upper secondary education is to equip young individuals of the country with minimum general cultural knowledge, educate them as someone who is aware of the problems of the country and contributes to the country's economic, social, and cultural development, as well as preparing students for higher education programs (Official Gazette, 1973). Because the current study explores the implementation of the instructional policy in a general upper secondary education institution, a brief explanation about the historical background of these schools is provided.

In the school year 1954-1955, the Ministry of Education, named then "Maarif Vekaleti," decided to establish schools that would provide education in the foreign language and become an alternative to the foreign schools in the country. Based on this decision, four schools were established in four different cities of the country (Çetintaş & Genç, 2001). Because these schools were established specifically by the Ministry of Education (i.e., Maarif Vekaleti), they were named "Maarif Colleges" (Türk, 2015).

In 1974, these schools were re-named as "Anatolian High School." Because they were appreciated by society, the number of these schools was increased as the years passed (Erdoğan, 2000). Anatolian high schools provided seven years of education, including prep school, three years of middle school, and another three years of high school education. To enroll in these schools, students needed to sit for the secondary education examination after primary school and achieve success (Official Gazette, 1993). However, the middle school division of these schools was abolished with the 1997 education reform which extended compulsory education from five to eight years (Çetintaş & Genç, 2001).

Another regulation was introduced in 2005. With the purpose of restructuring secondary education, prep school education in Anatolian high schools was removed. Therefore, the education period was extended from three to four years in all the general, vocational, and technical upper secondary education programs starting from the 2005-2006 school year (Türk, 2015). In 2010, MNE published a circular that announced a gradual conversion of all the general high schools to Anatolian high schools (MEB, 2010). In this regard, all general high schools were converted into Anatolian high schools until 2013.

More recently, another significant change has been announced about the system of Anatolian high schools. As mentioned above, students had to sit for the upper secondary education examination in order to enroll in these schools. According to the regulation issued in the Official Gazette dated 14.02.2018, numbered 30332, Anatolian high schools were not included in the category of schools that accept students with central examination scores. Since then, students have been enrolling in Anatolian high schools with the rank order based on their middle school achievement score.

2.1.2. Foreign Language Education in Anatolian High Schools

Because Anatolian high schools were established to provide foreign language education, students enrolled in these schools received foreign language classes

throughout their education period. Before the 1997 reform, there were 24 hours of foreign language course per week in the prep class, and then students received foreign language courses in each grade for six years until they graduated from the school. English was the most widely taught foreign language in these schools; also, a few schools provided FLE in German and French (Çetintaş & Genç, 2001).

The aim of FLE in Anatolian high schools was to increase students' language proficiency level so that they could follow math and sciences classes which would be taught in the foreign language (e.g., English) (Coşkun-Demirpolat, 2015). Although the students received English-medium instruction in these classes, they sat for examinations of these classes in Turkish. Therefore, English-medium instruction for math and sciences classes was removed to a large extent with regulations made in 1999 and 2004 (Şahin, 2013).

Following the 1997 reform, the structure of Anatolian high schools changed; the middle schools were abolished, so the students were able to start prep class before the upper secondary education. With this change, Anatolian high schools became upper secondary education institutions providing four years of education with one-year prep class (Çetintaş & Genç, 2001). According to the regulation approved on 19.08.1998 issued in the Official Bulletin of MNE dated September 1998 numbered 2492, course hours for the foreign language class in Anatolian high schools was decided to be 24 hours per week during prep class, eight hours per week in grade nine, and four hours per week in grades ten and eleven.

As mentioned above, prep class in Anatolian high schools, excluding a few well-established schools was abolished in 2005. The general aim of removing prep class in Anatolian high schools was to spread FLE over four years of upper secondary education (Coşkun-Demirpolat, 2015). On the other hand, several changes have been made in the course hours of the foreign language class following this regulation. In this regard, the August issue of the Official Bulletin published in 2005 provided weekly course hours for upper secondary education

institutions. It was announced that starting from the 2005-2006 school year, weekly course hours for the foreign language class was decided to be ten hours per week for grade nine and four hours per week for grades 10, 11, and 12. In addition to that, two hours of the elective foreign language class were added to the curricula of grades 10, 11, and 12. Another change was made in the year 2010 and announced in the August issue of the Official Bulletin. According to this regulation, weekly course hours for the foreign language class were lessened from ten to six hours per week in grade nine, yet two hours of elective foreign language class was added to the program of grade nine.

More recently, one last change has been made in the weekly course hours, and the foreign language class was reduced from six hours to four per week in grade nine, which was announced in the June issue of the Official Bulletin published in 2017. Since then, there have been foreign language class in all grades of Anatolian high schools for four hours per week; also, elective foreign language class has been provided in all grades for two hours per week. At present, two different foreign languages (i.e., English and German) for six hours per week are available in the curricula of Anatolian high schools.

2.1.3. English Language Teaching in Anatolian High Schools

In the history of Turkish education, Anatolian high schools have always been well-known for instructing FLE, especially English. In this regard, several curricula were prepared by the MNE in order for the teaching of English in these schools. As this study was conducted at a general upper secondary education institution which was converted to Anatolian high school with the circular announced in 2010, English Language Teaching (ELT) programs that were published in the years 2011, 2014, and 2018 were reviewed briefly. In this way, the main features of teaching English in Anatolian high schools currently can be displayed.

In 2011, the ELT curriculum for different types of high schools (e.g., general high school, Anatolian high school, vocational and technical high school, etc.) was prepared. Similar to the previous curricula, this curriculum was prepared according to the principles of The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). That is to say, the proficiency levels of the students were determined according to the CEFR levels as Basic User (A1-A2), Independent User (B1-B2), and Proficient User (C1-C2). As regards to the main features of the 2011 curriculum, the communicative approach, as well as four language skills and the learner-centered teaching, were identified. The role of the teacher was pointed out as a guide, and so teachers were expected to monitor students in their language learning procedure. Concerning assessment and evaluation practices, not only the product but also the process of assessment was emphasized. Therefore, performance-based assessment tools such as portfolio, self-assessment, and peer evaluation were incorporated into the program in addition to the traditional assessment tools (MEB, 2011).

Another curriculum was published in 2014; this curriculum, in essence, was prepared as a continuation of the ELT curriculum prepared for grades 2-8 in 2013. Due to the 4+4+4 education reform, ELT curricula for primary and secondary education were revised. Similar to the previous curriculum, CEFR principles such as the communicative functions and the proficiency levels were incorporated into the design of the teaching program. This curriculum embraced an eclectic approach and learner-centered approach. In this regard, both traditional and alternative assessment tools were suggested to be used to assess student learning. In addition, several different language teaching methods were acknowledged in teaching English. There was an emphasis on using technology in EFL classes; therefore, several tools such as blogs and chats were suggested to teach English (MEB, 2014). A detailed analysis of the main characteristics of instruction promoted in this curriculum is reported in the results chapter of this dissertation (see Chapter 4).

More recently, one last ELT curriculum for upper secondary education was published in 2018. This curriculum has similar characteristics to the previous curricula published in 2011 and 2014. That is to say, the principles of CEFR, an eclectic approach, and the learner-centered approach were embraced in teaching English. Different than the previous curricula, a special division for "ethics and values education" is provided. In this regard, what kind of values can be incorporated into the teaching and learning practices and how they can be promoted in EFL classes are explained. The emphasis laid on using technology in EFL classes was preserved, as well (MEB, 2018a).

2.1.4. Relation between Policy and Practice in English Language Teaching in Turkey

Turkey has adjusted its language teaching policies several times as a result of globalization and the spread of English as an international language. As this study investigates policy and practice relation in teaching EFL, a brief review of macro policy changes and their micro-level implementation within the history of Turkish education is provided in this part of the dissertation. In this respect, research conducted on the implementation of the curriculum innovations can be categorized according to primary education, lower secondary education, and upper secondary education.

Concerning primary education, there appear three crucial curriculum innovations in the years 1997, 2006, and 2013. As reported above, the 1997 reform united primary and secondary education, so compulsory education was extended from five to eight years. With regard to teaching English, that reform resulted in lowering the starting age for learning a foreign language. Therefore, EFL instruction started in grades four and five in primary school. In addition, the new curriculum embraced several encouraging features such as student-centered learning, promoting communication skills, and addressing students' different learning styles (Kırkgöz, 2005).

On the other hand, there appeared several challenges in the implementation phase of this curriculum. Research on the implementation of the 1997 primary education reform in the young learners' classes reported some drawbacks and problems (İnceçay, 2012; Kırkgöz, 2006, 2007a, 2008). A study by Kırkgöz (2006) reported teachers using teacher-centered instruction through the grammar-translation method as the dominant method of teaching in the young learners' classes, although the curriculum prescribed communicative objectives and teaching grammar through games. Kırkgöz (2006) further explained the teachers' lack of methodological knowledge in teaching young learners due to the teacher education programs they graduated from did not involve a subject-specific course for teaching young learners. Another study by Kırkgöz (2007a) indicated that lack of authentic content in the textbooks to promote communication in the classroom, insufficient teaching time allocated for EFL (i.e., two hours per week for grades four and five), and large classes (i.e., 40-50 students per class) debilitated the implementation of the curriculum at the micro-level. Furthermore, some contextual factors were posing a challenge in the successful implementation of the teaching program; in particular, lack of infrastructure in primary schools was reported to cause problems (Kırkgöz, 2008). In addition to the insufficiency in the necessary equipment, İnceçay (2012) identified a lack of support from policymakers, school administration, and colleagues among the challenges in implementing the language education policy at the primary education.

Because the ELT curriculum prepared in 1997 was the first teaching program which mentioned the communicative approach, it was identified as a hallmark in the history of Turkish education in terms of teaching English (Kırkgöz, 2005). Several studies on implementing this curriculum revealed challenges and problems, some of which were reported above; therefore, MNE decided to launch another curriculum reform for primary education (Zehir-Topkaya & Küçük, 2010). In 2006, a new ELT curriculum was designed which embraced the constructivist learning approach. In this approach, students are expected to engage in the learning process and construct the knowledge they learn rather

than being passive recipients of the knowledge (Perkins, 1991). In the implementation of this curriculum, similar problems and challenges emerged. Zehir-Topkaya and Küçük (2010) noted problems encountered in the young learners' classes, which were large classes, insufficient time allocated for teaching English as well as lack of resources such as CDs, photocopiable materials, and tape recorders.

In 2013, one more ELT curriculum for primary education was launched due to the 4+4+4 education reform. As noted earlier, teaching English in primary education was lowered to grades two and three with this reform. Therefore, a new curriculum was prepared and published in 2013. Regarding the philosophy, this curriculum was similar to the previous ones as it promoted communication in English and learner-centered teaching. Karabacak (2018) investigated alignment between the official curriculum and the taught curriculum; insufficient materials and equipment, teachers' competencies and beliefs were found to be among the challenges causing failure in the successful implementation of the curriculum.

With respect to the implementation of the ELT curriculum in middle school classes, similar problems were notified, causing a gap between policy and practice. Yanık-Ersen (2007) pointed out the lack of materials and resources and the classroom environment as problems encountered in implementing the ELT curriculum in middle school grades six, seven, and eight classes. In another study that focused on implementing the ELT curriculum in grade eight classes only, secondary education examination, which students sit for after graduating from middle school, was found to be among the factors debilitating implementation of the curriculum (Dönmez-Günal & Engin-Demir, 2012). More recently, Akyol (2021) has reviewed theses investigating the implementation of the ELT curriculum in middle school classes. A detailed analysis of 13 theses revealed that although teachers were aware of the language teaching approaches and methodologies embraced in the curriculum, they still preferred the traditional transmissive teaching mode in their classroom-level practices (Akyol, 2021). In

this respect, it has been displayed that the gap between what is intended in the policy documents and what is actually realized in the classroom is still valid for teaching EFL in the middle school context, as well.

Another domain investigated as part of the policy and practice gap in teaching EFL in Turkey is upper secondary education. Although there was not much focus on investigating the implementation of the ELT curriculum within the upper secondary education classes in the previous years (Kırkgöz, 2010), research on this area seems to have gained momentum in recent years. Several studies were conducted within different contexts as the one-year preparatory program in Anatolian high schools (Kırkgöz, 2010), ELT program for the foreign language field of study classes (Bakay & Saka, 2020), state and private high schools (Bümen & Yazıcılar, 2020), and grade nine EFL classes (Denkci-Akkas & Coker, 2016).

Regarding the implementation of the preparatory program in Anatolian high schools, Kırkgöz (2010) reported that the majority of the teachers and students did not believe that students achieved sufficient proficiency when they finished the preparatory program. For Kırkgöz (2010), this finding suggested that the curriculum was ineffective in providing quality education. Bakay and Saka (2020) have explored the implementation of the curriculum in the foreign language field of study classes of Anatolian high schools and reported the university entrance examination as a barrier to successfully implementing the curriculum in this context. By comparing ELT curriculum implementation in public and private high schools, Bümen and Yazıcılar (2020) conveyed the centralized education system and the degree of flexibility given teachers in their teaching context as factors influencing teachers' implementation of the curriculum. Another study was conducted to explore how the communicative approach was used in grade nine classes, and findings indicated variety in teachers' classroom-level practices (Denkci-Akkas & Coker, 2016). Unfortunately, this study showed that teachers' classroom-level practices were

not satisfactory concerning the use of the communicative approach in EFL classes.

In brief, the investigations mentioned above revealed policy and practice gaps for teaching English in Turkish education. Research in the local context also pointed out several reasons for the failure of classroom-level practices. Much of these studies also emphasized providing professional support and training of EFL teachers (Akyol, 2021; Denkci-Akkas & Coker, 2016; Kırkgöz, 2010) in order for them to employ desired language methods and techniques in EFL classes. In this respect, this chapter provides a brief review of approaches and methods in language teaching, as well.

2.2. Defining Alignment

In the literature, there are various definitions of the concept of alignment. Research on several grounds defines alignment in different ways; it is described as an organizational issue in some studies while it refers to the agreement among different components of the educational program in some others. This part of the dissertation briefly reviews varying definitions of alignment.

In simple terms, alignment refers to the degree of consistency between policies within a grade level as well as across grade levels (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2020). To clarify, a similar definition was proposed by Newmann, Smith, Allensworth, and Bryk (2001) as "the sensible connections and coordination between the topics that students study in each subject within a grade and as they advance through the grades" (p. 298). On the other hand, Bryk, Lee, and Holland (1993) propose alignment within the context of American catholic schools as an organizational issue, which requires a common culture of values, an articulated vision, and possessing an organizational focus.

Alignment as a term, in essence, dates back to Tyler (1949, as cited in Raselimo & Thamae, 2018), who argued for a strong link between curriculum objectives,

content, methods, and assessment. Anderson (2002) proposes a more general concept of alignment, including three crucial constructs: i) objectives, ii) assessments, and iii) instructional activities and materials. He further claims that alignment requires a strong association between these components on three grounds: "alignment between objectives and assessments, between objectives and instructional activities and materials, *and* between assessments and instructional activities and materials" (Anderson, 2002, p. 257 italics in original). Fonthal (2004) echoed a similar definition by noting the match among the components of an educational program; however, an instructional system is composed of five elements in this concept of alignment: "content standards, assessment, curriculum, professional development, and classroom practice" (p. 8).

More recently, Biggs and Tang (2011) have introduced the framework of "constructive alignment," which involves two principles as "a *constructivist* theory of learning, *alignment* between the intended learning outcomes of the course, the teaching/learning activities and the assessment tasks" (p. 95, italics in original). In other words, in addition to the concern for the agreement between different components of an educational system, constructivism as an approach is incorporated into the structure.

Although different definitions of the term alignment have evolved through the decades, in this study, alignment is viewed as the agreement between different components of an instructional system. These components involve the curriculum, intended learning outcomes, teaching and learning activities, assessment, materials so and so forth.

2.2.1. What Is Instructional Policy Alignment?

Given that coherence traditionally refers to the alignment between policy and practice (Honig & Hatch, 2004), research on educational policy implementation has always explored the degree of overlap between what is intended and realized

(see, e.g., Coburn et al., 2016; Mohamud & Fleck, 2010; Polikoff, 2012; Polikoff & Porter, 2014; Porter et al., 2011). Although the alignment of program components is investigated from different angles, the review of literature has indicated that there appears a lack of definition for what instructional policy alignment is. In simple terms, an instructional policy determines the content and manner of instruction (Lindsey, Mozer, Huggins, & Pashler, 2013). In other words, it refers to the attempts, regulations, and materials developed by government agencies in order to regulate classroom-level instructional practices.

Coburn et al. (2016) provide a detailed definition of the term "instructional policy" as "policies designed to influence some aspects of classroom instruction, including the content the teachers teach, acceptable levels of student mastery of this content and/or specific pedagogies and teaching methods for content" (p.244). Such an understanding of the instructional policy has guided the present study. In this regard, it can be remarked that instructional policies are developed at the macro level, and they are conveyed to the school actors (i.e., administrators and teachers) via documents and materials. School actors implement the policy according to these regulations and procedures.

Understanding instructional policy as something developed by the government authorities (i.e., policymakers) and implemented by the school actors (e.g., teachers) requires careful attention to the consistency between what is intended at the policy level and what is realized in the classroom. In the literature, alignment refers to the degree of overlap between different components of an educational program (Troia et al., 2016). In this regard, Honig and Hatch (2004) mention the association between curriculum, instruction, and assessment, while Mohamud and Fleck (2010) focus on the coherence between standards, instruction, and assessment. According to Polikoff (2012), when different components of an educational program are consistent with each other, instructional alignment increases.

In the present study, instructional policy alignment has been conceptualized as the consistency between what the policy speaks of and what is performed in the classroom. That is to say, considering that instructional policies are developed to guide classroom instruction, the policies developed at the top are desired to be implemented and/or appropriated at the bottom (i.e., the classroom). In brief, instructional policy alignment as a construct refers to the overlap between policy and practice in this study.

2.3. Conceptual Framework

In this study, the study of LPP at several levels; i.e. macro, meso, and micro provided the theoretical lens (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). To understand the relationship between the macro and micro language planning in terms of instructional policy construction, multiplicity in decision-making procedure for curriculum-making was reviewed (Glatthorn, 2000; Goodlad et al., 1979).

2.3.1. Macro vs Micro Language Planning

In their seminal work *Language Planning from Practice to Theory*, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) criticized the frameworks developed in the area of LPP with overwhelming attention given to the language planning issues at the macro-level. Building on this aspect, the authors pointed to the manifestation of language planning at three levels: macro, meso and micro (1997:52). On a similar line with this claim, the shift from dominance of macro-level study of LPP to several levels has resulted in the consideration of local agency in the execution of LPP (Bladauf, 2008; Liddicoat & Taylor-Leech, 2014).

Due perhaps to the critical turn in the area of LPP studies ever since 1990s (see, e.g., Ricento & Hornberger, 1996; Ricento, 2006; Hornberger, 2006; Hornberger & Johnson, 2007), the concept of agency gained importance. In particular, the issue of agency seemed to receive more attention in the area of micro language planning studies; to illustrate, Ricento and Hornberger's (1996) well-known

metaphor "LPP onion" viewed teachers as the central agents in the development of language policy. With regard to the crucial aspect of agency in LPP, Baldauf (2008) posed a question to indicate the main difference between the classical LPP and the one with critical focus: "are those involved in small-scale (micro) language planning work implementers or actively involved in the planning process?" (p. 25). At this juncture, Baldauf (2008) described classical LPP studies as those with traditional top-down approach and classified them as "implementation studies" which he defined as the macro-level planning and its micro-level implementation.

In terms of the characteristics of top-down policy and planning, Baldauf (2008) identified the central government education agencies as the authority in making policy and teachers as the implementers of this policy. In such policy-making, instructional materials like the syllabus and the textbooks are created centrally and as a result, the students use these common materials, and the teachers are required to strictly follow the centrally-designed syllabus in their instruction (Baldauf, 2006, 2008).

Although 'implementation studies' are mainly concerned with the impact of macro policy on micro situations by assuming the presence of sole agency in the macro-level, Baldauf (2008) reviewed a few studies examining resistance towards macro level policy implementation in the micro-space and concluded that "some of agency" is taken by the micro-level actors, and even sometimes they are urged to do so for the reason that some cutoffs occur in the execution of top-down policies.

In order to provide effective implementation of a policy or achieving the language planning goals, the hand-in-hand study of macro and micro planning was suggested (Baldauf, 2008; Chua, 2008; Chua & Baldauf, 2011). In this regard, Baldauf (2008) viewed micro-level planning as a prerequisite for macro-level language planning especially for the implementation of the policy and responding to the local needs that emerge. More importantly, Chua (2008)

viewed macro and micro planning as interdependent processes; she featured macro-level as the texts that are created to implement explicit programs operating at a national level while the micro planning runs at an individual level and concerns the actual implementation of the policy. In the more recent past, Chua and Baldauf (2011) developed a framework to conceptualize the relationships between the macro and micro language planning. In doing so, the authors remarked the characteristics of macro planning with standardized results while the micro one involving diversified results. The authors further emphasized the congruence of macro and micro planning processes (Chua & Baldauf, 2011).

Taking the LPP perspective reviewed above, what is desired for an instructional policy is the harmony between the macro and micro levels. In other words, an instructional policy can be assumed to reach its aims as long as its macro and micro levels fit each other well. In this respect, policy actors possess different roles and responsibilities depending on the level of the policy. Among the policy actors, teachers and their students are the *sine qua non* of any educational policy including an instructional policy construction for FLE. Especially in centrally designed education systems, there is a need to hear the voices of local actors (i.e., language teachers and language learners) in order to better picturize the realization of LPP running at an institutional level (i.e., the schools) of educational policy. With this purpose in mind, multiplicity in decision-making process in curriculum planning is reviewed below.

2.3.2. Decision-making Process in Curriculum Levels

At a broader level, four levels of decision-making in curriculum planning have been identified (Glatthorn, 2000; Goodlad et al., 1979). Goodlad et al. (1979) put forward the need to study decision-making procedure for curriculum-making at all levels even when one branch of curriculum inquiry was under consideration. In doing so, Goodlad et al. (1979) identified *societal*, *institutional*, *instructional* and *personal* levels of curriculum decision-making. On a similar line, Glatthorn

(2000) identified *state, district, school* and *classroom* as the four curriculum levels; he further emphasized cooperation among these levels.

Simply put, *state functions* addressed the frameworks developed at the state level such as the laws, board goals and graduation requirements while *district functions* concerned the development and implementation of curriculum-related policies; preparing curriculum guides, and choosing instructional materials can be illustrated. *School functions* as the third level dealt with the implementation and the alignment of the curriculum, *classroom functions* as the last comprised of the enrichment of curriculum and developing units of study.

Building on the notion of multiplicity in decision-making procedure for curriculum-making, Goodlad et al. (1979) designed five domains of curricula as *ideological*, *formal*, *perceived*, *operational* and *experienced*. In line with this perspective, seven types of curricula as *recommended, written, supported, taught, assessed, learned* and *hidden* were developed by Glatthorn (2000).

2.3.2.1. Recommended /Ideological Curriculum

Similar to the 'ideological curricula' of Goodlad et al. (1979), the recommended curriculum involved the skills and concepts that need to be emphasized (Glatthorn et al., 2009). It is the one formulated at "the high level," so it involved information about the list of goals and general standards such as graduation requirements; it also involved recommendations for the content and sequence of a course (Glatthorn et al., 2009).

2.3.2.2. Written /Formal Curriculum

In line with the "formal curriculum" designed by Goodlad et al. (1979), written curriculum was identified as being more specific and comprehensive than the recommended curriculum (Glatthorn et al., 2009). Glatthorn (2000) exemplified the documents for the written curriculum as curriculum guides and curriculum

units. Furthermore, Goodlad et al. (1979) emphasized the formal curriculum to be composed of written documents which were officially approved by the boards; state and local syllabi, adopted texts in addition to the curriculum guides were listed as formal curriculum documents.

2.3.2.3. Supported Curriculum

Different from the five domains model of Goodlad et al. (1979), Glatthorn (2000) designed a distinct aspect to analyze the documents supporting the curriculum such as the textbooks and software. Glatthorn et al. (2009) went even further and pointed to the time allocated to the study of a given subject at a certain grade, other learning materials in addition to the textbooks as aspects of supported curriculum.

2.3.2.4. Taught /Delivered Curriculum

As its name suggested, the taught curriculum focused mainly on the classroom level instruction. Here the teachers' instructional practices were considered. Glatthorn et al. (2009) named the taught curriculum as "the delivered curriculum," and explained it as the curriculum that is observed while the teacher is teaching. Similar to this aspect, Goodlad et al. (1979) identified "operational curricula" as the teachers' interactions with the students in and out of the classroom. In terms of teachers, Goodlad et al. (1979) appointed one more domain "*the perceived curricula.*" In essence, not only the teachers but also the parents and other stakeholders' perceptions towards curriculum were considered hereof, yet a specific emphasis was laid on teachers' perceptions (Goodlad et al., 1979).

2.3.2.5. Assessed /Tested Curriculum

Assessed curriculum was another item which was missing in the five domains framework developed by Goodlad et al. (1979), yet perhaps it is one of the most

crucial elements of an instructional policy. In simple terms, Glatthorn (2000) exemplified the standardized tests, teacher-made tests and the like as part of assessed curriculum. Also, Glatthorn et al. (2009) renamed the assessed curriculum as "the tested curriculum."

2.3.2.6. Learned /Experienced Curriculum

In the five domains framework, Goodlad et al. (1979) laid much emphasis on the experienced curriculum and explained that each student possessed a distinct personal curriculum as a result of his/her learning experiences. Similar to this aspect, Glatthorn (2000) purely defined it as the curriculum which students learn. In addition to the learned curriculum, Glatthorn (2000) laid much emphasis on the *hidden curriculum* and explained it as the curriculum which resulted in unintentional learning experiences. The author exemplified the notes written on the school walls and the like. In this study, instructional practices that refer to the hidden curriculum are not focused on since exploring hidden curriculum would require a different theoretical lens.

2.3.3. Multiple Levels of Instructional Policy Construction

Grounding on Ricento's (2006) call for integration of conceptual and methodological tools borrowed from various disciplines to explore a specific type of phenomenon related to language-problems, pioneering work in the fields of LPP and curriculum were merged to account for the FLE policy and practice in Turkey from the perspective of EFL instruction at public high schools. In so doing, multiple levels of LPP and curriculum reviewed above were embraced to enlighten the instructional policy construction within each level.

From this perspective, the framework adopted in the present study focuses on the interconnected nature of macro and micro planning while acknowledging the presence of top-down approach towards the LPP decision-making in Turkey. In addition to the macro and micro connection in LPP studies, multiple levels of

curriculum making operating at different levels were embraced. For the reason that multiplicity in decision-making procedure for curriculum planning (see, e.g., Glatthorn, 2000; Goodlad & Su, 1992; Goodlad et al., 1979) seems to inherently assume the active role of teachers and the students in terms of implementation of curriculum, and so the realization of a top-down instructional policy in the foreign language classroom. In this study, teachers and students are viewed as the local actors of the micro-level policy implementation. In particular, teachers are urged to take an active role, especially when problems arise in the execution of the policy within the micro-level (Baldauf, 2008). Therefore, this framework attempts to shed light on the teacher and student agency by examining their views and practices within the micro-level. From this perspective, this conceptual structure accepts the central role of teachers in LPP development as was claimed by Ricento and Hornberger (1996), and responds to the call for learner agency in LPP introduced by Brown (2015).

In line with the notion of multiplicity in decision-making procedure for curriculum planning (i.e., state, district, school and classroom), the decision-making procedure examined within this study was divided into four: *national, ministerial, school* and *classroom*. While *the national* and *ministerial levels* involved the policy aspect, *the school* and *classroom levels* concerned the practice (see Figure 1 below).
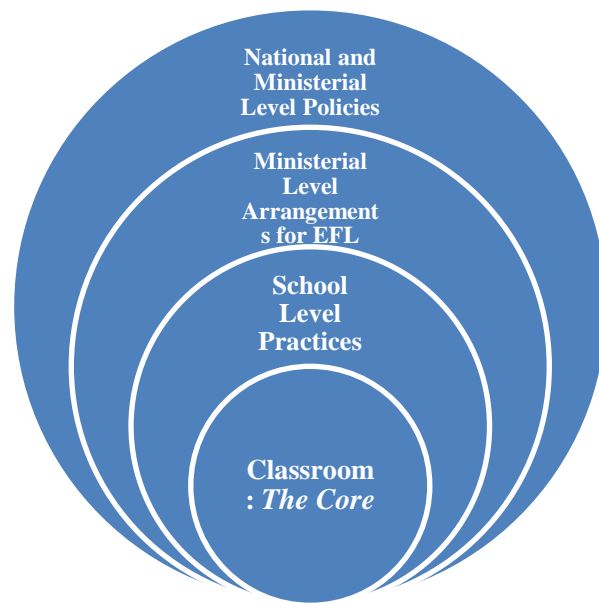
Figure 1. Policy and Practice for FLE in Turkey

In this model designed in the current study, *national level policies* consisted of the macro level initiatives for FLE, such as the laws issued in the Official Gazette (e.g., Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, 1983). On a similar line, *ministerial level policies* as the second aspect involved regulations (e.g., Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions) and decisions (e.g., free distribution of textbooks) which influence running of upper secondary education institutions in Turkey. In addition to the policies, this second aspect, i.e., *the ministerial level*, also involved some instructional arrangements which were specifically made for teaching EFL. In other words, BED on behalf of MNE is responsible for the preparation of the policy instruments (e.g., curriculum guide and the instructional material). As a result, this aspect was named *ministerial level arrangements for EFL instruction* (see Figure 1 above).

In terms of the practice aspect of the policy which corresponds to the micro language planning in LPP literature, *school level practice* addressed the school functions explained by Glatthorn (2000), so the implementation of the policy was addressed. However, *classroom level practice* formed *the core* of the model developed here, for the reason that it involved the actualization of the policy in

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general and the curriculum in particular via the teachers and the students' instructional practices. In this framework, these two levels of practice (i.e., school and classroom levels) were considered as the micro level implementation of the instructional policy.

To explore the multiple levels of instructional policy construction, different types of curricula reviewed above (i.e., recommended, written, supported, taught, perceived, assessed, and learned) were incorporated into these four levels of curriculum decision-making. In this regard, recommended curriculum referred to the high-level decision making, yet written and supported curricula involved more specified decisions such as the curriculum guide, class hours and the textbook. However, the taught, perceived, learned and assessed curricula involved practices undertaken at the school and classroom levels. In this framework, while the former three curricula involved the decision-making procedure executed by the government officials and ministerial bodies (i.e., national and ministerial levels), the taught, perceived, learned, and assessed curricula illustrated the decisions and practices of the actors in the micro space of the policy (i.e., school and classroom levels). As a final point, based on the conceptual framework explained above, the following figure was drawn;
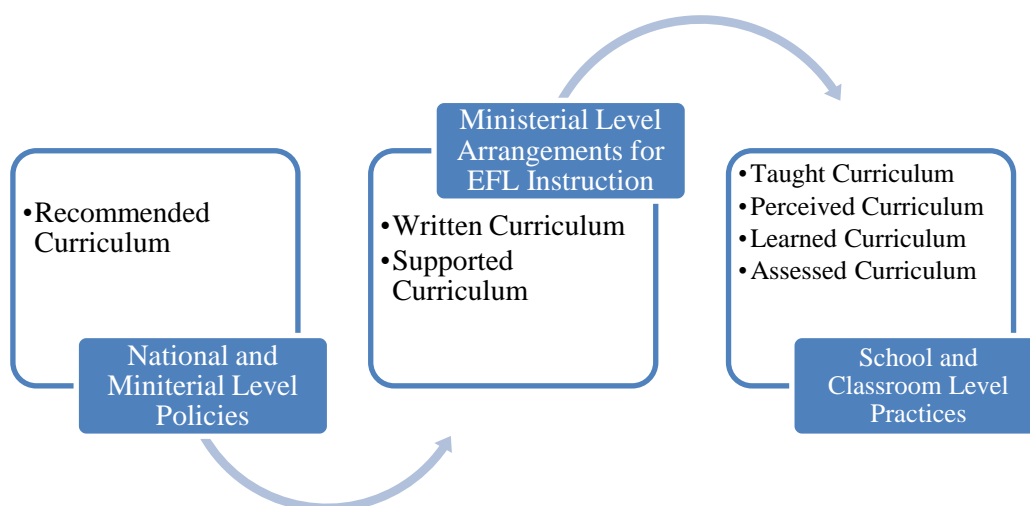
Figure 2. Multiple Levels of Instructional Policy Construction

Grounding on the theoretical model proposed in this research, recommended curriculum seems to fit well in analysis of the *national and ministerial level policies* developed at the macro level which involved information about the goals of upper secondary education institutions, the running of these institutions such as how to pass class. Therefore, the laws and regulations developed for FLE at the macro level examined as part of recommended curriculum.

Written/formal curriculum seemed to be suitable for the second aspect of the conceptual framework drawn in this study; that is to say, *ministerial level arrangements for EFL instruction* involved some written documents approved by MNE, such as the curriculum guide. The analysis of these documents revealed characteristics of desired instruction for EFL. In line with the written/formal curriculum, the framework in this study involved supported curriculum in order to explore *the ministerial level arrangements for EFL instruction*. In doing so, the instructional material—the textbook, workbook and the teacher's book, and the regulations published in the Official Bulletin of MNE (e.g., the time allocated for EFL class at each grade of the upper secondary education institutions) were analyzed as part of the supported curriculum.

The conceptual framework that is proposed in the current study is based on the literature reviewed above. In this regard, the study of LPP at several levels (Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997), multiple levels of decision-making for curriculum (Glatthorn, 2000; Goodlad et al., 1979), were used to draw a framework that guides the analysis in the present study. In this framework, the assessed /tested curriculum was used to explore *the school level practice* of the instructional policy. Due mainly to the execution of joint examination[1] in upper secondary education institutions, assessment and evaluation related decisions are made and implemented at school level, this aspect paved the way toward examining assessed curriculum as part of school level practice of the instructional policy. Teacher-made exams and samples of student performance and project work were

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[1] It refers to the collective evaluation of the written and applied exams of all the courses taught at more than one branch to enable teacher/teachers to make a joint evaluation.

used to reveal school-wide assessment practices for EFL. As predicted, the taught/delivered curriculum was used to explore the core of the instructional policy. That is, to explore *the classroom level practice* of the instructional policy, the teachers' instructional practices were observed and analyzed. Additionally, perceived curriculum was incorporated into the framework, mainly because teachers' perceptions deserve specific attention in a study designed to conduct an in-depth analysis of the policy in practice. Besides, the learned/experienced curriculum was used to explore the language learning experiences of the students inside the foreign language classroom. Therefore, *classroom level practices* of the instructional policy were elaborated via the analysis of taught and learned curricula.

The framework developed in this study seems to fit to analyze the instructional policy construction in the Turkish education system. It involves multiple levels of LPP (i.e., macro and micro language planning) to uncover the policy and practice relation. Also, multiple levels of decision-making in curriculum planning are incorporated to shed more light on the day-to-day realities of the local policy actors (i.e., teachers and students).

2.4. Language Teaching Methodology

Methodology, as a term, is defined as the link between theory and practice; in this regard, language teaching methodology is composed of three crucial elements which are interrelated to each other: i) theories of language and learning, ii) instructional design features, and iii) observed teaching practices. These three elements mutually affect each other; therefore, instructional features are designed based on a certain theory of language and language learning; after that, teaching is performed according to these intended features of instruction. The teaching practices observed in the classroom can also inform the effectiveness of the instructional design features, as well as the theories of language and language learning (Rodgers, 2001).

Within the methodological history of language teaching, there are diverse teaching methods that emerged as a result of paradigm shifts in the theories of language and language learning. Dating back to the twentieth century, Edward M. Anthony first proposed the term ELT in 1963. Anthony (1963, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2014) drew a model which is still valid in understanding the basic structure of language teaching methodology as *approach*, *method*, and *technique*. A hierarchical relationship is conceived between these elements; so, approaches inform methods, and methods inform techniques. In this regard, a method is grounded on an approach, which refers to "theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 22). According to Anthony (1963, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2014), a single approach can be a basis for many methods. In the following part, the historical background of methods will be briefly reviewed, and then contemporary trends in language teaching will be reported. When necessary, the theories of language and language learning that are relevant to the methods reviewed below will be explained, as well.

2.4.1. Historical Overview of Language Teaching and Learning

Although the 20th century is known as the age of methods within the scope of language teaching methodology, foreign language teaching, in essence, dates back to earlier in Europe when Latin was the language of education, trade, and religion. At that time, the main characteristics of teaching a language (i.e., Latin) involved learning grammar rules, writing example sentences, keeping lists of vocabulary, and translating sentences. Later on, the principles of teaching Latin became a guide for the grammar and translation method (GTM). In fact, GTM was a method, which did not possess any theory of language and language learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

From the 19th century onward, GTM was the predominant method in teaching a foreign language. In that respect, the goal of language learning was to read its

literature, so reading and writing were the major focus of language teaching, which means that listening and speaking skills were not concentrated. Vocabulary was taught through memorization and bilingual word lists. Translating sentences and texts was among the practices in the language classroom. Teaching language in this way, however, resulted in negative attitudes and perceptions toward learning a foreign language (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Through the middle of the century (i.e., the 1940s and 1950s), the way language was taught in the GTM was criticized, and a shift toward structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology was observed (Savignon, 2017). That is to say, merging structuralism with behaviorism gave birth to Audiolingualism (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Different than GTM, ALM was grounded on a linguistic theory as well as a learning theory. Habit formation by making use of repetition and reinforcement was the main tenet of the behaviorist learning theory. Therefore, as a theory of learning, behaviorism guided ALM in terms of extensive drilling, repetition exercises, and praising students (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). With the rise of ALM, teaching four language skills in the order of listening, speaking, reading, and writing was also introduced (Savignon, 2017).

In addition to the ALM, Situational Language Teaching (i.e., Situational Approach) as another grammar-based teaching method emerged in the United Kingdom (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). A typical lesson designed according to the Situational Approach was based on the three-phase sequence of Presentation, Practice, and Production (i.e., the PPP cycle). In a PPP lesson structure, *presentation* refers to the presentation of new grammar structures. *Practice* means the controlled practice of grammar structures via drilling and substitution exercises. *Production* as the last stage involves the practice of the linguistic structures in different contexts; this stage aims at developing fluency in the use of new structures. This PPP structure is still employed in modified form in the contemporary language teaching materials (Richards, 2006).

On the other hand, the American linguist Noam Chomsky was dissatisfied with the theory of behaviorism. For him, human language development was much more creative than the one proposed in the behaviorist view of language learning (Savignon, 2017). As a cognitive scientist, Chomsky proposed the idea that there was a special mechanism in the human brain that helped to learn a language (Celce-Murcia, 2008). This view produced the so-called "linguistic competence," which formed the basis of communicative competence introduced by Dell Hymes (1972). As a sociolinguist, Hymes believed that language learning was not limited to the human cognitive capacity only, but also language use in social interactions was effective. Thus, Hymes proposed communicative competence to account for a broader view of language use (Celce-Murcia, 2008). In this way, language teaching methodology shifted toward a more natural use of language for communication, which resulted in the rise of CLT in the 1980s.

From the 1980s to the 1990s, a few other methods and approaches were introduced, such as task-based and text-based approaches. Also, language teaching methodology was influenced by other approaches that were developed in general education; and as a result, cooperative language learning and multiple intelligences were proposed. More recently, language teaching methodology has been under the influence of some international networks (e.g., the Council of Europe). Therefore, CEFR has heavily influenced language teaching programs all around the world (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

2.4.2. Current Trends in Language Teaching and Learning

In addition to the improvements in language teaching reported above, several other approaches and methods still have a profound impact on the design of language teaching programs. Some of them emerged in the methods era (e.g., CLT), some others were rooted in the views of the famous scholar John Dewey (i.e., Constructivism). A few others have been introduced as a result of improvements in technology (e.g., Blended Learning). In this part of the study,

the researcher explains a few prominent approaches and methods which form the basis of current language teaching programs.

2.4.2.1. Constructivism and Learner-Centered Approach

Within the scope of teaching and learning, attributing an active role to the learner has long been high on the agenda in education. Although the concept of the learner as an active participant can be traced back to the work of Plato in Ancient Greece, the idea of the learner as an active participant of the teaching and learning process has received renewed attention with the emergence of constructivism (Loyens & Rikers, 2011). Constructivism is supposed to be a learner-centered approach since it requires learners to construct knowledge and understanding actively (Perkins, 1991).

As a learning theory, the main tenets of constructivism are rooted in the ideas of the American philosopher and educator John Dewey, who reacted against passive teaching in a rote manner (Loyens & Rikers, 2011). Later on, from the 1990s onward, constructivist theories were developed building on the ideas of Swiss developmental psychologist Jean Piaget (i.e., Constructivism) and Russian researcher and theorist Lev Semeonovich Vygotsky (i.e., Social Constructivism). Constructivist philosophy is against the view of learning as a passive process or a process of transmission; therefore, student-centered learning is emphasized in this view (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

The present view of sociocultural learning theory (i.e., social constructivism) as an extension of constructivism conceptualizes language learning as something that emerges from a dialogue between a learner and a more knowledgeable person (e.g., the teacher or a pair). In this theory of learning, the interaction between people and objects (e.g., materials and tasks) is necessary; also, learning is viewed as a collaborative event, which involves scaffolding, i.e., learning is mediated by someone who is more knowledgeable (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Many contemporary methods like CLT and TBLT are grounded on constructivist and social constructivist learning theories.

As is seen above, learner-centered teaching can be considered a by-product of constructivism. Accordingly, Blumberg (2015) identifies a few components, which are specifically in harmony with constructivism; the role of the instructor as a facilitator or guide, the responsibility for learning (i.e., learner autonomy), and using formative assessment are defining characteristics of learner-centered teaching. Blumberg and Pontiggia (2011) further notify giving feedback to the students as an additional purpose of assessment highlighted in learner-centered teaching. Peer and self-assessment are also defining features of assessment in the learner-centered approach (Weimer, 2002). All these components of the learner-centered approach make it distinct from the traditional approaches that view the teacher as the authority and students as passive recipients of knowledge (Anton, 1999).

In the area of language teaching and learning, the shift from the structural to the communicative approach implies a change in teaching practices from teacher-centered to learner-centered; therefore, communicative language learning has been recognized as giving birth to the learner-centered philosophy in L2 teaching (Nunan, 1988). Benson (2012) elucidates how the attention shift from language and linguistics to language learners and language learning, changed the understanding of ELT as in the following:

> The learner-centered approach involved a shift away from a subject-centered view of language education, which views language learning as the mastery of a fixed body of words and grammatical structures, toward a view that emphasized the acquisition of language skills, participation in communication processes, and the construction of language knowledge. (31)

Because learner-centered teaching is rooted in a humanistic approach to teaching, students' affective factors (e.g., motivation, enjoyment, etc.) gain importance in the L2 learning process (Sánchez Calvo, 2007). Perhaps another defining feature of learner-centered teaching is learner autonomy, which lays

emphasis on the role of learners in their own learning procedure. Richards and Rodgers (2014) elucidate who an autonomous learner is by noting "successful learners often learn in ways that may be independent of the methods that are used to teach them or that may be important for the success of these methods" (p. 332). Ascribing such a role to the learner requires the inclusion of the learner into the decision-making procedures of teaching and learning, as well (Benson, 2012). When students take responsibility for their own learning, the role of the teacher also changes from the disseminator of information to the facilitator of learning (Mostrom & Blumberg, 2012).

Furthermore, Blumberg and Pontiggia (2011) differentiate between the role of instructors in the traditional and learner-centered environments. While the former is centered on teaching subject-matter knowledge, the teacher is in the role of facilitator in the latter. The teacher in the role of a facilitator is expected to seek opportunities for creating an environment in which "all students can learn" (Blumberg & Pontiggia, 2011, p.190). To put it another way, for a teacher to be considered as employing learner-centered teaching, he/she must exhibit strong beliefs in and teaching practices that are consistent with the idea of "*all* students can and do learn despite their background" (Daniels, Kalkman, & McCombs, 2001, p. 267, italics in the original). Weimer (2002) complements this argument by noting that as long as the function of content is about covering it rather than "using it to develop unique and individual ways of understanding," a constructivist, learner-centered environment cannot be achieved (pp. 12-13).

2.4.2.2. Communicative Language Teaching

The growing dissatisfaction with the grammar-based teaching methods (e.g., ALM and Situational Approach) that were based on behaviorism and structuralism produced a shift in language instruction from the traditional transmissive mode of teaching to a more communicative one (Richards, 2006). In this respect, CLT is based on a few language theories, including the Communicative Approach, communicative competence, and language functions

(Tejada-Molina et al., 2005). At the level of learning theory, CLT has currently been under the influence of sociocultural learning theory (i.e., social constructivism) as it is more comprehensive in understanding the role of social context in language use (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In line with the view of social constructivism, CLT promotes second language teaching, which is based on a learner-centered, experience-based view (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Based on the different schools of thought, Harmer (2007) has purported CLT as an umbrella term, which is used to account for different learning practices that aim to improve one's ability in communication. Likewise, Richards and Rodgers (2014) have defined the current status of CLT as having a rich, somewhat eclectic, theoretical base.

From this perspective, CLT seems to have been evolving since its emergence in the 1980s. There are two main versions of CLT as the "weak" version and the "strong" version. While the former involves analytic strategies, the latter promotes learning through experience in communication (Littlewood, 2011). To put it differently, Richards and Rodgers (2014) define the weak version as learning to use English, whereas a reverse view is embraced in the strong version as using English to learn it.

Grounded on all the above-mentioned notions of language and language learning, CLT involves several encouraging instructional design features. On the other hand, the analytic dimension (i.e., weak version) of CLT was not so much different from the ALM, albeit emerging as a reaction to the previous methodological principles. Similar to the structural orientation, the weak version of CLT embraced the PPP vision of language teaching. Besides, there was a problem with the authenticity principle; the language that the students were exposed to was not authentic, but instead, communicative fluency activities were under the heavy influence of grammatical accuracy (Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

As a result of criticism of these aspects in the weak version, CLT evolved into a strong version. The contemporary version of CLT has embraced the theories of

language and language learning mentioned above. Therefore, several encouraging elements that have been very popular in language instruction came into existence. As is known, communicative competence has been identified as one major component of the language theory on which CLT is based (Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Tejada Molina et al., 2005). Bearing on communicative competence, achieving linguistic competence, and going beyond it have long been the goal of language learning and teaching with CLT (Littlewood, 2011). In this sense, CLT incorporates all four aspects of communicative competence as grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Nevertheless, how CLT desires students to achieve competence in grammar is different from the previous approaches and methods (e.g., ALM). Both deductive and inductive learning of grammar is possible, and language structures are not taught in isolation; instead, grammar items emerge when students deal with a communicative task (Richards, 2006). Within the theoretical background of CLT, language functions are involved apart from communicative competence (Tejada Molina et al., 2005). Due mainly to incorporating language functions in its design, CLT in principle prioritizes developing language use rather than language usage, i.e., the communicative meaning of language in preference to rules of making language (Jacobs & Kline Liu, 1996).

Therefore, fluency is emphasized, authentic and meaningful communication is prioritized, language skills are taught in an integrated way; moreover, learning through feedback and negotiation of meaning are among the main features of contemporary CLT (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Concerning the activity types, task-completion activities such as games and puzzles, information-gathering activities like surveys, interviews, opinion-sharing activities, and role-plays are very common in CLT-based instruction. Unlike traditional approaches, a greater degree of responsibility for learning is given to the learner, which paves the way toward learner autonomy. Accordingly, the teacher is viewed as the facilitator of the communication process, a counselor, and even a needs analyst. As for the instructional materials, text-based, task-based, realia-based, and technology-

supported materials are currently used in CLT-based instruction. In this respect, the use of authentic materials as well as enhancing real-life learning experiences via using authentic and meaningful language are favored (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Several of the instructional elements identified as the characteristic of CLT are also available in the TBLT, which is, in essence, an extension of CLT. For this reason, the following part illuminates the main characteristics of TBLT as another popular method embraced in the current language teaching programs.

2.4.2.3. Task-Based Language Teaching

As an extension of CLT, TBLT did not reject the principles of CLT but instead united these ideas into its own framework. As a result, an approach focusing on the process instead of the product emerged. In the task-based approach, methodology, the learner, and the procedures of the lesson receive much more importance than the end product (Tejada Molina et al., 2005). Tasks form the central unit of planning and teaching, and they are defined as "the real-world activities people think of when planning, conducting, or recalling their day" (Long, 2015, p. 6). As an example, writing a letter, making a telephone call, reading a newspaper, and giving directions can be noted.

According to Long (2015), TBLT is a multifaceted approach that involves psycholinguistic underpinnings, learner-centeredness, and a solid basis in the philosophy of education. Perhaps one defining facet of TBLT is the fact that it is psycholinguistically plausible. That is to say, TBLT coheres with the findings of second language acquisition (SLA) research (Long, 2015). To clarify, the task-based approach takes into account findings of research on psycholinguistics, bilingualism, and cognitive psychology, as well as pragmatics and discourse analysis (Tejada Molina et al., 2005). In addition, TBLT conceptualizes the notion of learner-centeredness in a rather distinct form. Long (2015) claims that learner-centeredness in the task-based domain has a cognitive dimension rather

than the affective realm that has been prevalent for a long time in language teaching. Regarding the cognitive dimension of learner-centeredness, Long (2015) further argues for the needs analysis that is used to determine the course content. In this way, course content becomes relevant to the students' communicative needs. Also, the notion of learner-centeredness in TBLT is based on the view proposed by Pienemann (1989, as cited in Long, 2015) that what is teachable can be determined depending on what is learnable. In this way, learners gain control over their language development. Another important dimension of TBLT is the principles embraced in this view. In this regard, there is an emphasis on learning by doing, experiential learning, individual freedom, and so on (Long, 2015). All these elements and many more make TBLT one of the most outstanding pedagogies incorporated into the current instructional systems.

As regards to the design features of TBLT, Richards and Rodgers (2014) state that starting with a heavy vocabulary input, teaching vocabulary learning strategies, and emphasizing rapid vocabulary gain are the distinct features of a task-based course. Richards and Rodgers (2014) also contrast TBLT with the structural behaviorist view. In this regard, TBLT is differentiated from Audiolingualism because ALM involves teacher-dominated form-oriented classroom practice. Although the PPP cycle seems to be available in the task-based approach, students are free of language control; that is, they use all their language resources when they perform a task. Unlike the PPP framework, in performing tasks, production may come before the presentation, so the PPP steps are not followed the way it is proposed in the Structural Approach (Sabah, 2018). Whereas there are some benefits of TBLT, such as increased student satisfaction and motivation, this methodology gives greater responsibility to the students and teachers. The students need to be risk-takers in a task-based course. Also, it can be demanding for the teachers since they need to prepare the course content according to their teaching context. In this sense, new roles are attributed to the teachers, such as a course designer and a materials developer (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Apart from all the components noted above, what should not be unnoticed is the "focus on form" the central element of TBLT. As is known, "focus on form," is generally contrasted with the "focus on forms" that refers to the isolated teaching of linguistic structures explicitly (Ellis, 2016). However, focus on form as a chief construct of the TBLT is explained as followed:

> Focus on form involves reactive use of a wide variety of pedagogic procedures to draw learners' attention to linguistic problems in context, as they arise during communication in TBLT, typically as students work on problem-solving tasks, thereby increasing the likelihood that attention to code features will be synchronized with the learner's internal syllabus, developmental stage and processing ability. (Long, 2015, p. 317)

Bearing on this definition, Long (2015) differentiates between TBLT and task-supported language teaching. While the former involves the use of unfocused tasks and draw learners' attention to the form while they are performing these tasks (i.e., focus on form), the latter is defined as "classroom tasks," which are used to perform structures, functions, and skills (Long, 2015). In other words, Long (2015) claims that tasks become a medium to study linguistic and functional structures in task-supported language teaching. For this reason, Long (2015) argues against task-supported language teaching due mainly to involving an overt/covert grammatical syllabus.

By contrast, Ellis (2019) proposes a modular approach to L2 instruction comprised of task-based and task-supported language teaching principles. From this perspective, Ellis (2019) claims that both approaches are necessary for language teaching because using 'pure' task-based teaching can be problematic in many respects. Therefore, he proposes a modular curriculum that involves principles of both TBLT and task-supported language teaching. In this regard, fluency first pedagogy is acknowledged, so a task-based module with a focus on form approach is implemented first, and then comes an explicit accuracy-oriented study of linguistic structures (Ellis, 2019). However, such a modular program design ascribes a more demanding role to the language teachers since they need to determine the students' language needs by using a checklist and

then design their teaching content accordingly. Taking this perspective, it is seen that language teaching methodology shifts toward the significance of language teacher professionalism, which will be touched upon in this chapter later on.

2.4.2.4. Eclecticism

The period from the 1950s to the 1980s is identified as the methods era in the history of language teaching methodology (Rodgers, 2001). Though the Communicative Approach was very popular, toward the middle of the 1980s, the underlying theories of CLT started to be questioned. Perhaps, Swan (1985a, 1985b) was the first who questioned some principles of CLT such as appropriacy, teaching skills and strategies, and the semantic syllabus. Swan (1985a) claimed that "a dogma remains a dogma;" for him, CLT was not so much different from its predecessors (p.2). From this perspective, Swan (1985a, 1985b) put forward that using only the semantic syllabus (i.e., notional/functional syllabus) was not sufficient to learn the language. Instead, students also needed formal accounts of the language. For this reason, he proposed integrating semantic and formal syllabuses. In addition, teaching what was appropriate (i.e., to know the right thing to say at the right time) was not sufficient because students needed vocabulary to produce their utterances appropriately (Swan 1985a, 1985b).

Swan's argument on the fallacies of the 'Communicative Approach' and suggestions to benefit from the earlier methodological accounts (e.g., repetition and rote learning) resulted in a new era in the language methodology, i.e., the post-communicative period. Furthermore, Ur (1996) argued that what is necessary for language teaching is not the best method, but instead what the most effective teaching is should be concerned in language instruction. In other words, she called for shifting attention from the language teaching methodology to the language pedagogy. This led to an attention shift from the method to the teacher. To clarify, it was proposed that teachers should determine effective language

teaching principles according to the needs of their learners and their teaching context (Ur, 1996; Yorio, 1987).

Based on these arguments, eclecticism is proposed, which refers to "a philosophical approach or method in which selection is based on what is considered best from different systems or sources" (Yorio, 1987, p. 91). Eclecticism, in this sense, is considered as a solution for the fallacies of using a single method in language teaching and learning. In this way, effective principles of several methods are suggested to be united depending on the students' real needs (Yorio, 1987). However, eclecticism started to be questioned because it did not have a principle (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). That is to say, uniting different methods without a strong theoretical basis was vague. The criticisms toward eclecticism gave birth to new propositions like disciplined eclecticism (Rodgers, 2001). In this framework of eclecticism, combining instructional features of different approaches and methods is recommended; but, the ones which have similar philosophical foundations should be united (Rodgers, 2001). In this respect, language education programs revolved toward embracing more than a single method to serve the varying needs of language learners.

With the emergence of eclecticism, language teaching and learning seems to abandon being bound to a single method and/or searching for the best method. The importance of the teacher and the teaching context has become significant. All these concerns led the language teaching methodology toward the post-method era (Kumaravadivelu, 1994), which is reviewed below in this chapter.

2.4.2.5. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

As a supranational agency, the Council of Europe (CoE) published a document, i.e., the CEFR, in 2001 to determine standards that can help design language education programs all over Europe and the candidate countries. As a result, an attention shift has been observed from language teaching methodology to the outcomes of learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

In terms of language teaching methodology, it is known that the CEFR adheres to the principles of CLT; that is, an interactive, sociocultural, and skill-based approach to language learning is adopted. To clarify, the CEFR identifies the language learner as an autonomous individual who adopts the principle of learning to learn. In addition, the teacher is desired to be a role model for the language learners in such a way that the students should be motivated to learn the language. The needs of the learners and society are very crucial in this framework. In addition to achieving communicative competence, increasing self-confidence, willingness to communicate, developing study skills and the like are among the CEFR principles. Grammatical competence is desired to be achieved by employing inductive and deductive study of rules and structures. Exposure to authentic language is suggested to develop sociolinguistic competence (CoE, 2001).

On the other hand, the CEFR has received some criticisms mainly because it is not research-based (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Widdowson (2009) points out the can-do statements in the CEFR framework. According to him, these principles do not take into account the SLA research, and so language learning is not viewed as a process. Instead, the syllabus design reflects a linguistic perspective that views language as the goal. Such an aspect focuses on the end product of the language as it happens in the can-do statements. As there is no description for process in the CEFR framework, teachers or the course designers need to decide how to achieve a certain proficiency level and what materials and procedures are necessary to attain the learning outcomes (Richards, 2013).

Concerning the curriculum approach, the CEFR is identified as a well-known example of a backward design that uses standards (Richards, 2013). In this sense, there are six levels of achievement from the beginners (i.e., A1) to the mastery (i.e., C1). These levels involve explanations about what is expected from the language learner at each level in terms of the four language skills, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. As aforementioned, A1 and A2 levels refer to the

Basic User, B1 and B2 levels mean Independent User, C1 and C2 levels are identified as Proficient User (CoE, 2001).

In simple terms, backward design refers to developing a language teaching program by identifying the learning outcomes first, and then comes decisions on methodology and syllabus, which are based on the specified learning outcomes. From this perspective, Richards (2013) points out the developmental stages with the Common European Framework as followed:
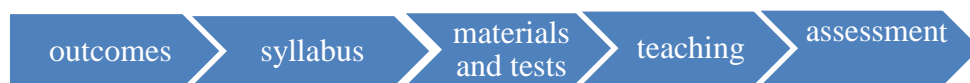
Figure 3. Development Stages with the Common European Framework. From "Curriculum Approaches in Language Teaching: Forward, Central, and Backward Design," by J. C. Richards, 2013, *RELC Journal, 44*(1), p. 28.

As seen in the figure above, a language program designed according to the CEFR principles starts with specifying the learning outcomes, followed by designing a syllabus. The materials and tests are prepared using the syllabus. Teaching is performed with these materials, and assessment is executed according to the teaching practices.

2.4.2.6. Technology-Enhanced Language Teaching and Learning

Technology has a profound impact on education as it is in each area of life. Currently, using technology in everyday life has become so widespread that teaching language "without using technology would create a very limited and artificial learning environment" (Chun, Smith, & Kern, 2016, p. 65). Because technology serves as a bridge to connect the life of students to the school experiences (Crawford, 2007).

The use of technology in foreign language teaching is not a new idea. Using tools such as recordings and visual filmstrips was available in the foreign language classes for a long time. In this regard, Tejeda Molina et al. (2005) identify ALM as well as the Audiovisual Method as two preliminary methods that involve the use of technology of some sort in the foreign language classroom.

As improvements in instructional technology increase, so does the importance of technology in ELT. Perhaps one of the most outstanding developments in language instruction can be the emergence of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL). In this sense, Garrett (2009) elucidates the significance of CALL in language learning by noting that it is not equivalent to using technology only. Rather, CALL refers to a complex dynamic structure involving three intertwined components: technology, theory, and pedagogy. According to Garrett (2009), the current CALL development is driven by these three constructs, i.e., technology, pedagogy, and SLA theories, in such a way that "each of these evolves and changes in its relationship with others" (p.720). More recently, the CALL era has been followed by Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). In this regard, it is differentiated from CALL mainly because MALL has increased opportunities to expand the language learning spaces and time out of the classroom (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008).

As a result of integrating technology into instructional practices, a new approach has been proposed, i.e., blended learning. Such an aspect of learning refers to providing a combination of instruction that involves both face-to-face and online learning components. More recently, Vicic (2020) has embraced a three-model approach to blended language learning. In so doing, the self-study component is incorporated into the model in addition to the online and face-to-face instruction elements. In this way, individual learning opportunity as one defining feature of technology is acknowledged.

As the way technology is conceptualized has changed, new roles have been attributed to the information and communication technology (ICT) tools in the foreign language classroom. From this perspective, Kern (2006) identifies two main positions for the status of technology in ELT: medium versus tool. While the former refers to integrating Web 2.0 technologies into the pedagogical practices for language learning, technology has rather an extension role in the latter form. In other words, technological tools are supplementary to traditional face-to-face means of instruction.

Nowadays, the medium role of technology has been high on the agenda, and several attempts are made to integrate technology into the instructional systems. In this sense, CALL and MALL are favored, because young individuals of the 21st century have been identified as digital natives, i.e., people born into the technologized world (Prensky, 2001). From this perspective, several contemporary methods foster technology-supported instruction, such as the CLT and TBLT (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In so doing, ICT tools are incorporated into teaching and learning practices both inside and outside of the classroom. For instance, blogs are used to perform writing, and computer-mediated communication is used to gain real-life experience in communication with the target speakers in English.

In particular, merging tasks with the use of technology have been favored a lot (see, e.g., Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega, 2014; Smith, 2009; Ziegler, 2016). The argument on blending tasks and technology is built on the idea that such praxis will provide student engagement in learning which fits well with the well-known philosophy of education, i.e., learning by doing (Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). By using technology to accomplish a task, students also gain the opportunity to develop their digital literacy skills. Therefore, they improve their technology skills and language learning by performing these tasks. In this regard, Zigerler (2016) denotes a reciprocal relationship between tasks and technology.

At a broader level, technology-mediated TBLT refers to using technology in instruction that is based on a task-based approach (Gonzalez-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). Such an understanding of technology has garnered increasing attention due mainly to its benefits on L2 development and performance (Ziegler, 2016). Technology-mediated task-based work primarily aims to provide students the opportunity to receive subsequent input from their interlocutors outside of the class (Smith, 2009), so long-lasting benefits for L2 use are gained (Gonzalez-Lloret, 2008).

Currently, using ICT tools is not limited to teaching and learning. Instead, technology-mediated assessment is promoted by incorporating electronic assessment tools into the alternative assessment procedures, such as the electronic portfolio. Ever since remote teaching and learning has become a must for schooling processes, the need to use technology for instruction has increased. This necessitates a new understanding concerning assessment and evaluation procedures, as well. According to Llosa (2021), assessment procedures that involve multimodal, dynamic, interactive, formative characteristics emerged with remote instruction and will continue to be used. Llosa (2021) further elucidates multimodal assessment as opportunities for students to respond orally, record a video, perform a multimodal project with visuals, graphics, and collaborate in teams.

Grounded on the improvements in instructional technology, the significance of technology in education is acknowledged, making it an indispensable part of teaching and learning. As new technologies emerge, this will, for sure, have a profound impact on language teaching and learning practices. Doubtless, teachers are the key actors in enhancing teaching and learning practices with technology. Therefore, teachers' buy-in to the ICT tools and their integration into the instruction is crucial.

2.4.2.7. The Post-method Pedagogy

The growing dissatisfaction toward the limitations of the concept of method in language education resulted in searching for alternatives. As discussed above, the argument proposed by Ur (1996) as what is needed is not the most effective methodology, but guidelines for effective teaching paved language teaching toward paying attention to the teacher. As a result of criticisms toward the limitations of the method, eclecticism was proposed.

Nevertheless, the eclectic principle also had some limitations, and the search for alternatives did not end, and at the same time, criticisms toward methods moved on. In this sense, methods are criticized on a few grounds; first and foremost, they are based on idealized concepts which limit instruction into predetermined contexts. Therefore, it is not possible to account for the complex nature of teaching and learning executed in different parts of the world with a few predetermined principles advocated in the methods. Instead of the method only, the success or failure of teaching and learning depends on multiple factors such as teacher cognition, learner perception, and institutional constraints (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

Grounding on the criticism toward the concept of method, Kumaravadivelu (1994) introduced the idea that there was a need for an alternative to the method rather than searching for an alternative method. Therefore, the postmethod condition as an alternative to the concept of method emerged. In simple terms, the postmethod condition refers to a new understanding in L2 pedagogy. Kumaravadivelu (1994) explains the postmethod condition as followed:

> Having witnessed how methods go through endless cycles of life, death, an rebirth, we now seem to have reached a state of heightened awareness—an awareness that as long as we are caught up in the web of method, we will continue to get entangled in an unending search for an unavailable solution, an awareness that such a search drives us to continually recycle and repackage the same old ideas and an awareness that nothing short of breaking the cycle can

salvage the situation. This awareness is fast creating what might be called a postmethod. (p.28)

The postmethod condition draws a new understanding in "the relationship between the theorizers and the practitioners of method" (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 28). Previously theorizers were "the power center of language pedagogy," so teachers' role was to implement what was prescribed in the method. However, the postmethod condition empowers teachers to "construct classroom-oriented theories of practice," in this way, "location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative practices" can be generated (Kumaravadivelu, 1994, p. 29). From this perspective, Kumaravadivelu (1994) argues for three essential features of the postmethod condition: i) searching for an alternative to the method, ii) promoting teacher autonomy, and iii) principled pragmatism.

With regard to the representation of teacher autonomy in the postmethod condition, Kumaravadivelu (1994) holds the idea that the model "recognizes the teachers' potential to know not only how to teach but also know how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula and textbooks" (p. 30). In so doing, teachers are expected to make a connection between their instructional practices and the theory in such a way as to affect and empower each other mutually.

Principled pragmatism is the third construct on which the postmethod condition is based. And this concept is used to compare the postmethod condition with eclecticism. Although eclecticism is grounded on the traditional way of understanding the method concept, pedagogy is placed at the forefront of principled pragmatism. Regarding eclecticism, Kumaravadivelu (1994) argues that teachers' professional inefficacy in combining techniques of different methods is a problem in eclecticism. In other words, eclecticism requires a strong basis on which different techniques can be put together; otherwise, it can lead to a random selection and combination of techniques without a solid basis.

Building on the constructs mentioned above, Kumaravadivelu (1994) draws a framework to understand the postmethod condition. In this regard, the framework involves ten macrostrategies building on which teachers can design microstrategies that are responsive to the needs and contextual realities of their teaching context. These macrostrategies are not bound to any specific theory of language, language learning, or teaching; in addition, they are not constrained by predetermined classroom procedures that are identified in the methods route. The strategic framework for L2 teaching involves ten macrostrategies as maximizing learning opportunities, facilitating negotiated interaction, minimizing perceptual mismatches, activating intuitive heuristics, fostering language awareness, contextualizing linguistic input, integrating language skills, promoting learner autonomy, raising cultural consciousness, and ensuring social relevance (Kumaravadivelu,1994, 2003).

Grounding on these ten macrostrategies, in this framework, teachers are expected to balance their role in teaching and their role in mediating student learning; a meaningful interaction between the teacher and the learners, as well as the learners themselves, is desired. Learners are encouraged to initiate talk rather than only respond to what is told to them. Also, the potential mismatch between what teachers intend and what learners interpret is dealt with in this framework from various perspectives as linguistic, cognitive, instructional, etc. In teaching linguistic structures, it is recommended to provide students with textual data so that they can infer the rules of grammar. In this sense, indirect teaching of grammar through examples is recommended. Consciousness-raising is also emphasized for language awareness. Culture as an indispensable part of L2 teaching is not viewed in a traditional sense; instead, a multicultural approach is proposed to eliminate stereotypes. Lastly, teachers are encouraged to be sensitive to their teaching context's sociopolitical, economic, and educational realities. They should design their instruction according to the learning purpose and language use in their teaching context (Kumaravadivelu, 1994).

On the other hand, when the framework was first introduced, some criticisms appeared on two main grounds. The first was ceasing to search for better methods, and the second criticism was proposing the framework as an alternative to the method (Liu, 1995). Liu's commentary pointed out teachers as the source of the problem rather than the method itself; therefore, stopping the search for the newer and better method was not logical for him (Liu, 1995). Kumaravadivelu (1995) responded to this criticism by noting that the case was to search for more effective teacher education models instead of the methods. Based on the need for more effective teacher education models as well as the postmethod condition, Kumaravadivelu (2001) introduced the postmethod pedagogy. In this regard, the postmethod pedagogy involves not only teachers and students but also the teacher educators.

Kumaravadivelu (2001) introduces three essential components of postmethod pedagogy: particularity, practicality, and possibility. Similar to the previous arguments on the postmethod condition, the pedagogy of particularity rejects a predetermined set of principles and procedures; instead, a context-sensitive pedagogy specific to the teaching context is suggested. Kumaravadivelu (2001) explains the concept of particularity as followed:

> language pedagogy, to be relevant, must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu. (p. 538)

As regards to the second concept as practicality, Kumaravadivelu (2001) proposes that the postmethod pedagogy rejects the distinction between theorists as the producers of theory and teachers as the consumer of theory. Instead, teachers are encouraged "to theorize from their practice and practice what they have theorized" (Kumararavadivelu, 1994, p. 30). As for the last concept as a pedagogy of possibility, Kumaravadivelu (2001) notes the following;

> The experiences participants bring to the pedagogical setting are shaped not just by the learning/teaching episodes they have encountered in the past but also by

the broader social, economic, and political environment in which they have grown up. These experiences have the potential to alter pedagogic practices in ways unintended and unexpected by policy planners, curriculum designers, or textbook producers. (p. 543)

Based on these three essential pedagogies as particularity, practicality, and possibility, Kumaravadivelu (2001) defines the postmethod learner, teacher, and teacher educator. The postmethod learner is identified as someone autonomous in three respects. The learner is expected to be an effective learner, someone who collaborates with other learners, and a critical thinker. By noting the characteristics of an autonomous learner, Kumaravadivelu (2001) classifies the teacher as someone autonomous, as well. In this respect, the postmethod teacher is encouraged to be a researcher; however, it is not in the sense that employing complex experimental study is entailed. Instead, Kumaravadivelu (2001) defines teacher research as in the following;

keeping one's eyes, ears, and mind open in the classroom to see what works and what does not, with what group(s) of learners, and for what reason, and assessing what changes are necessary to make instruction achieve its desired goals. (p. 550)

In brief, the growing criticism toward the limitations of methods leads to new concepts in understanding classroom teaching and learning. In this regard, the call for attention shift from the methodology to the pedagogy resulted in recognizing the importance of teacher (Ur, 1996). Focusing on the teacher and the professional knowledge base of the teachers necessary to respond to the context-specific needs of the teaching context gave birth to the postmethod condition, which is identified as an alternative to the method. What makes the postmethod pedagogy crucial in L2 teaching/learning and teacher education is the attention to the situation-specific realities of the teaching context. Therefore, empowering teachers as the key actors who can identify the problems and the needs of the teaching context, and so design effective instructional practices accordingly is emphasized.

2.5. Research on LPP, Alignment, and FLE Policy

This section reviews studies conducted in both international and local contexts. First, research on LPP is reviewed, and then studies on alignment are focused on. Last, studies investigating FLE policy in Turkey are reported.

2.5.1. Research on LPP

Research on LPP addresses diverse issues concerning language use all over the world as minority language empowerment (McCarty, Romero-Little, Warhol, & Zepeda, 2011; Nicholas, 2011), language maintenance (Nagai & Lister, 2003; Tufi, 2013), diaspora communities like Tamil (Canagarajah, 2011), migration (King & Haboud, 2011), bilingual education and biliteracy (Hill & May, 2011, 2013; Johnson, 2009a, 2010; Martin-Jones, 2011), multilingualism (Balfour, 2007; Hult, 2010), dominant language policies like English (Combs, Gonzales, & Moll, 2011), language-in-education policies (Jaffe, 2011), and language education policy research (Hult, 2013; Scanlon, 2015).

McCarty et al. (2011) and Nicholas (2011) have addressed the increased value towards heritage languages by the young people of those languages' community in the U.S. context. McCarty et al. (2011) examined minority language empowerment in Native American and urban immigrant schools while Nicholas (2011) addressed language marginalization among Hopi youth. In a similar vein, Nagai and Lister (2003) reported the struggle of a few elementary school teachers to provide instruction via integrating their indigenous language and culture in the vernacular education context of Papua New Guinea. Tufi (2013) explored the struggle to maintain the minority language 'Sardinian' from a language ideology perspective. The specific characteristic of diaspora groups defined as 'hybrid' due to the lack of language-and-community models to address those communities was reported by Canagarajah (2011). King and Haboud (2011) noted the impact of globalization in general and migration in

particular on language learning opportunities for youngsters in Ecuador concerning the indigenous language 'Quichua.'

As regards to bilingual education, Johnson (2010) examined the implementation of bilingual education language policy by exploring the connection between macro-level policy and micro-level implementation. The author also addressed the need for language policy for bilingual education especially in the U.S. context (2010). Accordingly, Hill and May (2011, 2013) drew attention to the teaching of English in Maori-medium schools of New Zealand conducting research via "school-based ethnographic studies concerned with bilingualism and biliteracy internationally" (2013, p. 52). On a similar line, Martin-Jones (2011) also provided information about bilingual education in Wales regarding the impact of globalization on the new forms of textuality. In an important addition to bilingual education, developing language policies regarding multilingualism in schooling and higher education contexts was introduced by Balfour (2007). Considering the methodological perspectives, Hult (2010) proposed the ecology of language as a conceptual orientation to investigate the multilingual language policies in a holistic manner. The author further suggested the 'discourse-oriented work' with a specific focus on time and space to reveal the connections between language policies and social actions of individuals.

Alternately, Combs et al. (2011) examined the impact of radicalization towards English dominance among Latinos in Arizona on school-level context. Particular models of language and identity were revealed via examining the outcome of language-in-education policies in the context of Corsica (Jaffe, 2011). Concerning language education policy research, Hult (2013) in his review of the book "*Negotiating language policies in schools: Educators as policymakers*" edited by Menken and Garcia (2010) emphasized language education policy research focusing on agents of school administrators, teachers, students, parents and etc. in the schools. Similarly, Scanlon (2015) examined Australian education policy via collecting data from various agents such as teachers, students, parents

and principals in the context of Grange High School by undertaking a four-year longitudinal qualitative project.

A deeper survey of the field has revealed that understanding the connections between macro and micro dimensions of language use is a perennial issue as long as language policy implementation is concerned (Hult, 2010; Johnson, 2009b, 2010; Ricento, 2000). In other words, of particular importance in LPP research is the connection between macro-policy discourse and its micro-level interpretation and appropriation. To that end, a few studies have examined the issue with specific reference to the discrepancy between what is intended at macro-level and what is inferred and executed at micro-level (see, e.g., Liddicoat, 2014; Gafaranga & Niyomugabo, 2013; Mortimer, 2013; Valdiviezo, 2013; Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006).

The matter of pedagogy with respect to language-in-education policy was investigated through the examination of various language policy contexts by Liddicoat (2014). To respond Ricento's (2000) call for research on macro-micro policy dimensions, Gafaranga and Niyomugabo (2013) examined the statements about language choice published by the Rwandan Parliament to explore whether they are the micro implementation of macro policy or the micro "declared policy" on their own. Mortimer (2013) illuminated language policy implementation in Paraguay with specific reference to the description of a Guarani speaker in policy texts and the agents' interpretation in local context. The analysis revealed the nonappearance of a Guarani speaker description suggested by educators in the policy text designed at macro level. Valdiviezo (2013) explored the bilingual intercultural education policy in the context of Peru by making use of ethnographic approach to identify macro-micro relations of the policy. Accordingly, Wallen and Kelly-Holmes (2006) centered on the practice of English as an additional language policy developed for the language minority students in the educational context of Ireland, and the authors identified the mismatch between the macro-policy discourse and its micro-level implementation.

As is seen, research on LPP has a very wide spectrum of areas dealing with several issues by focusing on different ways in which language is used. In this study, the LEP dimension of the LPP is concerned. In doing so, the policy and practice dimension for teaching EFL at a particular program of a high school is investigated from the perspective of alignment. Therefore, the following section will review research studies on alignment from diverse perspectives.

2.5.2. Research on Alignment

After reviewing diverse lines of research on LPP, in the following paragraphs, the recent studies on alignment conducted both in the foreign countries and in the local context are compiled. At a broader level, the international studies generally have a quantitative orientation investigating the alignment of specific program components (e.g., assessment, instruction) to the standards framework. Although quantitative orientation dominates the research on alignment, more recently, there has been a rising trend in employing qualitative instruments to investigate various stakeholders' perceptions and practices about different components of program alignment. As for the local studies, though few, alignment has been investigated from the perspective of curriculum and instruction.

To begin with, a few studies in the international literature focus on the alignment of specific program components to the standards (Coburn et al., 2016; Mack-Stephenson, 2015; Polikoff & Porter, 2014; Porter et al., 2011; Troia et al., 2016). For instance, Polikoff and Porter (2014) explored the extent to which teachers' instructional alignment is associated with their contributions to student learning. In this study, teachers' self-reported instruction was compared with standards, and the findings revealed a weak association. According to Polikoff and Porter (2014), the weak association might have emerged because of the measurement instrument, which was not successful enough to catch what is taught in the classroom.

Polikoff et al. (2011) investigated the alignment between three constructs as the Common Core State Standards[2](CCSSs), state standards, and assessments in the U.S. context. The findings of the study indicated a lack of alignment, and a lack of focus was found in the standards themselves, which might be a factor debilitating the match between the standards. On a similar line, Troia et al. (2016) examined the degree of overlap between the CCSSs for writing and the writing standards of different states in the United States, and they pointed out the lack of strong alignment. The authors implicated a potential mismatch between the curricular materials and instructional methods developed with former standards as one possible reason behind the lack of alignment. For this reason, they laid emphasis on the effective guidance of standards on the classroom level practices. They argued for the comprehensibility of the standards, especially for the teachers responsible for enacting these standards in classroom contexts (Troia et al., 2016). Unlike alignment to the standards, Mack-Stephenson (2015) investigated alignment between teachers' beliefs about potentially gifted students and their instructional practices. Findings achieved from the online survey revealed that teacher beliefs influence their instructional practices.

Due perhaps to the low consistency achieved in research with quantitative orientation, literature on alignment has paved toward qualitative orientation to understand better the complex dynamics of alignment between different components of an instructional system. In this regard, Coburn et al. (2016) suggested classroom observations accompanied with interviews in designing research on alignment between state standards and performance trends in districts in the U.S. context. Therefore, a few studies employ qualitative instruments to explore various stakeholders' views, perceptions regarding different components of an instructional program alignment as well as their practices in the local policy context (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2020; Cooper, 2020; Crowley, 2015; Spillane, 1999; VanDerStuyf, 2020; Vera, 2019).

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[2] The Common Core refers to a set of academic standards for mathematics and English language instruction in the USA. These standards are learning goals that prescribe what the students will be able to do at the end of each grade.

Spillane (1999) investigated how the local agency implemented state policies; the instructional policymaking in the local context was explored by conducting interviews and examining documents. Findings showed inconsistency between the state policies and local actors' policymaking. Although standards were found to have an impact on local policymaking, it was much weaker and inconsistent. Another study conducted in the Pre-K (short for Pre-Kindergarten) and kindergarten context by Cohen-Vogel et al. (2020) interviewed local educators (i.e., school administrators and teachers). The study explored perceptions among study participants about the alignment of different program components regarding Pre-K and kindergarten programs. The participants reported that although the degree of alignment among standards, curricula, and assessment is strong, there is a weak association between Pre-K and kindergarten programs. Cooper (2020) examined the alignment of the CCSSs at grade 11 classes via classroom observations. Also, semi-structured interviews with district officials and school leaders were conducted in addition to analysis of documents such as school reports and curriculum frameworks. The enacted curriculum of the CCSSs and the student learning as taught, tested, and learned curricula were explored. Findings indicated the need for additional support to align, create and implement the enacted curriculum.

Different than standards, Vera (2019) investigated instructional technology implementation within the context of elementary schools. Interviews with district leaders, school principals, and teachers were conducted; also, observations were performed. Findings showed a lack of alignment concerning the expectations and the actual use of instructional technology in classrooms. Another qualitative study conducted by VanDerStuyf (2020) focused on crafting coherence. Teachers and district official leaders were the participants of the study. Findings showed that district leaders do not think that mandates lead to improved student outcomes. The participants also emphasized the strong support of teachers for classroom-level implementation. Recommendations of the study involved the need for transformative leadership.

As regards to understanding educational policy implementation, Crowley (2015) conducted interviews with teachers and observed the classroom-level implementation of the policy. The results of the study showed that when there is incoherence between the policy initiatives themselves, it negatively influences teachers' understanding and implementation of the policy, leading to a lack of alignment between policy and practice.

In the local context, a few studies were found that focused on the alignment of instruction to the curriculum framework. Because this study is concerned with the EFL program, only the research studies that investigate ELT programs are reported herein, albeit the local literature involves many studies investigating alignment.

In a master's thesis, EFL teachers' alignment of the curriculum in their classroom-level instruction was investigated by An (2020). As a qualitative case study, data were collected via observations and documents. Classroom observations at the 7th grade EFL classes were conducted. Findings indicated that although teachers' instruction was successfully aligned with the learning outcomes, they lacked knowledge of learning outcomes. A detailed analysis of the data showed that teachers' instruction aligned with the outcomes because of the textbook, which the MNE delivered. In other words, it was the textbook, not the teacher's awareness, which provided alignment between instruction and learning outcomes.

In another master's thesis, alignment between the curriculum and teachers' instruction was investigated (Karabacak, 2018). Findings indicated alignment between curriculum and the yearly plan teachers used to plan their instruction. On the other hand, it was found that teachers cannot fully align their instruction with the curriculum in terms of the two crucial dimensions as teaching and learning processes and assessment. Teachers' competencies and beliefs were pointed out among the factors affecting misalignment.

Different from the research studies exploring the alignment of instruction to the curriculum, Fişne et al. (2018) conducted a cross-cultural study to investigate the degree of alignment between the prescriptions in the CEFR and the instructional policy instruments (the curriculum and the textbooks). Results of the study showed similarities and differences in terms of execution of CEFR in both countries, i.e., Turkey and Portuguese. Implications of the study called for sustainable and consistent LPP.

2.5.3. Research on Foreign Language Education Policy in Turkey

In this last part of the review of literature, relevant studies conducted on the FLE policy in Turkey are presented. Regarding FLE policy, sample studies investigating teaching and learning of English are concerned since this dissertation examines instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL at a particular program of a public high school.

As English has become a language of communication all over the world (Crystal, 2003), FLE policies in Turkey have also paid specific attention to the teaching of English at all levels of education, from primary to tertiary levels. Therefore, several studies were conducted to examine LPP policies regarding the teaching of EFL in Turkey (Aksoy, 2020; Başok, 2020; Dincer & Koç, 2020; Haznedar, 2010; Kırkgöz, 2007a, 2007b, 2009, 2017; Kızıldağ, 2007; Şahin, 2013).

To start with the primary education context, Kırkgöz (2007a) examined the curriculum innovation in teaching English at Turkish primary education by considering macro-level planning and its micro-level implementation. The study implicated the need for teacher development in order to balance the macro-level planning with micro-level implementation in the context of Turkish primary schools. After reviewing the historical background of FLE policy in Turkey, Şahin (2013) sheds light on the implementation of the policy from the perspective of ELT in primary education. Data were collected via questionnaires, and findings presented many problems regarding FLE in Turkey. Teachers

reported problems with textbooks, the school administration, students, and parents that debilitate the implementation of the policy at school. A study by Kızıldağ (2009) also explored challenges in teaching English in public primary schools. The results of the study indicated poor institutional planning as the main reason for challenges experienced at school. Also, there were instructional and socio-cultural/economic problems affecting the implementation negatively. The study concluded that these problems mutually affect each other leading to ineffective teaching and learning in primary education classes.

Haznedar (2010) explored teachers' classroom-level instructional practices for teaching EFL in primary and secondary education contexts. The findings of the study revealed that although teachers had sufficient knowledge of CLT methodology, traditional language teaching methods and techniques were dominant in their classroom-level teaching practices. The need for effective in-service training for teachers was underlined; the study also emphasized determining standards for FLE in the Turkish education context. More recently, another policy initiative for teaching EFL in the state school context was initiated; MNE introduced a prep class for FLE in the first year of middle school (i.e., grade five). Dincer and Koç (2020) explored the implementation of the intensive English language program executed at grade five classes of middle schools in Turkey. Similar to the previous studies reviewed above, this study revealed several challenges reported by the teachers, such as the lack of professional support and ineffective language teaching materials. Even so, teachers were satisfied with the intensive English language program executed at an early age.

Kırkgöz (2009) reviewed the impact of globalization on Turkey's FLE policies with a specific emphasis on teaching ELT. The study concluded that English gained a prominent role in the Turkish education system via several government initiatives; however, problems continued at the instructional level. In particular, the gap between policy and practice was underscored. Regarding higher education, Kırkgöz (2017) reported how a public university in Turkey responded

to the global impact of English. In this sense, English medium instruction programs were established, and the number of departments providing English medium instruction was increased. In another study, Kırkgöz (2007b) reviewed policy changes in teaching ELT in the Turkish education system. This study specifically focused on the 1997 education reform, which influenced education from primary to tertiary level in Turkey. And teaching English at all levels of education was notified as a challenge. Several initiatives were initiated to find a solution for the challenges that emerged, such as revising the curriculum and launching teacher development projects in collaboration with international bodies (e.g., the British Council).

Başok (2020) reported the gap between policy and classroom practices in the Turkish EFL context. Interviews conducted with teachers working in the state school context displayed that teachers' classroom-level practices were inconsistent with the expectations of the official policy. Aksoy (2020) investigated the evaluation of the 2017 updated English curriculum for middle schools. Similar to Başok (2020), this study's findings indicated the gap between what was intended and what was taught. Aksoy (2020) emphasized the need for a policy document specific to EFL education. Besides, he called for a foreign language teaching ecosystem, which includes all the stakeholders.

In brief, there appear two main discussions that research on FLE policy in Turkey centered on: policy and practice gap and challenges that emerged in the implementation of the policy. As teachers are the key actors in the policy implementation, the need for professional support and development of teachers were underscored. The review of previous research on LPP, alignment, and FLE policy shows that although there are some studies focusing on different dimensions of policy and practice, there is a gap in the literature concerning the instructional policy alignment that explores the journey of LPP from the top to the down.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter starts with a detailed description of the research methodology, and then it proceeds to the design of the study. Following that, research setting is explained, and the role of the researcher is discussed. Sampling and participants details are presented; also a detailed account of piloting procedures is provided. Data collection instruments as well as the data analysis procedures are explained. Finally, issues related to trustworthiness and ethics are discussed.

3.1. Overall Design of the Study: Qualitative Research

The pursuit of knowledge is said to be guided by a research paradigm, "a basic set of beliefs that guide action" (Guba, 1990, p.17). Indeed what is meant by action is the research activity and it is based on some ontological and epistemological assumptions about reality. To put it differently, certain views about the nature of reality (i.e., ontology), and about knowledge (i.e., epistemology) would pave the way for certain views about the production of knowledge (i.e., methodology) which would consequently have implications for research design (Duberley, Johnson, & Cassell, 2012). Therefore, making a decision on whether to embrace qualitative or quantitative methodology is informed by some ontological and epistemological beliefs (Hatch, 2002).

Grounding on ontological (i.e., the nature of reality), epistemological (i.e., what counts as knowledge, how knowledge claims are justified) and axiological (i.e., the role of values in research) premises, certain philosophical orientations guide the research methodology (Creswell, 2013). In the area of educational research, Carr and Kemmis (1986, as cited in Merriam, 1998) introduced three main paradigms as positivist, interpretive and critical; more recently, some other

epistemological stances like postmodernism, poststructuralism, postcolonialism and so forth have also been identified (see, e.g., Creswell, 2013; Duberley et al., 2012).

Designed as a qualitative case study, this dissertation follows the social constructivist (i.e., interpretive) paradigm. In doing so, the current study is guided by the ontological belief that reality is multiple and individuals construct their own reality via lived experiences and interacting with others. The interpretive paradigm also presupposes a constructivist epistemology which means knowledge is a human construction, and subjective interpretations of the participants constitute the knowledge base; for this reason, building close relationships with the participants is a must for a qualitative researcher, and so subjective evidence is formed based on individual views (Creswell, 2013).

Drawing on these ontological and epistemological underpinnings, participants' views, perceptions and subjective experiences are assumed as the reality in the current research; therefore, different perspectives about the implementation of the FLE program are expressed by making use of actual words of different individuals (Creswell, 2013). This study also assumes that the researcher's own perceptions filter the visions and interpretations received from the participants (Merriam, 1998) given that the researcher is the main instrument for data collection and analysis. Finally, a social constructivist perspective honors individual values, in that value-laden nature of the information collected from the participants is acknowledged (Creswell, 2013), also the researcher's biases are reported in a separate section below (see 3.3 The Role of the Researcher).

All these philosophical assumptions discussed above have guided the researcher to follow a set of methodological procedures. As such, research was conducted in natural settings which involve fieldwork, mainly because "the lived experiences of real people in real settings are the objects of study" (Hatch, 2002, p. 6). Secondly, understanding the phenomenon from the participant's perspectives (i.e., emic) as well as the outsider's view (i.e., etic) was required.

Thirdly, the researcher was the main instrument for data gathering and analysis. Besides, research design emerged as the study progresses and data were collected. Reflexivity forms the unique feature of qualitative research, and so the effect of the researcher on being researched was acknowledged. Lastly, purposive sampling was preferred (Hatch, 2002; Merriam, 1998; Wellington, 2000). With regard to the present study, such a view was acknowledged, and so all the points discussed above were employed in order to examine instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL from the viewpoints of individuals (i.e., teachers and students) consciously experiencing the phenomena.

3.1.1. Research Design: A Case Study

This study seeks to get an in-depth understanding of the congruence between intended and implemented instruction for teaching EFL in a particular FLE program of a public high school. Adopting a qualitative study enables the researcher to get a holistic overview of the context from multiple perspectives (Miles & Huberman, 1994). In addition, qualitative research fits well for a study conducted in a natural environment in close interaction with participants (Creswell, 2007). Using classroom observations and interviews with students and teachers as well as analysis of rich source of documents (i.e., policy documents and instruments) provide a holistic perspective into the instructional policy and practice under investigation.

The ultimate aim of this study was to investigate congruence between intended and implemented instruction for teaching EFL at a public high school in Turkey. To that end, the purpose of this study was threefold; first it aimed to document characteristics of instruction outlined in macro level instructional policy documents, second instructional features prescribed by the policy instruments were analyzed (RQ 1 and 2). Third, the current study aimed to explore day to day realities of a particular EFL program executed at a public high school (RQ3); in doing so, this study aimed to inquire into the classroom level instructional practices and perceptions of the teachers as well as the language learning

experiences of the students (RQ 3.i, and 3.ii). To achieve these purposes, this study was guided by the following research question with its sub questions:

How does the implementation of instructional policy at a public high school align with the instruction outlined for English language education at the policy documents and instruments?

> 1) What instructional characteristics are specified by the policy documents (namely, Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education)?

> 2) What are the main characteristics of instruction for teaching English as a foreign language as specified by the policy instruments (namely Official Bulletin of MNE, 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, English Curriculum for Grade 11, The Instructional Material "Sunshine English 11")?

> 3) How does the instructional policy developed for teaching English as a foreign language realize at a public high school in Turkey?

>> i. What are the instructional practices of the teachers in EFL classroom?
>> ii. How do language learners experience the instructional policy in EFL classroom?

For these purposes, a naturalistic research (Wellington, 2000) is adopted, and an exploratory case study design (Yin, 2009) is used. Yin (2018) advocates choosing case study research on three bases; i) when the main research question

is formulated with "how" and "why" questions, ii) when there is little or no control over the behavioral events, iii) when the study focuses on a contemporary phenomenon (the 'case'). On a similar line, the main research question in this dissertation seeks to explain "how" the contemporary circumstance works; besides, the study looks at variables in their natural setting, so no experimental control is applied. To that end, the contemporary phenomenon (i.e., the 'case') examined in this study is "instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL at upper secondary education."

A case study is defined as "an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p.37). In this regard, the present study seeks to "investigate a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context" (Yin, 2009, p.18): the "contemporary phenomenon" is "instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL at upper secondary education" and its "real-life context" is the EFL instruction in junior year (grade 11) classes of a public high school. Therefore, the unit of study, i.e., instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL at upper secondary education is bounded by time and place (Creswell, 2013). Data were collected during 2017-2018 school year, and EFL instruction executed at junior year (grade 11) classes of a public high school located in the northwestern province of Turkey binds the case.

The focus of the study was on a single program—a particular FLE program for EFL instruction at a public high school. Following types of case studies proposed by Yin (2009), embedded-single case study design was embraced to address the main research question comprehensively. Besides, a purposeful sampling strategy was applied for qualitative fieldwork (Stake, 2005), so junior year (grade 11) students and their EFL teachers were the participants of the study.

Furthermore, multiple sources of information that are a defining feature of a qualitative case study (Creswell, 2013) were collected to investigate the instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL at a public high school. Documents were collected in addition to the classroom observations and

interviews. Policy documents were retrieved from the official websites (e.g., Official Gazette) to answer the first research question, policy instruments were analyzed to answer the second research question; moreover, field data were collected via classroom field notes as well as semi-structured interviews which were conducted with teachers and students to provide an in-depth account of the implementation of the policy at a public high school. Figure 4 below summarizes the data collection techniques and data sources based on the aims of the study.

Finally, there are two main reasons for selecting this specific case (i.e., the FLE program of a public high school) in this research. Firstly, the case "instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL at upper secondary education" provides an instance for the phenomenon of the FLE policy implementation in Turkey. Secondly and more specifically, the basic motivation for the case selection is intrinsic. This unit of analysis is selected because I had an interest in the program I had taught at for eight years (Merriam, 1998).

Instructional Policy and Practice for Teaching EFL at Upper Secondary Education		
Macro Level FLE Policy **Purpose**: To identify features of instruction outlined in policy documents **Data Collection Techniques:** Documents retrieved from official websites -Official Gazette -Official Website of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education **Data Sources:** Instructional policy documents for FLE -Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, 1983 -Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, 2006 -Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2013-2017 -Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education, 2017	**Ministerial Level Instructional Arrangements for Teaching EFL** **Purpose:** To reveal characteristics of desired instruction within policy instruments **Data Collection Techniques:** Instructional instruments delivered at schools **Data Sources:** Policy instruments - Official Bulletin of MNE, 2015-2017 - $9^{th} - 12^{th}$ Grades English Curriculum, 2014 -English Curriculum for Grade 11, 2014 -The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11"	**Micro Level Instructional Policy Implementation** **Purpose:** To explore classroom-level realization of the instructional policy by the teachers and the students **Data Collection Techniques**: Fieldwork **Data Sources**: Field data -Classroom field notes -Semi-structured interviews with teachers (n=3) and students (n=10). -Field notes -Analytic memos on visual data -Supplementary documents (i.e., exam papers, student study sheets, student performance work, and project work samples)

Figure 4. Data Collection Techniques and Data Sources

In addition to the data collection techniques and data sources elaborated in the Figure 4 above, Table 1 reports data collection instruments and data analysis methods used to answer the main research question with its sub-questions.

Table 1. Data Collection and Analysis Methods Used to Answer the Research Questions

Research Question	Data Collection Methods	Data Analysis Methods
How does the implementation of instructional policy at a public high school align with the instruction outlined for English language education at the policy documents and instruments?	*Documents for Macro Instructional Policy *Policy Instruments *Field Data	*Document Analysis *Content Analysis *Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis: MAXQDA
1) What instructional characteristics are specified by the policy documents?	**Data Sources for Macro Instructional Policy** *Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, 1983 *Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, 2006 *Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2013-2017 *Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education, 2017	*Document Analysis
2) What are the main characteristics of instruction for teaching English as a foreign language as specified by the policy instruments?	**Policy Instruments** *Official Bulletin of MNE, 2015-2017 *9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2014 *English Curriculum for Grade 11, 2014 *The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine 11"	*Document Analysis

3) How does the instructional policy developed for teaching English as a foreign language realize at a public high school in Turkey?
  i. What are the instructional practices of the teachers in EFL classroom?
  ii. How do language learners experience the instructional policy in EFL classroom?
	Field Data
	
	*Classroom Field Notes
	*Semi-Structured Interviews (Teachers & Students)
	*Field Notes
	*Analytic Memos on Visual Data
	*Supplementary Documents (exam papers, study sheets, etc.)
		*Content Analysis
		*Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis: MAXQDA

3.2. The Research Setting

The setting for this study is a public academic high school located in the northwestern region of Turkey. The school is located in a rural district surrounded by families with medium-level income and it functions full-time. The school was founded in 2003, and it moved to the new building in which this study was conducted in 2012. The new building is in the same neighborhood as the previous building. Starting from the 2013-2014 school year, the school has been identified as Anatolian high school[3].

The school is a co-educational school with four years of education. In this regard, students study academically for the first two years, but at the end of the second year (Grade 10) the students are in need of elective course selection, so they need to study in a particular field of study like sciences, equally-weighted or foreign language for the last two years of their upper secondary education period. Since field data for this study were collected from junior year (i.e., grade 11) students, the students were distributed to the classes according to their field of study. The average number of students in each class was above 30. Concerning the physical facilities of the classes, the interactive whiteboard (IWB) was available in each classroom in addition to the chalk board, students' desks, teacher's table and a bulletin board. The coursebook for each school subject is delivered by MNE; accordingly, the book called "Sunshine English 11" was delivered to the students registered in grade 11.

During the time span of field data collection (i.e., the 2017-2018 school year), there were seven different grade 11 classes within the research setting. Junior year students had a total of 40 lessons in five week days, in that they had eight classes per day. The classes started at 8.45 in the morning and finished at 3.55 in

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[3] Anatolian high schools are upper secondary education institutions providing four years of academic education.

the afternoon. Four hours of English per week was instructed in junior year (i.e., grade 11) classes.

Regarding the school staff, the managerial staff of the school involved two vice-principals and the school principal. During the data collection procedure for the study (i.e., the 2017-2018 school year), there were six English language teachers. All the teachers were staffed, and they were female. The English teachers had twenty-one hours of course load in a week. Four teachers instructed English in grade 11 classes of the school, including the researcher.

3.3. The Role of the Researcher

"Bu insanlar ve ben böyle yaşadık."

"Those people and I have lived like this" (Atay, 2016, p.12) (translation belongs to me).

The researcher has a critical role in qualitative research for being the primary instrument for data collection and analysis (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2015). This is because "researchers are part of the social world they study" (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007, p. 14). Therefore, researchers have the potential to affect what is being researched, and they can also get affected by the social phenomenon they study (Wellington, 2000; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In qualitative research, there is a need to elucidate the researcher's biases and background as well as experiences concerning the context in which the study is conducted (Creswell, 2013; Merriam, 1998). In this regard, the researcher's positioning, as well as the assumptions, insights, and the researcher's function in relation to the study, are elucidated herein.

To clarify my position in this study, I am a teacher of English and a young woman researcher. I was raised in a middle-income family in a small village. During primary school, I studied in combined classes of the village school. I

graduated from primary school when the 1997 education reform which I call my magic stick, was released. At that time, compulsory education was extended from five years to eight, so I got the opportunity to enroll in the middle school in the town. I met English for the first time at the middle school. After receiving three years of middle school education, I sat for the secondary education examinations, achieved success, and enrolled in teacher training high school. This school was an Anatolian high school that offered a one-year preparatory English program; thereby, I got another opportunity to improve my proficiency in English. Given the driving force behind the execution of Anatolian high schools in the Turkish education system was providing an opportunity for lower-income families' children to learn a foreign language and to get a quality education, I, as a daughter of a family earning their living by farming, in a sense represented the realization of the policy that reached its intentions. This education reform was significant in my life as a young villager girl who had the only opportunity to learn a foreign language only at school. As a graduate of teacher training high school, I achieved success at the university entrance exam and I enrolled in the ELT Department of a state university. As years passed, I felt the influence of education reforms in my becoming a woman who has got her economic status, who knows English, and who achieves a social status in society thanks to these affiliations. And that aroused my attention to the young individuals in my country who receive education in a public school context and how education policies influence their life.

When I decided to work on FLE policy, I had been a teacher of English for five years, and I was a student in the doctoral program. The driving force behind choosing an investigation of such an issue is rooted in a course I took as a component of the doctoral program. In that course, I learned the political perspectives on foreign language learning and teaching. As a result, I gained different perspectives on the politics of language at the national, international, and supranational levels. Grounded on my readings and special interest in politics of language, I conducted a study on language policy development for endangered languages in Turkey as part of a graduate course I enrolled in in the

doctoral program. Studying this aspect helped me get familiar with the ministerial-level policies and arrangements for developing language policies in Turkey.

I also conducted a language program evaluation study in the research setting of the present study as a requirement of another graduate course in the doctoral program. When this study was conducted, the students of this study were freshmen, and one of the participant teachers also instructed EFL classes then. Since they were the study participants, I collected data by classroom observations, interviews with parents and teachers, and open-ended survey questions for students. Conducting a program evaluation study in the setting helped me get more familiar with the instructional procedures in EFL classes and the policy instruments (i.e., 9th–12th Grades English Curriculum, 2014 and the instructional material). Therefore, this evaluation study aroused my interest in instructional practices for EFL, and I decided to dig into the implementation of the FLE policy in this school.

In the ninth year of my teaching career, I started to carry out this study (i.e., 2017-2018 school year). Meanwhile, I had been a teacher of English in this setting for five years. I was an insider who was in danger of "going native" (Gold, 1958, p. 221). I tried to avoid 'going native' by maintaining a marginal position in the research setting; that is, I tried to be an insider and outsider simultaneously (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). In doing so, I paid attention to how I dressed, and I tried to dress similar to the students in the school, as suggested by Hammersley and Atkinson (2007). I wore sneakers, jeans, and t-shirts to gain the trust of the participants. As a researcher, I also benefitted from being an active member of the society in which I collected data; this provided me to build close relationship with the participants.

Given that establishing rapport, empathizing with the participants are features of a qualitative researcher who is a good communicator (Merriam, 1998), the pilot study I conducted in the research setting had already provided me to build

rapport with the participants (i.e., EFL teachers and students). They shared secrets with me, they consulted me about their private issues, and sometimes they spent time with me in and out of the school just for fun. Even one girl shared her family matters with me, and I helped her to solve the problem. In particular, establishing rapport with the participants provided me the opportunity to witness some practices better. At one incident, the students were copying the answers of an activity the teacher had assigned, and one of them hesitated when he recognized me, yet his peer said "*Korkma hacı, hoca bizden!*" "*Dude, don't hesitate from the teacher, she knows us.*" At another incident, the teachers were stressed because another colleague at the school wanted to visit their classes and observe their instruction. In our conversation about the issue, one of the participating teachers said "*Sen olsan neyse, sıkıntı yok, alışkınız, ama onu dersime kabul edemem.*" "*If it were you, it would not be a problem because I am used to your presence in my classes, but I cannot accept the other colleague into my classes.*" These two critical incidents showed me that overall the participants trusted me and they enjoyed sharing their experiences and insights with me.

In addition to the classes I observed instruction, as a teacher of the institution, I taught English in one class of junior year students. It is without any doubt that my instructional practices in this class also influenced my observations. To illustrate, when I recognized my students did not enjoy some reading exercises, I became curious about the reason for it. My interactions with my students about the reasons why they did not enjoy a certain exercise also influenced my observations. I delved into the same issue during my observations. Additionally, noticing the silences in the observations and interviews is an important component of a good listener, and this is another characteristic of a qualitative researcher (Merriam, 1998). In this respect, I recognized the silence in my class; and that aroused my attention in my observations in other classes. I tried to dig into the reason why EFL classes were silent in this school.

As for the risks of being an insider, my conflicting roles as a teacher of the institution and as a researcher embodied some issues. My readings of literature in

general and language teaching methodology in particular influenced my way of instruction in my classes. Even more important, the teachers who witnessed my practices were motivated to employ similar practices in their instruction. For example, a teacher participant, who observed that I assign my students some video tasks, changed her decision and assigned those tasks which had already been suggested within the curriculum, and were also available in the textbook. In that respect, my role as an insider influenced the researched since her practice provided data for the study.

There were some other risks of being an insider; one important problem was that I did not know who I was sometimes. At one incident, I was conversing with a few students while the teacher was instructing the lesson. Suddenly, she got angry with a few other students who made noise. I was startled by her shouting and recognized that I did not follow the instruction in the lesson; I also recognized that I was not observing the participants' instructional practices. At such moments of classroom observations, I felt like a student of the class who was getting bored and trying to spend time chatting with peers.

Having recognized my role 'going native,' I tried to keep distance with the content and myself by jotting down my reflections, feelings, emotions and opinions. To maintain an outsider position, I also tried to be alone from time to time in the research site to observe the participants while they were having a conversation with someone or dealing with school chores (e.g., preparing for the next class, doing paperwork, looking for stuff). These moments of loneliness helped me remember my role as a researcher and gain a critical lens in interpreting what was happening in the research setting daily. I believe conducting this research in my institution made me more fruitful as a teacher. Overall, I can say that I gained a deeper understanding of the program in which I conducted the study.

3.4. Piloting Procedures

In this case study, a series of piloting procedures were conducted to increase the quality of the research as well as the validity of data collection methods. In the literature, several advantages of conducting pilot studies are identified (see, e.g., Malmqvist, Hellberg, Möllas, Rose, & Shevlin, 2019; Sampson, 2004). In this respect, Sampson (2004) recommends using a pilot test to minimize observer bias and sustain good fieldwork relations in an ethnographic study. In qualitative research, Malmqvist et al. (2019) argue for conducting a pilot study to be better informed and prepared to face the challenges that may arise during the main study.

In this study, there were multiple aims of the piloting procedures. Firstly, a pilot study was designed and implemented to get familiar with the setting and develop data collection instruments. Secondly, another piloting procedure was conducted to test the interview questions. The piloting procedures in this case study, on the whole, aimed to determine the most effective methodology to collect data in the main research and inform the research design accordingly, as suggested by Yin (2018). All these procedures were clarified below.

3.4.1. Piloting the Fieldwork

The pilot study for the fieldwork was conducted during the second half of the 2016-2017 school year. The aim of the dissertation then was to investigate language learner identity construction as a result of the instructional policy implementation at a public high school. In this regard, an ethnographic case study approach was embraced as the research design. There were three main aims of the pilot study; i) to identify the research setting, ii) to select the participants, iii) to develop and pilot test the data collection tools.

To reach these aims, the instructional policy implementation for teaching EFL within the research setting was observed. Intended participants for the main

study were students in grade 10, so English language teaching practices concerning the 10th grade classes of the school were under examination. The classroom-level implementation of the policy in all the 10th grade classes (n: 7) was observed regularly; the researcher was teaching English at four out of seven classes in the 2016-2017 school year.

During the piloting procedure, field notes were written down. As the researcher was the teacher of four classes, she wrote down her instructional practices in these classes after each lesson. As two different teachers instructed the other three classes, the researcher visited each class once a week until the end of the school year. However, she only took a seat at the back of the classroom and observed the lesson without taking note of anything in the first period of the piloting procedure. Instead, she jotted down what she had observed during the lesson at the end of the school day. That continued for about six to eight weeks. The researcher's aim was to help the students get used to her presence inside the classroom and get to know the flow of the lessons and the routines of EFL classes. In one incident, students wanted her to confirm that she visited their classes for discipline issues at school. After the researcher informed them that she was not on the discipline committee of the school, they told her that they felt relaxed. That incident implied that the researcher's presence in the EFL classes was becoming accepted, and she was gaining access to the context. From an ethnographic lens, access does not simply mean the physical presence in the setting. Although one can enter numerous settings easily, it does not guarantee to do appropriate activity there, which means there is no access (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007).

In order to gain access, Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) argue for the negotiation; even as a researcher, one needs to negotiate his/her role in the setting and obtain different roles to collect data such as a friend, a student, a teacher or a researcher. During the piloting procedure for the fieldwork, the researcher's aim was to negotiate her role in the setting since she had been a permanent EFL teacher of the school for five years. As the students knew her as

a teacher of the school, gaining access to their community was not easy. They were hesitating from her presence in EFL classes. The researcher tried to develop intimate relations by spending time with them during the break times. She initiated the conversation with them and tried to talk about the topics they liked. She tried to obtain a role different than a teacher. After some time passed, the students started to identify her as a consultant or psychologist. They started to share some of their personal problems like a family relation, a problem with a teacher in the school, or concerns related to the university entrance examination. These incidences helped the researcher understand that she was no longer only a teacher for them; instead, she had a different role that enabled her to gain real access to the setting of which she had been a member for a long time.

Meanwhile, the researcher also aimed at choosing possible student participants for the main study. Her criteria for selecting the participants were to focus on the language learners who displayed active participation in EFL classes and who could communicate in English effectively during the lesson. In this respect, she had conversations with the EFL teachers and asked for their advice to determine the participant in their class. The researcher also recognized a few multilingual students, and she had a particular interest in their language learning practices in EFL classes. On account of the fact that they were active in EFL classes and they employed some techniques to perform the activities different than the foreign language learners in the classroom. For example, they sometimes guessed the meaning of unknown words by evoking a similar word in another language they were competent at (i.e., German or French).

Having decided on the possible participants, the researcher had a conversation with them, and she informed the students about the aim of the dissertation and how she would collect data (i.e., observations and interviews). After that, she asked whether they wanted to participate in the main study, which was planned to be conducted in the following school year. All the ten students whom she invited to participate in the study accepted. Having chosen the participants, the researcher observed the classes by taking note of what was happening during the

lesson and what the participant did. Besides, the researcher developed a semi-structured observation guide and performed a pilot test in the classes in which she did not teach.

In addition to the field notes that reported the instructional practices inside the classroom, the researcher also collected data via daily conversations with the student participants. She visited the students just after the lesson was over, and she asked how the lesson was and what they did during the lesson. In the daily conversations with the participants, the researcher also tried to get to know them in detail; she tried to learn their hobbies and interests and their attitudes towards English. In order to build trust, the researcher focused on having 'ordinary' topics of conversations with the students, as suggested by Hammersley and Atkinson (2007). Therefore, she tried to get familiar with the topics they liked (e.g., computer games, celebrities, and TV series). The researcher went near them during the break times, and she initiated the conversation according to their interests. After having a conversation about ordinary things for a while, she tried to learn their comments about the English lesson. If she observed the lesson, the researcher tried to focus on their particular manners during the lesson (e.g., their comment for a particular question); she wanted to delve into the reason why they presented these manners and behaviors during the lesson.

In the daily conversations with the students, the researcher recognized the language learning practices of the students out of the EFL classes. Students mentioned using language in social media platforms, making foreign friends in online communities, watching foreign series, and alike. Gaining such a perspective influenced the study a lot; the researcher recognized that such practices motivated the students toward EFL classes. She also observed that these students used the lexis and expressions they learned in these platforms during the lesson; for instance, some students were familiar with the target vocabulary in the reading texts thanks to computer games.

It is worth mentioning that the scope of the field notes was narrowed down gradually; that is to say, note-taking indicated three main phases. The researcher started note-taking by writing each and everything that happened inside the school building, so there was no specific focus of attention and what she experienced during the day was the main issue of the field notes. The field notes were like diaries in which the researcher jotted down her personal experiences. In the second phase of the field note-taking, she framed the notes only what was happening at 10th grade classes, yet the focus of the observations was still the researcher and what she experienced during the day. In the third phase, the field notes only focused on what the participants did and experienced on a typical school day. Thus, the researcher's experiences were no longer at the center of the field notes; instead, what the participants experienced during a typical school day, and what they shared with her were the main points of the field notes.

As predicted, the piloting procedure did not involve only the ethnographic fieldwork. Four different ethnographic interviews were planned at the beginning of the piloting procedure, and each interview concerned a different aspect of the policy implementation. To prepare the interview guide, the researcher did extensive readings on ethnographic interviewing. In this regard, she read several methodology books (e.g., Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007; Spradley, 1979). Building on Spradley (1979), in the pilot interviews, the researcher tried to employ some techniques used in ethnographic interviews. As such, showing interest in what the respondent said by making comments during the conversation, sharing her own experiences in response to the respondent's explanations, and restating what the respondent said to help him/her to clarify the ideas better were among them.

The pilot test for all the interviews was conducted with three students who were not selected as the main study participants. Another series of ethnographic interviews were also planned for the teachers, but no pilot test was done because it was unsure which teacher would teach English in grade 11 classes the following school year. In addition to the interviews and field notes,

supplementary materials such as the students' reflection papers about an exercise and the photos of the instruction written on the board were also collected to understand the research setting better.

At the end of the semester (i.e., the second half of the 2016-2017 school year), the researcher had reports of classroom observations and daily conversations with the students, which were written clearly on a daily basis. The researcher also had developed a semi-structured observation guide to observe the participant students' practices in EFL classes. Besides, she had pilot tested the interview questions with three students. Having gathered extensive field notes, the researcher read all the data thoroughly. She tried to focus on the content of the notes she jotted down. Then, she shared a preliminary analysis of the field notes with the Dissertation Committee Members in November 2017.

Examining the fieldwork data indicated that the content of the notes did not provide much data to investigate language learner identity construction. Instead, classroom observation notes provided information about instructional practices realized in the lesson. Although the study aimed at focusing on a few good language learners (i.e., high achievers and multilingual students), the fieldwork data involved information about several students (e.g., students who were disengaged in the lesson, students who participated in the lesson, etc.) as well as the teachers' instructional practices during the lesson. In other words, fieldwork data did not serve the aim of the study as regards to exploring language learner identity construction. Henceforth, based on the Dissertation Committee Members' feedback, the scope of the study changed from "language learner identity construction as a result of instructional policy implementation" to "instructional policy alignment between intended and realized instruction."

Given that conducting a pilot study might result in learning something that was not planned (Sampson, 2004), this pilot study led to change the study's primary aim, the participants, the data collection tools, and so the research design. Therefore, the aim of the study was revised to investigate instructional policy

alignment rather than the language learner identity construction. The participants became all the students who would accept to participate in the study on a voluntary basis, as well as their EFL teachers. As for the data collection tools, the researcher recognized that the semi-structured observation guide was limited in scope; in that it did not help reveal the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy via hand-in-hand practices of the teachers and the students. For this reason, the observation guide was canceled; instead, jotting down classroom field notes after participating in the lesson was decided. In this respect, the researcher read the book titled "*Writing Ethnographic Fieldnotes*" (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995). Using classroom field notes in preference to a semi-structured observation guide would help write down day-to-day realities and momentary incidences that emerged during the lesson. As the aim of the study changed, the interview questions were also needed to be revised. The procedures for piloting the interviews were reported in detail below.

At the beginning of the pilot study, an ethnographic case study approach was planned for this dissertation. However, changing the aim and the data collection tools required a change in the research design. In the end, a qualitative case study was embraced as the methodology, and using ethnographic methods to collect data was acknowledged.

3.4.2. Piloting the Interviews

As mentioned above, a pilot test for the interview questions was conducted; however, these questions aimed at elaborating language learner identity construction. When the study changed into instructional policy alignment, a new interview guide for teachers and students was prepared. These interview questions aimed to disclose EFL teachers' instructional practices and the students' language learning experiences. The researcher piloted these interview questions at the end of the first half of the 2017-2018 school year because some interview questions focused on the respondents' experiences in EFL classes.

The researcher prepared semi-structured interview guides for teachers and students. Some questions were the same, but there were also different questions in the interview guides. For instance, she posed "Can you please explain a typical English lesson that you had in grade 11?" to both groups of participants, yet some questions were specific to the teachers (e.g., How do you assess the students' productive skills?). The researcher planned a single interview with each participant. There were 19 questions in the student interview guide and 22 questions in the teacher interview guide.

In order to have an external opinion on the content of the interview questions, the questions were reviewed by an expert in the field of ELT. This expert was knowledgeable about the curriculum. She commented on the questions and suggested alternative questions that can be posed about the curriculum. Based on her feedback, the interview guide was revised, and new questions were added. For example, the questions "What do you think about the curriculum guide? Have you ever read the curriculum guide?" were added. The researcher prepared interview questions in Turkish, the mother tongue of the participants. The interview questions were also reviewed by an expert in the field of Turkish language to check whether any questions were obscure.

The researcher conducted interviews with an EFL teacher and a student who met the selection criteria. For the teacher interview, the researcher visited an academic high school in the same neighborhood as the research setting. She interviewed an EFL teacher teaching English in grade 11 classes of a public high school. For the student interview, the researcher interviewed a junior year student (i.e., grade 11). The respondent was a student in the research setting, but this student was a member of the classroom, which she did not observe as part of the data collection in the main study.

Interviews were conducted in Turkish, and they were recorded. The researcher conducted only one interview with each respondent; the teacher interview lasted 63 minutes, student interview lasted 77 minutes. The researcher typed the

interviews verbatim and then read them thoroughly. Reading the answers, the participants shared indicated that some interview questions did not focus on the experiences of the respondents; instead, their ideas and opinions about the curriculum and the textbook were the focus of attention (e.g., Do you read the curriculum guide? What do you think about the textbook?). Also, conducting a single interview was not efficient since it lasted more than an hour, the respondents were exhausted. The pilot study of the interviews indicated that some interview questions did not serve the study's aims, and conducting a single interview was not efficient. In this regard, there was a need to revise the interview guides and the questions.

Another pilot study was decided to be implemented. New interview schedules were prepared for teachers and students. The new interview forms consisted of four main parts: 1) Demographic information of the participants, 2) General description of the EFL classes, 3) The use of technology in EFL classes, and 4) Assessment and evaluation practices. The questions mainly aimed at eliciting participants' experiences in all three areas, i.e., routines of EFL classes, the use of technology in EFL classes, and assessment practices.

A professor in the field of Educational Sciences who is expert in qualitative research was consulted for her feedback on the content and face validity of the interview questions. Based on her feedback, a few prompts were added for some questions. For example, the question of "Can you explain a typical EFL class in grade 11?" remained unchanged, but prompts "What do you do at the beginning of the lesson? How do you move on the lesson? How do you finish the lesson?" were added. Also, the yes/no questions were replaced with what and how questions, as illustrated below:

> 1st version: "Do you focus on listening and speaking skills in English classes of grade 11?"
> 2nd version: "Which language skills do you focus on in a typical EFL class? How do you focus on these skills?"

Besides, several questions in the previous interview guide were deleted; in particular, questions that pose the participants' views and opinions rather than experiences were canceled. For instance, "EFL course is four hours per week in the course schedule. What do you think about it?" was deleted. Therefore, alternative questions that posed the participants' experiences were formed. For instance, the question of "What are the challenges you came across teaching EFL in grade 11 classes? Please give examples from your experiences" was added. Also, the question of "What do you like in teaching EFL in grade 11 classes?" was expanded with a new question as "What kind of activities and exercises do you like in EFL classes of grade 11? Please specify one by one and explain the reasons." Furthermore, prompts were added as "listening comprehension activities, reading comprehension activities, writing activities, speaking activities, linguistic properties, activities that are performed with using technology."

As the interview questions were prepared in Turkish, a specialist in the Turkish language was consulted to review the questions whether they were clear enough to understand. The pilot tests of the interviews were conducted in June 2018. A teacher who taught EFL in grade 11 classes of a vocational high school in the same province volunteered to participate in the pilot study. Interviews were conducted in her house. Besides, a grade 11 student who was a member of the classroom in which I did not collect data in the main study accepted to participate in the pilot study. The researcher met her at a café and conducted the interviews in two days.

In the second piloting phase, interviews were conducted in Turkish, and they were recorded, as was in the previous one. The interviews with the teacher lasted 66 minutes, i.e., 34 minutes for the demographic information and general description of the EFL classes in grade 11, 14 minutes for the use of technology in EFL classes, 18 minutes for assessment and evaluation practices. As for the interviews with the student, they lasted 47 minutes, i.e., 16 minutes for the demographic information and general description of the EFL classes in grade 11,

13 minutes for the use of technology, 18 minutes for assessment and evaluation practices.

The researcher typed all the interviews verbatim, which allowed her to get familiar with the respondents' answers better. She read all the interview transcriptions thoroughly, and then some questions were revised. For instance, the interview questions that did not elicit the respondents' experiences in EFL classes were deleted. In this respect, teacher interview questions such as "What kind of language learner do you want to raise? What do you think about the joint examination procedure? How is the classroom atmosphere in EFL classes of grade 11?" were deleted. In the interview guide for students, the questions "What do you like in EFL classes of grade 11? Which activities do you like in EFL classes of grade 11?" were prepared to be posed as a single question. After the pilot study, the researcher decided to pose them as separate questions because the student gave different answers for each question.

After the revisions, the last version of the interview guides for teacher and student interviews was prepared. The professor reviewed the last version of the interview guides, who had been consulted before conducting this pilot study. She confirmed the questions and the interview guides. In the end, the interview guides became ready to collect data from the participants; there were 21 questions in the teacher interview guide (see Appendix A). 18 questions were included in the final version of the student interview guide (see Appendix B).

3.5. Sampling Procedures

One of the requirements of qualitative case studies is to identify the unit of analysis that will be investigated. This process is called sampling. Different than probability sampling employed by quantitative researchers, purposeful sampling-—also identified as non-probability sampling by quantitative methodologists, is preferred in qualitative studies (Patton, 2015). Bearing on its design as a qualitative case study, this dissertation study makes use of purposeful sampling

strategies. By definition, purposeful sampling refers to the deliberate selection of participants, settings and events. As Patton (2015) puts it, "the logic and power of purposeful sampling lies in selecting *information-rich cases* for study in-depth" (p. 264, italics in original). From this perspective, the first step in sampling this study was to reach the case that would inform to understand the instructional policy and practice for teaching EFL at the state-level upper secondary education context in Turkey.

Regarding sampling, Merriam (1998) differentiates qualitative case studies from the other types of qualitative research. On account of the fact that qualitative case studies entail *two* levels of sampling (italics in original). First, there is a need to select "the case" that will be studied. Second, sampling within the case itself is necessary, as long as researchers do not plan to interview and observe all the individuals or analyze all the documents within the case. As a requirement of its nature then, two sampling strategies were used to select the research setting and the participants in this study.

First, convenience sampling was employed to select the research setting. According to Wellington (2000), convenience sampling on a non-probability basis refers to making use of personal connections that exist with a school to gain quality information. As a permanent staff of the research setting, I had already had personal links with the school itself and the informants (i.e., teachers and students). In this sense, being a tenured teacher of the school enabled me some opportunities in terms of time, money, location, and respondents.

Second, maximum variation sampling, defined as selecting informants that represent the greatest differences (Cresswell, 2013; Wellington, 2000), was used to select classrooms for observation and student participants for the interview. In this regard, classroom observations were conducted in five different grade 11 classes. Since the third year in academic high schools necessitates the organization of classes according to the fields of study, the distribution of the fields of study was considered in order to achieve a wide spectrum of

perspectives in the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy. These were sciences, equally-weighted, foreign language, and social sciences fields of study. Apart from the observation, a few criteria were used to select student participants for the interview: 1) the students' academic success, 2) gender, and 3) the field of study.

3.6. Participants

In this study, junior year students and their EFL teachers were the participants. During the data collection procedure, three EFL teachers were teaching English in grade 11 classes, and all the teachers participated in the study. Junior year students were selected as the informants mainly because the new 9th -12th grades English curriculum (MEB, 2014) was put into use when these students started high school (i.e., 2015-2016 school year). This curriculum was the one executed for teaching EFL at public high schools all over Turkey during the data collection period.

Senior students (i.e., grade 12) never received instruction in the new English curriculum because of the gradual implementation of the teaching program. Freshman and sophomore students' experience in the implementation of the program in this school was less than the junior year students. Therefore, students in grade 11 represented a group of learners who received the most instruction according to the new curriculum during the upper secondary education period. They were also more experienced than the freshman and sophomore students concerning the implementation of the instructional policy in this school. In addition to that, a pilot study was conducted with junior year students when they were sophomores. In this way, they became familiar with the researcher and the study itself.

3.6.1. Students

Junior year (grade 11) students taking EFL course at a public high school in the 2017-2018 school year took part in the study. A junior year student in this study is the one who has completed two—or three perhaps because they might have failed in the previous grades; i.e., grade 9 and/or grade 10—years of study at upper secondary education, and who is currently enrolled for his/her third year of upper secondary education. The majority of the students were born in 2000 or 2001; a few students were above the age of 18 due to failing class in previous grades. Almost all the students were Turkish citizens except for a student from Azerbaijan and another from Iraq. There were also a few multilingual students born in a European country, and who went to school for a while there because their parents used to be expatriate workers there. All the students were residents of the same province, but some students resided in the towns of the city.

I observed EFL instruction in five different classes, and a total of 170 students enrolled in these classes (approximately 34 in each class). Since the school was coeducational, there were both male and female students in each classroom. In this school, there were seven grade 11 classes; I was the teacher of English in one class, and there were no students who volunteered to participate in the study in the other class. Of all the seven classes, approximately 240 students were enrolled, and the end-of-year average success percentage for the EFL class in grade 11 classes was 52% in this school.

A total of 10 students took part in the interviews, and each student interviewed individually. There were average 34 students in each class, and two students in each class were interviewed. First, students were classified according to their academic success in EFL class in grade 11. In this regard, students scoring higher than 85 out of 100 were considered to be high-achievers, those scoring between 70.00 and 84.00 were considered to be medium-achievers. While scoring between 50 and 69 means pass, those scoring under 50 were the low-

achievers. However, because the number of low-achievers who took part in the classes regularly was quite few, only one low-achiever student was interviewed.

Second, students' field of study was also considered. Of the 10 students, five students were studying at the sciences field of study, three were studying at the equally-weighted, yet there was only one student of foreign language field of study, and one from the social sciences field of study. Table 2 below shows the distribution of the participants according to their field of study and achievement level:

Table 2. The Distribution of Student Interview Participants

Field of study	High-achiever (the excellent)	Medium-achiever (the good)	Pass	Low-achiever (the fail)	Total
Sciences	1	2	2	-	5
Equally-weighted	2	1	-	-	3
Social sciences	-	-	-	1	1
Foreign language	1	-	-	-	1
Total	4	3	2	1	10

In addition to their achievement level in EFL and fields of study, a more detailed record of the informants' age, gender, starting grade to learn English, and personal language learning practices were provided in the table below (see Table 3). As the number of participating students was not limited to the interview participants in this study, a combination of the initial of the word "student" with a number was used (e.g., S1, S2, etc.) to refer to student participants. In this way, it could be easier for the reader to follow each student's views all through the text.

Table 3. List of Student Participants for Interview

Student	Age	Gender	Starting Grade to Learn English	Personal Language Learning Practices
S1	17	Male	Grade 4 of primary school	-Listening to foreign music -Watching Anime videos with English subtitles -Reading Anime books in English -Watching foreign series and movies
S2	17	Female	Grade 4 of primary school	-Studying for grammar and vocabulary -Studying for pronunciation by using Google Translate -Watching foreign series and movies -Reading English story books -Using the mobile app "Duolingo"
S3	17	Female	Grade 4 of primary school	-Watching foreign series -Speaking in English with friends and family members
S4	18	Male	Grade 8 of middle school	-Reading English news online (e.g., BBC) -Keeping a vocabulary notebook
S5	18	Female	Grade 4 of primary school	-Listening to foreign music -Watching foreign series and movies -Speaking in English with family members
S6	17	Female	Grade 1 of primary school	-Asking unknown topics in the textbook to the teacher -Using a dictionary -Searching for grammar structures on the Internet -Watching grammar instruction videos on YouTube
S7	18	Female	Grade 3 of primary education	-Preparing a vocabulary box -Writing a word three times or five times -Watching foreign movies
S8	17	Male	Grade 4 of primary school	-Listening to foreign music -Watching foreign movies -Reading English story books -Using social media to communicate with foreign friends
S9	17	Male	Grade 1 of primary school	-Listening to foreign music -Watching foreign series with English subtitles -Speaking in English with friends
S10	17	Male	Grade 4 of primary school	-Attending a private tuition course for English -Watching grammar instruction videos on YouTube -Using the mobile app "Duolingo" -Watching foreign series and movies -Watching TV channels in English (e.g., NHK World)

As is seen above, the age range of the student participants for interview was between 17 and 18. Of the 10 students, five were female, five were male. And one student was from Azerbaijan, the rest were the citizens of Turkey. One

student was born in Austria and went to primary school there for four years, so she spoke German in addition to Turkish and English. The students' starting grade for learning English varied; almost all the students started to learn English at the primary school, yet only one male student started to learn English through the end of the middle school. That student mentioned that although they had English classes at the primary school, they studied math in this lesson. This was the only lower achiever student among the interview participants.

Finally, the students mentioned several language learning practices; they generally benefitted from technology to improve their English by watching movies and series or listening to foreign music. They also used the Internet for a host of reasons such as watching grammar instruction videos and studying for pronunciation. A few students mentioned communicating with someone like a family member or a friend in English. Also, the students shared a few practices like preparing a vocabulary box, or keeping a vocabulary notebook. When necessary, more detailed information about students' personal language learning practices was given in the characteristics of realized instruction part of the results chapter (Chapter 4).

3.6.2. EFL Teachers

Of the six EFL teachers working at the school, four teachers, including the researcher were teaching at the EFL classes of junior year students during 2017-2018 school year. Therefore, three teachers of EFL were the participants of the study. All the teachers were permanent staff, and they were female. They were above 30. Their years of experience ranged between six and twelve, yet their teaching experience in this school ranged between one and four years. All the teachers had bachelor's degree, two were graduates of ELT Department, and one had graduated from Linguistics Department.

All the teachers agreed to participate in the interviews. Yet, one teacher participated in the first and second parts of the interview only, and then she

ceased to participate in the study and did not contribute to the third and the fourth parts of the interview. To keep the confidentiality of teacher participants, they were given pseudonyms. Table 4 below provides brief background information about the age, gender, educational background, and teaching experience of the respondents.

Table 4. Demographics of the Teacher Participants

Participant	Gender	Age	Education	Total Experience	Experience in the Research Setting
Snowdrop	Female	34	BA[1] from DEL[2] & Pedagogic Formation from ELT	11 years	4 years
Tulip	Female	33	BA from ELT	6 years	1 year
Marigold	Female	36	BA from ELT	12 years	1,5 year

Note: 1. BA: Bachelor of Arts   2. DEL: Department of English Linguistics

3.7. Data Collection Procedures

To explore characteristics of instruction in teaching EFL within the context of Turkish state-level upper secondary education, the present study tries to unearth alignment between characteristics of intended instruction for teaching EFL communicated by policy documents and instruments and characteristics of realized instruction executed at a public high school. In this study, data were collected by making use of ethnographic methods. Atay (2016) reports the historical evolution of ethnography as moving away from the perspective of "Those people live in this way" to the one as "Those people and I have lived like this" (p. 12). Grounded on an ethnographic lens, I collected data as an insider in this dissertation study.

In qualitative research, Creswell (2013) mentions four basic types of information as observation, interviews, documents, and audio-visual materials. Regarding case study research, Yin (2003) identifies six sources of data: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observation, and physical artifacts. In the same way, the researcher conducted

extensive observations and interviews, as well as daily conversations with the respondents on a regular basis; also documents and audio-visual data were collected.

By making use of several data sources, methodological triangulation was employed with the aim of increasing the trustworthiness of the study (Wellington, 2000). For example, official policy documents and policy instruments were reviewed; classroom observations were conducted in five different classes in addition to the analytic memos on the visual data. Three EFL teachers and ten students were interviewed; also daily conversations with the teachers and the students were jotted down by making use of field notes. That is to say, the researcher wrote down her day-to-day interaction and conversations with the participants with regard to any issue emerged concerning teaching English in grade 11 classes. Lastly, supplementary documents such as study sheets, exam papers and etc. were collected. Merriam (1998) claims that being a qualitative researcher necessitates the ability to write. In addition to the classroom field notes and field notes, the researcher wrote reflective journal notes about methodological aspects of the study, emergent findings, and her own reactions and reflections. A sample reflective journal entry is available in the appendix (see Appendix C).

In this study, data were not collected simultaneously. The field data collection period started in October 2017 and ended in November 2018. Classroom observations were conducted, and field notes were noted for one school year between October 2017 and June 2018. After that, interview data were collected from July to November 2018. However, the period of document collection did not follow a certain schedule. Although policy instruments were collected before field data collection, policy documents were collected as the last part of the data collection procedure. In other words, policy documents were sorted out when field data collection procedures were finished. The following table demonstrates data collection methods and the timeline for each phase.

Table 5. Instruments and Timeline for Data Collection

Data Collection Instruments	Timeline of Data Collection
Phase I: Document Review	
Policy documents	December 2018
Policy instruments	September 2017
Phase II: Field Data	
Classroom field notes	
Field notes	October 2017–June 2018
Analytic memos on visual data	
Supplementary documents	
Semi-structured interviews	July–November 2018

3.7.1. Data Collection Procedures in Phase I

Phase I of the study aimed to answer the first and the second questions, in that characteristics of intended instruction for teaching EFL at upper secondary education conveyed by the policy documents and instruments were revealed by making use of data collected from official documents (e.g., Ministry of National Education, Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education) and policy instruments (e.g., the curriculum guide).

3.7.1.1. Macro Level Policy Documents

Policy documents were retrieved from official websites; these were Official Gazette [https://www.resmigazete.gov.tr/], and Directorate General for Secondary Education [http://ogm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_07/07134246_orta-ogretim-bros.pdf]. Policy documents retrieved from Official Gazette were composed of laws and legislative decrees as well as by-laws prepared by MNE. Finally, Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education published in the official website referred above formed the last macro instructional policy document (see Appendix D).

3.7.1.2. Policy Instruments

Review of the official papers retrieved from the official website of the Official Bulletin of MNE [http://tebligler.meb.gov.tr/] indicated two main sources for policy instruments in terms of EFL instruction in junior year classes of Anatolian high schools (grade 11). These were English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (grades 9, 10, 11 and 12) published by BED on behalf of MNE in 2014, and "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11" published by Cem Veb Ofset in 2017. In other words, circular and announcements published in the Official Bulletin of MNE, the curriculum guide prepared for EFL instruction at upper secondary education, English curriculum for grade 11 prepared for EFL instruction in junior year (grade 11) classes, and the instructional material "Sunshine English 11" formed the policy instruments which were in use in the course of field data collection (2017-2018 school year).

Table 6. Types of Official Documents Used for Document Review

Macro Policy Documents	Policy Instruments
*Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, 1983	*Official Bulletin of MNE, 2015-2017
*Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, 2006	*9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2014
*Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2013-2017	*MNE English Curriculum for Grade 11, 2014
*Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education, 2017	*The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11"

3.7.2. Data Collection Procedures in Phase II

In Phase II, the aim was to explore how the instructional policy for teaching EFL is implemented in a particular program of a public high school. In order to reveal classroom-level realization of the instructional policy and day-to-day realities emerging while the program is being implemented, field data were collected. Thus, classroom observations were conducted, and analytic memos on a few visual data were kept. Supplementary documents such as exam papers were

collected. In addition to the daily conversations with different stakeholders (i.e., school administrator, teachers and students), interviews with teachers and students were conducted.

3.7.2.1. Classroom Field Notes

Observational data are identified as the primary source of data in qualitative research as they allow the researcher firsthand encounters with the phenomenon he/she investigates (Merriam, 1998). Among the different data gathering sources, ethnographic field notes are identified as unstructured observation (Lynch, 1996). In this dissertation, classroom observations were made to get an in-depth understanding of the EFL classes offered in this school for grade 11 students in terms of the characteristics of instruction. Grounded on the ethnographic perspective, observational data were collected via classroom field notes involving descriptive notes and detailed accounts of events happening during the lesson.

According to Emerson et al. (1995), "field notes are accounts describing experiences and observations the researcher has made while participating in an intense and involved manner" (pp. 4-5). Emersen et al. (1995) further underscore that writing field notes do not mean copying what happened; instead, it involves an active process of the researcher's interpretation and sense-making of the events. And this refers to a process of selection; while some areas are found to be significant and written down, some other events can be ignored, albeit being important (Emerson et al., 1995; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). In writing field notes, providing rich and thick descriptions of the people and observed events is necessary (Creswell, 2013). In this regard, Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) cautioned against writing compressed summary accounts of events; instead, "speech should be rendered in a manner that approximates to verbatim report and represents nonverbal behavior in relatively concrete terms" (p. 145). Although it was not possible for me to record each and every event that happened in the lesson and the expressions of the informants, I paid specific

attention to a few expressions and jotted them down verbatim in my field notebook. I also tried to write down short conversations between the teacher and students or the students themselves during the lesson. In addition to the events I observed during the lesson, I had short conversations with teachers and students when the lesson was finished. In these conversations, I focused on particular activities performed or behaviors students and teachers displayed during the lesson. I tried to understand the rationale behind such occurrences. I wrote down these data into my field notes, as well. Therefore, my classroom field notes were composed of two main parts as "description of events" and "what is shared with me." The former referred to a detailed descriptive account of events observed, while the latter involved conversational data gathered after the lesson was finished. In order to differentiate my observations from my opinions, I also added a part called "Observer's Comment (OC)" when necessary, as suggested by Saldana(2013). One of these classroom field notes is available in Appendix E.

In data gathering by observation, another crucial aspect that researchers are cautioned for is the discipline necessary for taking note of field notes immediately after observation (Creswell, 2013; Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007). Accordingly, I jotted down the field notes daily just after I conducted the observations. I stayed at school after my classes finished; I finished writing my field notes before I left school in order to remember the events I observed better. I paid specific attention to find a room where I could be alone not to lose my attention while narrating the events. I wrote down my observations in a separate word document for each class, and I compiled them in a file on the computer.

During the field data collection phase of the study, there were seven different grade 11 classes within the research setting, classroom field notes were collected in five of them. I was offering instruction in one out of seven classes, and there were not any student participants in the other class who volunteered to attend the study during the piloting procedure. For the class that I was teaching, I wrote my self-reflections, but I did not use them as the data, rather they helped me better understand the realities of the context (for a sample self-reflection, see Appendix

G). As for the five classes, I collected in-depth, extensive field notes by visiting each class a week regularly during the school year (i.e., 2017-2018 school year). A total of 81 classroom observations were conducted ranging from 15 to 18 for each class. Of all the classroom field notes, three or four of them were collected in the first semester from October to November 2017 while the rest were collected in the second semester of the school year from February to May 2018 (see Table 7 below).

To prevent revealing the identities of the participants, each class was given a code in this study. Classes with the field of study as Sciences (i.e., Sciences Class) were referred to the initials of this category: SC1, SC2, etc. while those with the field of study equally-weighted (i.e., Equally-weighted Class) were called Mathematics Class (MC), because there was a class which was composed of students with two different fields of study; while there were a group of students from sciences field of study, the rest of the students were studying at equally-weighted field of study. Since Mathematics was the main common class in their curricula, they were grouped in the same classroom. For this reason, such classes (i.e., sciences and equally weighted or equally-weighted only) were called MC1 and MC2. The last class was another mixed one (i.e., social sciences and foreign language fields of study), they were grouped together because they had the same Social Sciences Classes (SSC). Therefore, they were named SSC1. Numbers given to the courses were random not following the order of classes offered in the program.

Table 7. Total Number of Classes and Classroom Observations

	Class Code	The 1st Semester (October-November 2017)	The 2nd Semester (February-May 2018)	Total
	SC1	2	14	16
	SC2	3	12	15
	MC1	3	15	18
	MC2	3	13	16
	SSC1	4	12	16
Total	5	15	66	81

In this study, the researcher's degree of participation varied depending on the events and situations. Considering the four possible stances in the classic typology of Gold (1958), my participation in the events moved along a continuum from a complete participant to a complete observer. As Hatch (2002) puts it, researchers can select passive, moderate, or active levels of participation based on their aims. Since I was known as a teacher of the school, it was not possible for me to be a fully passive participant. Given that moderate participant observation refers to the observer's changing roles between active and passive in the setting (Lynch, 1996), my involvement in the EFL classes can be described as moderate. During the piloting procedure, I introduced myself as a researcher, and I took written consent from students when I started collecting data for the main study. Therefore, I generally behaved as an observer, took a seat in the classroom, and wrote down the events during the lesson. But, my role as an observer did not remain unchanged. Sometimes, teachers asked my help to conduct exams on behalf of them in the classroom. At other times, students consulted me to help them perform a class activity. As I participated in these activities only when the respondents wanted me to do so, my involvement in EFL classes could be identified as moderate.

To clarify, my role as a researcher was passive when I started classroom observations in the first semester of the school year (i.e., October to November 2017). I conducted nonparticipant observation as an outsider of the group (Creswell, 2013). I took a seat in the classroom; I watched classroom events and took extensive notes. When I recognized that my notes were limited, focusing on particular students and their manners during the lesson, I decided to stop visiting classes for a while. I recognized that I was losing sight of some particular events happening during the lesson when I focused on taking note of the events. Therefore, I decided not to take extensive notes during the lesson. Instead, I decided to take note of particular phrases and expressions that would help me remember events during the lesson.

When I started classroom observations once again in the second semester (i.e., February 2018), note-taking was no longer my priority. Instead, I focused on watching all the events during the lesson and writing a few critical expressions of the students and teachers verbatim to help me remember the events I observed. In this way, my role in the classroom also became more active. From then on, I was asked by the teachers to share my ideas about some activities or to answer some of the questions students asked. Also, I walked around the classroom while the students were performing an activity. I had conversations with them; some students were not interested in the activity, I asked why they did not perform the task. I helped those who wanted me to check their work or explain something they could not understand in the task. Becoming more active as an observer provided me the role of participant as observer (Creswell, 2013); therefore, I could gain insider views and subjective data more.

3.7.2.2. Field Notes

In addition to the classroom field notes, I kept field notes involving my observations and daily conversations with different stakeholders in the research setting. In this study, keeping field notes was necessary because of the events and conversations observed out of the classroom. That is to say, classroom field notes involved data about teaching and learning practices that were observed inside the classroom, yet field notes involved daily conversations I had with the informants anywhere at school. I observed the teachers in the teacher's room when negotiating decisions for teaching EFL in grade 11. Also, I had daily conversations with the students, sometimes in the school corridor, sometimes in the schoolyard, or in the canteen. I even had conversations with the school principal and learnt his views about teaching EFL in this school.

To Whitehead (2005), participant observation refers to "moving beyond interviewing, to ask questions, even if such questions are unstructured and a part of normal conversation" (p. 11). Bearing on participant observation as a defining feature of ethnographic fieldwork (Hammersley & Atkinson, 2007; Wellington,

2000), I collected data by noting my informal conversations with the informants on a daily basis. In doing so, I revolved around the issues related to teaching EFL in grade 11 that emerged daily, such as quizzes or exams performed on a certain date and project works prepared by students or their comments on exams. Similar to the classroom field notes, my field notes were descriptive, and I paid specific attention to recording short conversations and expressions verbatim as much as possible. A sample field note is attached in the appendices (see Appendix F). Keeping field notes lasted for 16 weeks from February to May 2018. I kept field notes daily in a word document on the computer. There were a total of 16 field notes documents that involved data collected for 16 weeks (i.e., one document per week).

Field notes mainly involved data collected during examination weeks and toward the end of the school year. It was because teachers came together in the teachers' room and negotiated decisions about the examinations, and students shared their comments about the questions after the exams were over. In addition, teachers did not teach their classes during the examination week, so it was not possible for me to observe classroom instruction. Even so, I moved on to visit classes and had conversations with students and teachers. These conversations were mainly about the examination week and the English exam; students mentioned how they prepared for the exam, and the teachers made some announcements about the examination. I wrote down such data as part of field notes. Also, teachers stopped teaching after the last examination week of the school year was over. That meant classroom observation was no longer possible, but I regularly visited classes and had conversations with students and teachers. I kept field notes in order to record all these data.

3.7.2.3. Analytic Memos on Visual Data

In this dissertation, data collection procedures also involved some visual data (i.e., photos and videos). To analyze such data, Saldana (2013) suggests analytic memos to "generate language-based data that *accompany* the visual data" (p. 52,

italics in original). From this perspective, the researcher jotted down descriptive notes that explain the events in the photo or the video. There were seven visual data, three of which were videos. Two photos were taken during classroom observations, while videos were prepared by students as part of a performance-based assessment task.

Besides, a few documents entailed writing analytic memos; these were a study sheet prepared for the English exam by the students and a sample quiz paper prepared by a teacher to assess students' comprehension further. The photos of these documents were taken, and then analytic memos that explained the content of these documents were kept. In writing analytic memos, the researcher focused on the linguistic aspects of the documents; that is to say, what language components (e.g., grammar, vocabulary) were promoted in the documents, how these language components were represented in the documents. One of the analytic memos on visual data is available in Appendix H.

3.7.2.4. Supplementary Documents

In addition to the visual data, a few supplementary documents, such as the exam papers and students' study sheets, were collected. There were four different sources of supplementary documents, all of which were prepared for the assessment and evaluation purposes: 1) written exam papers, 2) quiz papers, 3) students' study sheets for exams, 4) project work or performance work artifacts. A total of 15 documents were collected; six of them were exam papers, three were the quiz papers, three artifacts for performance or project work samples of students, and three study sheets for exams. Table 8 below shows the type and number of supplementary documents collected. A sample supplementary document is attached in Appendices (see Appendix I).

Table 8. The Number and Type of Supplementary Documents

Document Type	Number
Exam papers	6
Quiz papers	3
Artifacts for project work or performance work	3
Study sheets for exams	3
Total	15

3.7.2.5. Interviews

Apart from observation, interviews are another main source of data in qualitative research (Merriam, 1998); conducting interviews is necessary to get an in-depth understanding of the participants' viewpoints. Patton (2015) argues for using interviews to understand what has been observed better and find out things that cannot be observed directly, such as feelings, thoughts, and intentions. He further claims that behaviors taking place in the past can also be found out via interviewing. From this perspective, asking questions allows researchers "to enter into the other person's perspective" (Patton, 2015, p. 426).

There are different types of interviews identified in terms of their structure: structured interviews, semi-structured interviews, and unstructured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007). In this study, individual semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted. According to Dörnyei (2007), semi-structured interviews involve an interview guide composed of five to seven questions. On a similar line, interview schedules for teachers and students were prepared. The interview forms consisted of four parts: 1) Demographic information of the participants, 2) General description of the EFL classes, 3) The use of technology in EFL classes, and 4) Assessment and evaluation practices. Each part involved questions ranged from three to six, as well as, prompts to help the informant detail his/her explanations.

Interviews used in this study aimed to uncover participants' experiences and views on the FLE program they are enrolled in/ teaching at; that is, the routines of EFL classes, the use of technology in learning and teaching EFL, as well as

assessment and evaluation practices in grade 11 were scrutinized (see Appendix A for teacher interview questions, and Appendix B for student interview questions). The interview questions focused on describing the routines of EFL classes, giving examples, and sharing experiences in a particular event. In this regard, the researcher tried to employ ethnographic interview question types identified by Gee and Ullman (1998) as grand tour questions, mini-tour questions, example questions, and experience questions. For example, she tried to use "grand tour" questions to help informants describe a typical EFL class in grade 11 (e.g., Can you describe a typical English lesson you taught/ did in grade 11?). The researcher also employed example and experience questions, such as "What do you think are the benefits of using technology tools and equipment in English lessons of grade 11? Give examples from your experiences."

As there were interview questions focusing on the informants' experiences regarding the implementation of the instructional policy in grade 11 classes of this school, interviews were conducted after the school year ended. In this respect, interviews with informants lasted from July to November 2018. As the school year was finished, the participants sometimes had difficulty remembering the details of events. To solve this problem, the researcher used the coursebook and the sample exam papers when necessary. The researcher wanted them to check the coursebook or an exam paper to remember the details of a particular event they shared.

During the interviews, several ethnographic interviewing techniques suggested by Spradley (1979) were used, such as making ethnographic explanations, restating, and expressing interest. At the beginning of each interview, the study and its aims were reminded to the participants. Also, a brief description of the flow of the interview was made. During the interviews, to help the informants not to forget anything they shared with me, I frequently repeated their answers. I then asked whether anything else they wanted to add to their explanation. Moreover, I usually used expressions, such as 'This is very interesting,' and 'I'm really surprised to hear that' to express my interest in the informants' responses.

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In addition to that, Wellington (2000) claims establishing rapport with the interviewee is necessary. As a member of the research setting, establishing rapport was not difficult for me. However, I paid specific attention to conducting interviews in a friendly, conversational manner. I listened to the informants carefully, took a few notes, and shared my experiences similar to their explanations when necessary.

3.7.2.5.1. Teacher Interviews

In this study, three EFL teachers participated in the interviews. Although two teachers participated in all parts of the interview, one teacher participated in the first and the second parts of the interview. Since she decided to quit the study, she did not participate in the third and fourth parts of the interview. In addition to the interviews conducted with the two teachers, follow-up interviews were conducted to further elaborate on the answers they provided during the interviews. Overall, a total of 12 interviews were conducted with the teacher participants. Table 9 below shows a detailed explanation of interviews conducted with each teacher.

All the interviews were conducted at school. Teachers spared time for the interviews when they did not have a lesson during school hours. We went to a place (e.g., an empty classroom or a physics lab) inside the school to perform the interviews. All the interviews were conducted in Turkish, the mother-tongue of the participants to not cause any misunderstandings during the interviews and help the informants express their opinions better. Additionally, all the interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim. I transcribed the interviews by myself, and that helped me to engage with the data deeply. The interviews with teachers lasted for 11 to 49 minutes (see Table 9 below).

Table 9. The Number and Duration of Interviews with Teachers

Teacher	Interviews Part 1 and 2[*]	Interview Part 3	Interview Part 4	Follow-Up Interview	Total Interviews per Participant
Snowdrop	49 minutes 10 seconds	20 minutes 41 seconds	37 minutes 11 seconds	11 minutes 17 seconds	4
Tulip	34 minutes 36 seconds	-	-	-	1
Marigold	46 minutes 50 seconds	17 minutes 22 seconds	33 minutes 46 seconds	34 minutes 37 seconds	4
Total Interviews	3	2	2	2	9

[*]Interviews Part 1 and 2 refer to demographic information of the participants and general description of the EFL classes. Since demographic information of the participants did not last long, they were conducted at the same time.

3.7.2.5.2. Student Interviews

In addition to the EFL teachers, semi-structured interviews with ten junior year students were conducted. All the students participated in the interviews voluntarily. Similar to the teacher interview guide involving four parts, the student interview guide was composed of four parts, and all the students participated in each part of the interview. Additionally, follow-up interviews were conducted with some students when necessary. Overall, a total of 38 interviews were conducted with the student participants. Table 10 below shows a detailed explanation of interviews conducted with each student.

Interviews with students were conducted at school or in a café out of the school. Sometimes we met at a café and performed the interviews in a casual environment. At other times, students stayed at school after school hours, and we met in a classroom and conducted the interviews inside the school building. All the interviews were conducted in Turkish, the mother-tongue of almost all participants, except one who had native-like Turkish. Moreover, all the interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim by myself. The interviews with students lasted for two to 54 minutes (see Table 10 below).

Table 10. The Number and Duration of Interviews with Students

Student	Interviews Part 1 and 2[*]	Interview Part 3	Interview Part 4	Follow-Up Interview	Total Interviews per Participant
S1	28 minutes 38 seconds	12 minutes 03 seconds	09 minutes 07 seconds	05 minutes 59 seconds	4
S2	35 minutes 18 seconds	16 minutes 06 seconds	17 minutes 25 seconds	06 minutes 35 seconds	4
S3	34 minutes 27 seconds	14 minutes 37 seconds	09 minutes 47 seconds	11 minutes	4
S4	54 minutes 54 seconds	28 minutes 32 seconds	22 minutes 26 seconds	04 minutes 36 seconds	4
S5	41 minutes 03 seconds	11 minutes 23 seconds	09 minutes 08 seconds	10 minutes 20 seconds	4
S6	34 minutes 12 seconds	15 minutes 39 seconds	15 minutes 31 seconds	12 minutes 11 seconds	4
S7	39 minutes 38 seconds	11 minutes 07 seconds	11 minutes 18 seconds	05 minutes 50 seconds	4
S8	41 minutes 55 seconds	19 minutes 47 seconds	14 minutes 10 seconds	-	3
S9	24 minutes 09 seconds	18 minutes 40 seconds	14 minutes 41 seconds	-	3
S10	36 minutes 07 seconds	17 minutes 40 seconds	12 minutes 16 seconds	02 minutes 01 seconds	4
Total Interviews	10	10	10	8	38

[*]Interviews Part 1 and 2 refer to demographic information of the participants and general description of the EFL classes. Since demographic information of the participants did not last long, they were conducted at the same time.

3.8. Data Analysis Procedures

Following the two-phase data collection procedures, document review for desired instruction and analysis of the field data for realized instruction were conducted separately. First, data analysis procedures employed for macro instructional policy documents and policy instruments were explained one by one; second, analysis of field data was described.

3.8.1. Data Analysis Procedures in Phase I

Two main groups of documents were collected in the first phase of the study; macro instructional policy documents and policy instruments. And these documents were analyzed through document analysis.

3.8.1.1. Document Analysis of Macro Level Policy Documents for FLE

Official papers were analyzed via document review in order to answer the first research question "What instructional characteristics are specified by the policy documents (namely, Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, and Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education)?"

In this regard, data were mainly analyzed via skimming, reading and interpretation of the documents (Bowen, 2009). First, skimming was conducted and so laws and regulations addressing the current instructional policy for FLE at upper secondary education were selected. To do this, the keyword 'foreign language' (Yabancı Dil) and 'MNE' (MEB) for the name of institution were used to limit the search for the laws and by-laws in the official website of the Official Gazette, and a total of forty-seven documents were received, three of them were found to be comprising the contemporary FLE at upper secondary education. In addition, the keyword 'Regulation for Upper Secondary Education' (Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği) and 'MNE' (MEB) for the name of institution were used; a total of fifty-one documents were retrieved from the Official Gazette. Furthermore, because of the type of school forming the setting of the study, one more search was conducted with the keyword "Anatolian high schools" (Anadolu Liseleri) and "MNE" (MEB) was chosen for the name of the institution; forty-three documents were received. To that end, ninety-four documents were found in terms of regulations addressing upper secondary education in general and Anatolian high schools in particular between years 1975 and 2018.

However, on account of the focus of attention in this study as the contemporary FLE policy at the macro level during the time span of field data collection (2017-2018 school year), documents specifically involving regulations on FLE at upper secondary education institutions within this period were sorted. Therefore, only

five documents out of ninety-four were found to be relevant. In addition to the Official Gazette, Policy Summary Paper published in June 2017 by General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education was retrieved from the official website of the directorate. All in all, a total of nine documents out of one hundred and forty-two were found to be relevant for addressing current instructional policy developed at the macro level for FLE at upper secondary education institutions (see Appendix D).

The second phase of the analysis referred to the detailed reading of the documents sorted above (Bowen, 2009). The nine documents were read in detail, and so the current status of FLE at upper secondary education institutions (i.e., Anatolian high schools), was found. Finally, interpretation of the documents (Bowen, 2009) provided the core points framing the contemporary instruction for teaching EFL at Anatolian high schools, and these were reported in the findings section.

3.8.1.2. Document Analysis of Policy Instruments for EFL Instruction

The second group of documents was the policy instruments (e.g., curriculum guide and the instructional material). To answer the second research question "What are the main characteristics of instruction for teaching English as a foreign language as specified by the policy instruments (namely Official Bulletin of MNE, 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, English Curriculum for Grade 11, The Instructional Material "Sunshine English 11")?", documents adhering to EFL instruction in junior year (grade 11) classes of Anatolian high schools were analyzed.

First of all, documents published in the Official Bulletin of MNE between 2014 and 2018 were obtained from the Internet. Three main phases of document analysis as skimming, reading and interpretation were employed to analyze these documents, as well (Bowen, 2009). Therefore, the documents such as memorandums and announcements specifically addressing English language

teaching at Anatolian high schools published between 2014 and 2018 were sorted via skimming; eight different documents were obtained (see Appendix J). Second, these documents were read and re-read in order to conduct a detailed examination of them. Lastly, documents were interpreted in order to frame the ministerial level arrangements for teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes of Anatolian high schools.

Bearing on the analysis of circulars and memorandums published in the Official Bulletin of MNE, the 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum published in 2014, English Curriculum for Grade 11, the instructional material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11" were the policy instruments for instruction. Following that, characteristics of instruction within each policy instrument were analyzed, and reported separately in the results section of this dissertation. Last of all, results for intended instruction prescribed within relevant policy documents and instruments were compared in a summary table; also, a list of the main characteristics of intended instruction was presented.

3.8.2. Data Analysis Procedures in Phase II

Defined as searching for meaning (Hatch, 2002), data analysis in qualitative work is an iterative process. In other words, there is no particular moment when data analysis starts; instead, it is "a complex procedure that involves moving back and forth between concrete bits of data and abstract concepts, between inductive and deductive reasoning, between description and interpretation" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 202). It is perhaps for this reason that Patton (2015) says there exists "no recipe" for transforming data into results (p. 521). Therefore, the researcher is the key actor in the analysis of the qualitative data, and Hatch (2002) identifies this as follows:

> Researchers always engage their own intellectual capacities to make sense of qualitative data. Even when computer programs are used to assist in the mechanics of sorting data, only the intelligence, creativity, and reflexivity of the human mind can bring meaning to those data. (p. 148)

To analyze the data in qualitative research, researchers should follow some steps which Creswell (2013) points out as 1) preparing and organizing the data for the analysis phase, 2) coding the data and reducing it into meaningful segments, and 3) displaying data by figures, tables, and charts. Miles, Huberman, and Saldana (2014) talk about a similar procedure involving three strategies: data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification (p. 31).

Bearing on the procedures mentioned above, the first step in this study was to prepare and organize the data (Crewell, 2013). In this regard, all the field data sources were gathered together, i.e., classroom field notes, field notes, analytic memos on visual data, supplementary documents, and interviews. The researcher transcribed all the interviews verbatim. The grammatical mistakes were kept as they were in order not to damage the authenticity of the interviewee's utterances. The researcher notified the pauses and silences when the respondent was thinking of her explanations; besides, she wrote down further explanations to help understand better what the respondent meant in his/her explanation when necessary. Transcribing interviews provided the researcher some insights and hunches about the data, as suggested by Merriam and Tisdell (2016). Field notes had already been saved in a word processor. However, reading through the field notes and examining the visual data necessitated writing down descriptive notes for some visual data. Therefore, the researcher wrote analytic memos on a few visual data when necessary. All the field data were saved in Microsoft Word files before analyzing them by using qualitative data analysis software, *MAXQDA Software 2020 (release 20.0.6)*.

In this dissertation, data analysis lasted for about nine months, from January to November 2020, and it started with a preliminary data analysis for codebook. When all the data became ready for analysis, the researcher chose about 20% of the whole field data for preliminary analysis. The aim was to prepare a codebook by analyzing this data. The researcher read this bit of data thoroughly before analyzing them via qualitative data analysis software, *MAXQDA Software 2020 (release 20.0.6)*. The researcher took notes in the margins of the field notes and

transcriptions, identified as memoing by Creswell (2013). In this phase of the analysis, inductive and deductive reasoning was employed to make sense of the data in hand (Creswell, 2013).

According to Patton (2015), "qualitative analysis is typically inductive in the early stages, especially when developing a codebook for content analysis or figuring out possible categories, patterns, and themes" (p. 543). Therefore, the data itself guided the researcher to code it. As she had extensive reflective journal notes kept during field data collection, these notes were read thoroughly, and a list of phrases that can help code the data were made. Table 11 below displays a list of phrases used in the analysis. Regarding the deductive component, the conceptual framework and research questions guided the researcher. In addition, the researcher read extensive literature on language teaching methodology (e.g., Long, 2015; McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), language assessment (e.g., Richards & Renandya, 2002; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), teacher cognition (e.g., Borg, 2003, 2006), language learners and language learning practices (e.g., Chamot, 2005; Dörnyei, 2019) to make the data meaningful for her. As deductive analysis involves using codes and categories that emerged from inductive analysis to analyze the data (Patton, 2015), the codebook guided the researcher in analyzing the rest of the data as part of qualitative deductive analysis.

Table 11. List of Phrases Used to Code Data

- "Hanging out with the phone"[*]
- The sufferers vs the survivors
- Spoken vs written language production
- Desired vs realized learner
- Pairwork as a unilateral gain
- Lack of meaningful interaction
- Water finds its way
- Digital natives are becoming digital cheaters
- Desired vs real teacher characteristics
- Mixed proficiency classes
- The tip of the iceberg vs the unseen part of the iceberg
- It's strange but true
- Misuse of MALL

Table 11. (continued)

- Language proficiency wars / perceived vs real language proficiency
- Disregarding communicative competence
- Neglecting spoken production
- Confusing language learning practices
- Memorization vs improvisation
- They learn the language but we don't teach it
- To be in the shadow of a peer
- Exam-oriented instruction
- "Losers' club"
- Classroom curriculum
- Ineffective communicative assessment
- Praising students not by heart
- Exam preparation strategies
- In between instructional practices
- Save the day
- "Ip dip do"

Note: *Quotations mean phrases expressed by informants.

Since coding is a circular process, one needs to revisit the data based on the conceptual framework and the review of literature (DeCuir-Gunby, Marshall, & McCulloch, 2011). Coding 20% of the data in this way lasted for about four months (from January to May 2020), and the researcher prepared a codebook that involved a list of codes, categories, and themes with their definitions and examples. There were a total of 172 codes grouped under seven themes. Figure 5 below displays visualization of coding process employed to generate a codebook.
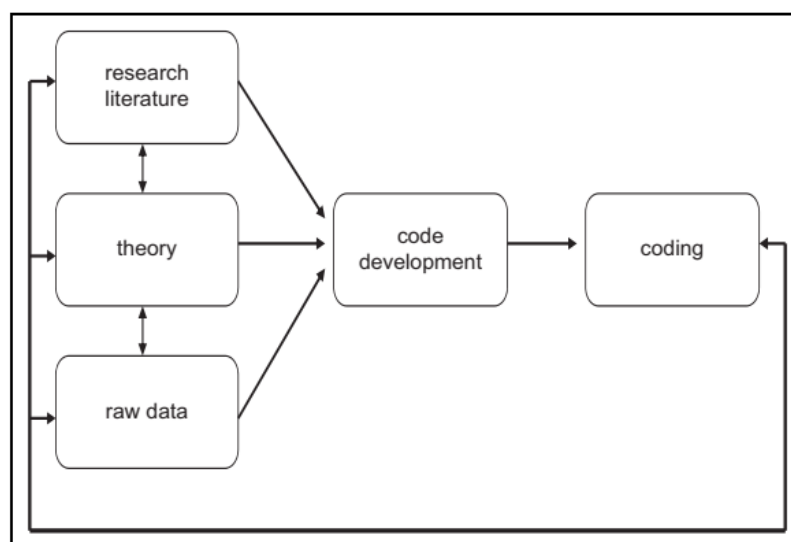
Figure 5. Circular Process of Coding. From "Developing and Using a Codebook for the Analysis of Interview Data: An Example from a Professional Development Research Project," by J. T., DeCuir-Gunby, P. L., Marshall, and A. W. McCulloch, 2011, *Field Methods*, *23*(2), p. 139.

The researcher received feedback from the dissertation committee members about the codebook in June 2020. They recommended reducing the number of codes and themes by using grounded theory coding, especially axial and selective coding. Also, they suggested working with a critical friend to review all the codes and categories when reducing them in number. Thereafter, the researcher and a friend of her who is a PhD Candidate in curriculum and instruction met and reviewed all these 20% data from the beginning. At the end of our extensive discussions and reflections on the codes and categories, the codes were reduced to 95 under five themes. After that, the researcher made extensive readings on grounded theory coding, focusing specifically on axial and selective coding. She reviewed several books, such as *"The Discovery of Grounded Theory"* by Glaser and Straus (2006) and *"Constructing Grounded Theory"* by Charmaz (2006). In particular, the chapter written by Vollstedt and Rezat (2019) titled *"An Introduction to Grounded Theory with a Special Focus on Axial Coding and the Coding Paradigm"* was very helpful. Having reduced the number of codes, categories, and themes, as well as having understood axial and selective coding better, the researcher decided to restart the analysis of the whole field data from the beginning. This procedure started in July 2020 and lasted until she finished analyzing the field data, which was November 2020.

In this study, inductive and deductive qualitative content analysis was employed to analyze the data. Patton (2015) defines content analysis as "any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings" (p. 541). There are various forms of content analysis, and Krippendorff (2004) argues against the 'quantitative' and the 'manifest' features of content analysis proposed by Berelson (1952, as cited in Krippendorff, 2004). On a similar line, counting or quantification of the data was not the concern in data analysis of this dissertation; instead, a single comment was considered as important as expressions and events that emerged in the data repeatedly. Content analysis is a methodology that makes it possible to achieve patterns and themes which are the core meanings of given content. And coding is the first step to reaching these patterns and themes.

3.8.2.1. Coding Process

In the coding procedure of data analysis, researchers use codes which are defined as "tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 56). Saldana (2013) further explains what a code is in qualitative data analysis as "a researcher-generated construct that symbolizes and thus attributes interpreted meaning to each individual datum for later purposes of pattern detection, categorization, theory building, and other analytic processes" (p. 4).

In this dissertation, first cycle and second cycle coding procedures suggested by Saldana (2013) guided the analysis. However, the coding cycle was not limited to two cycles; rather, the coding cycle continued until code generation occurred, as suggested by Saldana (2013). In particular, before performing the first cycle coding, the researcher highlighted certain phrases that struck her in the field notes or interview scripts. In this phase, she kept a copy of the research questions, conceptual framework, the goal of the study, and the codebook in hand. The researcher read the entire documents, and she considered the purpose and research questions in the study. In particular, the conceptual framework guided this procedure in such a way that data were coded when they referred to the "taught curriculum," "perceived curriculum," "learned curriculum," or "assessed curriculum." In other words, the theoretical and methodological frame of the study guided the analysis in this procedure. Such an aspect is also recommended by Yin (2018) as "relying on theoretical propositions" as one component of the four strategies regarding "a general analytic strategy" in the case study analysis (p. 168). Since these labels derive from the conceptual framework of the dissertation and the codebook, this stage can be identified as holistic or deductive coding (Saldana, 2013).

Among the coding methods reviewed by Saldana (2013), the researcher made use of various coding techniques such as in vivo coding, descriptive coding, eclectic coding (e.g., values coding and magnitude coding), versus coding,

provisional coding, process coding, and etc. While descriptive coding was preferred much for coding field notes, in vivo coding was preferred much for the interview data. To clarify, in vivo coding was helpful, especially when the researcher wanted to "prioritize and honor the participant's voice" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 80). For instance, the expression "I feel bound to the coursebook" remarked by a student was used to describe students' low engagement in EFL classes. Besides, due mainly to the nature of the study focusing on policy, versus coding was needed. In this regard, the researcher focused on "phrases that capture the actual and conceptual conflicts within, among, and between participants," as noted by Saldana (2013, p. 61). To illustrate, while some students believed that the exercises in the book were difficult, they were too easy for some others; therefore, the researcher coded "perceived proficiency vs. real proficiency" to explain the conflict among the participants. In addition to that, some parts of the data required "more extensive indexing, categorizing, and subcategorizing into hierarchies or taxonomies" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 85); therefore, sub-coding was frequently conducted. Table 12 below demonstrates a segment of coding process.

Table 12. A Sample of Coding Procedure

Quotation	Holistic & Deductive Coding	First Cycle Coding	Second Cycle Coding		
	Taught Curriculum				
Normal klasik yöntemlerle grameri anlatırım. Yani işte kuralları budur, şöyledir, böyledir. Ben bir iki örnek veririm. Sonra onlardan örnek vermelerini isterim. Readinglere gelince, benim en çok derslerde yaptığım zaten gramer artı reading, bazen speaking yapıyorum. **Readinglerde de şöyle bir şey yapıyorum, eğer karmaşık bir konuysa sorular üretip paragraflarla ilgili, çocukların bağlantı kurmasını sağlıyorum reading parçalarında. Ya da onlardan paragraf paragraf okutup, parçayla ilgili birer tane ikişer tane soru üretmelerini istiyorum.** (Marigold)	Form-Focused Instruction	Focus on forms	Developing linguistic competence	Convention al Teaching and Learning Practices	Routines of Teaching and Learning Process
	The study of reading	Focusing on reading comprehension	The study of reading comprehension skills	Teaching the Language Skills	

As table 12 shows, in the second cycle coding, the researcher generated sub-categories and grouped the codes under these sub-categories. In this phase, she made use of grounded theory methods, i.e., axial coding and selective coding. Therefore, a smaller number of categories that are more coherent and combined were achieved, as identified by Saldana (2013). Appendix K presents the codebook involving the codes used in this dissertation. All in all, figure 6 below demonstrates the overall data analysis procedure followed in this study:
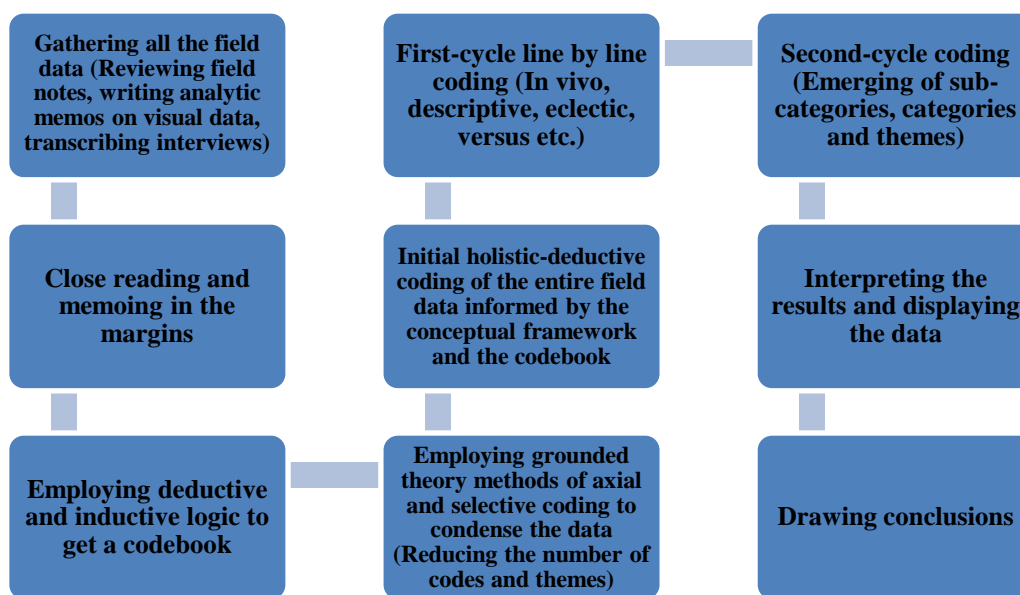
Figure 6. Data Analysis Procedure of the Study

3.8.2.2. Intercoder Agreement

In content analysis, reliability refers to "the agreement achieved among observers, coders, judges, or measuring instruments" (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 211). In this study, agreement among coders was concerned, and this is identified as intercoder or interrater reliability. Though different estimates are available to calculate intercoder reliability (e.g., Krippendorff's agreement coefficient alpha), Miles and Huberman's (1994) agreement formula was used in this dissertation. The formula is as follows:

reliability = number of agreements / number of agreements + disagreements

As there was a substantial amount of data in this study, two researchers holding a PhD degree in ELT and experienced in qualitative research coded samples of field notes and interviews. The sample data consisted of ten field notes, a teacher interview, and a student interview; this equals approximately 10% of the whole field data. The codebook was also shared with the coders to guide them in the coding procedure. Intercoder reliability in this study was calculated as 80%,

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which is accepted as an adequate reliability value by Miles and Huberman (1994).

3.9. Quality Criteria

Careful attention is needed to ensure validity and reliability in all types of research, i.e., quantitative, qualitative, or mixed. Because qualitative research conceptualizes reality differently from the quantitative domain and is grounded on different worldviews, validity and reliability should also be dealt with accordingly (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In this sense, Guba and Lincoln (1982) introduce the term *trustworthiness* and offer four criteria that can be used in naturalistic inquiries as a replacement for the quantitative concepts: 1) *credibility* instead of internal validity, 2) *transferability* to replace external validity/generalizability, 3) *dependability* as an alternative to reliability, and 4) *confirmability* in preference to objectivity.

Credibility is mainly concerned with the validity of the study; that is, to what extent the results are credible given the situation at hand. In this regard, credibility answers the questions that are posed by Merriam and Tisdell (2016): 1) How congruent are the findings with reality? 2) Do the findings capture what is really there? (p. 242). Certain strategies help ensure the credibility of the study, such as triangulation, prolonged engagement, member checks, peer debriefing, and researcher's position or reflexivity (Guba & Lincoln, 1982; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In this dissertation, credibility is addressed by using triangulation of data sources, using multiple methods of data collection, prolonged engagement, peer debriefing, and reflexivity.

To begin with, the researcher made use of triangulation of data sources and data collection instruments. In this study, classroom observations were conducted in five different classes; also, interviews were made with teachers and students. Therefore, data were derived from different sources, and multiple data collection instruments as observations, field notes, interviews, and documents were

utilized. Secondly, prolonged engagement was provided by spending adequate time in the research site since this help reducing personal biases and researcher effects. Prolonged engagement also provides the researcher to display data representing the natural context better. In this regard, the piloting procedure employed for the fieldwork helped diminishing personal biases and researcher effects. As the researcher was one of the tenured teachers of the school, she was able to observe various incidents that happen on a daily basis and get in contact with the participants regularly. In this way, the researcher was able to portray the day-to-day realities of instructional policy realization better.

The third strategy employed in this study was peer debriefing, which refers to consulting a colleague or an expert concerning the research process. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) put it this way: "all graduate students have this process built into their thesis or dissertation committee since each member of the committee reads and comments on the findings" (p. 249). In the same way, the dissertation committee met six times before the thesis defense meeting; the dissertation advisor and committee members provided feedback and reviewed the research process from the beginning. In addition to that, two PhD fellows who were knowledgeable about the content and design of the study provided feedback on the analysis of the data, read all the findings, and assessed the results of the study. Last but not least, the researcher clearly explained her position as a researcher, taking into account the possible role of her personal assumptions, values, and beliefs in this study.

Dependability, which is defined as reliability in the rationalist paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1982), refers to the consistency of the findings. Reliability, in essence, is found to be problematic in qualitative research mainly because "replication of a qualitative study will not yield the same results, but this does not discredit the results of any particular study; there can be numerous interpretations of the same data" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, pp. 250-251). However, there are a few strategies that can provide dependability in a study, such as triangulation, peer examination, investigator's position and the audit trail (Merriam & Tisdell,

2016). From this perspective, triangulation of the data collection methods reported above ensured the dependability of the study, as well. As for peer examination for consistency, the researcher and a friend of her who was a PhD candidate in curriculum and instruction reviewed all the codes and categories in preparing the codebook. We held a meeting, discussed the codes, and agreed on the categories and themes. In addition to that, two researchers holding a PhD degree in ELT coded 10% of the field data by using the codebook and provided further feedback for the codes.

In qualitative research, an audit trail is ensured through a detailed description of data collection procedures, interpretations of the study, and presentation of the results (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). For this, the researcher kept a reflective journal during the data collection procedures of this dissertation, and she jotted down her reflections, questions, and ideas about the study in this journal. These reflective journal entries also helped the researcher code the data at the beginning of the data analysis procedure. Additionally, the researcher kept analytic memos while coding the field data, as "coding and analytic memo writing are concurrent qualitative data analytic activities" (Saldana, 2013, p. 42). The researcher wrote down how she coded certain data segments and explained the coding procedure, as well as how she grouped the codes into sub-categories and categories. Yet, keeping analytic memos was not limited to the coding. The researcher took notes about all aspects of the dissertation that emerged in her mind during the data analysis procedure, such as the research questions, methodology, and discussion (see Appendix L for a sample of analytic memo). The researcher even recorded her voice when she was not suitable for writing down what came to her mind regarding the study in order not to lose "ah-ha" moments of insight, described by Saldana (2013, p. 42). Overall, this methodology chapter, which involves a detailed explanation of the research process, on its own, contributes to constructing the audit trail (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Transferability is related to applying the results of the study in another setting (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). In this sense, it deals with the generalizability of the findings. However, one should note that case studies do not need to reach generalizable findings. Yet still, rich and thick description and purposeful sampling can enable transferability (Guba & Lincoln, 1982; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The researcher addressed transferability by providing rich and thick descriptions of the setting and the participants; she also included several quotes from the interviews, field notes, and documents to provide a detailed description of the findings, as suggested by Merriam and Tisdell (2016). In this study, maximum variation sampling was employed to select student interview participants. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), using maximum variation sampling strategy enhances the transferability of a study. In this regard, the students' gender, field of study, and achievement level in EFL were considered to select interview participants so that different perceptions about the instructional policy implementation in this school could be represented.

Last but not least, confirmability is the alternative to objectivity in the rationalist paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1982). To ensure confirmability, Miles and Huberman (1994) question a few things whether the description of methods and the research process is adequate and how the researcher affects and is affected by the research process explained. This dissertation study involves a lengthy methodology chapter, which provides a detailed explanation of the research process and the role of the researcher; this can enhance the confirmability of the study.

3.10. Ethics

Enabling validity and reliability in a qualitative study incorporates following the ethical considerations (Merriam, 1998). Therefore, a major concern of this study was to protect the rights and identities of the participants when conducting the investigation. For this purpose, the researcher applied to the Human Subjects Ethics Committee of the university before carrying out the main study. The

proposal for this study was submitted because approval for the research process is necessary for a study involving human subjects. When the permission was granted (see Appendix M), the researcher applied for official permission from the District Office of the MNE, which was the top authority in the running of the school in this region of the province. The research proposal was approved, and it was granted permission (see Appendix N).

In this study, the researcher conducted the research in line with the codes of ethics. She followed ethical conduct in her interaction with the participants. Before collecting field data, informed consent of the participants was taken (see Appendix O for a sample informed consent form). As most of the student participants were under the age of 18, consent forms from their parents were also taken (see Appendix P for a sample parent consent form). Before the interviews, the participants were informed about the purpose of the study and the interview content. Also, the researcher took their permission to record the interviews. As this case study was conducted in a single program, the identity of the participants might be revealed. In this regard, any specific names that could reveal the identity of the participants were not used. To protect the confidentiality of the participants, the researcher assigned a pseudonym to each teacher participant, and identification numbers were used for the student participants in order to mask their identities.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter provides the results of the study in line with the research questions. The results are organized under two main sections: 1) characteristics of instruction conveyed by policy documents and instruments, 2) characteristics of instruction executed in a particular FLE program of a public high school.

4.1 Characteristics of Intended Instruction

The results of document review are presented in this section. Macro level instructional policy documents as well as policy instruments were analyzed in order to reveal features of instruction outlined in these documents. This section aims to answer the following research questions:

1) What instructional characteristics are specified by the policy documents (namely Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education)?

2) What are the main characteristics of instruction for teaching English as a foreign language as specified by the policy instruments (namely Official Bulletin of MNE, 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, English Curriculum for Grade 11, The Instructional Material "Sunshine English 11")?

First, analysis of macro level instructional policy documents for FLE, and analysis of ministerial level regulations for teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes of public high schools were conducted. Second, findings obtained from the analysis of the policy instruments were reported respectively. At the end of document review, an overview of the instructional policy construction for teaching EFL at upper secondary education was outlined. In addition, a summary table was presented to compare characteristics of intended instruction within the documents analyzed; also, features of intended instruction were listed in another summary table.

4.1.1. Results of Macro Level Instructional Policy Documents for FLE

The first research question was "What instructional characteristics are specified by the policy documents (namely, Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act, Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education)?" The results of the first research question involved two main parts. First, a brief overview of the FLE policy was conveyed in order to draw a framework for initiatives influencing EFL instruction at upper secondary education. Second, official regulations for instructional practices at upper secondary education institutions were reported.

4.1.1.1. Overview of the Macro-Level FLE Policy for Upper Secondary Education

The analysis of the official policy documents indicated that the first concrete step for developing FLE policy dated back to 1983. According to Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act issued in the Official Gazette dated 19.10.1983 numbered 18196, MNE was appointed as the top government authority in execution of FLE policy. From this standpoint, MNE has the right to make decisions on the study of subjects in a foreign language, confirming the teaching programs, inspecting the implementation of these programs, and making

regulations on FLE at primary, upper secondary and public education levels as re-specified in the legislative decree no.698 for "Foreign Language Teaching and Learning along with Turkish Citizens' Learning Different Languages and Dialects Act" published in the Official Gazette dated 04.07.2018.

More specifically, "Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education" published in the Official Gazette dated 31.05.2006 clarified the aim of FLE at primary, upper secondary and public education levels for the first time. In this document, the aim of FLE involves three main principles: 1) acquisition of four language skills—listening comprehension, reading comprehension, speaking and writing, 2) emphasis on communicative skills, 3) developing positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language. This regulation also notified that the first foreign language to be taught at upper secondary education is determined according to the foreign language of study at primary school. In other words, the teaching program for the first foreign language at the upper secondary level is the continuation of the one instructed at primary education. If English is the foreign language taught at the primary education level, English becomes the first foreign language studied at the upper secondary education level, as well.

The document mentioned above is critical, mainly because it is the first policy document focusing on desired instruction explicitly. In this regard, the three aims of FLE identified in this document refer to features of CLT. Thus, one can claim CLT as the norm in this macro instructional policy document.

A striking point was that there has been no regulation made for FLE since the execution of "Amendment Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education" issued in the Official Gazette dated 04.03.2009 numbered 27159. This adjustment involved regulations for FLE at private education institutions. However, it seems that the need for an update in the policy text for FLE has been recognized by the leading authorities as can be understood from the Policy Summary Paper published by General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education in June, 2017.

This policy paper was an attempt to describe the status of upper secondary education at that time and the policy plans at issue. In this regard, a couple of aims that needs to be accomplished for graduates of upper secondary education were listed, among which achieving competence in at least one foreign language was also reported. For this reason, the directorate planned to revise the teaching programs, teaching materials and language teaching procedures.

Last but not least, the point that deserved particular attention in this document was the list of legislative arrangements which were undertaken at that time. In this sense, amendment regulation on Regulation for Foreign Language Teaching and Education was noted to be held between 2015 and 2017. Even if such a policy attempt was reported to be at issue, there has not been any regulation or amendment regulation published since then.

4.1.1.2. Official Regulations for Adjusting Instruction at Upper Secondary Education Institutions

With respect to the policies developed for adjusting instructional practices at upper secondary education institutions, preliminary analysis of the data indicated that "Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions" (Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği) was updated in 2013. This latest version has been the main policy document which arranges running of upper secondary education institutions all over Turkey. There has been overall nine amendment regulations for this main document between 2014 and 2018. As a result, Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions published in 2017 was found to be the most recent document involving adjustments relevant for FLE at upper secondary education institutions during the time span of field data collection (2017-2018 school year).

Analysis of this more recent document (i.e., Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2017) indicated two main areas influencing EFL instruction; while there were some items which specifically addressed FLE, there

were some other items which arranged instructional practices in a general sense. Although this second group of items did not mention FLE explicitly, they still influenced EFL instruction indirectly.

Starting with the objectives of upper secondary education institutions, eleven aims were listed among which FLE was included. In this document, the aim of upper secondary education institutions was to help students to learn a foreign language in order for them to follow the developments and changes in the world. In addition to this specific reference to FLE, there were some other aims influencing instruction in EFL classes indirectly. To illustrate, to develop the students' sense of self-confidence, self-regulation and responsibility, to get students adopt habits of self-study, cooperation and lifelong learning, to provide qualified training by making use of technology, and to equip the students with the capacity of producing knowledge by developing projects were among the aims of upper secondary education institutions. All these aims were desired to be addressed in EFL classes of upper secondary education institutions, as well.

In terms of FLE, following the changes and developments in the world was cited as the main impetus. Such an aspect refers to an international perspective of language learning. To put it differently, the desired foreign language is the one which will equip the students with the ability to compete with others in the international arena. English is the language which possesses this mission. Besides, essential components of learner autonomy, a defining feature of a learner-centered approach, appeared (i.e., self-study, cooperation, responsibility, self-regulation, etc.).

In addition to the aims of upper secondary education institutions, there were some regulations which specifically described the desired features of the learning practices inside the classroom. Among these regulations, there was a specific reference to foreign language classes as well. The proficiency levels of students were required to be considered when the foreign language classes were organized. Even more important, instructional activities were required to be

constructed in such a way that the students would be able to acquire scientific thinking skills, learn to learn, become productive, and communicative. Besides, the ability to use ICT, active participation in the learning procedure and adopting humanistic, national and universal values were stressed.

The analysis of the features identified above revealed a desire for the 21st century skills such as communication skills, scientific thinking skills, becoming productive and learning to learn. Moreover, humanistic methods of teaching were encouraged, in that active student involvement, development of humanistic values can be identified as principles of humanistic methods of teaching.

The third and perhaps the most remarkable part of the regulation was evaluation of the student success. For the reason that the regulations related to assessment and evaluation, exams and promotion to a higher grade influence the classroom level practices for assessment and evaluation at the school.

In terms of a direct reference to FLE, examinations and passing class sections were crucial. The former defined the examination for foreign language classes as written and (skills) practice. In so doing, four skills of language– listening, speaking, reading and writing were identified as the components of assessment tools. The second section which regulated how to pass class put another emphasis on the four skills of language by noting: "It is essential for students to gain listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in a foreign language course" (Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2017, item 51:4). In addition, assessment of knowledge and skills was desired by making use of various assessment tools such as written and skills practice exams, performance work and project work. These two crucial items indicated a clear reference to the four skills of language. That is to say, the acquisition of four skills was favored, so skill-based instruction for FLE was desired.

Concerning the other assessment and evaluation features, active participation in the classroom activities and preparing performance works were noted as the

mediums to determine the students' achievement level. Moreover, the features of assessment tools were described, and skills such as critical thinking, creativity, doing research, questioning and problem solving were emphasized. Similar to the features of desired instruction mentioned above, these features of assessment tools indicated that equipping students with the 21st century skills was greatly encouraged.

More regulations are made in terms of examinations; holding at least two examinations for each lesson was identified, 50 points out of 100 was appointed as the threshold level to pass the class, joint examination and evaluation was also notified for written and skills practice exams. Even more important, it was noted that "it is essential for the written exams to be prepared by making use of open-ended questions" (Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2017, item 45:2). However, it was also denoted that the questions for one of the exams can be prepared as multiple-choice, true-false and etc. Preparing examinations involving open-ended questions demonstrated another perspective of assessment, in that rather than assessing rote learning, assessment of analytical thinking skills was favored.

With respect to the roles and responsibilities of the teachers, a few critical points were identified. To illustrate, the teacher must explain the program, methods and techniques that are to be followed in the lesson, s/he must use technological resources and teaching techniques which will provide the students with opportunities to learn by doing. Additionally, the teacher is required to prepare a class atmosphere which will help the students to think independently and creatively, to draw conclusions from the information gained, to express their views in discussion sessions, and to tolerate others' views. Also, the teacher must help the students to benefit from all the resources available in the course of learning. Additionally, helping students to gain the habits of individual study and group work was emphasized. Of particular reference was the requirement for following scientific and technological developments within his/her field of study and reflect these developments into his/her instruction. Lastly, cooperation with

the parents with respect to the students' manners and academic standing was listed among the responsibilities of the teachers.

According to the roles and responsibilities of the teachers identified above, it was observed that the role of teacher not as a transmitter but the role of a facilitator was encouraged. In particular, the teacher's responsibility in informing students about the teaching methods and techniques is among the defining features of learner-centered approaches.

All in all, the document identified many crucial points about the instructional practices. It was observed that the notion of an international or world language was favored for FLE. Skill-based instruction and assessment were encouraged. Also, performance and project works were included into the assessment of language skills and knowledge. These two significant aspects referred to the characteristics of CLT.

Apart from FLE related items, the analysis of other points in the document indicated characteristics of instruction which encouraged 21st century skills, learner autonomy, humanistic methods of teaching, performance-based assessment as well as assessment of analytical thinking skills. In brief, these features can be grouped under learner-centered approaches to teaching and learning which formed the main components of desired instruction in this policy document. Table 13 reported the list of skills that were highlighted in this macro instructional policy document.

Table 13. Skills Outlined for Instructional Practices at Upper Secondary Education

✓ Learning a foreign language to follow developments and changes in the world.
✓ Developing a sense of self-confidence, self-regulation, and responsibility
✓ Gaining habits of self-study and cooperation
✓ Adopting lifelong learning
✓ To produce knowledge via using knowledge and skills, and developing projects
✓ Scientific thinking skills
✓ Learning to learn
✓ Becoming productive and communicative
✓ The ability to use ICT
✓ Active participation into the learning procedure
✓ Adopting humanistic, national and universal values
✓ Acquiring questioning, problem solving and critical thinking skills
✓ Creativity
✓ Doing research
✓ Learning by doing

4.1.2. Results of Policy Instruments

The second research question was "What are the main characteristics of instruction for teaching English as a foreign language as specified by the policy instruments (namely Official Bulletin of MNE, 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, English Curriculum for Grade 11, The Instructional Material "Sunshine English 11")?" In order to frame the policy instruments for teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes of an Anatolian high school, official regulations performed specifically for EFL instruction at upper secondary education institutions by MNE were reviewed as a first step. Based on the data obtained from these documents, related policy instruments such as the curriculum guide and instructional materials for teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes were analyzed to reveal the characteristics of desired instruction.

4.1.2.1. Official Regulations for Adjusting EFL Instruction in Junior Year (Grade 11) Classes

There have been numerous attempts performed by MNE in order to guide the instruction for teaching EFL at upper secondary education institutions such as

the curriculum reforms (see, e.g., English Language Teaching Curriculum for Upper Secondary Education, 2011) and regulations for course hours (see, e.g., Ministry of National Education, Weekly Course Schedule for Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2010). However, field data for this study were collected during the 2017-2018 school year. For this reason, only the regulations which arrange instructional practices within this time period were used for the analysis. In this regard, eight different documents concerning the instruction for teaching EFL at upper secondary education published between 2014 and 2018 were obtained, yet five of them were found relevant for teaching EFL in grade 11 classes of upper secondary education institutions (see Appendix R). They were grouped into three categories: 1) curriculum for teaching English at upper secondary education, 2) instructional materials for teaching EFL, and 3) weekly course schedule.

Starting with the regulations about the curriculum, two documents were found relevant. According to the regulation approved on 26.11.2014 and issued in the Official Bulletin of MNE dated March 2015 numbered 2690, gradual implementation of English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Grades 9, 10, 11 and 12) was confirmed to be implemented from the 2015-2016 school year onward, and as a result gradual removal of the previous curriculum "English as a First, Second and Third Foreign Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Prep Class, Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12)" approved by BED dated 24.08.2011, numbered 118 was reported.

More recently, a new curriculum for teaching EFL at upper secondary education has been published leading to the removal of the curriculum published in 2014. According to the decision dated 17.07.2017 and issued in the Official Bulletin of MNE in July 2017, "English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Grades 9, 10, 11 and 12)" have been decided to be implemented at all grades of secondary education from the 2018-2019 school year onward. Thus, the previous curriculum approved by BED dated 26.11.2014, numbered 103 has been removed at all grades in the 2018-2019 school year.

With respect to the instructional materials, MNE has been performing "Textbook Distribution for Free" based on the "Regulation for Textbooks and Instructional Materials" issued in the Official Gazette dated 12.09.2012 and numbered 28409. For this reason, every year January issue of the Official Bulletin involves a memorandum about the list of textbooks which will be used in the upcoming school year for primary and upper secondary education. It was revealed that the January issue of the Official Bulletin published in 2017 provided the list of textbooks which were approved to be used for teaching EFL at grades 9 and 10, yet still the textbook for teaching English in grade 11 classes was noted to be announced at the April issue of the Official Bulletin. Therefore, the announcement issued in the Official Bulletin dated April 2017 numbered 2715 reported only one textbook published by 'Cem Veb Ofset' to be used for teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes of upper secondary education institutions all over Turkey for the 2017-2018 school year.

As for the weekly course schedule, there was only one document addressing regulation for weekly course schedule at upper secondary education institutions. According to the decision dated 30.05.2017 and issued in the Official Bulletin of MNE in June 2017, weekly course hours for EFL was reported to be 4 hours in a week at all grades (grades 9, 10, 11 and 12), so EFL course hours for grade 9 was reduced from 6 hours in a week to 4 hours while course hours for other classes were remained unchanged.

The official regulations reported above were used to frame the ministerial level initiatives regarding teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes of the upper secondary education institutions. In this sense, it was revealed that during the field data collection time span (i.e., 2017-2018 school year), the curriculum guiding the instruction was the one published in 2014 and the only instructional material was the one published by the publishing company "Cem Veb Ofset" and the weekly course hours for teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes was reported to be 4 hours in a week. In brief, ELT Curriculum published in 2014 as well as English Curriculum for Grade 11, and the instructional material

"Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11" formed the policy instruments to be analyzed in order to reveal the characteristics of desired instruction for teaching EFL at the ministerial level. Therefore, the results of the second research question involved three main parts as in the following sequence:

1. Instruction outlined for teaching EFL at upper secondary education institutions conveyed by the curriculum guide was reported.

2. Main features of intended instruction for teaching EFL in junior year (grade 11) classes of upper secondary education institutions was revealed via specific analysis of English Curriculum for Grade 11.

3. Review of the instructional material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11" was conducted.

4.1.2.2. 2014 MNE English Language Teaching Program

In 2012, Turkey underwent a new educational reform called "4+4+4," which resulted in extending compulsory education from 8 years to 12 (memorandum dated 11.04.2012 and numbered 28261). Under this reform, one sub-category was lowering the grade for teaching foreign languages as an elective course. As English has been very popular in the history of the Turkish education system, such a policy attempt required some upgrade within the primary education curriculum for teaching EFL. Therefore, a new curriculum was introduced to primary schools in Turkey in 2013. Following this attempt, the curriculum for teaching EFL at upper secondary education was also revised in 2014. The teaching program introduced in 2014 was designed to be implemented gradually, starting with grades 9 to 12. Accordingly, the gradual implementation of this new program started in the 2015-2016 school year and continued until the 2018-2019 school year because MNE has introduced a new revision within the curricula of upper secondary education, including the teaching program for EFL in 2018. Only minor changes have been introduced in this more recent curriculum, such as incorporating 'ethics and values education' as a key

component and reducing the total number of learning outcomes achieved throughout upper secondary education.

During the field data collection procedure of this study (i.e., 2017-2018 school year), the implemented curriculum was the one introduced in 2014. The 2014 program included specific references to the use of technology in EFL classes, and types of assessment tools, i.e., alternative, traditional and electronic; moreover, information about instructional design, a list of instructional materials, also characteristics of teachers, students, and learning environment were given. Besides, the curriculum for each grade (i.e., grades 9, 10, 11, and 12) was attached at the end of the document.

4.1.2.2.1. Main Features of the 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum

When the 2014 program proposed by the MNE is analyzed, it can be seen that there was information about the distinctive features of the new curriculum which presented characteristics of desired instruction. First and foremost, the document started with the fundamental goal of the curriculum which was "to engage learners of English in stimulating, motivating, and enjoyable learning environments so that they become effective, fluent, and accurate communicators in English" (MEB, 2014, p. ii), also ended with the description of the profile of the desired language learner as being among the most prominent aims of the teaching program. It was seen that the curriculum described the language learner to be educated as a communicative individual as its major goal. By noting the desired learner characteristics once again at the end of the curriculum, "productive, autonomous and innovative individuals" (MEB, 2014, p. xx) and becoming effective communicators were identified as one of the most important goals of the teaching program.

In line with the autonomous perspective, 'reflective,' 'decision-maker,' and 'active' were among the features of the desired language learner. Within the teaching program, the language learner was defined as someone who takes

responsibility in the language learning procedure by preparing materials and by being reflective in his/her learning procedure. "Students are encouraged to be reflective in their language learning and performance and self-evaluate their progress with the help of self-evaluation checklists, rubrics, and short reflection reports which can be carried out both online and offline" (MEB, 2014, p. x). In doing so, students were desired to be the manager of their learning; also, the use of self-evaluation checklists and rubrics were suggested to guide students to assess their needs, strengths, and weaknesses. Furthermore, there was an emphasis on the meaning of autonomy which was not equivalent of "being alone"; in so doing, receiving help from peers, teachers, and materials during the language learning procedure was desired which conveys the impression that 'scaffolded' language learning experience within the EFL classes was expected. In this respect, the curriculum desired for collaboration among students rather than competition on account of the fact that the language learners were within the period of adolescence, so peer interaction and collaboration were incorporated into the teaching program in order to meet their affective needs in their language learning procedure.

In addition to the characteristics of students, the role of the teacher received attention. The teacher was defined as the facilitator of learning. Also, the teaching program identified characteristics of the teacher as follows:

> … overlook students' mistakes or slips of the tongue during speaking activities and model the correct use of language instead, or take notes to work on the mistakes later on as a whole class without referring to students' identities …. use praise and positive reinforcement in class to nurture the willingness and motivation for language learning. (MEB, 2014, p. xi)

As is seen, these teacher characteristics are by and large in line with the humanistic approach. Using praise and positive reinforcement in class, as well as a caution for the privacy of student identities in the course of dealing with errors and mistakes can be characterized as a few strands of the humanistic approach. Building on the concept of learner autonomy, providing 'scaffolded learning experience' via peer interaction and collaboration, and characterizing language

learners as someone active and reflective, as well as the humanistic vision underlying desired language teacher characteristics are the elements proposed in learner-centered teaching; thereby, all these characteristics of instruction imply constructivism adopted as a leading principle within the teaching program.

In order to reach the goal of educating productive, innovative effective communicators, several fruitful concepts were incorporated into the instructional design of the teaching program, among which holding eclectic principle, thematic unit organization, and following a multi-syllabus approach were very prominent. As is known, the eclectic approach refers to the mixture of different approaches and methods in the teaching of language. In this stance, the teaching program identified the "eclectic approach" as its leading principle for design. The thematic unit organization was identified as another feature of the curriculum design. In this regard, the curriculum was said to be "divided into 10 units organized around interrelated themes for each grade" (MEB, 2014, p. vii). In line with the eclectic principle, the type of syllabus prepared for instruction was described as a multi-syllabus.

> The eclectic approach adopted in the curriculum comprises elements of mostly **functional syllabus** and **skill-based syllabus** while integrating other aspects of language such as structures, pronunciation, and vocabulary relevant to the themes, functions, and skills of the units presented. (MEB, 2014, pp. vii-viii, boldface in original)

As can be seen, the instructional design of the curriculum as well as the syllabus contain different elements, while functional syllabus and skill-based syllabus were favored much, the linguistic elements of the language, i.e., grammar, lexis and pronunciation were also desired to be studied.

4.1.2.2.2. Characteristics of Desired Instruction in the 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum

When the teaching program was reviewed for characteristics of desired instruction, it is seen that communicative, technology-supported, and task-based

premises were prevalent almost all strands of the curriculum, i.e., the approach adopted, instructional materials suggested for use, and assessment. Though the eclectic principle holds synthesis of different methods and approaches in teaching language, supporters of the idea claimed the need to combine approaches and methods which involve similar philosophical foundations (see Chapter 2). The teaching program reflects this vision, in that there was an apparent caution against traditional transmissive orientation; instead, the strong version of CLT, as well as TBLT as an extension of CLT, were the dominant methodologies preferred for instruction. Besides, the way use of technology was desired aligned with the principles of communicative methodology and task-based approach. In other words, technology-supported instruction was desired in order to enrich the communicative task-based instruction.

Regarding the caution against transmissive orientation, the way linguistic properties were treated displays that teaching and learning practices such as memorization of vocabulary, focusing on too much-controlled practice, and the grammatical competence were not welcomed. The expression below shows the method of vocabulary teaching that was envisioned:

> Special focus on sample vocabulary items are not given in the 9th-12th grades English curriculum to avoid the use of long word lists isolated from real-life use contexts which typically end up being the subject of rote memorization for exams. However, the number of new words to be learnt in each lesson is limited to seven to ensure meaningful learning and active use of vocabulary. (MEB, 2014, p. vii)

As seen in the above quote, though not expressed in words, the teaching program cautioned against the traditional, transmissive-oriented teaching of lexical items. As is mentioned above, the task-based methodology was very prominent in this teaching program, and it is well-known that a task-based course starts with a heavy vocabulary input. However, the teaching program did not hold this idea; instead, teaching a maximum of seven new vocabulary items in a particular lesson was suggested. Also, teaching these words in context, including meaning, form, and pronunciation, was the desired way of instruction for lexis.

Furthermore, the way grammar was treated within the curriculum is quite remarkable; there was not even a word of 'grammar,' but instead 'language structures' was used as an expression. On a similar line, the teaching program identified a few arguments on the rationale behind the 9th -12th Grades English Curriculum, among which the prevalence of traditional transmissive-oriented instruction was implied. The following quotation reflects the caution against this type of instruction and desire for communicative methodology:

> …lack of effective communicative competence has remained to be the problem of many learners in English language classes in Turkey. It is often stated that in Turkish EFL education context, priority has been given to grammatical competence with too much focus on teaching and assessing grammatical structures in English. To take a step in overcoming this problem, the new 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum was designed to take all aspects of communicative competence into consideration in English classes by addressing **functions** and **four skills of language** in an **integrated** way and focusing on "How" and "Why?" in language rather than merely on "What?" (MEB, 2014, p. iv, boldface in original)

As can be seen in the above quote, the curriculum described the instruction desired to be executed within the foreign language classes like the one incorporating communicative approaches to the teaching of language rather than traditional, grammar-oriented teaching approaches. This attempt could be regarded as a clear manifestation of the intentions of the MNE as for the instruction desired to be implemented within EFL classes.

In line with the main aim of the curriculum, which was to educate "effective, fluent, and accurate communicators," several other encouraging features of communicative methodology became apparent in the teaching program. To name a few, authentic materials, thinking skills—critical thinking skills, and alternative assessment can be noted. The linguistic review of the curriculum displayed the importance given to the use of authentic materials because it was emphasized by the phrase 'strongly recommended.' As is known, the use of authentic materials is one of the prominent features of communicative methodology; therefore, several print, video, and audio materials which can be encountered in daily life were suggested including TV/Radio recordings,

application forms, movies, podcasts, and coupons. In this respect, there seemed a priority for audio-visual materials such as "**movies** or short documentaries" rather than using audio materials only "in order to expose learners to nonverbal communication as well as verbal communication in English" (MEB, 2014, p. viii, boldface in original).

Much more emphasis was laid on communicative competence as well as an integrated study of all four language skills. In particular, the integrated study of all four language skills was encountered not only in the rationale behind the teaching program but also in the characteristics of materials and tasks, as well as model English curriculum designed for each grade (i.e., grades 9, 10, 11 and 12). In doing so, materials and tasks were suggested to be designed in such a way that they "support the presentation and practice of four language skills in an integrated way," even language learners were characterized as students who "practice all four language skills in an integrated way" (MEB, 2014, p. xi). Furthermore, the features of instruction and assessment highlighted developing higher-order thinking skills such as critical thinking. In this respect, "assessing understanding, production and use of analytical skills in English" was among the features of assessment desired within the teaching program (MEB, 2014, p. xi).

The way assessment was conceptualized revealed characteristics of CLT, since the authentic assessment was emphasized much. Though using traditional assessment tools such as pen-and-paper exams and teacher observation were acknowledged in the curriculum, the following quotation shows the desire for communicative methodology not only in instruction but also in assessment and evaluation:

> Whichever assessment tool is used, it is strongly recommended that the emphasis is given to designing communicative assessment tasks and assessing production of language in the implementation of the curriculum. Since 9th-12th English program is mainly function and skills-based, it is important to assess learner performances via assessment tasks geared towards evaluating integrated skills. (MEB, 2014, p. x)

As can be seen in the above quote, there is a desire for the use of communicative assessment tasks. Also, assessing integrated skills (e.g., reading a short passage and then writing a short reflection) is highlighted in the curriculum. These elements reveal the communicative methodology as the desired instruction prescribed in the curriculum. Many more examples were given on how to assess integrated skills in English. Still, there was a strong recommendation for assessing speaking skill much.

In addition to educating autonomous individuals who are effective communicators, as well, productive and innovative were the other prominent characteristics, which were described for the language learners that will be achieved as a result of implementing the teaching program. Reaching this aim necessitates embracing principles which are apparent in other approaches and methods of language teaching in addition to the communicative methodology. Therefore, the teaching program mirrors several encouraging features of task-based principle as an extension of CLT, i.e., the emphasis on providing real-life experiences for the students in language learning, attention to various needs and interests of learners, incorporating the principles of experiential learning and learn by doing into the design of instructional materials as well as paying attention to the results of SLA research. The following quotation illustrates how the teaching program reflected some principles of task-based methodology in the design and preparation of the teaching and learning practices:

> Students in the 9th-12th Grades English classes also have several academic English needs. Besides, students at this age are expected to be more conscious about the language learning process in their native language, which can be transferred to the second language learning experience. Therefore, limited study of some complex language structures are dispersed within the curriculum. (MEB, 2014, p. iv)

As is seen, paying attention to several needs (e.g., academic needs) as well as considering the age range of the students reflected the principles of the task-based approach. Besides, SLA findings gained in the area of first language acquisition (FLA) were taken into account within the design of the program.

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Therefore, the way the study of linguistic properties (e.g., grammar) was defined found a solid basis. Apart from linguistic properties, how the language skills were sequenced in the design of instructional practices implied attention paid to the task-based premises, as is seen in the following quotation:

> ....each English lesson and/or unit should also be sequenced to **simulate the natural process of first language acquisition** and start with listening and speaking activities and then proceed to reading and writing material. (MEB, 2014, p. viii, boldface in original)

In the recent past, needs analysis has been identified among the defining features of instruction in the task-based methodology as well as the CLT (i.e., strong version); thereby, teachers have been given the role of needs analyst. Accordingly, teachers were suggested to conduct a needs analysis to determine the learning needs of freshman-year (i.e., grade 9) students before they were presented in new functions in upper classes (i.e., grade 10 and beyond) in the curriculum. More importantly, while explaining the organization of the curriculum, a particular reference was attached to the concern for students' needs and interests as follows:

> Another criterion for the selection of the mixture of methods was the profile of language learners in the 9th -12th grades, especially regarding learner age, interests, and language level. …. The themes for each grade were selected with the help of a focus group of learners in the 9th-12th Grades who stated their preferred themes for learning English in high school via a survey in which learners were asked to prioritize the themes based on their preferences and by numbering them from the most preferred to the least one. (MEB, 2014, p. vii)

Both the methods and the themes that would be studied in EFL classes were selected considering the needs, interests, and age range of the students. Within the design of the teaching program, much more attention has been paid to various needs and interests of the students. As mentioned above, collaboration among students was desired in order to meet affective needs. More specifically, it was stated that "there is limited focus on language structures in the 10th Grade and 11th Grade English Programs as students at these levels of English have academic language needs as well as communicative needs" (MEB, 2014, p. viii).

A similar aspect was suggested for the design of materials and tasks by noting "address students' real-life language needs (e.g., survival English, academic English) as well as their interests" as one strand of English teaching and learning environment (MEB, 2014, p. xi). In very general terms, needs analysis, attention to learner needs, interests, and considering the age range of the students in terms of their cognitive as well as affective needs envisioned characteristics of the task-based methodology (i.e., an extension of CLT).

Regarding the other features of the task-based methodology as well as the strong version of CLT identified above, it was stated that "it is desired to promote **experiential learning** and learning-by-doing among learners via the chosen instructional materials" (MEB, 2014, p. viii, boldface in original). In other words, instructional materials were suggested to be designed in such a way that they would promote experiential learning and learn-by-doing, which characterized the task-based methodology, as well as CLT. Quite in line with these principles, teachers were also suggested to "encourage and train learners to learn how to learn English autonomously" (MEB, 2014, p. xi). Learning how to learn something can also be assumed as one of the philosophical underpinnings of the task-based methodology, which reflects the notion of learner-centeredness and the constructivist approach, among many others. In addition, the strong version of CLT involves learner-centered and experienced-based view of language teaching (see Chapter 2).

As aforementioned, it is not easy to distinguish CLT, especially the strong version form TBLT; even the latter has been known as an extension of the former (see Chapter 2). In addition to the defining characteristics identified above, there were some other features of the curriculum reflected both CLT and TBLT in nature. The emphasis on interaction as well as negotiation, characteristics of language activities, and also desire for performance-based assessment can reflect both CLT and TBLT. The characteristics of language activities on their own reflected the desire to incorporate communicative and task-based methodologies into teaching; it was stated that "in all grades,

communicative, experiential, and task-based language activities are promoted" (MEB, 2014, p. viii). Furthermore, a critical review of the characteristics of students desired in the English teaching and learning environment reflected the principles of CLT and TBLT as follows:

- communicate in English in the classroom at all times.
- are active participants who also provide input to each other during communicative activities.
- constantly practice real-life English in various contexts to become effective communicators in English.
- practice all four language skills in an integrated way and parallel to first language acquisition process.
- are viewed as creative individuals who can produce language materials and tasks with the guidance of their teachers.
- are encouraged to be autonomous in their own language learning inside and outside the classroom. (MEB, 2014, p. xi)

As is seen, language learners were characterized as active, creative, and autonomous individuals reflecting the type of learner identified in several current approaches and methods like CLT, TBLT, etc. Also, the emphasis on real-life use of English and encouraging interaction and negotiation between/among students via providing input to each other can best be characterized as the defining features of CLT and TBLT. The desire for the integrated study of all four language skills displays one of the main tenets of communicative methodology; attention to the FLA process in the course of the study of all four language skills reflects one of the psycholinguistic underpinnings, thereby implied philosophy behind the task-based approach. Even when the communicative functions were critically reviewed, samples of reference for communicative as well as task-based methodologies were seen. While 'making an appointment' showed social and/or occupational needs, the premise of

survival English was revealed in the communicative function 'making reservations.'

It is of particular importance to point out the performance-based assessment hereof; so many productive tasks were strongly recommended to be incorporated into the assessment of student learning, which involved communicative skill-based assessment. The teaching program attempted to diagnose too much focus on only one aspect of communicative competence—grammatical competence. For example, *Discussion Time*, as a strongly recommended task, attempted to develop the students' impromptu speech capability. In doing so, the students were desired to select the topics to be discussed and enrich the teaching and learning experience by preparing materials. These traits reflect both communicative and task-based methodologies. *Idioms /Proverbs of the Week* as another strongly recommended task involved both communicative and task-based principles, mainly because it was stated that these tasks aim at developing students' communicative competence via exposure to the real-life use of English. Perhaps, the most distinctive and apparent feature of this teaching program was the desire to integrate technology into all aspects of the instruction, including the feedback. There were two main reasons in doing so; the teaching program identified the adolescent learners as 'Digital Natives,' so the use of ICT tools was desired to meet their needs and interests. Another facet of this teaching program was that there was an intense desire to use instructional technology tools to accord with and/or respond to the recent developments in education. Therefore, the use of ICT has been suggested to be incorporated into the materials design, feedback, assessment, as well as some strongly recommended tasks.

It is seen that a few strongly recommended tasks, i.e., tech pack, e-portfolio, and v-log entries, accurately synthesized technology-supported instruction with communicative and task-based methodologies. All the strongly recommended tasks (i.e., idioms/proverbs of the week, discussion time, e-portfolio entry, tech pack, v-log entry) necessarily prioritized performance-oriented assessment of

student work. They also supported individualized instruction; for example, the tech pack was suggested to be designed in such a way that there would be 'individual learning corners' for the students. The following quotation from task content reflects the strong desire for technology-supported, communicative, task-based instruction:

> **VIDEO BLOG ENTRY:** Students need opportunities to practice spoken English in real life with genuine communication. The video blog (**V-log**) entries can be done by the students in the form of individual e-diary entries about their interests/themes of the units or in the form of interviews with peers, teachers, or parents. Some drama and act out activities created in and/or out of the classroom by the students can also be shared in class…..Students can also fill in short self-evaluation or peer evaluation checklists to evaluate their fluency and accuracy in English after watching the V-logs. (MEB, 2014, p. xix, boldface in original)

As is seen, there is a desire for technology-supported instruction; in order to do this, specific tasks like the one above were recommended to be involved in the teaching and learning of English, thereby incorporating several encouraging principles of communicative and task-based methodologies. Given that students performed a particular v-log task, this could provide the opportunity to practice speaking in English in real-life. Besides, using self-evaluation and peer evaluation can increase learner engagement and autonomy. Apart from the strongly recommended tasks, the principle of multidimensional feedback revealed technology-supported, communicative, and task-based methodology. Along with self-evaluation and peer evaluation, teacher feedback, and parent feedback were incorporated into the program. There was also a desire for computer-mediated feedback.

By noting CALL, and MALL as well as a description of learners as 'Digital Natives,' medium role of technology in instruction can be assumed in the teaching program. The opportunity to gain real-life experiences in using English via different platforms such as chat rooms, blogs, and videoconferencing was especially promising. In this way, students' exposure to intercultural environments was provided; henceforth, language learning experience would exceed the boundaries of the four walls of the classroom. Moreover, the use of

technology addresses students' academic needs; by using the Internet for research, students could develop their academic skills. Meeting the affective needs of the students was notified as another driving force behind the use of ICT tools in English classes. Several ICT tools were suggested to increase students' confidence and motivation, including the use of blogs.

There was also a specific mention of a blended-learning environment, which can be another manifestation of the desire for technology-supported instruction. Within the teaching program, blended learning was simply defined as "face-to-face learning takes place in combination with approximately 45% of online materials and activities" (MEB, 2014, p. vi). To take the phrase 'in combination with' as an example, one can recognize the vision for the use of technology, which goes hand in hand with the classroom level instruction in EFL classes. In line with this notion, instructional materials were characterized as "print and **multimedia**" (boldface in original). Several online and offline materials were suggested, such as 'synchronous and asynchronous CMC,' 'online/offline pictures,' 'wikis,' 'blogs,' and 'virtual environments.' Even more importantly, there was a call for some precautions in order not to damage the blended-learning environment as is seen in the following suggestions for materials designers:

> Material designers should opt for designing a variety of multimedia and online materials for both teachers and learners of English. In addition to online materials and software, offline and/or hard copies of the materials such as transcripts of audios/videos, print screens of online posters/newspapers, DVDs consisting of movies, and interactive learning software which can also work offline should be provided for teachers and learners to prevent the challenges that can be faced as a result of power cuts or lack of/limited access to the Internet. (MEB, 2014, p. ix)

Based on the features of the teaching program reported above, it can be claimed that technology integration was desired to individualize the instruction, address individual learning factors, and provide real-life experiences in using language. All these features were also prevalent in several current approaches and methods like the communicative methodology as well as the task-based approach.

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Therefore, the medium roles for technology and focusing on communicative real-life language learning experiences indicate technology-supported instruction as one of the most prominent characteristics of desired instruction within the teaching program. All in all, technology was not just *de rigueur*, but more importantly, it was at the core of every aspect of the language teaching and learning in this program, i.e., materials design, language teaching and learning practices as well as assessment.

In line with the eclectic principle, the program was composed of several current approaches and methods like the communicative methodology, TBLT as well as technology-supported instruction; besides, some conventional teaching, learning, and assessment practices (e.g., pen-and-paper exams) were acknowledged. In addition to synthesizing different approaches and methods under the eclectic principle, learner-centered teaching as an element of the constructivist approach was also put at the center of the characteristics of instruction desired within the curriculum. All in all, several competing principles were fruitfully merged to meet the needs of Turkish learners of English in the context of upper secondary education in Turkey.

4.1.2.3. MNE English Curriculum for Grade 11

In line with the principles of the CEFR and as part of the teaching program, a curriculum for each grade (i.e., grades 9, 10, 11, and 12) was prepared and attached at the end of the teaching program. In this study, language teaching and learning practices within junior year classes were scrutinized. In addition to the teaching program, the curriculum for teaching English in grade 11 classes of upper secondary education institutions was reviewed to understand the characteristics of intended instruction better.

4.1.2.3.1. Main Components of the Curriculum for Grade 11

The general structure of this curriculum demonstrated the main characteristics of syllabus components identified within the teaching program. First of all, the program was divided into ten units; and the teaching program for each unit involved communicative functions, a few phrases and/or sentences displaying sample usage, learning outcomes identified for four language skills and pronunciation as well as a list of suggested materials and tasks. In this respect, three functions for each unit were identified, and so 30 functions were incorporated into the 11th grade English program. Moreover, a total of 54 learning outcomes that seemed to be equally distributed according to the four language skills were given. There were no specific learning outcomes written for grammar and lexis, yet 11 learning outcomes were written for pronunciation. Therefore, a total of 65 learning outcomes were intended to be achieved as a result of the instruction in grade 11 classes of upper secondary education institutions in Turkey (see Table 14 below).

Table 14. The Number of Language Learning Outcomes in The Teaching Program for Grade 11

Themes	Listening	Pronunciation	Speaking	Reading	Writing	Total
1	2	1	1	2	1	7
2	2	1	2	2	1	8
3	2	1	2	3	1	9
4	1	1	1	2	1	6
5	2	2	1	1	1	7
6	1	1	1	1	1	5
7	1	1	1	1	2	6
8	1	1	2	1	1	6
9	1	1	1	1	2	6
10	1	1	1	1	1	5
Total	14	11	13	15	12	65

As can be seen in the table above, learning outcomes ranged from 5 to 9 were desired to be achieved at the end of each unit. The program aimed at the study of all four language skills together with the pronunciation in each unit. Also, each unit involved a list of suggested materials and tasks, among which all the strongly recommended tasks were incorporated into each theme. In other words,

each unit was envisioned to involve idioms/proverbs of the week, discussion time, tech pack, e-portfolio entry, and video-blog entry. Communicative functions, learning outcomes as well as the suggested materials and tasks were all designed according to the particular theme for each unit. Regarding the third unit *Future Jobs*, "making an appointment" as a function, "talking about future workday activities" as a learning outcome, and materials like Job Application Forms, CV samples were incorporated. It seemed that the curriculum attempted to be aligned with the syllabus characterized within the teaching program, i.e., a multi-syllabus which integrates the components of functional syllabus, skill-based syllabus as well as linguistic aspects such as grammar and lexis.

Apart from the principles of the curriculum reviewed above, there was a specific mention of the CEFR, in that the course outline started with a brief explanation for the language levels identified for grade 11 students according to the Common Reference Levels. The characteristics of Independent User (i.e., Threshold and Vantage) were briefly reviewed. B1+ and B2 levels of English proficiency for junior-year students were expected to be achieved as a result of the implementation of the program. The following quotation from the document demonstrated the attempt to reflect the principles of the CEFR in the curricular objectives:

> The 11th grade English curriculum corresponds to the levels B1 + and B2 identified in the European Common Text. In this way, an upper secondary school student studying a foreign language in grade 11 classes reinforces his/her understanding of foreign cultures and societies, so that s/he can predict distinctions between her own culture and other cultures. The student, who develops his/her knowledge about language patterns, vocabulary, style knowledge, syntax structures, and the organization of texts, can use English creatively and critically. In addition to the improvement in the speaking, listening, reading and writing skills of the student who researches language and culture, perhaps, more importantly, the student acquires the skills to make his/her an independent and fluent language user. (MEB, 2014, p. 24) (translation belongs to me)

As can be seen in the above quote, not only language levels but also some other dimensions of the CEFR were considered in the design of the curriculum. The

desire for using English was emphasized, and so the character of a language user was described. Perhaps, one of the most outstanding characteristics of the CEFR was the emphasis laid on multicultural awareness. Accordingly, the curriculum noted explicitly one of its objectives as in the following:

> ...enable students to recognize and distinguish the cultural values of the countries that speak the target language, to ensure their tolerance and respect to the difference by recognizing the values of their own culture and other cultures. (MEB, 2014, p. 24)

Therefore, learning the cultural frames of the target community and learning other cultures and transferring their own culture to people in other cultures were proposed. Alternatively, there seemed an attempt to incorporate multicultural awareness into the themes and learning outcomes of the program. For example, there was a particular theme focusing on raising students' awareness of their own culture, and it was called *Facts from Turkey*. More specifically, the learning outcome aimed to raise students' awareness of other cultures by noting that "students will be able to recognize and analyze a passage about the lives of different people from other cultures" (MEB, 2014, p. 34).

4.1.2.3.2. Characteristics of Desired Instruction in the Curriculum for Grade 11

In addition to the main components of the teaching program reported above (e.g., using a multi-syllabus approach, adopting principles of the CEFR, etc.), the characteristics of instruction conveyed by the document were scrutinized. The goals below help to understand the main impetus for teaching English in grade 11 classes:

> …The 11th Grade English program aims to improve students' ability to express themselves using English, to collaborate with others, and to develop problem-solving skills. Within the framework of these general objectives, the program for the 11th grade aims to improve interactive listening, speaking, reading, writing skills in English, and enrich lexical knowledge. (MEB, 2014, p. 24) (translation belongs to me)

Based on the aims quoted above, the program desired characteristics of instruction incorporating principles of communicative methodology. First and foremost, the communicative functions listed within each unit lent credibility to the communicative approach. When these functions were reviewed, communicative and task-based features were identified. Among the functions, 'making an appointment' and 'making formal presentations' responded to the students' social and academic needs, attempted to develop their communicative as well as life skills, and provided real-life use of language to some degree.

When the list of suggested materials and tasks given for each unit was critically reviewed, a similar aspect can be seen once again. In addition to the strongly recommended tasks mentioned above, which incorporated characteristics of instruction as communicative, task-based, and technology-supported, several authentic materials were desired to be used, such as movies, poetry, videos of job interviews and short documentaries. It is known that using authentic materials in teaching language is one of the most defining characteristics of CLT. Besides, some materials reflecting the task-based approach as well as CLT were listed, such as surveys and survey reports, information gap activities, and personal diary entry. There seemed to be an attempt to incorporate learner autonomy into the course design, which is quite popular in communicative and task-based approaches. In so doing, materials like self-evaluation checklists and reflective paragraphs were noted. Perhaps, another point which was prevalent in both communicative methodology and task-based approach was the technology-supported materials. A few materials reflected this notion, including online chat, online newspapers, and news websites. Apart from these, few materials were reasonably traditional such as letters, dialogues, matching criticism with suggestions, and matching sentences with pictures.

Though communicative functions and suggested materials and tasks displayed CLT and somewhat task-based approach, learning outcomes played a decisive part in the instruction. For the reason that activities and tasks incorporated into the instructional materials are designed following these objectives, then

classroom-level instruction is performed accordingly. When the learning outcomes were analyzed, quite a few reflected the visions of CLT and TBLT to a degree. Of all the 65 objectives, 10 of them more or less reflected the assumptions underlying CLT and TBLT. Among these relatively communicative and task-based objectives, six of them were communicative-oriented (e.g., fostering peer interaction, promoting opinion-sharing activities, etc.) while four of them involved task-oriented objectives such as carrying out meaningful real-life tasks. It is of particular to note that differentiating between these communicative-oriented and task-oriented tasks were difficult given that TBLT is accepted as an extension of CLT. In other words, these ten objectives were grouped under a single category as language tasks. Though few, there were two objectives which fostered integrated study of language skills. On the other hand, a huge number of objectives designed for the study of language skills displayed discrete study of language skills (n: 20). When the rest of the objectives (n: 33) were examined, the study of linguistic properties were revealed. Of all the 33 objectives, 16 of them, by and large, stimulated the study of grammar, six of them stirred the study of lexis in context while the rest was for the study of pronunciation (see Table 15 below).

Table 15. Main Characteristics of Objectives (n: 65)

Main Features		N	Sample Objectives
Objectives for The study of Language Skills (n:22)	Objectives for the study of discrete skills	20	*Students will be able to read about the biography of a famous person/inventor/scientist/celebrity.
	Objectives for the study of integrated skills	2	*Students will be able to collect personal information about each other and summarize it using adjectives.
Objectives for The Study of Linguistic Properties (n:33)	Objectives for overt grammar study	16	*Students will be able to listen to and deduce the different usages of modals in a text to make predictions and criticisms.
	Objectives for teaching vocabulary in context	6	*Students will be able to identify and match related lexis and jargon in short texts.
	Objectives for accuracy-oriented pronunciation study	6	*Students will be able to practice pronunciation of *ed* endings following voiced and unvoiced consonant sounds and following *t-d* sounds.
	Objectives for intelligibility-oriented pronunciation study	5	*Students will be able to practice rising and falling intonation in asking questions

Table 15. (continued)

Objectives for The Study of Language Tasks (n:10)	Communicative-oriented objectives	6	*Students will be able to express and share their personal experiences in the past. *Students will be able to express real life regrets. Students will be able respond to others' regrets.
	Task-oriented objectives	4	*Students will be able to write a short story on their regrets about one of their real life experiences. *Students will be able to write a letter to a friend suggesting places to visit in Turkey.

In regard to the integrated study of language skills, the linguistic review of the objectives indicated the attempt to incorporate a productive skill into the study of a receptive skill; i.e., listening, reading, and/or another productive skill; i.e., speaking or writing. There were two learning outcomes, as in the following:

"Students will be able to scan the descriptions of events, feelings, and wishes in personal letters well enough to correspond regularly with a pen friend." (MEB, 2014, p. 28)

"Students will be able to collect personal information about each other and summarize it using adjectives." (MEB, 2014, p. 33)

As is seen above, while the first objective attempted to integrate the use of writing skills into the study of reading, the latter attempted to integrate speaking practice as a preliminary for the study of writing. In this second objective, the interaction between and/or among students was also desired. The desire for interaction between students, in essence, was incorporated into several objectives in the curriculum. For instance, there were speaking objectives that required the students to express real life regrets first and then respond to others' regrets.

Furthermore, there were four learning outcomes that involved a task to a degree, and so implied a TBLT perspective. The learning outcome for the study of writing in theme nine was that "Students will be able to design their own class newspaper" (MEB, 2014, p. 33). As is seen, writing skill was aimed to be studied via a real-world task; also, this objective seemed to enable interaction and

negotiation of meaning among students. It is of particular to point out the objectives which were designed in a communicative and task-based manner. The following learning outcomes displayed the desire for incorporating a task into the study of a particular language skill:

"Students will be able to write a letter to an adviser expressing what they might/should/could have done in a specific situation." (MEB, 2014, p. 30)

"Students will be able to write a short story on their regrets about one of their real life experiences." (MEB, 2014, p. 32)

As is seen, there were sorts of tasks, i.e., writing a letter, writing a short story on the one hand, and linguistic items like the past modals on the other. In this respect, the task became a medium to practice linguistic structures. Also, some of the learning outcomes tried to incorporate the study of functions via using tasks. The objectives were 'expressing and sharing personal experiences in the past', 'expressing and sharing opinions in past events', and/or 'ordering past events', 'talking about a personal story in the past.' For example, the learning outcome in theme three was that "students will be able to talk about their future workday activities on the phone" (MEB, 2014, p. 27). There seemed an attempt to enable the study of communicative function "talking on the phone" by using a sort of real-life task, i.e., the students' future workday activities. Moreover, there appeared an attempt to provide a meaningful context for the study of linguistic properties like 'will' and 'am/is/are going to.'

As aforementioned, no learning outcome appeared explicitly written for the teaching of grammar and lexis; however, the critical review of objectives written for the study of all four language skills revealed focus on grammar and lexis. Among the 65 objectives, almost half of them (n: 33) promoted the study of linguistic competence, either overt or covert. The learning outcomes also contributed to the study of language skills with a segregated approach (n: 20).

The desire to study grammar became more apparent in some objectives; for example, "Students will be able to use gerund and infinitives in talking about

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hobbies and skills" (MEB, 2014, p. 29). As can be understood from the example, there was an overt emphasis on the study of linguistic properties. Perhaps, to align with the principles of the curriculum guide, i.e., the teaching vocabulary in context, there were a few objectives (n: 6) that incorporated the study of lexis via the study of reading and listening skills. A typical objective was that "Students will be able to identify and understand related lexis and expressions in short texts" (MEB, 2014, p. 27). Although it was a reading objective, the main point seemed to learn vocabulary.

As is seen in the table 15 above, 11 objectives were written specifically for the teaching of pronunciation compared to the other linguistic properties, i.e., lexis and grammar. While six of them were associated with an accuracy-oriented instruction for the study of pronunciation, five of them displayed, by and large, intelligibility-oriented instruction. As predicted, accuracy-oriented features emphasized particular linguistic properties which were taught within the unit. In this respect, theme one involved the practice for the pronunciation of –ed endings, theme six involved a learning outcome for pronunciation—the study of reduction in past modals. On the other hand, intelligibility-oriented learning outcomes for the study of pronunciation highlighted the teaching of rising and falling intonation, contrastive stress, etc.

Towards the end, the curriculum for grade 11 classes appeared to embrace a segregated approach to the study of language skills. In addition to the objectives mentioned above, there were a few objectives that aimed at the study of a particular skill on its own. When the learning outcomes were linguistically reviewed, expressions such as 'listen and respond to,' 'detect factual information,' as well as 'listen and organize' revealed the study of listening as a discrete skill; besides, expressions like 'read about,' 'read and analyze,' 'scan a text,' and 'recognize and analyze' revealed the study of reading as a discrete skill. Accordingly, there was a desire to practice speaking as a discrete skill, for example, the speaking objective in theme ten was that "Students will be able to compare people's habits now and 20 years ago" (MEB, 2014, p. 27).

It seems that by focusing on the study of a language skill, the curriculum for grade 11 classes desired for creating learning paths for the practice of communicative functions. While the study of listening as a skill was desired, at the same time the aim was to practice the communicative function 'ordering' within the learning outcome: "Students will be able to put the events in the correct order by listening to recorded text" (MEB, 2014, p. 26). It is well-known that the study of communicative functions is a defining feature of CLT; moreover, using authentic materials is prevalent in CLT. In doing so, there were a few reading objectives which involved authentic materials as in the following:

> "Students will be able to read and analyze samples of CVs/Letters of intent for different job applications." (MEB, 2014, p. 27)

> "Students will be able to recognize and analyze online and offline newspaper articles." (MEB, 2014, p. 33)

As seen in the objectives above, the desire to use authentic materials to develop language skills like analyzing a particular text can be welcomed in CLT. Besides, incorporating communicative functions into the learning outcomes as another domain of CLT was detected in this teaching program. However, some learning outcomes reflected an intense focus on the linguistic properties of the language; the discrete study of language skills was presented in some objectives, as well. Such an aspect of the teaching program seems to imply an instruction that shows characteristics of a traditional syllabus. From this perspective, the English curriculum for grade 11 indicated an apparent desire for the communicative methodology on the one hand, while promoting the study of linguistic properties as well as the discrete study of language skills on the other. It is observed that the curriculum for grade 11 classes infers, to a large extent, CLT as the desired instruction, yet a weak form of CLT seemed to be more prevalent.

4.1.2.4. The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11"

Because this dissertation investigates the implementation of an English language teaching program, instructional materials are critical in this study. In this last section of the document review, the instructional material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11" will be analyzed as part of the policy instrument used for teaching English in grade 11 classes of upper secondary education institutions in Turkey during the 2017-2018 school year.

Firstly, the instructional material was composed of three items, i.e., teacher's book, student's book, and workbook; also, the class CD for the listening materials was available. It was prepared according to the principles of the teaching program as well as the learning outcomes and functions identified within the curriculum for teaching English in grade 11 classes. In this regard, bringing students to the English proficiency level of B1+ and B2 at the end of the school year (i.e., 2017-2018 school year) was identified as the aim of the book.

The instructional material consisted of ten themes, each of which involved strongly recommended tasks, i.e., idiom/proverb of the week, discussion time, e-portfolio entry, v-log entry, as well as "attention" part to review language functions and structures, "help each other" for peer feedback and "can do club" for self-evaluation.

As for the main features of instruction, the instructional material claimed to adopt CLT principles (see Sunshine English 11 Teacher's Book, 2017). In this respect, there was an emphasis on authenticity as well as presentation and practice of language skills in an integrated way; besides, an inductive approach was adopted for the study of grammar. Discussion activities were incorporated into each theme for teaching critical thinking skills; also, e-portfolio and v-log parts aimed to allow students to use technology tools in their language learning procedure.

A general review of the book indicated features of CLT in many respects. Each theme was designed according to the communicative functions identified within the curriculum for teaching English in Grade 11. Besides, there was a warm-up activity at the beginning of each theme, and then communicative functions were studied in a few activities. After that, the study of language skills was presented. Starting with listening activities was prominent at the beginning of each theme, followed by speaking, reading, and writing activities. In other words, the study of writing mostly appeared toward the end of each unit.

However, the flow of the language skills was not always from the study of receptive skills to productive skills (i.e., from listening to speaking, or from reading to writing). For example, theme five "Hobbies and Skills" started with the study of speaking skills following writing skills, then comes reading and listening skills. Therefore, the students were first required to practice and produce the language. Although the design of the activities reflected the PPP strategy, the flow of the exercises did not always reveal the well-known sequence of the PPP pattern.

Communicative functions were also incorporated into the study of all four language skills. To illustrate, "describing places, people and events in the past" and "ordering events" were the two communicative functions in theme one "What a Life," also "identifying and responding to lexis and jargon related to ordering past events," was the learning outcome for the study of listening skills. In this regard, students were required to listen to the history teacher's lecture and put the events in order (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.9).

As was claimed in the teacher's book, an integrated study of language skills was also detected. The study of reading and writing skills were incorporated into activity twenty-three in theme three "Future Jobs." Students were required to work in pairs, read the letter of intent given first and then write down a CV for Mary Dove (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.42). On the other hand, there appeared a few activities which provided the discrete study of

language skills. For example, activity ten in theme two "Hard Times" aimed to the study of reading skill only, in that the students were required to read the text and complete the blanks with the missing vocabulary given in the box (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.23).

An in-depth review of the instructional material revealed skill-based activities designed to develop various techniques and strategies in terms of mastery in language skills. First, listening for specific purposes and intensive listening were prevalent for the study of listening. To illustrate, students were required to fill in the chart with the information from the recording in the fifth activity of theme two "Hard Times" (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.21); they were required to listen and write two regrets of the grandfather in theme eight "What If" (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.99). Second, developing scanning skills was one of the most predominant reading techniques; for example, activities such as meaningful drilling (i.e., reading comprehension questions) and inserting sentences into the reading text were seen (see, e.g., Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p. 74). As for writing skills, writing a paragraph was the most prominent activity that occurred, yet still there appeared a variety of writing tasks such as writing a reflection, a short story, a short comment, and a diary. There was a 'Help Each Other' part for providing peer correction for writing.

A detailed review of writing activities revealed two main divisions: students were either given a sample reading text, and then they were required to write a similar one by making use of the reading text (see, e.g., Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.18), or prompts and example sentences were provided to help students produce the language in a written form (see, e.g., Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.88). In other words, the instructional material scaffolded learners in their procedure to produce the language by providing sample texts, prompts, example sentences, visuals, etc.

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Perhaps developing interactive listening strategies was the most prominent skill studied throughout the book. In this regard, there appeared emphasis on the interaction between students via pair work, group work, and as a whole class. To develop oral communication skills, information-gathering activities such as doing a class survey (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.49), walking around the class, and finding someone who (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.58) were used much. Opinion-sharing activities were extensive, as well. A leading question was posed to help students express their opinion; for example, "*If a foreigner asked you about which historic sites to see in Turkey, which three sites would you recommend? Why?*" (Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p. 86). Sometimes students were given either an authentic saying or a quote, and then they were required to express their opinions. Role-playing was also one of the most common activities to develop interactive listening strategies. In this respect, the following quotation from the teacher's book showed an attempt to inform the teachers about the aim of an activity designed specifically for developing interactive listening strategies:

16. Imagine that you're on the phone talking to Stella Stone. Work in pairs and ask and answer questions about workday activities and vacation times.

(F3, L1, S2)

Tell your students that they will be working in pairs to prepare a dialogue in which they will be talking to each other on the phone talking about workday activities and vacation times.

This exercise is not only a speaking, but also a listening activity. As it is stated in Common European Framework for References, "In interaction at least two individuals participate in an oral exchange in which production and reception alternate and may in fact overlap in oral communication. Not only may two interlocutors be speaking and yet listening to each other simultaneously." *(2.1.3, Language activities on page 14)*, students will interact to receive and produce utterances.

Figure 7. Sample Guide for Instruction. From Akgedik-Can, M., & Atcan-Altan, N. (2017). *Sunshine English 11 teacher's book*, p. 49.

Developing higher-order thinking skills has been high on the agenda in language teaching with CLT. As aforementioned, discussion activities were used to develop critical thinking skills. These parts involved a few questions to help students activate their schemata before reading a text or listening to a recording. Students were required to answer the questions giving reasons; work in groups and/or as a whole class was desired hereof. *Sunshine* also aimed to develop students' analytical thinking skills via puzzles and quizzes. To illustrate, the warm-up activity in theme seven "Facts from Turkey" involved seven multiple-choice questions to help students test their knowledge (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.80). In addition, developing presentation skills, doing research were incorporated into the activities; students were given a group work task in theme one "Hard Times" they needed to do research about an important historical event and prepare a poster to present in the class (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p. 10).

Authenticity might be one of the defining features of instructional materials designed according to the principles of CLT; accordingly, *Sunshine* was identified to be authentic in design and content. The review of the instructional material presented realia-based materials, such as using job ads and news for reading (see, e.g., Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p. 35; Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.107); moreover, visual resources such as graphs and charts were used. In addition to realia-based, technology-supported materials were also available such as e-portfolio and v-log entries. Written or spoken production in L2 by using technology tools was the main characteristic of these materials. While e-portfolio entries favored written production, v-log tasks involved spoken production tasks. Student blogs were recommended to keep track of e-portfolios. Students were generally required to make a video in v-log tasks; for example, they were required to make a video and talk about the question "*How would your life have been different if you had been born in another country?*" (see Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p. 102).

Using video-blogs, e-portfolios, and the above-mentioned communicative activities were desired not only for instruction but also for assessment. In other words, alternative assessment procedures were one of the leading principles identified; assessment strategies such as performance tasks, teacher observations, projects, and rubrics developed by teachers and students were highlighted. Besides, portfolio assessment was desired more than the traditional assessment tools such as paper-and-pencil tests and standardized tests. Also, there was a desire to involve multiple feedback providers (e.g., self, peer, and teacher) in the assessment procedures.

The analysis of the activities revealed the way linguistic properties (i.e., pronunciation, lexis, and grammar) were treated. First, there appeared two or three activities designed specifically for the study of pronunciation in each theme, and all of them were presented following the listening activities. Regarding lexis, teaching new vocabulary in context was the principle adopted. In so doing, target vocabulary items were always delivered in reading texts. Matching the vocabulary items with their L2 definitions was the most widespread activity to study lexis. Moreover, a few reading activities involved blanks, a list of words were given to complete these blanks. Each theme involved one or two vocabulary activities at most, and the number of lexis studied per exercise was about four to nine.

Attention parts were specifically examined to reveal the way grammar was treated in the instructional material. An inductive approach was adopted to learn grammar; that is, the students were exposed to the linguistic forms in listening and reading parts because these parts aimed to provide enhanced input for the linguistic features. Attention parts were always presented after listening and reading activities; they involved a list of sample sentences reviewed in the listening scripts and reading texts. As table 16 below demonstrates, the linguistic structure "I wish" was the language component to study in theme four "Back to the Past." The students became familiar with the linguistic features (e.g., I wish I had, she wishes she would, etc.) via the listening activity. Then the attention box

was presented; there was no explanation for the usage of the structure. Due to the inductive approach adopted, students were only required to practice activities in the Attention section.

Table 16. Sample Activities to Present Linguistic Features

(Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.46)

(Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p.48)

Regarding the activities in Attention parts and the workbook, contextualized practice and communicative practice were observed much. For example, exercise two in the workbook for theme six "Open Your Heart" contextualized the study of linguistic features for past modals (i.e., should've done, must have done, can't have done, might have done, and could've done). In doing so, photos and situations were given for each item; students must look at the photos and read the situations. Then, they were required to write suitable responses; an example was also provided (see Table 17 below). On a similar line, activity four in the grammar revision part for theme one "What a Life" provided contextualized practice for the linguistic properties after and before. There appeared visuals again; also, prompts were given to help students make their sentences (see Table 17 below). As for communicative practice, acting out dialogue and role-playing were recognized. As shown in table 17 below, students were given role cards and were assigned to act out a conversation according to the information presented in the role cards.

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Table 17. Sample Contextualized Practice and Communicative Practice Activities

(Sunshine English 11 Workbook, 2017, p. 33)

(Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p. 135)

(Sunshine English 11 Workbook, 2017, p.46)

When the linguistic properties throughout the book were examined, a sort of inconsistency in treating linguistic features was observed. While linguistic properties related to the past perfect forms of language was presented at the beginning of the book, the study of gerund and infinitive structures (i.e., like, love, hate, enjoy, be into, gifted in, want to, prefer, and would rather) which

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might be easier than the previous forms, appeared later on. In addition to the problems with introducing linguistic features, lack of audio-visual materials was the second limitation concerning the design of the book. In other words, the students were deprived of the body language and contextual clues that would help them understand the content better, as well as the way language is used according to the context. Due perhaps to the lack of audio-visual materials, there seemed a sort of problem in presenting idioms/ proverbs of the week parts. These parts always appeared after the study of listening and reading activities. In other words, students were first to become familiar with the use of idioms/proverbs in a particular context. Then a multiple-choice question was posed to understand the meaning of the idiom/proverb. Only the meaning of the expression was studied rather than its use in context.

Another cumbersome point was the relatively long instructions given to explain what to do in a particular activity. There were multiple tasks expressed within a single activity, which might be confusing for lower proficiency students. For instance, "*Look at the picture. What do you think happened to him? Write at least two predictions about what happened to him. Then share your answers with your classmates*" (Sunshine English 11 Student's Book, 2017, p. 44). Towards the end, the problem with the flow of activities emerged; the sequence of the activities was the same throughout the book. The design of the activities to study language skills and linguistic properties were also not varied much. While matching vocabulary with their definitions dominated the study of lexis, reading the text and answering comprehension questions was used for developing reading skills.

To sum up, the review of the instructional material revealed many features of CLT in terms of characteristics of instruction. In this regard, each theme was designed according to the communicative functions as well as all four language skills were studied in each unit. The presentation and practice of language skills in an integrated way was observed. Still, a priority was given to develop communicative skills via opinion-sharing activities (e.g., discussion time) and

information-gathering activities (e.g., surveys). Language-based realia (e.g., job ads and news) was used concerning the authenticity principle. Technology-supported materials were also seen, i.e., e-portfolio and v-log tasks; using these materials as well as the communicative activities for assessment reflected the desire for alternative assessment procedures. Finally, grammar learning was observed to be inductive. Though problems and limitations appeared, all these features reviewed above showed the strong form of CLT in terms of the characteristics of instruction desired within the instructional material.

4.1.3. Summary of Document Analysis

The analysis of the instructional policy documents revealed the construction of policy at the macro space on the one hand, and characteristics of instruction conveyed by these documents on the other. The following table presents main construction of the instructional policy moving from top toward down for teaching EFL in grade 11 classes of upper secondary education institutions.

Table 18. Overview of The Instructional Policy Construction for Teaching EFL at Upper Secondary Education

Policy Documents	**Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act (1983)**	*MNE was appointed as the top government authority in execution of FLE policy.
	Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education (2006)	*The aim of FLE at upper secondary education was identified; -acquisition of four language skills – listening comprehension, reading comprehension, speaking and writing -emphasis on communicative skills -developing positive attitudes toward learning a foreign language
	Policy Summary Paper published by General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education (2017)	*Plan for revising teaching programs, teaching materials and language teaching procedures was announced. *A policy attempt to amend Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education (2006) was mentioned planned to undergo between 2015 and 2017.
	Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions (2017)	*Main policy document to arrange running of upper secondary education institutions all over Turkey. *Assessment and evaluation procedures (e.g., threshold degree, types of exams, and how to pass class) were prescribed.

Table 18. (continued)

		Official Bulletin, March 2015	*Gradual implementation of English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12) was confirmed to be implemented from the 2015-2016 school year onward.
Policy Instruments	**Official Bulletin of MNE, 2014-2018**	Official Bulletin, April 2017	*The textbook published by "Cem Veb Ofset" announced to be used for teaching English in grade 11 classes all over Turkey during 2017-2018 school year.
		Official Bulletin, June 2017	*Weekly course schedule for teaching EFL in grade 11 classes was reported to be 4 hours in a week.
		Official Bulletin, July 2017	*The new English curriculum (i.e., English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education [Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12]) was decided to be implemented at all grades of secondary education from the 2018-2019 school year onward.

As is seen from the above table, MNE is the top government authority in making regulations for FLE at formal as well as informal education levels. In the recent past, two crucial regulations have been performed by MNE which influence FLE at upper secondary education institutions: Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education (2006), and Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions (2017). First and foremost, Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education (2006) proposed the aim of FLE. The second policy document, i.e., Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions (2017) was the main policy document to arrange the running of upper secondary education institutions all over Turkey during the time span of field data collection (i.e., 2017-2018 school year). In particular, assessment and evaluation procedures that were desired to be implemented at upper secondary education institutions were prescribed.

It is of particular to point out the Policy Summary Paper published by the General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education in 2017, because the policy attempt to amend Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education (2006) between 2015 and 2017 was mentioned. However, this policy attempt is still not realized. More importantly, although during the time span of field data collection (i.e., 2017-2018 school year) English Curriculum (2014) was in use, the plan to update the teaching programs as well as the teaching materials for the upper secondary education level was announced. In line with the claim proposed

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in the Policy Summary Paper (see Table 18 above), the analysis of the Official Bulletin of MNE revealed the new English Curriculum for teaching EFL at upper secondary education to be implemented at all grades of secondary education from 2018-2019 school year onward.

The Official Bulletin of MNE was analyzed to identify the formal curriculum documents and materials used for teaching EFL in grade 11 classes of upper secondary education institutions. Therefore, the 9th-12th Grade English Curriculum published in 2014 and English Curriculum for Grade 11 attached at the end of this curriculum, and the instructional material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11" were found.

All these above-mentioned documents were meticulously reviewed to reveal characteristics of instruction for teaching EFL conveyed in different policy spaces. In a very general sense, the analysis of the documents indicated that CLT is the main impetus for teaching EFL at upper secondary education institutions. Yet still, features of communicative-oriented instruction vary when the policy moves from top to down. The table below will provide a summary of the findings:

Table 19. Summary of Document Analysis

Policy Spaces		Characteristics of Instruction
Macro Policy Documents	**Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education, 2006**	CLT
	Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2017	Learner-centered approach
Policy Instruments	**The 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2014**	Eclectic Approach
	English Curriculum for Grade 11	CLT (weak form)
	The Instructional Material "Sunshine English 11"	CLT (strong form)

As the above table demonstrates, the first concrete attempt to describe characteristics of desired instruction was put forth via Regulation on Foreign Language Teaching and Education in 2006. Some of the most well-known characteristics of CLT were identified hereof, i.e., acquisition of four language

skills—listening comprehension, reading comprehension, speaking and writing, and emphasis on communicative skills (see Table 18 above). When the document called Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions was reviewed, principles of CLT were identified especially within the assessment and evaluation procedures prescribed; that is, performance work and project work were favored and (skills) practice exams were required. Furthermore, there were many features that were prominent as regards the humanistic approaches adopted (e.g., learner autonomy) and characteristics of students such as productive and innovative individuals. These elements show the notion of learner-centeredness.

Perhaps the most detailed information can be found within the policy instruments concerning characteristics of instruction desired for teaching EFL at upper secondary education. In this regard, eclectic approach was clearly identified within the 9th -12th Grades English Curriculum (2014). An in-depth analysis of the teaching program revealed features of learner-centered approach (e.g., emphasis laid on learner autonomy, gaining confidence and etc.) as well as language teaching and learning methods such as CLT, TBLT and even conventional forms of language teaching and learning. Even so, the prominent approach adopted within the teaching program seems to be the strong form of CLT, since technology-supported instruction, using authentic materials, communicative functions were highlighted.

As regards to English Curriculum for Grade 11, CLT was observed again. However, a meticulous review of the learning outcomes within the document showed that there was emphasis on linguistic properties much. In this sense, while CLT was favored, characteristics of instruction conveyed by the document seemed to be the weak form of CLT. When the instructional material "Sunshine" as the last document was analyzed, features of CLT was revealed again since it was claimed in the book, as well. A detailed analysis of the activities within the book showed many features of CLT which resembled to the strong form (e.g., inductive grammar learning, language-based realia, technology-supported

instruction, developing higher-order thinking skills). Based on all these findings, below is the table which summarizes characteristics of intended instruction:

Table 20. Characteristics of Intended Instruction

Learner-Centered Approach		- Learner autonomy (e.g., responsibility, self-study, reflective, decision-maker, etc.) - Facilitator role of teacher - Using humanistic methods of teaching (e.g., active student involvement) 'Scaffolded learning experience' via peer interaction and collaboration - Providing stimulating, motivating, and enjoyable learning environments
Eclectic Approach	**Communicative Approach**	- The acquisition of all four language skills - The role of teachers as a facilitator of learning and a needs analyst - Learners as effective, fluent, and accurate communicators in English - An inductive approach to learning grammar - Teaching new vocabulary in context - Using skill-based activities (mastery in language skills such as interactive listening strategies, intensive listening, scanning, etc.) - Incorporating all four aspects of communicative competence (i.e., strategic, sociolinguistic, discourse and linguistic) - An integrated study of language skills - Integrated study of communicative functions and all four language skills - The study of language skills with a segregated approach - Using multidimensional feedback (e.g., teacher, peer, parent, and computer-mediated feedback) - Using authentic materials - Developing higher-order thinking skills (e.g., critical thinking, analytical thinking etc.) - Caution against traditional transmissive-oriented instruction - The study of linguistic competence, either overt or covert - Some focus on pronunciation
	Task-Based Propositions	- Attention to various needs and interests of learners (e.g., affective needs, academic language needs, communicative needs, etc.) - Attention to the results of SLA (e.g., simulating natural process of FLA in instructional design) - Promoting experiential learning and learn by doing - Using communicative, experiential, and task-based language activities - Providing real-life use of language - Employing needs analysis

Table 20. (continued)

	Using Technology	• Technology-supported instruction • Using ICT in learning and instruction • Computer-assisted language learning (CALL), • Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) • Describing adolescent learners as 'Digital Natives,' • A blended-learning environment • Individualized instruction • Medium role of technology in instruction • Using ICT tools to provide students' exposure to intercultural environments • Using technology-supported materials (e.g., videos, documentaries, online and offline software)
	Assessment	• Assessment of knowledge and skills • Communicative skill-based assessment • Assessment of analytical thinking skills • Using traditional assessment tools such as pen-and-paper exams and teacher observation • Performance-based assessment • Using a mixture of traditional, alternative and technology-based assessment • Holding at least two examinations for each lesson • 50 points out of 100 was appointed as the threshold level to pass the class • Joint examination and evaluation for written and skills practice exams
	Other	• Developing positive attitudes towards learning a foreign language • Learning an international or a world language as part of FLE • Developing 21st century skills (e.g., scientific thinking skills, doing research, learn by doing) • Organizing language classes according to the proficiency levels of students • A specific mention of the CEFR • Independent User (i.e., Threshold and Vantage) • B1+ and B2 levels of English proficiency expected to be achieved. • The character of a language user is desired. • Emphasis laid on multicultural awareness

As is seen in the table above, the main characteristics of intended instruction involve learner-centered approaches, eclectic approach, and a few other aspects such as the principles of the CEFR. Given that the more recent conceptualization of CLT has embraced a learner-centered and experience-based view of second language teaching and learning, CLT can be identified as the leading methodology incorporating several features (e.g., learner-centered approach, technology-supported instruction, and task-based propositions).

In summary, the document analysis in this case study demonstrated that CLT is the main methodology desired for teaching EFL at upper secondary education. However, a detailed analysis of these documents showed some blurring messages in terms of the way CLT methodology was desired to be instructed. The following section will indicate the views and practices of the EFL teachers and junior year students as the main policy actors within the micro level realization of the instructional policy at a public high school.

4.2. Characteristics of Realized Instruction

Having analyzed the documents for characteristics of instruction they convey and having thus provided the answers for two sub-research questions of the study, it is now necessary to explore the participant views and practices about the realization of the instructional policy. This section presents the findings gathered from field data, i.e., classroom field notes, field notes, analytic memos on visual data, supplementary documents, and interviews with teachers and students. In this part of the study, the following research question with its sub-research questions is answered:

3) How does the instructional policy developed for teaching English as a foreign language realize at a public high school in Turkey?
   i. What are the instructional practices of the teachers in EFL classroom?
   ii. How do language learners experience the instructional policy in EFL classroom?

The above-mentioned question with its sub-questions aimed to uncover micro level realization of the instructional policy for teaching EFL from the perspective of the policy actors, i.e., EFL teachers and their students. To achieve this specific purpose, the findings of field data collected during 2017-2018 school year as well as findings of the interview data will be presented.

As mentioned in the previous chapter (see Chapter 3), pseudonyms were given to the participants. There were three teacher participants in the study, and they were named Snowdrop, Tulip, and Marigold. Regarding students, participant number (e.g., S1, S2, etc.) was given as part of a pseudonym.

Types of curricula described within the conceptual framework of this study in Chapter 2 were considered for analyzing these data. A table presenting types of curricula with data collection instruments is below (see Table 21). From this perspective, the taught curriculum concerned the teachers' instructional practices in EFL classes, and the perceived curriculum specifically referred to the beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions of the EFL teachers bearing influence on their instructional decisions and practices. On the other hand, the learned curriculum considered students' language learning experiences in and out of EFL classes. The assessed curriculum as the last component involved the school-level implementation of assessment-related regulations for EFL.

Table 21. Data Collection Instruments Related to Each Type of Curriculum

Curricula	Taught/Delivered Curriculum	Perceived Curriculum	Learned/Experienced Curriculum	Assessed /Tested Curriculum
Purpose	To reveal language teaching practices of the teachers	To reveal attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of teachers which influence their instruction	To discover language learning experiences of the students in and out of the EFL classroom	To disclose school-wide assessment practices for EFL class
Data Collection Instruments	*Classroom Field Notes *Field Notes *Semi-structured Interview I. General Description of the Setting	*Classroom Field Notes (i.e., "*What's Shared With Me*") *Field Notes *Semi-structured Interview I. General Description of the Setting	*Classroom Field Notes *Field Notes *Semi-structured Interview I. General Description of the Setting *Semi-structured Interview II. The Use of Technology	*Classroom Field Notes *Field Notes *Semi-structured Interview III. Assessment (for Teachers)

Table 21. (continued)

*Semi-structured Interview II. The Use of Technology *Analytic Memos on Visual Data	*Semi-structured Interview II. The Use of Technology *Semi-structured Interview III. Assessment	*Supplementary Documents (e.g., study sheets) *Analytic Memos on Visual Data	*Semi-structured Interview III. Assessment (for Students) *Supplementary Documents (e.g., exam papers, assessment tasks, etc.) *Analytic Memos on Visual Data

All the data were analyzed through qualitative content analysis and the emerging codes are categorized under four main themes: 1) routines of the teaching and learning process, 2) context-specific realities of the instructional policy, 3) reflection of instruction on students' language learning experiences, and 4) assessment policy implementation. A codebook was also provided involving the frequencies for codes, sub-codes, categories as well as themes (see Appendix K). While the first two themes (i.e., routines of teaching and learning process, context-specific realities of the instructional policy) aim to uncover the way instructional policy for teaching EFL is realized at a public high school, reflection of instruction on students' language learning experiences as the third theme presents data findings related to the language learning experiences emerged as a result of instructional practices of the teachers. The last theme assessment policy implementation concerns findings of data referring to the assessed curriculum as one component of the micro policy implementation.

In reporting data, selected quotations from the interview data were used to support the analysis. They were indented, or displayed in quotation marks; as interviews were conducted in Turkish, they were presented along with English translations on the right side. When necessary, additional expressions were added in [square brackets] which were not expressed by the participant, but might be needed to better understand what was meant. Besides, there appeared a

few thought-provoking expressions of the participants during classroom observations as well as day-to-day conversations. When necessary, these were given in quotation marks within the classroom field notes and field notes. These quotations were presented in Turkish to help the reader better grasp the sense-making process of the participants in a particular situation (e.g., when students made a mistake during the lesson, when they wanted to perform an activity, etc.). Following the Turkish expression, English translation was provided.

4.2.1. Routines of Teaching and Learning Process

This sub-section presents the analysis of the data with regard to the way EFL is taught within this context and the routine procedures followed in EFL classes. In so doing, three categories emerged: 1) the flow of the lesson, 2) conventional teaching and learning practices, and 3) teaching the language skills. These are discussed in the following sections.

4.2.1.1. The Flow of the Lesson

The data analysis portrayed the step-by-step procedure followed from the beginning toward the end of a typical EFL class within this school. In this respect, classroom routines such as greeting students were observed in the beginning of a lesson, the main flow of the lesson was followed by a brief review and warm-up session, students were then presented the exercise which they were required to perform; the teacher explained how to do the exercise, and then came the practice stage. Students performed the task, after that answers were elicited by the teacher. There appeared almost no wrap-up at the end of a typical EFL class; providing that the answers for a particular exercise were obtained, the lessons were finished.

Table 22. The Flow of the Lesson

Item	Code
1	Classroom routines
2	Review and warm-up
	-"Where were we up to?"
3	Direct instructional guidance
4	The practice stage
	-Checking student work
5	Eliciting answers
	-Volunteers only
	-Choosing in random order
6	Lack of wrap-up

Table 22 above presents the main procedures of an EFL class from the beginning to the end. On a similar line, Snowdrop described the follow of her lessons as in the following:

Yani zaten selamlaşma kısmını çok kısa geçiyorum çocuklarla, kitapta kaldığımız yerden hani kısa bir açıklamayla başlayıp, devamında kitabın yönlendirmesine bağlı kalarak, onunla ilgili egzersizleri yapıyorum. Egzersizi açıklama, örnek vermek gerekiyorsa örnek verme, sonrasında onlara zaman tanımam gerekiyorsa o zamanı verme, tabii gerekli açıklamaları yaptıktan sonra, o zamanın sonunda da onlardan dönütleri alma şeklinde. Dönütleri de tabii en son düzeltme şeklinde devam ediyorum.

Namely, I pass the greetings ceremony very shortly with the students; starting with a brief explanation from where we left off in the book, and then abiding by the instructions in the book, I do the exercises related to it. The procedure is like this; explaining what to do in the exercise first, giving examples, if necessary, then allocating time for them to do the exercise, of course, after I make the necessary explanations, eliciting the answers in the end. I also correct the errors in the answers elicited as the last step.

One aspect which deserved attention was the review and warm-up session of the classes. Though review and warm-up procedures were observed, "where were we up to?" syndrome was prevalent to a large extent. It refers to the characteristic of instruction which presents following the book in the page-by-

page manner. Similar to the portrayal proposed by Snowdrop above, analysis of the classroom field notes yielded that there was no warm-up, or revision for the previous lesson; instead, the teachers started the lesson with the study of an exercise and practiced the exercises in turn during the lesson. For instance, Snowdrop started the lesson by announcing that she would receive the answers only for the exercise and then move the next section: "*Kelimeleri yerleştirmiştiniz herhalde, sadece cevaplarını alayım geçeyim hızlıca.*" "*You must have completed the text with the words given; let me receive the answers only and move to another exercise quickly.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 13).

Among the classroom routines, greeting students, signing the class notebook and switching on the smart board at the beginning of the lesson were observed. As the main component of the lessons was the exercises in the coursebook, teachers always announced students which exercise was going to be performed; their routine in guiding students was reading aloud the instruction in L2 given in the coursebook, and then explaining students what to do in the first language (L1), after that they waited for the students to do the exercise. In this regard, teachers sometimes demonstrated sort of guided practice (i.e., first, the teacher presents how to do a particular task/exercise; second, the student performs the task with the help of the teacher, then the student completes the task on his/her own), especially when the students could not understand how to perform a particular exercise. Given that guided practice involved three steps as *I do, we do and you do*, Tulip performed a similar aspect. While she was waiting for the students to do the exercise, S11 commented that he could not do the exercise in L1; in response the teacher called him to come nearby. S11 took his book and went near the teacher. The teacher did the first two sentences for him. She both wrote and dictated the sentence loudly; thereby, she performed the first two and wanted him to do the rest by himself (SC2, Classroom Field Note 10).

With respect to the way answers were received, 'volunteers only' was the leading principle in all classes while choosing in random order was detected only in Tulip's instruction since the main characteristics of her instruction almost

always reflected GTM-oriented features. In this respect, she generally announced a student's name which she chose randomly from the attendance list. Each and every student chosen from the list participated in the lesson, and conversely, some students expressed their dissatisfaction with this routine during personal conversations I had after classes. One student (S5) claimed that the student who wanted to participate in a particular exercise did not have the chance to do so because of this manner. Another student (S12) agreed and he said that as he was the first student in the list and as the teacher started from towards the middle (i.e., the fifth one in the list), he had gotten the opportunity to actively participate in the lesson only once (SC2, Classroom Field Note 6). Various problems students experienced in actively participating in the lesson will be reported in detail later in this chapter under the theme "Reflection of Instruction on Students' Language Learning Experiences."

While the way teachers elicit the answers differed, the way they finished their classes almost never showed difference. Lack of wrap-up at the end of an EFL class was the routine in this context. The students also recognized this situation; for example, when I asked how the lesson moved on after they did the exercises, S10 purely said, "*Etkinliğin sonunda yani klasik bitiyordu ders.*" "*At the end of the exercise, well, the lesson was finished as usual.*" Another student (S2) remarked that a typical EFL class was finished when five to ten minutes left for the lesson, and then they became free. In response to my question how the lesson was ended, S5 recounted the end of a typical EFL class as followed:

Ya birileri kaynatır örneği çözemeyiz ya da zaman biter hani 3-5 tane örnek yapıp bitirmiş oluruz. Yani gramer konusu anlatırız, sonra örnekler yaparız, orada biter ders.	*Either someone distracts the lesson, so we cannot practice the examples, or time for the lesson finishes. I mean, we finish the lesson by doing a few examples. We study grammar then make practice examples, and the lesson finishes there.*

In brief, the qualitative data analysis yielded how a typical EFL class started and finished. Among the routines of the instruction, review and warm-up were

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observed, albeit rather insufficient; however, a lack of wrap-up at the end of the lesson was detected. The way teachers elicit answers, and students' views in this respect were also reported.

4.2.1.2. Conventional Teaching and Learning Practices

Conventional teaching and learning practices were observed as the second typical aspect in EFL classes. Language teaching as well as language learning practices in the classroom reflected features of traditional forms of language instruction such as intense focus on grammar and lexis. Developing linguistic competence and L1-mediated instruction were revealed, each of which were discussed in detail below.

4.2.1.2.1. Developing Linguistic Competence

Analysis of the data showed that it was the linguistic competence which was developed much. As Table 23 demonstrates, form-focused instruction (i.e., focus on forms and focus on form) was revealed for the teaching of language structures. Given that components of form-focused instruction manifest themselves in the classroom through a strong orientation toward language forms, teachers reported using both focus on form and focus on forms, when necessary, in teaching the grammar. Snowdrop explicated her classroom practices in the interview. She differentiated the teaching of the simple past tense structure and the instruction for the past perfect structures of language, though both were studied in the first theme of the book. To clarify, she claimed that the past perfect language structures would be confusing for the students. For this reason, she decided to take students' attention to the structure only (i.e., had and the past participle) and cautioned the students to use this structure when they came across an expression like "*I wish*." On the other hand, she instructed the rules for the simple past tense in detail and wanted the students to make sentences by using the structure.

Table 23. Developing Linguistic Competence

Item	Code
1	Focus-on-forms
2	Focus on form
	-Explicit focus on form
	-Interactive focus on form
	-Reactive focus on form
3	Focusing on linguistic properties

Concerning the way grammar was treated, focus on forms was common. As is known, it simply refers to the instruction where linguistic forms are taught in isolation or out of context, and are practiced, for example, by writing/translating isolated sentences. The expression by Marigold can represent how teachers performed focus on forms in their instruction: "*Normal klasik yöntemlerle grameri anlatırım. Yani işte kuralları budur, ben bir iki örnek veririm, sonra onlardan örnek vermelerini isterim.*" "*I teach grammar in traditional ways. Namely, I explain the rule, give a few examples and then I want the students to give examples.*" Complementing interviews, field notes also revealed that focus on forms was preferred in teaching linguistic properties. To illustrate, teachers started their instruction for a grammar structure, be it the past modals, by making a few explanations about its usage in L1. Then, a sample sentence was made and written on the board. Using the example sentence on the board, the formula for the linguistic form was written (e.g., subj. + could have + V3 + obj. as seen in the photo below). Teachers dictated a few sentences in L1, and these were translated for practice; for example, Tulip required the students to translate the sentence: "*Kazanamazdım birinci cümle, bu yüzden yarışmaya gitmedim*" "*The first sentence is I could not win, so I did not attend the competition*" to practice the past modal structure "*could have done*," and students translated the sentences for practice (see also the photo below) (SC2, Classroom Field Note 7).
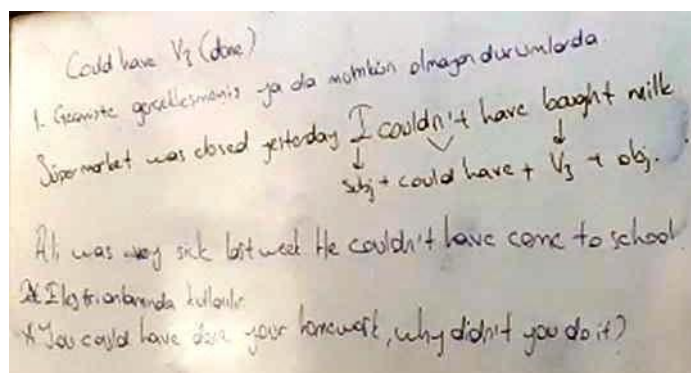
Figure 8. A Photo of Grammar Instruction in the Classroom

It seemed that teaching linguistic structures in such an isolated way was a preference of the teachers, as was identified by Tulip. During our conversation, I showed the attention part in the coursebook and asked her what if we taught the language structures only by examining the examples given in this box. She shared her experience in reviewing grammar using the sentences in the attention box only; however, she felt that the students were not able to comprehend the structures, and she said, "*Havada kaldı.*" "*Students were confused.*" Therefore, she made up her mind to instruct the language structures one by one in an isolated way. In our conversation, she also clarified her way of instruction; she taught grammar structure at the beginning of the unit, after that she practiced the exercises in the textbook till the unit was finished (SC2, Classroom Field Note 7).

Teachers sometimes dealt with grammar with a brief explanation before the grammar-oriented exercise, or they generally took students' attention to the linguistic forms in a particular exercise to help students do the exercise. Nevertheless, it was not limited to the teachers; sometimes students initiated questions about linguistic forms encountered, and teachers consulted explicit focus on form to help students understand the form better. At one instance, there was a meaningful practice exercise for students to practice the language structure "*used to*" in question forms given in the coursebook. In the course of doing the exercise, a student asked why using the linguistic form "*use to*" instead of "*used*

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to." Thereafter, the teacher made an explanation about the form (MC2, Classroom Field Note 1).

In addition to the explicit and interactive focus on form practices reviewed above, teachers made use of various corrective feedback strategies (i.e., reactive focus on form) to treat linguistic problems encountered in students' language production. Among all the corrective feedback strategies, explicit correction was the most predominant, yet other strategies like recasting were also employed by the teachers. While eliciting the answers, teachers displayed recasting when the student read aloud a grammatically incorrect sentence. Snowdrop displayed such practice; when the student read aloud her sentence: "*I'm favourite hobby ....*" She only repeated the correct form of her sentence as: "*My favourite hobby …*" She did not make any further explanations about the grammatical form (SC1, Classroom Field Note 8).

Moreover, Marigold demonstrated the use of explicit correction; when the student read aloud a sentence involving mistakes; she went near the student and corrected the mistakes in his/her sentence (MC1, Classroom Field Note 5). Supporting those field notes, S6 claimed that she developed her writing skills in this school with her teacher's help, who corrected mistakes in her sentences. She further exemplified as: "*Bayağı yanlışım çıkıyordu yazmada mesela fiillerin falan işte yerlerini karıştırıyordum. Hoca bayağı yardım etti, öyle işte öğrendim hoca göstererek.*" "*I was making mistakes in writing a lot; for example, I was confusing the order for the verbs in a sentence. The teacher helped a lot, and I learned [how to make a sentence] thanks to the teacher who showed me how to do it.*"

Towards the end, specific attention paid to the linguistic items in a communicative or skill-based activity was disclosed. Teachers always reviewed some forms of language that they found important, albeit the objective of the activity was not studying lexical or grammatical items. Concerning this, Marigold specifically treated the phrase "*must see*" as a linguistic item. There

was a dialogue completion exercise in the coursebook, and there was a question, "*What are the must see attractions?*" She asked a few times how that happened when used together, yet she did not obtain a satisfying response from the students. She wanted the students to underline the phrase "*must see*" and explained its usage in L1: "*Yapmalı etmeli anlamında değil, sıfat gibi kullanılmış.*" "*It was used as an adjective [herein]; it does not mean the [modal verb] must/ mustn't.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 13).

Similarly, Tulip presented a focus on various linguistic properties in doing a communicative practice exercise. There was an information-gathering activity in the coursebook, and students were required to walk around the class and ask the interview questions given to their classmates. Nonetheless, the teacher transformed the exercise; she asked the questions to the whole class and received answers from a few volunteers. While eliciting the answers, the teacher corrected the grammar and pronunciation mistakes; for example, a student said "*mens like*"; she cautioned the student that there was no need to add the suffix -s (i.e., third-person singular form of a verb). Also, a student mispronounced the word 'since' as 'science', she cautioned all the students that they should not do so, and pronounced the word correctly. Besides, she reviewed the L1 equivalents of the words in the questions by posing students what a particular word means (e.g., "*What does adult mean?*"), and a few students yelled the L1 equivalent of the words (SC2, Classroom Field Note 6).

Complementing field notes, most students enunciated that they developed their lexical and grammatical knowledge. A high proficiency student (S1) explicated his classroom-level experiences as: "*Ders olarak bana pek bir şey katmıyor sanırım ama kelime dağarcığımı geliştiriyor. Gramer de biraz öğretiyor çünkü 11. Sınıfın sonuna doğru bilmediğim gramer çeşitleri vardı.*" "*I guess it does not add much to me as a lesson, but it improves my vocabulary. It also teaches a little grammar because there were some grammar subjects that I had not known towards the end of the 11th grade.*" Another high achiever student (S3) alleged that though developing speaking and writing skills, her proficiency in

pronunciation increased more than the other skills. S6 similarly pointed out that she learned vocabulary much, she voiced by leaving a very ironical expression proving achievement of linguistic outcomes in the study of language skills as in the following:

Mesela okuduğumu anlamada hoca genellikle kelimelerin altını çizdiriyordu, anlamını yazdırmıştı, okuduğumu anlamada pek şey olmadım ama [kelimenin] kendi anlamını öğrendim.

For example, in reading comprehension parts, the teacher usually had us underline the words and dictate their meaning. I did not develop much [proficiency] in understanding what I read, but I learned the meaning of [the word].

In short, developing linguistic competence as one domain emerged under the category of conventional teaching and learning practices exemplified how grammar and lexis were treated in EFL classes. The classroom field notes analysis also uncovered an intense focus on linguistic properties when performing a communicative and/or skill-based task work.

4.2.1.2.2. Medium of Instruction

Another aspect of conventional teaching and learning practices was the language of instruction. As Table 24 demonstrates, although English was preferred at times, using L1 was dominant in almost all the language teaching and learning practices inside EFL classes.

Table 24. Medium of Instruction in EFL Classes

Item	Code
1	English first
2	Using L1 for comprehension
3	Using L1 for classroom interaction

Interview with the participants of the study identified L1 as the main medium of instruction. Teachers preferred using L1 due to time constraints, students' complaints, etc. Observation of classes yielded that teachers generally initiated

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an L1-mediated conversation with the students. At one incident, a student read aloud her reflection about one of her mistakes in the past. After that, Tulip started the conversation and asked in L1, "*Bundan çıkardığın sonuç ne?*" "*What is the conclusion you got from this [mistake]?*" And the student responded to the question in L1. The teacher went on the Turkish conversation and made a comment on the student's mistake (SC2, Classroom Field Note 9). Besides, Marigold preferred using L1 for instruction especially when a reading comprehension study or a meaningful practice exercise was done. In the coursebook, there was a meaningful practice exercise that involved gerund and infinitive structures (e.g., good at, bad at, gifted in, etc.); students were required to complete the sentences for themselves. Marigold guided students to complete the sentences; for example, the phrase was "*People think that I am gifted in .....*" Marigold said, "*İnsanlar benim bir şeyde yetenekli olduğumu düşünüyor, insanlar benim neyde yetenekli olduğumu düşünür?*" "*People think that I am gifted in something. What do people think I am gifted in?*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 7).

Complementing field notes, teachers reported that they used L1 for instruction; Snowdrop claimed that she used L1, especially when she wanted to move fast during the lesson. She pointed out that the content of some reading texts was significant for her, and she wanted the students to understand it better. Thus, she preferred using L1 in making comments about particular reading texts. There was a reading text about dinosaurs, and she justified her argument as: "*En azından genel kültür olsun diyeydi hani benim amacım genel kültür olarak bir şeyleri öğrensinler. Sırf İngilizce bilgisi için yapmadım aslında. O yüzden de Türkçe sordum aldım.*" "*At least it was for general knowledge; my aim was to let the students learn something as part of the general knowledge. Actually, it was not just for English knowledge; that's why I asked in Turkish.*" Moreover, Marigold put forth two main reasons for using L1 in her instruction; first, her students, especially those who were from the foreign language field of study, complained about her instruction in L2; second, she believed that the students could not understand the instruction when she spoke English.

Supporting this claim, students admitted that L1 was used as the main medium of instruction during the lessons because the classmates could not understand L2 mediated instruction. Concerning this, S8 alleged that they were not speaking in English in EFL classes except for the answers they replied for a particular activity. He added that his classmates did not understand English-medium instruction, and so the teacher spoke Turkish, presented her classes in Turkish, as well.

One more crucial aspect about the medium of instruction was disclosed in classroom observations. The extract below is taken from Tulip's lesson. In the coursebook, there was an opinion-sharing question, i.e., How do you think we should protect our historic sites? During the lesson, a student read aloud his answer to the question in English. In return, the teacher initiated a discussion in L1; she posed questions about the topic to the whole class. The conversation was as follows:

Tulip: *Peki başka ne yapabiliriz tarihi yerleri korumak için?*	Tulip: *So, what else can we do to protect historic sites?*
Students: Cevap yok.	Students: No answer.
Tulip: *Peki insanları bilinçlendirmek için ne yapmalıyız?*	Tulip: *So, what should we do to raise awareness of people?*
A male student: *Hocam geziler düzenlemeliyiz.*	A male student: *Hocam[4], we should organize trips.*
Tulip: *Keşke onu İngilizce söyleseydin.*	Tulip: *I wish you had said it in English.*

(SC2, Classroom Field Note 12)

As seen in the extract above, Tulip used L1 during her instruction, yet she criticized the student when he responded in L1 to the question which had already been posed in L1. Though she was not satisfied with the comment shared in Turkish, she still went on her speech in L1 and she shared her ideas about increasing awareness on protecting historic sites.

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[4] It is the expression students used to address teachers, especially at the high school.

Despite the prevalence of L1 in English classes, teachers and students sometimes prioritized using English. For instance, at the beginning of an EFL class, there was a short interaction between the teacher and the students. A student asked in English what the page number was, and the teacher said the page number in English. However, this student's manner was weird for some; a student criticized the peer and asked why not speaking in Turkish: *"Neden Türkçe söylemiyorsun?" "Why do you not say it in Turkish?"* (SC1, Classroom Field Note 5). In this respect, both the teachers and the students were asked to express which language they prioritized in their classroom-level practices. First, students mentioned that teachers switched to Turkish when their classmates could not understand the instruction in English. S3 said that they explained the Turkish equivalent of a particular question in reading comprehension activities if most of the classmates did not understand English. S6 accentuated that her classmates exclaimed in not understanding what the teacher said when she spoke in English, and then the teacher switched to Turkish.

Similarly, Snowdrop stated the priority she gave for English. She illustrated her classroom-level practices by making explanations on how to do a typical exercise in the textbook. She pointed out that even if there was no need to explain what to do in Turkish, the students got used to receiving Turkish explanation about what to do, so they always waited for it. Besides, she questioned herself and left an exigent comment to be considered as followed:

Belki buna ben de alıştırıyor olabilirim. Ama bir yerden sonra bu şeye dönüyor, tavuk yumurta olayına dönüyor yani. Hani yapmasam olmuyor, işte yapsam her seferinde aynısını bekliyorlar.	*Maybe I cause them to get used to using L1 in English classes. But after a while, it turns into the issue of "chicken or the egg." I mean, if I do not use L1, my classes do not move on, but if I use it, the students expect me to do the same thing every time.*

As is seen, English was prioritized either by expression or by action, yet the pervasiveness of L1 seemed to cause understanding L2 use as something weird in EFL classes of this school. In this respect, L1 use was observed for

comprehension and classroom interaction, even during communicative activities. For example, there was an information-gathering activity in the coursebook; students were required to walk around the class and find someone who liked reading books, who enjoyed swimming, who wanted to learn surfing, etc. During the exercise, students interacted with each other, but it was always in L1. The following extract shows how students performed such information-gathering activity:

A Öğrencisi: *Sen yüzme biliyor musun?*   Student A*: Can you swim?*
B Öğrencisi: *Evet biliyorum.*   Student B: *Yes, I can.*
C Öğrencisi: *Kim var gitar çalan?*   Student C: *Who can play guitar?*
D Öğrencisi: *Ö57 çalar.*   Student D: *S57 can play guitar.*
E Öğrencisi: *Sörf yapan var mı aranızda?*   Student E: *Is there someone who can surf?*
F Öğrencisi: *Yaz Beni.*   Student F: *Count me in.*

(SC1, Classroom Field Note 3)

To sum up, L1 was the main medium of instruction in EFL classes. Though using English was prioritized by the teachers and the students at times, the prevalence of L1 was detected even when a communicative task work was performed.

4.2.1.3. Teaching the Language Skills

In addition to addressing linguistic competence, the study of language skills also emerged as one defining aspect of the instruction in EFL classes. The analysis of the qualitative data yielded procedures employed for the teaching of receptive skills, yet the steps followed in the teaching of productive skills of language (i.e., speaking and writing) were not found. Therefore, step by step procedures for teaching listening comprehension skills as well as reading comprehension skills were reported below.

4.2.1.3.1. The Study of Listening Comprehension Skills

Activities adhering to the study of listening comprehension skills were undertaken in four main progressions: An explanation was made about the exercise first, the recording was played twice or three times, answers were checked and feedback was given when necessary. Table 25 shows the main steps in teaching listening comprehension skills in EFL classes.

Table 25. The Steps for Teaching Listening Comprehension Skills

Item	Code
1	Guiding students
2	Repeated listening
3	Eliciting answers
4	Providing informative feedback

All the procedures identified above were reported by the teachers and the students. The following excerpts from the interview with Snowdrop help to grasp the typical process of listening study in EFL classes:

Genelde 2 sefer dinletiyorum her çalışmayı. Başlamadan önce olayı anlatıyorum, başlığı zaten söylüyorum. Başlık listeningin [dinleme egzersizinin] hangi konu olduğunu söylüyor ya genelde. Bu konuyu açıklıyorum, sonrasında egzersizi gösteriyorum, yani evet bunu dinleyeceksiniz, dinlerken de işte atıyorum boşluk doldurulacaksa bu boşlukları dolduruyorsunuz. Eşleştirme yapılacaksa, eşleştirme ya da işte şıklıysa hani şık. Egzersizde ne yapacaklarını açıklıyorum. Ondan sonra onlardan hızlı bir göz atmalarını istiyorum sorulara, neyse kelimelere sorulara hızlı bir göz atmalarını istiyorum. Ondan sonra iki sefer dinletiyorum, sonrasında da cevapları alıyorum. Ondan sonrasında bitiriyorum alıştırmayı eğer doğruysa; yanlışsa ama bak

I usually let the students listen twice for each listening task. Before we start listening to the recording, I explain the content in the recording, and I also say the title. You know, the title is usually about the topic of the recording. I explain this topic, and then I display the exercise. And I explain what they will do as: You will listen to the recording, and while you are listening, you will fill in the blanks if there are blanks to be filled in. If there is something to be matched, you will match it. If there is a multiple-choice exercise, you will choose the best answer. After that, I want them to review the exercise quickly. Next, I let them listen twice. In the end, I elicit the answers. If the answers are correct, I finish the exercise. If there are mistakes, then I provide feedback by

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şöyle bir şey geçiyordu cümlede, aslında bunu demek istemişti falan diye eğer yanlışlık varsa kanıtlar sunarak diyeyim, listeningten [dinleme egzersizinden] kanıtlar işte hatırlatarak doğrusunu söylüyorum.	*reminding the actual utterance in the recording.*

Similar to the procedure described above, Marigold stated that she let her students listen to the recording more than once in her listening classes. She clarified her practice and noted that after the students listened to the recording three times, she let her students listen for the last time; however, in this last procedure, she paused after each answer and elicited the students' answer. Students reported similar practices in terms of eliciting answers in a listening activity. One student from Marigold's class (S7) reported the procedure employed for a listening activity as followed:

Boşluk doldurma oluyor genelde, onları doldurmak için açıyordu [ses kaydını]. Dinleyip biz de boşlukları doldurmaya çalışıyorduk. Üç kere tekrar ediyordu. Biz bitirdikten sonra, cevapları kontrol edip o cümleleri tek tek durduruyordu tahtada. Cümle cümle çevirerek gidiyorduk ne demek istiyor diye.	*The listening activities were generally in the fill in the blanks form, and the teacher turned on the recording to fill in these blanks. We listened to the recording, and at the same time, we tried to fill in the blanks. The teacher let us listen three times. After we finished the exercise, the teacher elicited the answers pausing after each answer. We translated each sentence to understand what it meant.*

Briefly, the procedure employed for the teaching of listening comprehension skills involved four main steps as explaining what to do, listening to the recording, eliciting answers, and providing feedback. The number of listening to the recording varied, yet the teachers gave importance to developing students' listening comprehension skills.

4.2.1.3.2. The Study of Reading Comprehension Skills

Reading was the most frequently studied language skill in EFL classes during the field data collection (i.e., 2017-2018 school year). Supporting the field notes, the participants were consulted to describe a typical English lesson. As the analysis

of the interviews yielded, the participants usually exemplified a reading class to portray a typical EFL class. It seemed that reading classes were prevalent and it referred to what was typical in EFL classes. To picturize her typical EFL class, Marigold signified her reading practice procedures by noting that she first provided the vocabulary and then examined each paragraph by posing comprehension questions. In a similar vein, while talking about a typical EFL class, a student (S7) answered that there were paragraphs that they read, and then they translated. They also took note of the unknown vocabulary that the teacher wrote on the board.

Similar to the study of listening comprehension skills, there appeared some procedures followed in the study of reading comprehension skills. Starting with a sort of activity to help the reader get familiar with reading content was the first step. It was followed by looking up unknown words to understand the text better. Then, the text was read aloud sometimes more than once. Reading comprehension was addressed via teacher-made questions and/or translation of phrases and sentences within the text. Last, exercises following the reading text were done. The table below (Table 26) shows the step-by-step processes used in the study of reading comprehension skills in EFL classes.

Table 26. The Steps for Teaching Reading Skills

Item	Code
1	Activating the schemata
2	Bottom-up processing -Reviewing lexis and grammar
3	Reading aloud -Repeated reading
4	Focusing on reading comprehension -Teacher-made questions for comprehension -Using translation for comprehension
5	Doing exercises -Meaningful drills -Studying for active words

Bottom-up processing happens when someone tries to understand language by looking at individual meanings or grammatical characteristics (e.g., words for a reading). Observation of EFL classes indicated that lexical items and grammar were reviewed before the text was read during a typical reading activity. To clarify, teachers required the students to underline and look up a few lexical items in a particular reading text; or, they emphasized some linguistic properties to help students understand the text better. For example, Marigold wrote a list of words on the board before studying for the reading activity, she waited for the students to look up their L1 equivalents, and then she wanted them to tell her the L1 meaning of the words. Students yelled the L1 meanings they found, and the teacher wrote the L1 equivalents. After that, she wanted the students to take note of the words. The following photo also presents how lexical items were treated in a typical EFL class (MC1, Classroom Field Note 14).
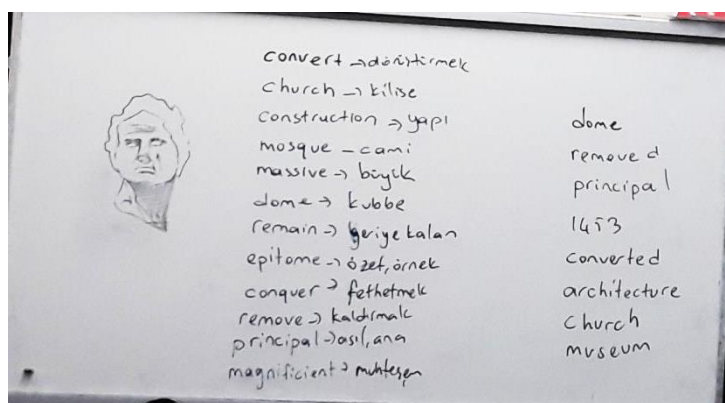
Figure 9. A Photo of Vocabulary Instruction in the Classroom

In another class, Tulip started the reading activity with a vocabulary matching exercise. In other words, she first required students to match the underlined words with their definitions and then wanted her students to do the reading activity in which they inserted sentences into the text (SC2, Classroom Field Note 14). Supporting those field notes, Marigold marked that she determined a few significant words while preparing for her class. Accordingly, she instructed her students to underline these words and look up their meanings before reading the text. Students also shared similar practices before reading the text; on the

other hand, some students were dissatisfied with this practice. S6 informed against this practice by noting that the time the teacher allocated to find the L1 equivalents was less because she used a dictionary, not an online translation app. For this reason, she could not look up each unknown word for her before reading the text.

Following the bottom-up processing of lexis and/or grammar, the text was read. Teachers paid particular attention to the comprehension of the text. Sometimes, they posed questions to check students' comprehension, and they sometimes underpinned the translation of some phrases to help students comprehend the text. Marigold similarly pointed out that she instructed her students to read aloud each paragraph and translate it into Turkish. As an alternative, when the paragraph was difficult for the students to understand, she reported to pose some comprehension questions. In support of this claim, analysis of the classroom field notes revealed that teachers employed posing supplementary questions to help students catch the main argument within the text. The questions were often in English, yet there were questions posed in Turkish, as well.

To illustrate, Snowdrop wanted to check students' comprehension of the text before eliciting the answers for the reading activity. In the textbook, there was a reading text about three different inventors and their regrets; students were required to read the texts and match the main ideas given. The teacher started the comprehension check with questions in L2 such as "*Who is the first inventor?*" and "*What is his invention?*" When she asked: "*How did he feel at the end of this invention?*" None of the students answered. She translated the question into L1 and asked again, students still can't answer, and then she explained the answer on her own and asked the rest of the questions in Turkish: *İcat ne? Kim icat etti? Duyduğu pişmanlık ya da sebebi ne*? "*What is the invention? Who invented it? What is the regret of the inventor, or what is the reason for his regret?*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 14).

Apart from teacher-made questions, participants highlighted the translation of some phrases to understand the text better. S9 said that they translated some difficult words or sentences into Turkish. S8 accentuated that they translated the text only to understand it; they did not write down their translation, they only explained what they understood from a particular sentence or phrase in the text. Classroom field notes verified the use of translation for comprehension in the course of performing reading activities. There was a reading activity about Hagia Sophia; students were required to read the text and complete the summary with one word from the text. Eliciting the answers for the blanks, the teacher assigned the students to complete the L1 translation of the sentence. For example, after a student (S13) read aloud the statement "*for a long time it was the largest cathedral,*" the teacher asked: "*Uzun bir süre orası neydi*?" "*What was that place for a long time?*" The student (S13) and the teacher answered: "*Geniş bir katedraldi.*" "*It was a large cathedral.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 13).

After students' comprehension of the text was checked via various forms exemplified above, the relevant activities were practiced one by one. As aforementioned in the document review section of this chapter (see section 4.1.2.4 The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11"), exercises posing reading comprehension questions were common, also there were vocabulary parts in which target words were studied with their L2 equivalents. These two forms of reading activities were observed in classroom-level practice, as well.

In brief, as the results indicated, the routines of the teaching and learning process in this school involved two crucial points; there appeared overemphasis laid on the achievement of linguistic competence at one end of the continuum; the study of receptive skills of language was portrayed at the other. To put it differently, the procedures which were to be followed in the teaching of productive skills (i.e., speaking and writing) was missing due mainly to the lack of study on these skills; how these skills were treated in EFL classes will be discussed in detail later in this chapter. Another significant finding of the routines of EFL classes

was the main flow of the lessons; lack of warm-up and wrap-up was critical. That is to say, the syndrome "*where were we up to?*" was common among the teachers; they almost never informed students about the objective to be achieved at the beginning of the lesson, nor they summarized what was instructed at the end of a particular lesson.

4.2.2. Context-Specific Realities of the Instructional Policy

Investigating the realization of an instructional policy within EFL classes of this school presented some realities specifically shaped by various conditions around it. In other words, all the points reported hereof are situated in its context and so specific to its culture. One can only understand the issues discussed in this section within its context in which all these realities came into being.

4.2.2.1. Attitudinal Aspects of Language Teaching and Learning

Analysis of the data showed that the participants developed attitudes toward various aspects of the instructional policy implemented, such as the EFL class, language learning practices, and language learning efforts. These attitudinal aspects are displayed in Table 27.

Table 27. Attitudinal Aspects of Language Teaching and Learning

Item	Code
1	Attitudes toward the EFL course
	-Negative values attached to English at school
2	Learning practices
	-Attitudes toward grammar
	-Attitudes toward tasks and exercises
	-Positive attitudes toward translation
	-Negative attitudes toward research-oriented tasks
3	Language learning efforts
	-Preparing for the lesson
4	Language learning perceptions
	-Perceptions of success and failure
5	Positive attitudes toward teaching reading

One of the most critical norms generated in this school was the value students attached to English at school. In a student interview, S1 described his routines in English classes as: "*Genelde dizi izlerim, yabancı dizi çünkü büyük ihtimalle dersten daha çok geliştirecek İngilizcemi.*" "*I usually watch TV series, foreign series because it will probably improve my English more than the course.*" Delving into the details of such a perception indicated the following comparisons students made between English at school and another way to learn English.

Çünkü derste öğretilen şey genelde kitap üzerinden oluyor, bir de gramer oluyor. Şimdi öyle olunca insanın pek ilgisini çekmiyor. Kitaptaki alıştırmalar da hani yani pek hoşuna gitmiyor insanın. Bir de yazma olduğu için insanı da yorabiliyor. Ama dizi öyle değil, dizi direk izliyorsun. Konuştukları bir yandan sana işte İngilizce dilinin şeyini [telaffuz] kazandırıyor. Eğer İngilizce altyazılı izlersen kelime bilgisi kazandırıyor. İngilizce altyazı olmasa yine kelime bilgisi kazandırıyor. (S1)

Because what is taught in the lesson is usually what there is in the textbook, and there is also grammar. When that happens so, it does not attract much attention. You know the exercises in the textbook are not so engaging. Also, as writing something is required, it is tiring. However, the series is not so, you only watch it. What they speak in the series helps you to gain [pronunciation] skills in the English language. If you watch it with subtitles in English, you learn vocabulary. Even when there are no English subtitles, you still gain vocabulary knowledge. (S1)

Nasıl desem hani kursa gittiğim için bir şeyler var hissediyorum ama kursa gitmeseydim bence yani nasıl desem 11. Sınıf İngilizce dediğinizde ben de hiçbir bilgi yokmuş gibi hissedecektim. Çünkü öyle oluyor gerçekten. Ya bu okuldaki eğitimin iyi verilememesinden ya da benden ya da yazın hiç tekrar etmememden kaynaklanıyor ama böyle bir durum var yani. (S10)

How can I say? I feel that I learned something because I attended a private tuition language course, but if I had not attended the course, I think I would have felt like I had not learned anything when you asked about English in grade 11. Because it really happens so. It is because the way EFL is taught in this school is not good, or because of me, or because I did not review anything in English during the summer holiday, but there is such a situation. (S10)

Another domain discussed in this category was about the attitudes students developed toward some language learning practices such as grammar, translation, and classroom-level tasks. Since attitudes comprise individuals' actions, i.e., how they act and react, the attitudes students developed toward

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some language learning practices indicated how these pieces of language were treated in EFL classes of this school. While negative attitudes were developed toward research-oriented tasks (i.e., language production-oriented activities that required students to do research about a given topic before they write or speak about it), positive attitudes were developed toward translation. It is of particular to point out the positive and negative attitudes developed toward grammar.

Concerning the attitudes toward research-oriented tasks, S1 mentioned that he did not make use of technology tools in English classes because he did not do the assignments which required doing research. He further justified his argument as: "*Bana bir şey katacağını da düşünmüyorum o yüzden. Araştırma bilgi bazında bir şey katar ama İngilizcemi geliştirmem anlamında bir şey katmaz.*" "*I do not think that it will add anything to me. Doing research helps you gain knowledge in a particular area, but it does not help me improve my English proficiency.*" As for grammar, competing views and attitudes emerged among students. S9 asserted that he disliked grammar because it was difficult. Nevertheless, as S5 underlined, learning grammar structures was significant for some: "*Kendim çünkü hani İngilizceyi tam anlamıyla biliyormuş gibi hissediyorum. Yani bu konuda profesyonel hissettiriyor bana. İngilizceyi doğru kullandığımı gramer konusunda anlıyorum.*" "*Because I feel like I know everything about English, I mean, it makes me feel professional. I understand that I use English correctly when I make grammatically correct sentences.*"

Another learning practice students experienced as a result of instruction in EFL classes was the translation, and thereafter students identified translation among the language learning attitudes they developed in this school. Translation, in essence, went hand in hand with grammar in EFL classes. During personal conversations after classes, S6 voiced her satisfaction with how they learned English in EFL classes. During the lesson, they had studied for the grammar structure "*would rather*" by translating sentences. In the conversation, she highlighted that the lesson was enjoyable for her; the teacher dictated a sentence in L1, they translated and showed the teacher (SC2, Classroom Field Note 5).

Another student (S5) signified that she liked translation much, and she believed that it was crucial in understanding someone. According to her, English resembled a gate and she viewed translation as the key to understanding another person. Meanwhile, the way translation influence students' language learning habits will be discussed later in this chapter.

In addition to attitudes developed specifically toward traditional ways of language learning (i.e., grammar and translation), students and teachers developed attitudes toward various tasks and exercises performed in EFL classes. Among these, perhaps the most distinctive one was the positive attitudes teachers developed toward reading activities. As mentioned above (see section 4.2.1.3.2 The Study of Reading Comprehension Skills), the analysis of the data indicated extensive study of reading skills in EFL classes. Teachers' positive attitudes toward reading texts and activities, in general, might be the underlying reason for studying reading comprehension skills in EFL classes much.

Concerning this, Snowdrop claimed that she liked reading activities much. Her rationale was that reading texts involved different information, as she did not have much time to read out of the school, she liked reading texts as long as they provided something new for her. Addressing similar points, Tulip asserted that she practiced the reading activity in the workbook because she liked reading exercises. She added that reading activities were fine for her because students could study vocabulary in this way (SC2, Classroom Field Note 2).

Apart from attitudes, language learning perceptions were also significant. Since perceptions refer to the point of view one possesses about something, how students conceptualized success and failure was quite idiosyncratic. First, it is important to denote that 50 out of 100 was the threshold degree to pass or fail in a lesson according to the regulations for upper secondary education institutions. The way students perceived success and failure was conceptualized accordingly. In this respect, students elaborated on their exam results and their satisfaction and dissatisfaction. During the conversation with two students, S14 pointed out

that her exam result was 41, and she was satisfied with it, whereas another student (S15) stated that she achieved 25 (Field Note, 16.04.18 /Monday). Since 41 was numerically bigger than 25, achieving 41 was treated as getting successful in this school. In a similar vein, observation of the class in which exam results were announced displayed various reactions students showed to the score they achieved in the exam. S16 got 56, and she was totally satisfied with her mark since 50 out of 100 is the threshold level to pass the class: "*Oha geçmişim, çak!*" "*Wow, I passed the class, give me five!*" However, S17 got 50, and she was dissatisfied with her result. She said that her exam was fine (SC2, Classroom Field Note 11). Even though 50 out of 100 was the official threshold degree, students' threshold degree varied from one to another, and perceptions of success and failure were created accordingly in this school.

All in all, attitudinal aspects of language teaching and learning presented several attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions of the micro policy actors (i.e., EFL teachers and students). These variables sometimes influenced the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy, while sometimes classroom-level instruction for EFL bore an influence on students' attitudes. Students also demonstrated varying views in their understanding of success and failure, and so their effort in language learning was varied, as well.

4.2.2.2. Psychosocial Factors on Academic Performance

The analysis of data showed that there were some factors that exert an influence on students' academic performance in this instructional policy environment. These factors were specific to the values, ethics and cultural frames that became a norm in this school; all these influences affected individuals' behaviors either positively or negatively. In addition to factors that inhibited student achievement, different forms of motivation were found to shape the students' academic performance.

4.2.2.2.1. Factors Inhibiting Academic Performance

As regards to the context-specific elements prohibiting students from achieving success in EFL classes, a few strands were revealed, such as lack of learning effort, low academic orientation, and poor academic performance, as can be seen in the table (Table 28) below.

Table 28. Factors Inhibiting Academic Performance

Item	Code
1	Lack of learning effort
2	Low academic orientation
	-Lack of preparation for exams
3	Low academic self-efficacy
4	Negative academic self-concept
5	Perceived low academic competence
6	Poor academic performance
7	A sense of personal agency

First of all, low academic orientation was one of the main characteristics of students in this school. It was specifically observed in students' note-taking behaviors; that is to say, what was common among students was to take note of English instruction into the cover page of their coursebook. As Marigold stated below, such behaviors seemed to be assumed normal in this school-specific policy environment:

Çocuklar lisede kitap taşımıyorlar, tuhaf bir biçimde kitap taşımıyorlar. Zaten çoğu okulda bırakıyor. Bırakanlar birbirine karışmış oluyor. Defter tutmuyorlar, burada [bu okulda] çocuk kitabının boş sayfalarını kullanıyor. Diyorum burası bitince ne yapacaksın? Bitmez hocam diyor ben ona göre ayarladım. Kutu kutu bölmüş ünite sayısına göre. Kapak sayfaları var ya, oraları kullanıyorlar defter niyetine.

The high school students do not carry their textbooks in their school bag; it is weird, but they do not carry them. Most of them leave their textbooks at school. And those textbooks are mixed up with each other. They do not take note of the instruction into a notebook; instead, they use the blank pages of the textbook. I say, what will you do when this page is over? They respond as: it will not finish because I organized it accordingly. I mean, they divided the page into boxes for each unit. You know there are cover pages of the textbooks; they use them as a notebook.

Complementing this view, I observed that most students left their textbooks at school; they put them either under their desks or inside the space left for the smart board on the board. That is to say, there was a mechanism that was designed to lock the smart board at the back of the traditional chalkboard. For this reason, there was a space between the chalkboard and the smart board; students stored their textbooks in this space. During the lesson, when they needed it, they looked for this space, and they used the book that they found. It did not matter whose book it was, perhaps because the textbook was not something important out of the EFL classes.

Poor academic performance also exerted a negative influence on students in their effort to study for English classes and/or to engage in the activities performed during the lesson. Although some students tried hard to gain high grades in exams, when they did not get the satisfying results for them, they gave up studying for English at all. Conversations with students just after their exams were conducted revealed how poor academic performance affected them.

From this perspective, I visited classes after the pen-and-paper exam and conversed with a few students. Particularly, I conversed with relatively lower proficiency students who followed the lesson regularly and actively participated in classes. A few female students seemed to meet the criterion because they showed some interest in the English lessons in the course of my classroom observations. During the conversations, S18 from the social sciences field of study stated that although she studied hard, she got 16 in the first exam; for this reason, she did not study for this exam: "*Geçen sınavda çalıştım 16 aldım diye bu sınava hiç çalışmadım.*" "*I studied for the last exam; I got 16, so I never studied for this exam.*" Her peer (S19) from sciences field of study made a similar comment; she had studied for the skills practice exam, and she got 40, she was demoralized, and as a result, she did not study for this exam at all: "*Uygulamaya çalıştım 40 aldım, çok moralim bozuldu, buna hiç çalışmadım.*" "*I prepared for the skills practice exam, but I got 40. I was demoralized. I did not study for this exam at all.*" (Field Note, 22.05.18 / Tuesday).

The analysis of the qualitative data collected from students presented points of reference for low academic self-efficacy and perceived low academic competence, as two complementing variables influencing students' academic performance in this school. Regarding low academic self-efficacy, S3 pointed out something which was common among students; because she did not trust herself, she generally erased what she answered, and then she wrote something else, but it became wrong, so she lost points in her exams. She further unclothed her experience as followed:

Sayısal sınıfına gittim, sayısal sınıfında farklı öğretmişler [bir dilbilgisi yapısını] ama benim bildiğim doğru. Çocuk öyle deyince kendime güvenemedim sınavda çocuğun dediğini yazdım, yanlış çıktı.	*I visited the peers in the sciences class; the grammar structures were taught differently in that class, but what I know about the structures was true. When a student claimed how they learned was the correct form, I could not trust myself. I wrote what he said in the exam, it was wrong.*

Addressing similar points, I observed how perceived competence influenced students' manners and attitudes toward particular tasks and exercises during the lesson. To clarify, as long as there was a reasonably demanding task (e.g., read the text and complete the summary with one word from the text), students felt like they lacked the capability to perform the task, and so they gave up studying on it. For example, students were required to write questions for the responses given; just after the teacher explained to them what to do, a student (S20) commented that he and his peer (S21) were unable to do this exercise because it was not a fill in the blanks exercise: "*Hocam bu bizi aşar, bunda dolduracak yer de yok.*" "*Hocam, this is above our proficiency level, there is also no place to fill in this.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 12).

In another class, there was grammar instruction for if clause mixed type. A student (S22) did not follow the lesson. Instead, he solved multiple choice practice tests for physics—actually, this was another reality of this school, some students preferred to deal with other classes when they did not follow the instruction in the EFL class. During personal conversations after the lesson, he

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honestly said that he did not study for other lessons in every English lesson. He did so in this lesson because he did not know the grammar structure they learned, and he recognized that he could not understand it because he did not have sufficient background knowledge. For this reason, he preferred to study Physics, as he stated: "*Her ders yapmıyorum, konuyu bilmiyorum, o konuyu anlamak için biraz temel lazım. Ben de o yüzden fizik çözdüm.*" "*I do not solve the practice tests of other classes in each EFL class. I do not know the grammar structure taught; one needs some background knowledge to understand this structure. For this reason, I solved practice tests for Physics.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 13). As regards the negative academic self-concept, this study uncovered many thought-provoking expressions of students. One student shared her view about the skills practice exam; since she did not know that there was an exam that day, she did not prepare for it. She put it this way: "[*Sınavın bugün olduğunu*] *bilseydim de yapamazdım zaten.*" "*Even if I had known that there was a skills practice exam today, I wouldn't have been able to do well in it anyway.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 14). Likewise, another student (S23) said, "*İngilizcem hiç bir zaman iyi olmadı. 4. Sınıfta' da iyi değildi*" "*I was never good at EFL course; it was bad in the fourth grade, as well*" during a conversation about his indifference in EFL classes (SC2, Classroom Field Note 13). Another excerpt from the conversation with a different student complemented those arguments: "*İngilizceyi hiç sevmedim, yapamıyorum, yapamadıkça da daha çok sevmiyorum.*" "*I have never liked English; I am not successful in English. The more I become unsuccessful in English, the more I dislike it.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 13). In addition, during conversations with students after they learnt their exam results, a low achiever student commented that her English has always been worsening, as she said: "*Benim İngilizce basamaklarım hep geri gitti.*" "*My success stairs for English have always gone backward.*" After that I learnt that she achieved 32 out of 100 from her English exam (MC2, Classroom Field Note 11). The following field note displays how these facets came into being during the lesson:

In this lesson, there was grammar instruction for the passive structure. In the second phase of the grammar instruction for past passive, the teacher wrote an active L2 sentence on the board: "*I tidied my room yesterday,*" and then she required them to translate it. A few students yelled the translation correctly. S20 was among them, but his responses were all false: "*Odam dağınık, özne belli değil,*" "*My room is untidy, the subject of the sentence is not clear.*" And the teacher ignored his responses. When he recognized that his answers were false, he commented that there would be something like that in the exam, and he was sure of himself not to be able to make them correctly: "*Sınavda kesin böyle bir şey çıkar, gene ben yapamayacağım tabii.*" "*There will be something like this in the pen-and-paper exam; I will not be able to perform it as usual.*"

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 12)

To summarize thus far, various factors inhibiting students' academic performance in EFL were reported herein. There appeared findings related to self-efficacy, self-concept as well as low academic competence, which negatively influenced student achievement.

4.2.2.2.2. Motivation-Related Variables

As is known, motivation has a strong influence on academic performance. In this respect, various types of motivation (e.g., amotivation, intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation) were observed among the students. In addition to amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic forms of motivation, Table 29 displays all the other motivation forms discovered in EFL classes of this school.

Table 29. Motivation-Related Variables Affecting Academic Performance

Item	Code
1	Amotivation
2	Extrinsic motivation
	- Introjected regulation
	- Identified regulation
3	Intrinsic motivation
4	Achievement motivation
5	The ideal L2-self
6	L2 learning experience

Apart from extrinsic and intrinsic motivation variables, the analysis of data revealed introjected and identified regulation, both of which were facets of extrinsic motivation. In particular, students' rationale for active participation in classroom exercises revealed different types of motivation in this policy space. To illustrate, S2 pointed out one of the most typical motivational variables which affected students' active participation in classes, and she verbalized score-orientation among students as in the following:

Direk performans için katılıyorum aslında, notum puanım yükselsin diye, herkesin amacı bence bu yani, performans yükseltme.	*Actually, I participate in the activities during the lesson for the performance-based assessment mark we achieve as part of teacher observation so that my grade score will increase. I think this is the goal of everyone; they want to improve their score in performance-based assessment.*

However, S8 marked that he participated in the activities only because he liked English. He also added that the activities they performed in the lesson were easy for him, and so there was no benefit for him performing these activities. Even so, I observed that he continuously followed the lesson and almost always raised his hand to participate in the lesson; he did all the activities just because he enjoyed them, as he stated. S2 identified another source of motivation that influenced her participation in the activities performed during the lesson. She avowed that when the teacher praised her, she became more eager to participate in the lesson. She shared one of her experiences in which the teacher praised her as followed:

Mesela yabancı dizi izlediğim zaman, kitapta çıkmıştı o yabancı dizi. Sonra onu yazarken de yine hatırladığım şeyler vardı benim herkesin bilmediği, sonuçta herkes izlemiyor yabancı dizi, onları yazarken, herkes o zaman, sanırım ramazan dönemiydi, katılmıyordu herkes, ben de bilmiyorum enerjiktim o zaman, ben de katılınca işte "Aferin, tek sen katıldın, aferin cevapladın" öyle deyince de güzel oluyordu. Tebrik edilmek herkesin hoşuna gidebilir.	*For example, when I used to watch foreign series, this series appeared in a textbook activity. While I was writing about it, I remembered something that other students did not know. You know everyone does not watch foreign series. At that time, I guess it was the fasting period, and students did not participate in the lesson. I do not know why, but I was energetic then. When I participated in the task, the teacher said, "Well done, only you participated in the lesson, well done, you answered." Everyone can enjoy being congratulated.*

Under this category, student participants further disclosed that there were particular tasks that were significant for them; therefore, they paid attention to the lesson much while these tasks and activities were being performed. For instance, S1 depicted that vocabulary activities, as well as idioms/proverbs given in a reading text, were beneficial for him since he encountered some unknown words and phrases. In this way, he got the chance to learn something new; also, he enjoyed his experience.

In addition to the intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation, students' lack of motivation was among the realities of this school in such a way that it became a norm. Both teachers and students were aware of the amotivation toward EFL classes; however, there was no attempt to reverse the situation. Also, one should bear in mind that the matters of apathetic students as well as low student engagement and motivation, which will be discussed later in this chapter, in essence, represent the amotivation variable. The following field note illustrates how students' manners varied from amotivation to extrinsic motivation depending on the task performed in a particular EFL class:

> S24 was among the students who took my attention during the field data collection procedure. She never participated in the lesson, but instead, she almost always lay on her desk as if she was sleeping. However, she was trying to perform the task in this lesson on account of the fact that this was a performance-based assessment task. During conversations with her peers, they said that she paid attention to the EFL class only when there was a performance-based assessment task: "*Sadece performans olunca uyanıyor.*" "*She stops lying on her desk only when there is an in-class performance-based assessment task.*" The teacher also recognized her manner, and she was not satisfied with this situation; she further commented as: "*Gıcık oluyorum, uyuyor uyuyor performans deyince, sağdan soldan ondan bundan alıp yapıyor bir şey.*" "*I become irritated with her manner; normally, she lies on her desk all the time, but when she hears of an in-class performance-based assessment task, she gets help from peers, and she performs it.*"

> (MC2, Classroom Field Note 16)

Apart from types of motivation discussed above, more recent discussions on motivation have identified a new argument, i.e., L2-Motivational Self-System

(Dörnyei, 2009). In this study, two components of this theory were discovered: The ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience. In this respect, the students' dreams of their future jobs affected their motivation toward learning EFL in general; and as a result, one facet of the L2-Motivational Self-System was observed, i.e., The ideal L2 self. S9 contended that since he would possess a job necessitating engagement in English (he aimed to study at the department of international relations at university), he desired to develop his proficiency in English. Moreover, observation of classes unveiled how performing particular tasks and exercises that aroused interest positively influenced students' motivation. When the students were satisfied with what they performed, they expressed it with their own style, as seen in the following field note:

> In this lesson, the teacher assigned students to work in pairs and write a dialogue. After S8 and his pair had finished their dialogue, S8 said, "*çok şey olmasa da high tier bir diyalog oldu.*" "*Even if it has not been perfect, this dialogue has been a high tier one.*" In response to his comment, I asked what "*high tier*" meant, and he explained to me that in computer games when the character was good, it was called "*high tier.*" If it was perfect, it was called "*god tier.*" Though their dialogue was not perfect (i.e., it was not god tier), it was pretty good (i.e., high tier).

> (MC1, Classroom Field Note 12)

In support of field notes, analysis of the interviews with students disclosed that L2 learning experience was not limited to the language learning experiences students gained in EFL classes. In other words, students shared their experience in using English out of the class and how that affected them. An excerpt from the student interviews complements this argument:

İngilizce konuşurken farklı kişilikte olduğumu düşünüyorum ben, farklı bir insana bürünüyormuşum gibi. İngilizce dersinde pekte İngilizce konuşmadığımız için gösteremedim aslında bunu ama arkadaşlarımla aramızda bazen İngilizce konuşuruz ya da kardeşimle evde mesela birbirimize konuşuruz. O sırada çok	*When I speak English, I think I have a different personality, as if I was becoming a different person. As we do not speak in English in EFL classes, I could not present my ability in this area. However, sometimes we speak English with my friends. Or my brother and I speak English with each other at*

farklı karaktere bürünüyorum ben. Daha rahat, daha kendim gibi oluyorum. Kendimi daha iyi ifade edebildiğimi düşünüyorum İngilizcede. (S5)	*home. Meanwhile, I am becoming a different person. I feel more comfortable, and I feel more like myself. I think I can express myself better in English. (S5)*

Although there were students with a lack of motivation in EFL classes and/or students who were presenting avoidance behaviors in performing a task, achievement motivation, which was an important driving force to perform an activity, was detected, as well. In other words, the need for success sometimes drove the individual to spend effort in language learning practices. Observation of classes presented that most students were dissatisfied with an in-class assessment, which will be discussed later in this chapter under the theme "Assessment Policy Implementation." On the contrary, some students were eager to present their performance; among these, S10 desired for speaking practice exam because he felt competent enough to perform speaking. He wanted to present his competence and so increase his score in EFL class (SC1, Classroom Field Note 11).

To put it briefly, the effect of motivation has always been well-known on the learning behaviours of individuals. In the same way, students displayed various forms of motivation ranging from amotivation to intrinsic motivation.

4.2.2.3. The Use of Technology in English Classes

As aforementioned, technology-supported instruction was prescribed in the formal curriculum (see section 4.1.2.2 2014 MNE English Language Teaching Program) under the heading The Use of Technology in English Classes, this category was labeled accordingly. Perceived usefulness of ICT tools and problems in using technology were found as two main realities concerning the use of technology in this school.

Generally speaking, the use of technology in English classes was composed of an IWB and the students' smartphones, as was stated by the participants.

Concerning this, S4 affirmed that the smart board and the mobile phones were the only ICT tools used in EFL classes. S7 addressed a similar point and signified IWB and smartphones as the ICT tools used. She added that they used smartphones to look up unknown words from online dictionaries or translation applications (apps). Moreover, teachers confirmed the students' viewpoint; Snowdrop said, "*Yani çokta bir şey kullanmadık aslında teknolojik olarak bir akıllı tahtaya başvurduk, onun haricinde bir şey yok.*" "*Actually, we did not use ICT tools so much; we only used the smart board; there is nothing except for the IWB.*"

4.2.2.3.1. Perceived Usefulness of ICT Tools

The analysis of the interviews displayed a few benefits in using ICT tools in English classes, perceived by the teachers and the students. ICT tools helped perform a task individually and fast; using ICT tools during the lesson was motivating for students. The linguistic benefits such as developing pronunciation and intelligibility were also among the benefits of ICT highlighted.

Gaining individual learning opportunities was the hallmark of using ICT tools in EFL classes, as S10 stated. S4, similarly, specified the time-saving feature of using ICT tools during the lesson. He elaborated his opinion that normally, he needed to consult his peers and the teacher to perform a particular task, yet ICT tools aided him to complete the task independently. Furthermore, S3 interpreted that when the smart board was switched on, they as students became more attentive to the lesson. She also emphasized that people of her age had a specific interest in ICT tools; they liked following the lesson from the smart board instead of using the textbook only.

A few students pointed out linguistic benefits they gained via using ICT tools in EFL classes; for example, S8 remarked the advantage of exposure to native speaker accent in the course of listening to a recording from the smart board; otherwise, if the teacher were read aloud the script for them, they would have

problems in terms of pronunciation. Addressing similar points, S1 argued for using ICT tools as they were time-saving and linguistically beneficial. In this respect, he notified looking up unknown words from translation apps instead of a dictionary. Further, he made a very interesting argument in support of ICT tools as in the following:

Mesela ben genelde kitap götürmüyorum, kitaptaki alıştırmaları tahtadan bakıyorum, çok yardımcı oluyor. Hani kitap taşımama gerek kalmıyor o yüzden.	*For instance, I usually do not carry my coursebook in my school bag. I follow the exercises from the smart board, and it is very helpful. You know, in this way I do not need to carry my textbook.*

Likewise, Snowdrop claimed that students did not carry a dictionary in their school bag because they use online dictionaries. She believed that the smartphones were useful hereof, and she explained as in the following:

[Çeviri uygulamaları] Daha pratik sözlük aramak açısından, kelimeleri daha kolay buluyorlar. Herhangi bir cümleyi doğru mu yanlış mı diye kontrol edebiliyorlar. Yani kendi cümle kuruyor, bu cümle acaba çevirince ne çıkıyor ya da doğru oluyor mu diye onları kontrol edebiliyorlar.	*[Translation apps] are more practical in terms of looking up unknown words; students find the words easier. They can check whether a sentence is correct or not. I mean, they make a sentence, and they check what the sentence means when it is translated into Turkish or if it is accurate.*

My observations supported the arguments concerning the types of ICT tools used in EFL classes and how they were used, expressed in the interviews. In other words, the smart board and smartphones were the ICT tools used in EFL classes. These two technology tools had two main functions. As Table 30 below demonstrates, IWB mainly functioned as a recording device, so it was helpful in the study of listening activities as well as skills (i.e., listening) practice exams. Secondly, IWB was used for demonstration; the textbook was shown in a portable document format (pdf) during the lesson. There were two main functions of smartphones, as well. Students either looked up unknown words or

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translated the sentences. Though few, smartphones were used to do research during the lesson.

Table 30. Perceived Usefulness of ICT Tools

Item	Code
1	Using IWB as a recording device
2	Using ICT for demonstration
3	Using ICT for linguistic purposes
4	Using the Internet for research
5	"It's no use!" - Negative attitudes toward using ICT tools

With regard to the first function of IWB, Marigold clarified her use of ICT as: "*Sadece dinletirken kullanıyordum yani oradan herhangi bir etkinlik yaptırmıyordum sadece yani ses kaydı olarak kullanıyordum.*" "*I used the IWB only when I have the students listen to a recording for an exercise. I mean, I did not have them perform any activity on the smart board. I only used it as a recording device.*" As for the second function, S1 described the smart board as a mirror image of the book, and then he signified that the teacher followed the lesson from the smart board, students followed it from their textbooks. Another student (S2) verified the previous claim as: "*Sadece zaten görsel amaçlı, hoca şuradayız dediğini göstermek için tahtayı kullanıyordu.*" "*It was only for demonstration; the teacher used the smart board to show us which exercise we are on.*"

Additionally, using ICT for linguistic purposes was something typical in EFL classes. Similar to Snowdrop who was in support of using smartphones as a dictionary, Marigold allowed students to use their smartphones to look up unknown words, especially when they performed a reading or a writing activity. Different than other teachers, Marigold always collected the smartphones on her table at the beginning of her lessons. When there was a text to be read or a group work to produce something (e.g., a story, a dialogue, etc.), she allowed the students to retake their phones and use them accordingly.

In addition to the classroom field notes, I jotted down analytic memos on visual data. The following photo below displayed how smartphones were used in EFL classes. The teacher listed a few words from the reading text to help students comprehend the text better. The students were required to look up L1 equivalents of the words. As seen in the photo, a student was looking at the board to learn the word she needed to look up, and then she typed the word into the online dictionary to get its L1 equivalent (MC1, Analytical Memo 1).

Figure 10. A Photo of Technology Use in the Classroom

Apart from linguistic purposes, using the Internet for research was rarely observed. At one incident, students researched historic sites in Turkey. In the textbook, there was a group work activity; students were required to share what they knew about the historic sites of which photos were given. There were prompts like "*where it is*" and "*what makes it significant*" to guide students in their communicative practice. The following field note shows how students used ICT tools for research:

> In order to perform the task, a few students (e.g., S19, S25) carried out research on the Internet about the first historic site, "*Soumela Monastery*." For example, S25 had found a website presenting information in Turkish about the monastery. He was reading that information in an attempt to find something to share about its significance. He had written down L1 meanings of the prompts given. He said, "*Şunu araştırıyorum [Sümela Manastırı], önemli yapan ne diyor, bir cümle bulup çevireceğim*." "*I am searching for this [Soumela Monastery], it says what makes it significant in the exercise, I will find a statement, and then I will translate it*." He was trying to find information about what makes the monastery significant on the net, and he planned to translate this sentence.

<div align="right">(SC1, Classroom Field Note 12)</div>

On the other hand, one critical aspect of using ICT tools for research was revealed in student interviews. One student said (S3) that when they needed further information about a historical place or a touristic site, it was the teacher herself, not the students, who searched the net via using her smartphone. In other words, the teacher searched the net and shared the information with the students to help them understand something better. In terms of using smartphones to search for something, I observed an interesting practice in Tulip's classes. She used her smartphone to search for sample sentences in L1; she dictated the sentences in this way, and the students translated the sentences for grammar practice.

In contrast to all these benefits supposed by the participants, ICT tools were conceptualized as unnecessary, i.e., "*It is no use.*" Some students presented negative attitudes toward using ICT tools, as seen in the following example:

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[Teknoloji araç-gereci] kullanmanın işte zaten tahtanın bir faydası yok, o dinleme metini, onun görevi gibi bir şey zaten çünkü biz onu dinliyorduk, boşluk dolduruyorduk. Telefonu da zaten çeviri olarak kullanıyorduk biz. Telefonun bir faydasını ben görmedim çünkü sözlük kullanıyordum ama arkadaşların bir faydasını bana göre onlar da bir fayda görmemiştir, bir fayda yok ki! Onu araştıracaksın, kendin bulacaksın, daha faydalı bana göre öyle. (S6)

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<td>

Concerning using [ICT tools], there is no benefit in using the smart board. It is for recording, and this is like its job because we listened to the recording and then filled in the blanks. We use smartphones for translation apps. I did not benefit from the smartphone because I used a dictionary. Perhaps my friends might benefit, but I think they did not benefit from smartphones, as well. It is no use! I think it is more beneficial when you search for it and find it on your own. (S6)

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The crucial point was that students believed in performing language tasks and exercises without ICT tools; they conceptualized ICT tools as unnecessary. They believed that even if they used ICT tools to perform the assignment, the only benefit they achieved was linguistic, as S2 interpreted. She remarked that she only learned new words and grammar structures by doing her assignment which necessitated the use of ICT tools.

In short, two main ICT tools were found regarding the use of technology in English classes; these were the students' smartphones and IWB. The participants reported many benefits in using the ICT tools, yet among them, using ICT tools for linguistic purposes such as looking up an unknown word from online translation apps was the most prevalent in EFL classes of this school.

4.2.2.3.2. Problems in Using Technology

Another aspect of ICT tools in English classes was about the problems experienced in using technology, as defined by the teachers and students. Table 31 below demonstrates some trouble in using ICT tools in EFL classes.

Table 31. Problems in Using Technology

Item	Code
1	Using ICT tools out of purpose
2	Technical problems about using ICT tools
	-Teacher as the recording device
3	Personal problems about using ICT tools
4	Lack of technology use
	-Lack of challenge in using ICT tools

Using ICT tools, especially smartphones, out of purpose was one of the realities in this school. During my field data collection, I encountered the expression "*Telefonla takılıyorlar*" "*Hanging out with the phone*" produced by a final year student to describe the situation in the photo given in a textbook activity. Another striking point which I observed was the silence in break times. As a member of the research setting, I had to be on duty once a week. When I visited the classes during break times, I observed students using their smartphones; they did not communicate with friends, walk around, or make noise. The classrooms were silent because students were surfing the net. The problem was that such a manner was reflected in EFL classes. When the students were allowed to use

their smartphones, some students used them out of purpose, such as surfing the net, watching series, and listening to music[5].

Supporting those field notes, S1 avowed that he used his smartphone to watch foreign series during the lesson. He added that some peers who were disengaged played online games on their smartphones during EFL classes. At one incident, I recognized that he was watching Anime with a peer by using his smartphone. The teacher was in the classroom, and she was busy with classroom routines before starting the lesson, like signing the class notebook. During personal conversations, S1 elucidated the lessons he watched Anime at school: "*Sadece beden de bir de İngilizce' de yani benim ihtiyacım olmayan derslerde.*" "*It is only in the physical education (PE) and EFL classes; I mean the lessons I do not need.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 14).

On a similar line, S10 admitted that he sometimes lost his interest during the lesson. On account of the fact that he turned on the Internet on his smartphone, he received some notifications from the social media applications, and he stated that he could not prevent himself from checking them. In my classroom observations, I recognized him as a student who often followed the lesson; even so, he mentioned another problem concerning the use of technology in EFL classes. He honestly shared that his peer watching YouTube videos during the lesson stimulated him to do the same.

On the other hand, although teachers were aware of the problem, they felt helpless in this matter, as Marigold stated. Or, they accepted the situation, as Snowdrop clarified: "*Bir, iki kelime bakıyorlarsa ondan sonra birkaç Instagram, Face hemen bir böyle dolaşıyorlar. Ama işte zaten bunu da engellemek dediğim gibi imkânsız bir şey.*" "*After they look up a few words, they surf social media sites like Instagram and Facebook. But, as I said before, it is already something*

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[5]During fieldwork (i.e., 2017-2018 school year), there was no regulation inhibiting students from using their mobile phones at school. On a more recent change, MNE has announced a decision which prohibited students from using mobile phones at school (see also the Official Gazette dated 05.09.2019 numbered 30879).

impossible to prevent." These points of reference, in essence, might lend support to the way technology was conceptualized as one facet of the context-specific realities. Another excerpt from the interview with Snowdrop complements this argument:

Şimdi tabii ki akıllı telefonları da farklı amaçlarla kullanan öğrenciler oluyor çünkü 35-36 öğrenci, bunların her birini kontrol edemiyorum doğal olarak, kim ne yapıyor. Farklı amaçla kullanan oluyor ama şöyle bir şey o çocuk telefonu kullanmasa da zaten dersle ilgilenmeyecek. Yani hani zaten derse karşı bir ilgisi yok, onun karşılığında zaten bir şey yapmayacak. O yüzden ne onun [öğrencinin] açısından ne benim açımdan bir kayıpmış gibi olmuyor. Yani o onu yapmasa sırayı karalayacak, onu yapmasa işte arkadaşını rahatsız edecek, yine aynı şeyler olacak.	*There are students using smartphones for different purposes for sure. Since there are 35-36 students, I cannot control each one; who is doing what? Some of them use it for different purposes. However, there is something like this: Even if this student does not use his/her smartphone, he/she will not follow the lesson anyway. I mean, he/she is already disengaged in the class; he/she will not perform anything related to the task. Therefore, it is a loss neither for the student nor for me. I mean, if he/she did not use the smartphone out of purposes during the lesson, he/she would scratch the desk or disturb a peer, and then the same things would happen again.*

Using ICT tools in EFL classes also involved technical problems like electricity cut-offs and problems with the smart board processor, as well as personal problems such as losing attention. The search for a solution for such technical problems resulted in using the teacher even as the recording device. Bearing on her experience of which the teacher read aloud the script for them to perform a listening activity during the lesson, S2 delighted with the practice since it was easier for her to understand the teacher's accent instead of exposure to the native speaker.

The students reported technical problems that they experienced in EFL classes. These problems were mainly concerned with the IWB. For example, one student (S2) signified that they did not use the smart board because of the electricity cut-off, which challenged them in following the lesson from their textbook only. S9 drew attention to another problem with the IWB by noting that they were losing time while waiting for the smart board to be switched on.

The technical problems also caused students to lose their engagement during the lesson, as S10 identified. Likewise, S4 remarked that he had difficulty in concentrating on the lesson when the ICT tools were used due to the lights they released. Another problem was identief by S10 as followed:

Dinlediğimiz zaman ses öyle bir çıkıyor ki yani Türkçe olsa anlayamazsın. Uğultulu çıkıyor, yankı yapıyor yani sınıfta, anlayamıyorsun. Ya bu sefer de amaaan diyorsun, bu ne diyorsun. O yüzden o da dersten soğutuyordu.	*When we listen to the recording, the sound is so bad that you cannot understand it even in Turkish. The sound turns out humming and echoes in the classroom; one cannot understand it. Then, you say, "Oh, what is this?" For this reason, it caused becoming demotivated in the lesson.*

Additionally, the analysis of the second interview with the participants revealed one of the most striking points about using technology in EFL classes. There were a few interview questions posing challenges participants experienced in the course of using ICT tools; participants mostly responded that they did not have any difficulty using ICT tools. The following excerpt from the interview with Marigold exhibited a proposition that there was not any technology used, in a real sense, in EFL classes, thereby indicating the lack of technology-supported instruction, as well.

Tek tek belirtmeye gerek yok yani kullandığım hiçbir şey yoktu. Tahtayı bile kullanmıyordum, sadece listening [dinleme aktivitesi] birkaç kere yaptırdım. Listening [dinleme] parçaları çok ağır olduğu için, çocuklar anlamıyoruz dedikleri için her derste uygulamadım, yani birkaç kere kullandım. Tahtada kitap açmama sebebimse kitabın sayfasını böldüğü için odaklanamıyorum, yani bana daha zor geliyor tahtadan kitabı kullanmak. Ben her zaman önlerinde [kitap] olması taraftarıyım. Başka da kullandığım bir teknolojik alet yok.	*There is no need to specify one by one because there was nothing I used. I even did not use the smart board; I only performed listening activities a few times. As the listening activities were above the students' proficiency level, and as the students claimed that they could not understand the scripts, I did not perform them in each lesson. I mean, I used the smart board a few times. As for the reason why I did not demonstrate the textbook on the smart board, I cannot focus because it divides the page. I mean, it is more difficult for me to use the textbook on the smart board. I believe students should always have a textbook on their desks to follow the lesson. There are no other ICT tools I use.*

In addition to the lack of IWB use, collecting mobile phones on her table at the beginning of the lesson was the routine in Marigold's classes, as stated earlier in this chapter. Hence, the argument for lack of challenge in using ICT tools was verified by the students, as well. During the second interview, a student (S8) questioned himself whether he had any difficulty in using ICT tools and then answered himself as followed:

Bence yoktu yani teknolojinin zorlukları olabilir ama hani okulda çok fazla şey yapmadığımız için zaten teknolojik aletler derste zaten kullanmamız telefon yasaktı, öğretmenimiz izin verirse kullanıyorduk o şekilde. O yüzden pek bir zorluğu yok yani.

I think there was no difficulty in using technology. I mean, there may be difficulties in using technology, but as we do not perform so many things with technology, using ICT tools in the lesson was already prohibited. If our teacher let us, we used them. Therefore, it does not have much difficulty.

Briefly put, although several benefits of using ICT tools were reported in teaching and learning EFL in this school, there appeared some problems. Among them, familiar problems like electricity cut-offs were noted, yet still, a few critical issues were also voiced. Using technology out of purpose was among the problems that become a norm in this school.

4.2.2.4. Contextual Challenges

One last aspect of context-specific realities of the instructional policy was the challenges emerging due to the community in which the school was located in general and the school culture in particular. Considering the school participants at the center of a circle, they were surrounded by the realities in and out of the school, i.e., the community and the realities of the Turkish education system. Therefore, the realities that emerged within this school are constructed within the context of these spheres. At the school level, administrative attitudes toward EFL were found to be influential in the implementation of the instructional policy. Official regulations (e.g., the threshold degree) were interpreted differently.

There appeared varying views and attitudes concerning the instructional material and its content.

Being a full-time employee of the school, I sometimes received comments teachers shared about my study. At one incident, while I was jotting down my field notes in the teachers' room, the school principal initiated a personal conversation with me. He had, by and large, an idea about my study; he shared his comment by leaving a compelling question to be considered: *"Öğretemiyorsunuz, tamam bitti bunun nesini söyleyeceksin?"* *"You cannot teach, that is all, what are you going to say about this?"* During the conversation, he shared his views about teaching English, in that a foreign language class should be elective. That is to say, those who wanted to learn the language should learn it only. Also, he stated that the students in our school did not need to speak this language in their environment. He further supported his argument by noting that even bus drivers in touristic sites could speak English since they earned money in this way; however, the students in this school did not need to use English out of the school, so for him, EFL was not something that they must learn (Field Note, 01.03.2018 / Wednesday).

Bearing on somewhat critical perspectives, such a viewpoint might have influenced the administrative manners and attitudes toward the EFL course, which might, in the end, be felt by the EFL teachers. The following excerpt from the interview with Marigold helps to better understand the influence of administrative attitudes as a contextual challenge on the realization of instructional policy in this school.

Bize değer verilmemesi, mesela ders programlarına bile bak, yani öğleden sonra olması gereken dersler neler sence? Bir din kültürü olabilir hani müzik olabilir, resim olur, beden olur ya da seçmeli dersleri atarsınız değil mi? 10 saat edebiyat varsa mesela bunun yarısı seçmelidir.	*We are not valued; for example, look at the school schedule; what do you think are the lessons that should be in the afternoon? It could be a religious class, a music class, an art class, a PE class. Or, you put the elective courses in the afternoon sessions, don't you? If there are 10 hours of literature class, for instance, half of them must be*

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Ben bunun yarısını öğleden sonraya atarım. Ama bizim okulda yapılan programlara bakılırsa, hep İngilizceler öğleden sonra, hani yorgun kafayla yapılsa da olur yapılmasa da olur mantığıyla.

elective. So, I put half of them in the afternoon classes. But, when you look at our school schedule, English classes are almost always in the afternoon. I mean, the logic is that it does not matter whether it is performed well or not.

Relatively less importance given to the EFL classes at the administrative level was reflected in the course schedule, as seen in the above quote. This vision caused the teacher to lessen the value she attached to her classes, as can be interpreted from the question she posed at the end of her speech: "*Bana değer verilmiyorsa ben niye değer vereyim?*" "*If I am not valued, why should I value others?*"

The students' visions and perspectives were also very influential in understanding the big picture of the instructional policy. Students pointed out various challenges they experienced in EFL classes like the classroom atmosphere, lower proficiency level of peers, lack of English medium instruction in EFL classes, and so on. In this regard, the participants were consulted for their opinions about why they encountered such matters. As a result, how the community in which the school was surrounded influenced students in sense-making their experiences in EFL classes were found. To cite an interesting example, S10 resembled school to a "*boogeyman*" for everyone by noting the prejudices people around him had toward school; he further claimed to be negatively affected by these views. More specifically, S8 explained the reason for the lower proficiency level of English among his peers as followed:

İlk olarak Türk toplumu olarak biz hani İngilizce' ye ya da yabancı dillere çok fazla önem vermiyoruz ve üzerinde durmuyoruz. Sınıftaki çoğu kişi de hani ortaokuldaki kötü İngilizce öğretmenlerinden dolayı, ben şanslıydım benim öğretmenim çok iyiydi o yüzden bu şekildeyim ama sınıftaki çoğu arkadaşımın büyük ihtimal öğretmeni kötü olduğu için

First of all, as the Turkish society, we do not attach much importance to English or foreign languages and do not focus on them. Because of the fact that most of the students in the class had poor EFL teachers at the middle school. I was lucky because my EFL teacher was excellent; for this reason, I am so now. But most probably, most of my classmates had poor teachers at the middle school; I mean,

ortaokulda, yani temelleri olmadığından dolayı İngilizce konuşamıyorlar, cümle kuramıyorlar, derse katılamıyorlar.	*because they do not have sufficient background knowledge, they cannot speak English, they cannot make sentences, and they cannot participate in the lesson.*

Apart from the challenges identified above, some other difficulties emerged because of the creation, interpretation, execution as well as implementation of the instructional policy. In other words, some challenges emerged as a result of the construction of instructional policy for teaching EFL within different policy spaces. Among these, the value attached to the threshold degree, less significance given to the major area courses due to the university entrance examination-related issues, publishing a single instructional material that was not suitable for the students' proficiency level were revealed. Table 32 below demonstrates all the challenges reviewed until so far and the more.

Table 32. Contextual Challenges

Item	Code
1	Classroom management practices
	-Problems in classroom dynamics
	-Lack of monitoring
2	Challenges in language learning
	-Challenges in the study of listening
	-Problems and limitations
3	Value for the threshold degree
4	Major area courses vs core academic classes
5	Evaluating the textbook
	-Perceived proficiency vs real proficiency
	-Positive views
	-Negative views
6	Teacher burnout
	-Feelings of inadequacy and failure
	-Emotional exhaustion

One striking challenge emerged as a result of the school-level implementation of the instructional policy; some classes were combined; for example, SSC1 was

composed of students from the social sciences and the foreign language fields of study. Gathering students with different fields of study in one class led to some problems in classroom dynamics. In other words, the interaction between students and teachers was negatively influenced by the very nature of the classroom, especially in EFL classes. The following interview excerpts help to see different sides of the problem from the viewpoint of the participants:

Ben de sözelci dilci olarak sınıfın ayrı düşüp, sen neredensin tarzında bir ikilem yaşayınca da pek hoşuma gitmiyor yani. O İngilizce derslerinde girişkenlik olmuyor. Birebir benim hiçbir sıkıntım yok ama etrafımda bir çatışma olması beni gerginleştiriyor yani. (S4)

When the classroom is divided between being a student of the foreign language field of study and being a student of the social sciences field of study, I would not say I like it when I feel something like a dilemma of which department you are in. I cannot show initiative in English classes. I do not have any personal problems, but the conflict around me makes me nervous. (S4)

[Konuşma aktivitelerine] katılmak istiyorum sonra bakıyorum hani kimse katılmıyor. Ben katılırsam işte o dilci o zaten yapıyor şeyine gelebilir diye düşünüyorum. Derste [İngilizce dersinde] bir sıkıntım olmuyor ama dersin sonunda başka bir derse girdiğimizde sözellerin işte dil ayrımı yapılıyor demesi rahatsız ediyor beni. Genelde [konuşma bölümlerinde] sessiz kalmayı tercih ediyorum çünkü başka bir derste başka bir dersin hocasına şikâyet ediyorlar. (S3)

I want to participate in [speaking activities], then I see nobody participates. If I participate in the activity, they might think that she can already do these activities as she is a foreign language field of study student. I do not have any problems in the lesson [English classes]. But, when we enter another class, the students from the social sciences field of study complain about the discrimination between them and the foreign language field of study students, and this disturbs me. I usually prefer to be silent in [speaking activities], because they complain about us in another lesson. (S3)

Supporting the claims above, the field notes showed the demotivating and tense atmosphere in the classroom. At one incident, S3 was assigned to read aloud a text; a student from the social sciences field of study cautioned her: "*Sözelcilerin anlayacağı şekilde lütfen!*" "*As the way the students of the social sciences could understand, please!*" and she responded to her: "*Ben anlaşılmaz bir insanım zaten.*" "*I am an incomprehensible person anyway.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 3).

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During personal conversations, another student (S26) from the foreign language field of study shared one of her negative experiences in pronunciation. Once she was not able to pronounce a word correctly, and in response, social sciences field of study students criticized her: *"Aaa sen dilcisin bunu bilmiyor musun diyorlar."* *"They say, you are a student of the foreign language field of study, don't you know [how to pronounce] this."* (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 10). The seating arrangement of the students was the apparent indicator of the negative atmosphere in the classroom. There were three rows; almost all the foreign language field of study students were sitting in the middle row only while students from the social sciences field of study were in the other two rows.

In addition to the problems specific to the classroom dynamics, some trouble in classroom management practices was mentioned due to using smartphones out of purpose and/or students' making noise. In these instances, teachers usually warned the students seriously. Implementing the official regulations also led to some disadvantaged situations; for example, regulations on student transfer procedures[6], resulted in some discrepancies in the instructional policy realized, which was reflected in a student's life. At one incident, I recognized a newcomer in the classroom; she had been transferred from another town of the province. During personal conversations, she denoted that they were not using the book delivered by MNE; instead, they used a private publishing book in her previous school. I met her for the first time during the skills practice exam, and she remarked that they did not have a practice exam in her previous school. This was a critical incident because she had been a student of this school for 15 days, and she had never been instructed with the MNE textbook; even worse, it was her first time to sit for a skills practice exam (MC1, Classroom Field Note 17).

Apart from the official regulations for student transfer issues, a few items within the regulation on upper secondary education institutions were influential on students. Two of them were very significant since they negatively influenced the

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[6] During fieldwork (i.e., 2017-2018 school year), student transfer procedures were executed monthly. According to the regulation, the application for transfer to another school was allowed to be performed, starting with the first working day of the month until the last working day (see also the Official Gazette dated 16.09.2017, numbered 30182).

classroom-level realization of the instructional policy for teaching EFL. As aforementioned, the threshold level to pass the class was 50 out of 100 (see section 4.1.1.2 Official Regulations for Adjusting Instruction at Upper Secondary Education Institutions). The issue of the pass or fail was one of the most important concerns students articulated in this policy space; therefore, as long as they achieved this '*magic*' 50, it did not matter whether they failed a class or not. At one incident, a male student talked to Snowdrop, and he required the teacher to score his grade in the EFL course as 25. Nevertheless, the point value of 25 did not mean to pass the class; rather, it meant to fail. During personal conversations, the student explained his rationale that he wanted to increase his annual average. Since his annual average was 37 at that time, he was in danger of repeating grade 11; thereby, he aimed to achieve 50 by collecting points. Even if this score (i.e., 25) was not sufficient to pass a particular course, it helped prevent someone from failing class at all (MC2, Classroom Field Note 16)

Another macro policy dilemma was about the importance laid on the major area courses and core academic classes. As is known, English is a core academic class in the curricula for junior year (grade 11) classes. Though this policy attempt might have been undertaken due to the importance given to the teaching and learning of a foreign language, its reflection in students was reverse. To cite a familiar example, S2 put it this way:

*Seneye 12. Sınıf olacağız ve üniversite sınavında İngilizce çıkmıyor. Onun için kendime İngilizce çalışmak yerine mesela matematik çalışayım [dedim], çalışmadım yani ona pek fazl*a.	*Next year, we will be final year students, and English is not assessed in the university entrance exam. For this reason, I said to myself that I must study math instead of English, so I did not study English much.*

Marigold supported the view above by noting that students view EFL class as "*a dull work*", and she further explained as in the following:

İngilizcenin çok önemli olmadığını düşünüyorum ben okullarda ders	*I think English as a lesson is not so important in schools. I guess we do not*

Even more striking, Tulip expressed the reason why she did not focus on the study of speaking skill in her classes as: "*Dil sınıfı olmuş olsaydı kesinlikle ağırlık verirdim ama sayısal sınıf olduğu için çok da uğraşmadım açıkçası.*" "*If it were a foreign language class, I would certainly lay emphasis on speaking activities, but as it was a sciences class, to tell the truth, I did not strive for it much.*" Notwithstanding, the students in the foreign language field of the study found this four-hour EFL class unnecessary. In a conversation with a few students (S27, S28, S3), they said that this four hours course was unnecessary and nonsense for them since they had already learned the grammar structures in their other eight hours elective English class (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 11).

Towards the end, the instructional material "Sunshine English 11" was evaluated by the participants. As mentioned above, the main argument on the instructional material was the proficiency level of the book, which was not suitable for the students. The so-called B1 was above some students' proficiency level, though few, below the proficiency level of some. Moreover, the participants expressed positive or negative views about the instructional material depending on the activities in the book. Snowdrop evaluated the variance between the perceived and real proficiency by comparing the EFL instruction at previous grades with those of upper grades, as followed:

Yani şöyle bir zorluk daha var. Dokuzuncu sınıfta en temelden başlıyoruz, sorun olmuyor, ilkokul neredeyse işte ortaokul temelinden başlıyoruz. 10. Sınıfta onun üstüne birazcık katıyoruz, devam ediyoruz ama yine seviye olarak daha yakın. Ama 11 ve 12'de birdenbire şey oluyor, hani seviyeleri aslında

There is one more difficulty like this; we start from the basics at grade 9, so there is no problem. It is the elementary or almost middle school level. We add a few things on this at grade 10, and we move on. Yet still, the language proficiency level is near to the basic level. However, at grades 11 and 12, the students' language proficiency levels must have improved, but we

artmış olması gerekiyor ama bunu birçok öğrencide görmüyoruz. Yani B seviyelerine gelmiş olmaları gerekiyor ama bu gerçek hayatta böyle olmuyor, e kitaplar o seviyeye göre geliyor. Yani 9, 10'da daha iyi ilerleyen İngilizce dersleri 11 ve 12'de bu seviyenin artması nedeniyle ve öğrencilerin buna yetişememesi nedeniyle dersleri yapmak daha zor oluyor çünkü konular daha ağır, onlar eski konularla birleştiremiyorlar, hani temel zayıf, yeni konuyu anlamakta zorlanıyorlar, o yüzden devam etmekte daha zor oluyor bence.

cannot observe this in many students. I mean, they must be at the proficiency level of B, yet it is not so in real life. On the other hand, the textbooks are at the proficiency level of B. While it is easy to instruct English classes in grades 9 and 10, it is challenging in grades 11 and 12. On account of the fact that the language proficiency levels are increased, the students cannot achieve this proficiency. The language structures are more difficult in grades 11 and 12. The students cannot connect what they learned previously with the new ones. Due to the lack of background knowledge, they have difficulty in understanding the new subject. I think it is difficult for all these reasons.

More specifically, Tulip shared her comment about the reading texts: "*Okuma parçaları özellikle çok zordu ve üst seviyedeydi. Bazen ben bile sıkılıyordum, benim bile anlamadığım şeyler oluyordu bu yüzden çocuklardan çok bir beklentiye girmemek gerekiyor.*" "*The reading texts were challenging and were at a very high level. Sometimes, even I was bored. There were things that even I did not understand, so one should not expect too much from the students.*" A student (S7) verified teachers' ideas by noting that the paragraphs were more difficult for her, she also compared the reading texts they studied in grade 11 with the ones in the previous grades and she accentuated that they were more challenging in grade 11.

A similar perspective was shared about the listening activities, as well. One student (S6) avowed that she could not understand the recording in the listening activities. This argument was supported by Marigold, "*11. Sınıfların dinleme parçaları çocuklara göre çok ağır. Hatta bana göre de çok ağır olduğu için, yani çok sık kullanmadık, birkaç kere falan yaptık.*" "*The recordings of the listening activities of the 11th grade are too difficult for the students. In fact, it was too difficult for me, as well. So, we haven't used them often, we have covered them a few times.*"

Unlike most participants' views about the proficiency level of the textbook reported above, few high proficiency students complained about the easiness of the exercises in the textbook; and even S8 interpreted the exercises in the textbook in such a way that a fifth-grade student could perform them. This view sometimes led the high proficiency students to get bored and reject to perform the exercises in the lesson. The students' boredom and what made them get bored in EFL classes will be discussed later in this chapter under the theme "Reflection of Instruction on Students' Language Learning Experiences."

As for the positive views about the book, it was seen that meaningful practice activities for grammar structures in the workbook and the attention part of the book were satisfying for the teachers. In this regard, Marigold frankly made her comment as: "*Kitabın tek güzel yeri attention part*" "*The only satisfying part of the textbook is the attention part*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 6). Snowdrop further explained the reason why she liked the attention part, as in the following:

Bu kitap açısından söylersem, 11. Sınıflarda attention [dikkat] olayını sevmiştim aslında. Çünkü attention [dikkat] da direk böyle şey, amaç neyse onu istemiş, o çok hoşuma gitti. İşte hani şunda şu şekilde cümle yapın, burada boşlukları doldurun falan filan. Orada hem onu anlatmak kolay öğrencilere, hem onların bana geri dönüşleri çok kolay yani konuyu anlamış mı anlamamış mı, neyi yapabiliyor neyi yapamıyor. O attention [dikkat] bölümlerini sevmiştim, sanki ünitenin böyle şey gibi o kısma kadar olanını bir kontrol edeyim bakalım yapabiliyor musunuz, anlayabildiniz mi kısmı olarak gördüm ben onu, hani geldiği bölüme kadar. O yüzden attention [dikkat] bölümü güzeldi.	*In terms of this textbook, I actually liked the attention part of grade 11. Because the attention part is directly like this; it focuses on whatever the goal is, I liked it very much. For example, make a sentence like this, or fill in the blanks, and so on. It is easy to guide students on what to do, and it is also easy to get feedback from students. I mean, I see whether they understand the subject matter or not, what they can do and what they cannot do; I liked the attention parts. It is like let me check what you have learned until so far, whether you can do it or not. That is why the attention part was nice.*

On the other hand, participants expressed negative views about the instructional material in general. The textbook was insufficient for the high proficiency students, as S3 stated. Marigold also complained about the book; however, her

argument was reverse: *"Böyle zor kitap mı olur? Anlamıyor çocuklar"* *"What a hard textbook is this? The students do not understand"* (Field Note, 14.02.2018 / Wednesday). In a conversation with Tulip, she expressed her view about the textbook as worse (Field Note, 12.02.2018 / Monday). Concerning the negative views about the textbook, the recordings were criticized much. In addition to the high proficiency level of the recordings, the design of the activities was criticized by the teachers as in the following:

> Snowdrop had negative comments about the listening exercises; she was not satisfied with them. She said a few times that the answer to the question was given at the beginning of the recording, and then the listening went on so long. Therefore, the students needed to listen to the rest of the recording in vain. Marigold commented that the scripts were too long; some were even two pages.
>
> (Field Note, 13.04.2018 / Friday)

Perhaps one striking contextual challenge that might have stemmed from Turkish society was about the beliefs about certain circumstances. A perception of space tourism opportunities within Turkish society was reflected in the classroom level practice negatively; A student rejected doing the exercise only because he found the task content nonsense according to his own circumstances. In the workbook, there was an activity about future jobs; students were required to answer the questions by looking at the map of future jobs. Among the questions, one was about space tourism (i.e., Why do you think people will need a "space tourist pilot" in 50 years?). S29 did not like the exercise, and he found it silly because he believed that nobody could know what will happen in 50 years, and he put it this way: *"Kim öle kim kala."* *"Here today gone tomorrow."* People might want to escape from the world, but for him, these people would not be from Turkey (MC1, Classroom Field Note 3).

Apart from various contextual challenges reviewed above, teacher burnout was also revealed as one factor that negatively influenced the realization of the instructional policy. In simple terms, teacher burnout involves some negative emotions like fatigue, boredom, stress, and frustration. In this regard, teachers

signified feelings of inadequacy and failure as well as emotional exhaustion. With respect to the students' disengagement in her classes, Marigold frankly expressed how she felt as: "*Değersiz, hiçbir işe yaramıyormuş gibi hissediyorum.*" "*I feel worthless, and I feel like I am useless.*" On a similar line, when nobody participated in the lesson, Snowdrop was frustrated, she disclosed her feelings at that moment as: "*Böyle bir sinir bozukluğu, Allah'ım ben ne yapıyorum, neden buradayım diye sorgulamalar, bir umutsuzluk, bir mutsuzluk.*" "*Such a nervous breakdown; then I question myself like "God! What am I doing, why I am here?" I feel despair and unhappiness.*"

To summarize thus far, in this part of the dissertation, various context-specific realities exerting influence on the classroom-level realization of instructional policy for teaching EFL were reported. Starting with the attitudinal aspects of language teaching and learning, several attitudes that emerged from the way the instructional policy was implemented in this school were discovered among students. For example, students developed attitudes toward grammar and translation, either positive or negative. Secondly, psychosocial factors, some of which inhibit student achievement (e.g., negative academic self-concept and poor academic performance), and the impact of various motivation-related variables (e.g., extrinsic and intrinsic motivation) on student performance were revealed. IWB and smartphones were found to be the ICT tools used in this school. The way they were used and perceptions about their benefits specific to this school were presented. In doing so, IWB was mainly conceptualized as a recording device and/or used for demonstration, while smartphones were usually for linguistic purposes such as looking up an unknown word. Finally, a variety of challenges influencing the classroom-level realization of instructional policy were reported. These challenges were related to the culture at school as well as the community. Besides, several challenges emerging due to the creation, interpretation, execution, and implementation of the instructional policy were demonstrated according to how the instructional policy realized in an individual student's life.

4.2.3. The Reflection of Instruction on Students' Language Learning Experiences

Guided by the third sub-research question of this study, students' language learning experiences realized as a result of the instructional practices, which were in essence shaped by the perceptions of the teachers, were presented in this section. As its name suggests, the reflection of instruction on students is aimed principally at how teaching practices echoed on learning experiences.

From this perspective, classroom field notes revealed moments of reactions students displayed to the instructional practices in EFL classes. At one incident, reading comprehension exercises were performed in Tulip's class. After that, she skipped the listening, speaking, and writing exercises and announced the page number, which involved another reading text. Just after she had announced the page number, the conversation between Tulip and a student was as followed:

Tulip*: Sayfa 100.*
The Student*: Hocam çeviri yapmayalım.*
Tulip*: Ne yapalım?*
The Student*: Hocam ama çok saçma.*
Tulip*: Ona bakarsan kitap baştan aşağı saçma, napalım hiç mi yapmayalım?*

Tulip*: [Go to] Page 100.*
The Student*: Hocam, let's not translate.*
Tulip*: What shall we do?*
The Student*: Hocam, but it is too ridiculous.*
Tulip*: But if we accept that argument, the textbook is anyway pointless from top to bottom. What shall we do, shouldn't we ever do [the exercises] at all?*

(SC2, Classroom Field Note 14)

Since GTM-oriented instruction was the characteristic of instruction in Tulip's classes, the study of reading skills was prevalent, and it was performed in a manner befitting her teaching style, i.e., the sentence-by-sentence translation of the text was either performed during the lesson or assigned as homework. As seen in the field note above, when the teacher announced the page number, the student got the message that they would translate the text, and she reacted by expressing her dissatisfaction with the praxis.

Analysis of the interview data also demonstrated a similar aspect; in response to a question inquiring about the language skills developed at grade 11, the students mentioned linguistic properties. As is seen in the excerpt below, intense focus on grammar in EFL classes, either good or bad, caused the students to pay attention to grammar in their speaking practices in and out of the EFL classroom:

Cümle kurarken, speaking [konuşma aktivitesi] yapmasak ta dediğim gibi ben İngilizceyi sevdiğim için ve konuşmaya çalıştığım için sesli bir şekilde hani mesela kardeşimle olur ya da bir başkasıyla olur daha hızlı İngilizce cümleler kurabildiğimi fark ettim. Gramer gördüğümüz için bir de her kurduğum cümlede gramere dikkat ettiğimi fark ettim. Bazen hani şüphe duyduğum cümleler de oldu gramer konusunda çünkü çok fazla gramer görüp hani mükemmel olsun grameri diye düşünüp hani konuşurken bile o şekilde cümleler kuruyorum. (S5)	*While I was making sentences, even though we did not speak [in English classes], I try to speak, for example, with my brother or with someone else because I like English. At that time, I realized that I could make English sentences faster. Since we studied grammar, I noticed that I paid attention to grammar in every sentence I made. Sometimes there were sentences I doubted about their accuracy because I studied much grammar. Sometimes I think that the accuracy of the sentence must be perfect. I make sentences like this even when I speak. (S5)*

In order to help the reader to follow the realization of instructional policy from the perceived curriculum to the learned curriculum, data were presented in three main categories: knowledge-base of teaching, teachers' instructional practices, and students' language learning experiences. While the knowledge-base of teaching refers to teacher cognition in the very general sense, teachers' instructional practices present classroom-level teaching practices of the EFL teachers influenced by their cognition, i.e., beliefs, attitudes, perceptions, etc. There appeared two main divisions: *effective teaching practices* were at one end of the continuum, whereas *ineffective teaching practices* were at the other. Students' language learning experiences as the third category present various aspects of the learned curriculum in six headings: *positive language learning experiences*, *language learning strategy use*, *peer interaction patterns*, *rocky road to active participation*, *low student engagement and motivation*, *negative*

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language learning experiences. All these categories with their subcategories were discussed in the following sections.

4.2.3.1. Knowledge-Base of Teaching

Grounding on the definition by Verloop, Van Driel, and Meijer (2001), the knowledge-base of teaching presented what factors shape teachers' decision-making procedures as well as instructional activities in this study. Accordingly, the results of this study revealed various views, perceptions, and conceptions of teachers bearing an impact on their instructional practices, which are given in Table 33.

Table 33. Knowledge-Base of Teaching

Item	Code
1	Planning knowledge for teaching
2	Using personal practical knowledge
3	Using pedagogical content knowledge
4	Contextual knowledge
	-Knowledge of students
5	Lack of language methodology knowledge
6	Volunteers only principle

Planning knowledge for teaching presented how teachers planned their teaching and what sort of factors influenced their decision-making. While personal practical knowledge(s) involved more situated, personal understandings of the teachers that guided them in their decision-making procedure, pedagogical content knowledge basically identified how to teach something. Contextual knowledge involved components like the teacher's knowledge of learners, the school, and the community in which language teaching and learning practices took place.

Starting with the planning knowledge for teaching, analysis of the data revealed main components of instruction for teachers as was identified by Marigold: "*Ben*

gramer, vocabulary, reading yapıp geçiyorum üniteyi. Haftaya altıncı ünite ile devam edeceğim" "*After I teach grammar, vocabulary, and reading parts, I am finishing the unit. I am going to move on to the sixth unit next week*" (Field Note, 09.02.2018 / Friday). In this respect, being selective in teaching was one of the defining aspects of teachers' planning knowledge, as Snowdrop stated: "*Vermem gerekeni veriyorum, seviyelerine göre tabii her şeyi de vermiyorum açıkçası.*" "*I teach what I must teach; it depends on their language proficiency, frankly speaking, I do not teach everything.*"

Likewise, students reported skipping some activities in the textbook. As an example, S5 claimed that they skipped listening activities due perhaps to the lack of recordings. She added that idioms/proverbs of the week parts in the reading activities, and activities that required writing something long were also skipped. She put an end to her words by saying, "*Hocanın gereksiz bulduğu şeylerdi.*" "*These were the things that the teacher found unnecessary.*"

Additionally, analysis of the field notes revealed that teachers generally skipped freer practice activities (i.e., activities requiring students' own answers). During personal conversations, Snowdrop shared her teaching plan for the workbook exercises of theme six. There were seven activities in total, and she decided to skip exercises three and seven; students' communicative and written production were necessary hereof (MC2, Classroom Field Note 8). In the workbook, students were required to act out a dialogue by using the role-cards in exercise three, and they were required to write their predictions about the spaceship by using the information given in exercise seven. Nevertheless, the rest of the workbook exercises were more controlled (e.g., matching the responses with the complaints) and/or meaningful (e.g., reading the predictions and rewriting them using the prompts) forms of practice. Although being selective in terms of planning teaching practices was detected in principle, the way teachers employed selectivity resulted in the disregard of communicative and production-oriented activities.

In this respect, analysis of classroom field notes further disclosed how teachers disregarded communicative practice as well as skill-based activities. In the textbook, there was an activity that presented the study of communicative functions; students were required to surf the Internet about their favorite celebrity, find his/her hobbies, and share their findings with their friends by making a presentation. All three teachers performed this exercise, yet they skipped some crucial points required; none of them required the students to surf the Internet about their favorite celebrity, nor required them to make a presentation. Instead, they wanted students to write about themselves, a friend, or their favorite celebrity and then read aloud their sentences (MC2, Classroom Field Note 4; SC2, Classroom Field Note 4; MC1, Classroom Field Note 4).

Supporting those field notes, teachers were consulted what type of activities they performed in their classes. Teachers principally focused on the activities which students could perform, as Marigold explained. Concerning this, Snowdrop exemplified exercises such as sentence-level written production and matching vocabulary with their equivalents. She further explicated what sort of tasks and exercises she disregarded with her rationale, as in the following:

Listening [dinleme] falan gibi dinleme becerilerini çok yaptıramıyorum çünkü seviyelerine uygun kitapta listening [dinleme] çalışmaları ama onlar hiçbir şekilde hani ona uygun yapamıyorlar, anlayamıyorlar. Çok fazla zaman kaybedemiyorum, eğer kolay hani yapabilecekleri bir listening [dinleme] çalışması varsa yapıyorum, bakıyorum zorsa hani soru işte mesela cevap veriyor, bu cevabın sorusunu işte çıkarın gibi ya da kendilerine ait tam her şeyi anlayıpta yapmaları gereken alıştırmalar varsa onları yapmıyorum.	*I cannot have the students do the activities for the listening skills much. The listening activities in the textbook are appropriate for their proficiency level, but they can never do them in any way; they cannot understand. I cannot waste a lot of time; if there is an easy listening exercise they can do, I have them do it. When I see that it is difficult, for example, there is a question and answer like find the question of a particular response given. Or, if there are exercises that they have to understand and do as a whole, I do not perform them.*

As noted above, being selective was one of the distinctive features of teachers' planning knowledge. An interesting finding of this study was that the main

impetus on Snowdrop's instruction was catching the instruction in other classes, and she employed selectivity accordingly. During personal conversations, she mentioned her concern for the instruction in Marigold's classes, she stated: "*Nasıl yetişeceğim ona, sınava kadar bitirebilir miyim acaba sekizi [sekizinci üniteyi]?*" "*How am I going to catch up to the instruction in her classes? I wonder if I will be able to finish [unit] eight.*" (SC1, Classroom Field Note 13). I wanted to delve into the issue in the next classroom observation, so I mentioned to Snowdrop that Marigold started teaching theme nine in her classes. As she was still performing exercises in theme eight, she shared her plan and said, "*O yüzden ben atlaya atlaya geçeceğim.*" "*For this reason, I will skip some exercises.*" She further explained that she would perform the exercises she chose at a fast speed (MC2, Classroom Field Note 14).

Another perspective of the teachers' planning knowledge was observed only in Marigold's planning procedure, i.e., changing the flow of the exercises and tasks. Her teaching routine presented changing the order of the activities of a particular theme in the textbook. Concerning this, analysis of the data revealed that teachers' mindset influenced their planning for the instruction. How Marigold's mindset worked and how she made her decisions accordingly can be understood better in the following field note:

> Today, Marigold was in the teacher's room, and she was trying to plan her instruction for the new theme by reviewing the activities. She shared her comments while reviewing the exercises; she decided to start the unit with its heading: IN THE END, WE ONLY REGRET THE CHANCES WE DIDN'T TAKE (capital letters in original). She reviewed listening activities and decided to perform them later on. She looked at the vocabulary in reading texts and grammar structures in attention parts. Her impression was negative as a result of the linguistic review of the theme. For her, there were many unknown words in the reading texts, and they were difficult. She also recognized if clause mixed type as the grammar form, and she thought it would be very difficult for the students. She made up her mind, and she decided to start with the teaching of grammar structures. She planned to perform reading activities of the unit then; thereafter, she decided to practice listening activities.

> (Field Note, 10.04.2018 / Thursday)

As noted earlier in this chapter, the flow of the activities in the textbook was organized in such a way that listening activities were always presented before reading and grammar structures. Namely, in principle, the instructional material aimed at exposing students to the linguistic properties via listening activities first and then the reading activities. After that, the attention box was put to display sentences involving the linguistic structures (see section 4.1.2.4 The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11"). Quite the reverse, I observed in Marigold's classes that she performed listening activities toward the end of the theme. During personal conversations, she mentioned her rationale for performing listening activities after the reading and grammar activities were practiced, as: "*Listeningleri [dinleme egzersizlerini] sonra yapmak bana daha iyi oluyor gibi geliyor. En azından kalıpları kelimeleri öncesinde görmüş oluyorlar.*" "*I feel like performing listening activities after reviewing grammar and reading activities is better. At least, they become familiar with the language structures and vocabulary.*" (MC1, Classroom Field Note 13).

Under this category, analysis of the data disclosed personal practical knowledge teachers used in many ways. To clarify, the praxis typical for teachers in making their instructional decisions was applying for their personal practical knowledge. However, teachers' personal practical knowledge was not fixed; but instead, it was shaped by context-specific influences in their lives, such as their personal experiences and family background.

 To illustrate, Marigold explained the reason why she was teaching grammar structures in a traditional, isolated manner (i.e., focus on forms): "*Kendim böyle anladığım için hani daha anlaşılır olduğunu düşünüyorum, başka türlü grameri oyunlarla, şunlarla bunlarla öğrenilebileceğini düşünmüyorum.*" "*Because I learn [grammar] in this way, I think it is more comprehensible. I do not think that grammar structures can be learnt via games or some other ways.*" Her way of learning grammar shaped her instructional practice. Having difficulty in developing listening comprehension skills influenced Marigold's teaching of the

listening skill, as well. She put it this way: "*Farklı geliyor listening [dinleme becerisi], kendim öğretmen olarak da zaten zayıf olduğum bir nokta olduğu için çok da üstlerine gitmiyorum.*" "*Listening [as a skill] is different. Because I myself am weak in this skill as a teacher, I do not force students.*"

Given that practical experiences form one facet of teachers' personal practical knowledge, analysis of the field notes indicated that teachers applied for their previous practice to make their instructional decisions. Tulip frequently gave students to translate reading texts as homework. During personal conversations, I delved into the reason behind her practice. She mentioned a similar assignment in her freshman and sophomore classes; she was satisfied with the students' active participation in the upcoming lesson. She further defended assigning translation as: "*Öteki türlü olsa ben söylüyorum, ben zaten biliyorum; böyle hiç değilse kendileri yaparlar.*" "*Otherwise, I voice [the translation of the text]; I know this anyway; at least, they translate the text on their own in this way.*" She was dissatisfied with the low participation of the students in SC2. Grounding on her experience in the lower grades, she intended to increase students' active participation in this way (SC2, Classroom Field Note 5).

Likewise, Snowdrop made up her mind whether to perform a particular exercise or not as a result of her instructional practice in one class. In this regard, one of her junior year classes was the trial for her; when a particular exercise worked well, she decided to perform it in the other classes, as well. In a conversation following the lesson, she underlined that she would not perform the listening exercises she skipped in this lesson. On account of the fact that she tried to perform them in MC3, and she felt like it did not work (MC2, Classroom Field Note 8).

Perhaps one striking expression was made by Marigold, unclothing the profound impact of personal practical knowledge on teachers' instructional practices. During personal conversations, she accounted for her instructional practices as: "*Ben kitabın bu bölümlerini [öğretmen kitabında belirli bir egzersizle ilgili*

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verilen yönlendirmeler] hiç okumuyorum ki! Direk bildiğim gibi yapıyorum." "*I do never read the instructions given in the teacher's book! I do what I know.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 5). The teacher's book did not guide Marigold in planning her instructional practices, albeit designed for helping teachers. Instead, she preferred to organize her teaching only by examining the activities themselves. In this respect, her logic was the driving force behind her teaching practices.

Complementing field notes, analysis of the interviews revealed that similar to the personal practical knowledge, when necessary, teachers consulted their pedagogical content knowledge. In other words, teachers sometimes made use of their practical knowledge as well as pedagogical content knowledge when planning for their teaching, as can be seen in the following explanations made by Marigold:

Parça o kadar uzun ki çocuktan istediği etkinliği hani çocuk yaparken yukarıda dinlediğini unutuyordu, çok uzun olduğu için mesela elediklerim vardı. Bir de hani bazıları çok aksanlı konuşanları elediğim oldu. Çünkü diyorum ya yani ben bile anlamıyorum orada dediklerini, çocuklardan anlamasını bekleyemem.	*For example, I excluded some listening activities because the text was so long that the student forgot what he/she was listening to when he/she was doing the activity. Also, I have eliminated those [listening activities] involving accented speech in the recordings. As I say, even I, as a teacher, do not understand what they say there, I cannot expect the students to understand it.*

As noted above, Marigold mentioned her inefficiency in listening comprehension skills, which shaped her teaching of listening skills. Therefore, her personal practical knowledge guided the teacher in choosing a particular listening activity. Furthermore, her pedagogical content knowledge illuminated the teacher in making her decision on whether the content is suitable for her students' proficiency or not. Providing that the listening script was too long, she decided to skip the task considering students' lower proficiency level to follow the speech. In addition to the knowledge of tasks and cognitive demands displayed above, pedagogical content knowledge involves some other components like the

knowledge of instructional strategies, knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of educational ends, etc. In this regard, teachers were consulted to elaborate on the rationale behind their classroom-level practices, such as performing technology-integrated tasks (i.e., strongly recommended tasks in the curriculum). The way teachers performed these tasks in their classes deserves particular attention for the reason that they transformed the tasks, as Snowdrop underlined.

Classroom field notes showed that teachers sometimes disregarded using ICT tools to perform the task, or they assigned out-of-class assignments for performing the task with ICT tools at times. There was a strongly recommended task in the textbook, i.e., e-portfolio; students were required to prepare a travel brochure and share it on their blog. Though neglecting some crucial requirements of the task (i.e., displaying the product on a blog), Snowdrop explicated what she knew about teaching (i.e., pedagogical knowledge) and what she taught (i.e., subject-matter knowledge) as: "*Hatalar üstünde de çok durmadım. Hani önemli olan orada İngilizceyi kullanmak ve acaba nereleri hani merak ediyorlar ya da nereleri öneriyorlar onlarla ilgili fikir edinmekti.*" "*I did not focus on the errors much. The important thing about this activity was using English and getting an idea about what kind of places students were curious about or what kind of places they suggest.*" Since e-portfolio tasks were designed to perform written production in a meaningful way, she employed her pedagogical content knowledge by focusing on the content in the student's product; she was aware that producing something relevant to the content was more important than the minor linguistic errors.

Apart from the components of teacher knowledge reported above, contextual knowledge was also detected as a result of the analysis of the qualitative data. While contextual knowledge is identified as one facet of pedagogical content knowledge (see, e.g., Shulman, 1986), knowledge of the context of schooling can be examined as a distinct component. In this study, contextual knowledge referred to the teachers' knowledge of their teaching context, namely their students, their school, and the community. Concerning this, apathetic students

accepted as the norm in this school comprised one aspect of the teachers' knowledge of the teaching context, as Marigold underlined. She described her first impression of this situation when she started to work at this school:

Mesela bu okula ilk geldiğim zamanlar, çocuklar herkes kafasını kaldırsın ders işleyeceğiz diyorum, bir dakika o etki ediyor ondan sonra çocuk tekrar kafasını koyuyor, e baktım demek ki kural burada bu. Ya da bir dahaki ders geldiğimde yine yarısı uyuyor, mesela üç kişi ayağa kalkmıyor uyuyorum şeyiyle. Hani ona dayanarak ben de çocuklarla muhatap olmak istemediğim için başka tepki vermedim.	*For example, when I first started to work at this school, I announced to students that they should focus on the lesson because we would start the lesson. It lasted for one minute, and then they lay on their desks again. Then I recognized that this was the rule in this school. When I entered the following lesson after the break time, I observed that half of them lay on their desks again. For example, be it, three students, they did not stand up when I entered the class, and their excuse was that they were sleeping. Bearing on these experiences, as I did not want to have problems with students, I did not react in another way.*

Marigold put an end to her words as: "*Okuldaki hava böyle olmuş. Çocuk ana derslerinde yapıyorsa bunu İngilizce'de yapmaması anormal olur zaten.*" "*That has become a norm at the school. If a student behaves like this in his/her major area courses, it will be weird not to behave like this in English classes.*"

Besides, teachers referred to various aspects of their knowledge of students. Findings revealed teachers' shared knowledge about giving homework, performing group work tasks, and the students' proficiency level. First, all the three teachers cognized assigning homework as unnecessary due mainly to lack of belief in students' doing homework. For example, there was a task that required students to ask some questions to their grandparents in the workbook. Marigold decided to perform this task without assigning it as homework since she believed that few students would do the homework if she assigned it (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 2). Second, teachers displayed negative views about performing group work since they did not believe in the students to work in groups. Yet still, classroom observations showed somewhat difference; group

work tasks were observed, though few, only in Marigold's classes, which will be discussed later in this chapter.

Perhaps, the most remarkable knowledge was about students' language proficiency level; teachers perceived students' language proficiency level according to the familiar errors students made while producing the language. To illustrate, Snowdrop complained about mistakes her students still made as: "*Hala yes he do diyorlar, his/her ayırt edemiyorlar*" "*They still say yes he do, they cannot differentiate between his and her*" (Field Note, 27.02.2018 / Tuesday). More than that, the interview data analysis presented that students' lower proficiency level was conceived as the reason why speaking activities were not performed. An excerpt from the interview with Snowdrop complements those arguments:

Yani direk ben şunla ilgili birkaç cümle kurun hadi size bir iki dakika veriyorum dediğimde zaten bir sonuç çıkmıyor, çünkü o hızda değiller yani düşündüklerini o hızda hemen İngilizce dökebilecek hızda değiller, seviyelerinden dolayı bir anda doğaçlama speaking [konuşma] yapabilecek durumda değiller.	*When I announce that I give them a few minutes, require them to make a few sentences about a topic, there is no result anyway because they are not at that speed. So, they are not fast enough to say what they think in English at the same time. Because of their lower proficiency level, they are not capable of spontaneous speech.*

Unlike other teachers, Snowdrop thought that students were not able to do the activities without their smartphones (i.e., using translation apps and/or online dictionaries). During a personal conversation about students' intense use of smartphones in her classes, she explained the matter as "*Telefon olmadan yapamıyorlar ki görüyorsun.*" "*You see, they cannot perform the activities without smartphones.*" (SC1, Classroom Field Note 9). How this view was reflected in her classes, and as a result, how the language learning experiences of the students were realized will be discussed in detail later within this theme.

An interesting finding of this study is that the way foreign language classes were treated in other high schools exerted influence on the participants' instructional

perceptions and practices. This finding lent support for the impact of conceptions and perceptions emerging outside of the school on the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy. In a conversation about a task within the textbook requiring students to make a poster presentation, Marigold expressed that it was unnecessary for the junior year students. She went on her speech and mentioned another high school located in a different province of Turkey; her nephew was a high school student there, and she learnt that the students in that school achieved success from EFL classes without receiving any instruction; that is, students were free in EFL classes. Becoming aware of the way EFL was treated in a different institution affected her negatively. And she explained her decision as: "*Yani biz burada boşu boşuna uğraşıyoruz, o yüzden ben de basit basit kalıpları verip geçeceğim.*" "*I mean, what we do herein is in vain; for this reason, I will teach the language structures simply, and then I will move on.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 5).

Apart from all the teacher knowledge components reviewed above, a lack of language methodology knowledge was discovered. Only Marigold admitted her inefficiency in two areas as teaching linguistic forms the way it was desired in the textbook, as well as monitoring students in speaking and listening activities. In this regard, she frankly shared her deficiency as followed:

Ya açıkçası benim de bunda çok fazla tecrübem yok hani speakingte [konuşma aktivitelerinde] çocuğu daha fazla nasıl katarım, ya da listeningte [dinleme aktivitelerinde] çocuğu daha fazla nasıl katarım. Bu da benim eksikliğim bence, gerçekten benim eksikliğim. Yani ne yapabilirim bilmiyorum.	*Well, frankly speaking, I do not have much experience in this either. I mean, how do I engage the students more in the speaking activities, or how can I engage them in the listening activities. I think this is my deficiency, and really it is my deficiency. I do not know what I can do.*

Complementing results gained from the interviews, field notes illuminated another aspect Marigold expressed. In a conversation about teaching language structures, Marigold stated that she was aware of the requirement in the textbook; that is, the linguistic forms must be studied after the listening and

reading activities. She continued her explanation by showing an exercise for the linguistic forms "*past modals*" in the textbook; it was designed in such a way that students should read the situations under each picture and write sentences as in the example. She was not sure whether the students could perform the exercise without teaching them the linguistic structures. She further commented that if there was a way to do so, she did not know how to do it (Field Note, 27.02.2018 / Tuesday).

One last aspect of teachers' knowledge involved a sort of principle in terms of their classroom level practices. All the teachers mentioned that they elicited answers only from the volunteers. According to Snowdrop, forcing students to participate in the lesson was useless. She elaborated her logic as: "*Hani benim derdim isteyenler yapsın, isteyenler dinlesin, istemeyenler de dersin düzenini bozmasın.*" "*My concern is those who want should participate in the lesson, yet those who do not want to do so must not interrupt the lesson.*"

Addressing similar points, Marigold admitted low student engagement in her classes. She felt herself in need of ignoring the disengaged students due to the lack of sanctions imposed on disinterested students in this school. Bearing on this view, she explained her classroom-level instruction as: "*Hani işleyen öğrencilerle beş kişiyse beş kişi, üç kişiyse üç kişi, konuyu verip geçiyorum.*" "*The students who are engaged in the lesson, be it five or three students, I teach the subject and move on.*" Analysis of the observation of classes yielded similar findings with the arguments mentioned hereof. To clarify, the silence of EFL classes was denoted much in the classroom field notes; almost one-third of the students were apathetic. The matter of apathetic students, as well as low student engagement, will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

In brief, teachers performed their teaching in EFL classes grounding on all sorts of knowledge presented above. They sometimes presented something desired in terms of language teaching. Yet, sometimes they displayed sorts of teaching

practices that were not preferred so long as current language teaching approaches and methods are considered.

4.2.3.2. Teachers' Instructional Practices

Instructional practices displayed characteristics of teachers' language teaching practices in EFL classes. At its simplest, classroom-level language teaching practices comprised the study of grammar as well as reading activities and speaking at times, as Marigold stated. An in-depth analysis of the data revealed teachers' instructional practices in two directions: at one end of the continuum were the effective teaching practices at the other were ineffective teaching practices.

4.2.3.2.1. Effective Teaching Practices

As its name suggests, effective teaching practices involved teachers' instructional practices, which were desired like praising students, monitoring student learning, and so on. At a broader level, these teaching practices led to positive language learning experiences. Table 34 below shows the list of effective teaching practices detected in EFL classes.

Table 34. Effective Teaching Practices

Item	Code
1	Instructional scaffolding
2	Instructional support
3	Teacher help-giving
4	Preparing for class
5	Encouraging student participation
6	Praising students
7	Monitoring student learning
8	Motivating students

Among the teaching practices desired, instructional scaffolding was concerned with the way teachers guided the students to perform a task. They simplified the

task according to the students' proficiency level to help them perform the task; they provided some information, but they did not give the full answer. Simplification, as defined by the teachers, was the main element that teachers employed regarding instructional scaffolding. The participants were asked to clarify how they simplified classroom-level tasks during instruction. They denoted providing a list of vocabulary to fill in the blanks when it was not given and posing extra questions to help students comprehend a discussion question or a reading text better. Marigold explained how she performed discussion time activities by noting that she formulated multiple questions from a single discussion question given, also she stated posing supplementary questions.

Classroom observations disclosed the use of simplification in a reading exercise in several instances. In the textbook, a particular reading activity appeared sometimes; students were required to read the text first, and then a summary of the text was given with blanks. After that, students were required to complete the summary with a word from the text. The challenge for the students was to find a suitable word from the text on their own. Analysis of the classroom field notes yielded that teachers provided the list of words students needed to fill in the blanks (SC2, Classroom Field Note 12; MC1, Classroom Field Note 14). In one incident, Marigold even reviewed L1 equivalents of these words after she wrote them as a list on the board (SSC1, Classroom Field Notes 13). Supporting those field notes, an excerpt from the interview with Snowdrop illuminates the process better:

Onu da ben şey olarak çözdüm olayı. Yani hani kelimeleri karışık olarak verdim. Onlara normal kelime yerleştirmeymiş gibi oldu. Onlar da özet kısmına o kelimeleri yerleştirdiler. Parçada çok anlamadıkları olayı, özette ben açıklamalarını istediğim için daha doğrusu, özette de en azından konuyu anlamış oldular, o özet kısmındaki bölümde.

I solved the issue like this; I provided the words in jumbled, it became like a fill-in-the-blank activity. Then they put these words into the blanks within the summary. Because I wanted them to explain what they understood from the summary, they could at least comprehend it in this summary section, although they did not figure out the content of the text.

Unlike other participants, Marigold performed scaffolding for the study of listening skills, as well. As aforementioned, Marigold expressed her inefficiency in the area of listening skills. Perceiving herself incapable of listening skills in EFL led her to cognize that the listening exercises might be difficult for the students. In one incident, Marigold wrote a few keywords on the board while the students were listening to the recording for the first time (see Photo 1), and then she posed some comprehension questions to the students by using these phrases and keywords (see Photo 2) (MC1, Classroom Field Note 16). During personal conversations after the lesson, she explained the reason why she formulated those keywords and questions; she thought the students might benefit from the keywords written on the board, they might look at the board, and the words might help them to understand the recording better (Field Note, 27.04.18 / Friday).
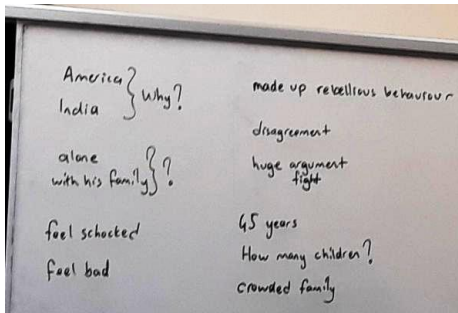
Photo 1
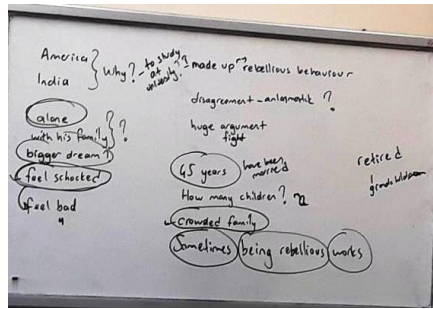
Photo 2

Figure 11. Photos of Sample Instructional Scaffolding Practice in the Classroom

Complementing field notes, Marigold exemplified her listening class reported above in response to the question posed to the teachers about how they taught listening skills in their classes. She was satisfied with her practice because she described her lesson as the easiest listening class for her. Marigold further explicated her classroom practice as followed:

Zor bir parçaydı, dinlemesi zordu. Ben öncesinde kendim dinleyerek yapmıştım. Önemli kelimeler, orada geçecek kelimeler, hani onların anlamalarını sağlayacak

The script was challenging, and it was hard to listen to. I myself listened to the recording beforehand. I listed the important words that would be necessary for the activity; I mean the words that would help them understand the script.

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kelimeleri çıkarttım, onları tahtaya yazdım. Bir de olayları böyle dinledikçe hani bulmalarını istemiştim. Sonra onları sıraladıkça anlamaları kolaylaşmıştı. Ya da sorular yazmıştım tahtaya. O sorulara cevap ararken zaten parçayı az buçuk anlamışlardı. Daha da kolaylarına gelmişti.	*And I wrote those words on the board. Also, I wanted them to find out the events as they listened to the recording. After that, as we put the events in order, it became easier for them to understand it. Or, I wrote questions on the board. While they were looking for the answers to these questions, they could, by and large, comprehend the script anyway. It became easier for them.*

As seen above, teachers attempted to scaffold students via providing a list of vocabulary in jumbled to fill in the blanks, using keywords and phrases, and posing complementary questions. What has deserved attention in Marigold's scaffolding practice was her preparation for class. Accordingly, preparing for the class was detected among the desired practices under this category. As the analysis of the field notes yielded, teachers prepared for their classes either during the break time before the class or during wait time allocated for students to perform an exercise. Different than the other participants, Tulip did never display any preparation for her classes; quite the reverse, she honestly admitted that she did not prepare for her classes, which will be discussed in the following section, "Ineffective Teaching Practices" under this theme.

I usually observed Marigold reviewing the textbook before her classes in the teachers' room. She either took note of the answers for a particular exercise or reviewed the exercises, i.e., she chose some, she decided to skip some, she also decided to transform some of them. For example, she planned to perform a reading activity in her upcoming lesson; she was listing the unknown words inside the text as part of her preparation in one incident (Field Note, 20.03.18 / Tuesday). While Marigold prepared her classes either during the break time or at home, Snowdrop mentioned that she used the wait time to prepare for the next lesson. Or, put it another way, I usually noticed her reviewing the textbook while she was waiting for the students to perform a particular activity. The data of the interview with Snowdrop verified this observation. She responded to the question about what she did while the students were dealing with a particular task as followed:

Ben bekliyorum, hani genel olarak şeyi planlamaya çalışıyorum ben, ya işte hani tekrar parçaya bakıyorum, soruları kontrol ediyorum falan. Eğer o işleri daha önceden yaptıysam, hani başka bir sınıfta yaptıysam falan, sonrasına hep bakıyorum, hep bir ileriye bakıyorum. Yani bir sonraki derste ne olacak, bir sonraki derste neye bakacağım falan diye. O vakitleri öyle değerlendiriyorum. Sürekli ileriki konularda ne gelecek, ne yapacağım, neyi ne zaman yapacağım şeklinde.

I am waiting for the students. In general, I am trying to plan; for example, I examine the text again, check the questions, etc. If I have completed this stuff beforehand, for instance, in another class, I always examine the upcoming exercises, and I look at what is next. I mean, what will happen in the next lesson, what I am going to do, etc. I spend this time [waiting time] like this. It is always like what will the following themes be, what will I teach, when will I teach them.

As one other desired practice, instructional support was specifically related to teacher-student interaction; it referred to the assistance teachers provided the students to perform a task and the feedback they provided their performance to help them gain the skills and learn the subject matter better. The analysis of the classroom field notes generated findings for the way teachers supported students in the course of performing a particular exercise. Teachers checked students' work and explained the mistakes, if any, to help students correct their errors. To illustrate, there was a meaningful practice exercise in the textbook; students were required to look at the pictures and write sentences using the prompts given. S30 and S31 from the social sciences field of study made the second sentence in the exercise (i.e., If he had taken care of his teeth, he wouldn't be at the dentist now.) they showed it to the teacher whether it was correct. How Marigold supported the student is presented in the conversation below:

Marigold: *Dişlerine bakmasaydı, dişçide olmazdı; dişlerine baksaydı, dişçide olmazdı.*
S30: *İkinci söylediğiniz.*
Marigold: *Hangisi olumlu, hangisi olumsuz?*
S30: *İkincisi olumsuz, birincisi olumlu olacak.*
Marigold: *Ona göre yap.*

Marigold: *If he hadn't taken care of his teeth, he wouldn't be at the dentist; If he had taken care of his teeth, he wouldn't be at the dentist.*
S30: *The second one.*
Marigold: *Which one is positive, which one is negative?*
S30: *The second one is negative, the first one is positive.*
Marigold: *Do it like that.*

(SSC1, Classroom Field Note 14)

As seen in the conversation above, the teacher did not provide the correct answer, and she did not correct the mistakes either; instead, she posed questions to clarify the difference between the meaning of the sentence students made with the actual sentence. Interviews with the students yielded a similar finding, as well. S4 shared one of his experiences when he misunderstood how to perform an activity. In this instance, he needed to match the pictures with the texts, yet he did not pay attention to the pictures; he only focused on the texts. He recognized his mistake when a peer warned him. He explained how the teacher helped him in this incidence as: "*Yanıma gelip bir daha anlattı etkinliğin nasıl olacağını, bir cümle örnek verdi, nasıl yapacağımı açıkladı.*" "*The teacher came near me, and she told me how the task should have been performed once again; she gave an example, she explained how to do it*." Similarly, S6 underlined the feedback she received when she made mistakes in her sentences. She mentioned that she made mistakes in making sentences with the language structure "*used to.*" Namely, what she did today and what she did in the past was reversed in her sentences. When the teacher controlled her sentences, S6 denoted that Tulip dictated the correct form of the sentence by making explanations such as the word order.

Another argument emphasized by the participants was about help-giving behavior. As predicted, there must be a help-seeking behavior presented by the students to observe teacher help-giving. Observation of classes indicated that the students asked a certain word or a past participle form of a verb to the teacher during an activity, and teachers almost always responded to them. In these instances, the students needed help, but not to perform the whole task, they needed help to move on when they cannot. The students knew what they should do, and they were also on their way to do so, yet when they were confused and sought help from the teacher, the teacher provided the help. An excerpt from the interview with Marigold unclothed on which conditions and how teachers performed help-giving behaviour as:

Sınıfı dolaşıp kontrol ediyorum çünkü bana soracakları çok fazla soru oluyor. İşte burada hangi	*I walked around the class and checked students' work because they had too many questions to ask me. I mean what*

kelimeyi kullanacağım, böyle demek istiyorum bunu neyle ifade edeyim, sözlükten kelime buluyorlar burada bu kullanılır mı? İşte beş altı tane karşılığı oluyor ya, oradan hangisini kullanalım tarzında çok soru geldiği için hani ben de dolaşarak onları düzeltmeye çalışıyordum.

word to use herein, how I can express it. They found words from the dictionary and asked if they were used in the sentence. You know there are five or six different meanings of a word. Because they asked many questions like which word to use, I tried to correct their errors by walking around the classroom.

Supporting her arguments, the analysis of the field notes showed that teachers walked around the classroom while they were waiting for the students to perform the activity. And they responded to students' questions one by one. In one incident, there was a meaningful practice exercise in the workbook, which required students to read the predictions and rewrite them by using the prompts given. While the students were performing the activity, they continuously asked questions to Tulip; for example, a student wanted the teacher to confirm if the past participle form of the verb "*forget*" was forgot or forgotten, Tulip replied to the student that "*forgotten*" was the correct form (SC2, Classroom Field Note, 10). In another incident, a student asked the meaning of "*could,*" Snowdrop explained its meaning in Turkish (MC2, Classroom Field Note 7). Supporting those field notes, Snowdrop marked that she helped students when they wanted during discussion time activities.

In addition to the above-mentioned practices, encouraging student participation, monitoring student learning, as well as praising and motivating students were among the other teaching practices that were welcoming. Among the classroom practices, encouraging student participation might be seen as one aspect of teacher effort. In this respect, teachers displayed a sort of effort to keep students engaged in their class, as students interpreted. One student (S6) noted that Tulip encouraged them to participate in speaking activities performed during the lesson. Another student (S3) shared how Marigold stimulated them for speaking when she first started to teach English in their class as: "*Öğretmen ilk geldiğinde şey demişti İngilizce bilmeseniz bile hafif hafif cümleleri, kelimeleri toparlayarak konuşmaya çalışın.*" "*When the teacher first started teaching, she recommended that even if we had not known English, we should have tried to speak a little by*

putting together sentences and words." She further shared the positive effect of this expression on her as: "*Onu söyledikten sonra işte bir cesaret geldi bana, nasıl geldi bilmiyorum, İngilizce konuşmaya başladım.*" "*After she said this, I took courage, I do not know how, I started to speak English.*"

While encouraging student participation, what was remarkable that teachers disregarded high proficiency students; instead, they attempted to encourage lower proficiency ones to participate in the activities, as one high proficiency student (S8) put it: "*Yani beni kaldırmamaya, beni arka plana atıyor, ilk önce sınıftaki arkadaşlarımın öğrenmesini ve derse katılmasını istiyor. Sınıfta katılan olmadığı zaman mecburen beni kaldırıyor.*" "*I mean she disregards me; she wants my classmates first to learn and participate in the lesson. When there is no one participating in the lesson, she becomes obliged to elicit the answer from me.*"

In support of this claim, the analysis of field notes displayed that Marigold was concerned with the active participation of lower proficiency students at times. As discussed previously in this chapter, the classroom dynamics in SSC1 constituted a contextual challenge, especially for the EFL class; half of the students were from the foreign language field of study, and the other half were from the social sciences field of study students. The following classroom field note presents Marigold's effort to elicit answers from the students in the social sciences field of study:

> In this lesson, there was a grammar instruction for the passive voice. During the grammar instruction, Marigold encouraged the students from the social sciences field of study to translate the active sentences she said in Turkish (e.g., *Atatürk founded Turkish Republic*). She also encouraged only these students to make the passive form of the active L2 sentences written on the board. A few students from the foreign language field of study put their hands up both to translate and to make the passive form of the sentences, but they were not recognized. For example, a few students from the foreign language field of study volunteered to make the passive form of the sentence, "*Atatürk founded Turkish Republic,*" together with S32 from the social sciences field of study. S32 was recognized and made the passive form correctly.

(SSC1, Classroom Field Note 12)

Given that the students from the foreign language field of study were more competent in the grammar structure "*passive voice*," Marigold attempted to receive feedback from another group of students, i.e., those from the social sciences field of study. Such an attempt positively reflected in the lower proficiency students from the social sciences field of study, which will be discussed later in this section under the category "Students' Language Learning Experiences."

Concerning monitoring student learning, teachers generally provided clues and further explanations on how to do the exercise; they explained the steps to do a particular exercise. The interesting point was that they usually monitored the students either in sentence-level production or in sentence-level translation. And the way they monitored the students was usually sort of lecturing. For example, Marigold monitored the students in a translation activity in which they translate a sentence within a reading text from L2 to L1, and she said, "*Çocuklar bir cümle çevireceğim diye uğraşmayın, iki cümle de yapabilirsiniz.*" "*Do not force yourself to translate as a single sentence; you can translate it by making two sentences, as well.*" (MC1, Classroom Field Note 14). Besides, the following field note shows how Snowdrop lectured a student in a sentence-level language production; she talked seriously to criticize the student's dependence on the translation apps:

> In this lesson, students performed an in-class performance-based assessment task; there was an exercise in the workbook that students needed to complete the sentences with their own words. The female students in the front row used the translation program to do the exercise. During personal conversations with these students, the teacher participated in the conversation and cautioned them not to use the translation program. The student complained that she could not do otherwise as: "*Hocam ama yapamıyorum başka türlü.*" "*Hocam, I cannot perform the exercise otherwise.*" In response, the teacher explained how to do the exercise without the translation apps as: "*Konuyu anlattık, kalıbı koyacaksın önüne baka baka yapacaksın. Sadece söylemek istediğin kelimeye bak.*" "*We have reviewed the grammar structure; you should check the structure and then make the sentences accordingly. Look up the words you want to use in your sentences only.*"

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 16)

Supporting those field notes, Snowdrop explicated how she monitored students to produce their sentences by using translation apps. She was dissatisfied with the students' use of translation apps in the manner that they wrote their sentence in L1 and expected the program to translate it. She explicated how she monitored students as: "*Bak şu kelimeyi biliyor musun onun anlamına bak, ondan sonrasında evet bunu söyledikten sonra bu cümle sana ne çağrıştırıyor diye biraz daha onu göstermeye çalışıyorum.*" "*Look, do you know the meaning of this word? Look up its meaning. After you say this [word/phrase], what do you associate this sentence with? I try to guide students in this way.*"

Praising and motivating students are among the most well-known characteristics of a teacher. These manners were detected in EFL classes in such a way that Snowdrop almost always praised students just after the answer was elicited. For her, expressing positive remarks became a habit in speech; she elicited the answer, positively reinforced the student, and moved the next exercise, as shown in the following example:

> Volunteer students who were chosen read aloud the main idea and yelled the L1 translation of it. The teacher praised the student as: "*OK Good*" after the correct answer was given and moved on to the subsequent exercise.

> (MC2, Classroom Field Note 14)

As might be expected from Tulip, she praised the students via L1 phrases such as "*Aferin,*" "*Well done,*" and she sometimes commented positively as part of positive reinforcement: "*Ne denir ki!*" "*What to say!*" Similar to praising students and encouraging student participation, Snowdrop also defined how she motivated her students as followed:

Yani biraz daha böyle şey benim tarzım, böyle dersle ilgili materyal değil çünkü ona çokta vakit ayıramıyorum açıkçası çokta onu alacak öğrenci değil. Benim motivasyon kazandırmam biraz daha böyle öğrencilere iyi davranmak üzerine kurulu. Hani daha böyle güler yüzlü	*My style is like this; it is not about [preparing] materials related to the lesson because, frankly speaking, I cannot spare much time for it. The way I motivate students is based on behaving well-mannered toward*

davranma, işte onlarla konuşmak sohbet etmek ya da işte onları hani ciddiye almak üzerine kurulu bir motivasyonum var. Yani bu oluyormuş gibi geliyor, hani tamamen öğrencilerle özel ilişkimden dolayı, kimi öğrenci seviyor, kimi öğrenci sevmiyor tabii doğal olarak, hani benim o tarzımı seven öğrencilere motivasyon kazandırmış gibi oluyorum.	*them. I mean, it is like being friendly, having a conversation with them, or taking them seriously. I feel like this; it is totally based on my sincere relationship with the students. Some students like it, while some students do not. It is like I motivate the students who like my style.*

To wrap-up the discussion so far in this section, analysis of the qualitative data generated various classroom-level practices teachers performed, which were reported as part of effective teaching practices. Quite the reverse, findings yielded some practices which were not desired, and they were reported in the section below.

4.2.3.2.2. Ineffective Teaching Practices

Classroom level realization of the instructional policy revealed a few problems in terms of teachers' language teaching practices compared to effective teaching practices. The analysis of the data showed that ineffective teaching practices for teaching EFL include: pseudo-study of speaking, lack of instructional planning, lack of instructional guidance, translation mediated instruction, lack of response to student needs, covering the coursebook, and using L1 for communicative competence. Table 35 presents these results.

Table 35. Ineffective Teaching Practices

Item	Code
1	Pseudo-study of speaking
2	Using L1 for communicative competence
3	Lack of instructional planning
4	Covering the coursebook
5	Lack of instructional guidance
	-Skipping the task
6	Lack of response to student needs
7	Translation-mediated instruction
8	Teacher's permission

Regarding pseudo-study of speaking, classroom field notes indicated that some communicative tasks and exercises in the coursebook (see section 4.1.2.4 The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11") were practiced in EFL classes. Yet, the way they were performed did not generate a real communicative production. Rather, students mainly performed sentence-level writing in these communicative tasks, as was defined by Snowdrop:

Speaking [konuşma] kısımlarını da ben writingmiş [yazma] gibi yapıyorum. Düşünüyorlar, işte sözlükten yardım alıyorlar, cümlelerini yazıyorlar, toparlıyorlar, sonra onları bana aktarıyorlar o yüzden. Aslında speaking [konuşma] kısmı o yani, yazdıklarını okuyorlar.	*I practice speaking activities as if they were writing activities in my instruction. The students think of their answers, use dictionaries, write down their sentences, organize their answers, and read aloud their answers to me. The speaking part, in essence, is like that; they read aloud what they write.*

In support of this view, the analysis of the classroom field notes revealed the students writing sentences and then reading aloud their answers as part of communicative practice. It is of particular to point out herein the main aim of discussion time activities; providing students with an opportunity to practice communication and develop critical thinking skills. Though these activities were performed in EFL classes, the way they were practiced did not result in the communicative practice, as shown in the following field note:

> In this lesson, a discussion time activity was performed. Snowdrop instructed the students to answer the questions given. A few students did the exercise. Almost all worked individually, and they used translation apps to understand and answer the questions, and then they wrote answers to the questions. The teacher waited for a while for the students to answer the questions, and then she elicited the answers from the volunteers. A few students volunteered and read aloud the answers they wrote to the discussion time questions.

> (MC2, Classroom Field Note 9)

Similar to the discussion time activities, there were a few quotes given to provide students with an opportunity to share their opinions. Complementing the field note above, Marigold performed such activities in the same manner. In the

textbook, there was a statement (i.e., *Choose a job you love, and you will never have to work a day in your life, Confucius*), students were required to read it and then express their views they agree or disagree with. Regarding the classroom-level practice of Marigold, she started by reading aloud the statement and asking students the L1 meaning of it. Few students yelled the meaning. Marigold repeated the L1 meaning the students said, and then she required the students to write their opinions with reasons. Students started to write their arguments, and they worked individually. S26 was among the first who finished the exercise, and the teacher required her to read aloud her writing. Then the lesson was finished (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 3).

As is seen in the field notes above, apart from performing writing as part of speaking practice, students worked individually. Supporting those field notes, the students explained their speaking experiences, referring to the written practice in response to how they performed speaking activities in EFL classes. The following excerpts illustrate this point:

Konuşma aktivitelerini yine kitaptan giderken orada bir bölüm oluyordu. Şunu anlatın mesela bir olayı, herhangi bir olay, işte onu anlatarak kendi kafamızdan bir şeyler yazıyorduk. En az mesela, diyordu ki öğretmenimiz, beş cümle yazın, bununla ilgili fikirlerinizi falan paylaşınız diye. (S2)

While we were performing the exercises in the textbook, there was a part for speaking activities in it. For example, talk about an event, anything particular. We used to write about it by creating something in our minds. Our teacher told us, for example, to write at least five sentences, and share our ideas about it, and so on. (S2)

[Konuşma aktivitelerinde] İlk önce biz konuyu belirliyoruz. Mesela konu işte çocukluk arkadaşlarımız olsun, bunun hakkında hoca bize diyordu ki mesela kim ister yazsın, zaman veriyorum, kim ister İngilizce konuşsun, [isteyen yazsın zaman veriyorum, isteyen İngilizce anlatsın]. Ben mesela genelde yazardım arkadaşlar konuşana kadar. Bazıları anlatıyordu tek tek böyle el kaldırırlardı. Bazıları anlatana kadar ben mesela bitirirdim. Hocam okuyayım derdim, hoca derdi ki oku. (S6)

[In speaking activities] First of all, we choose the topic. For example, the topic is our childhood friends. The teacher then informed us; for instance, she said, "I give you time; you either write about it or speak if you want." I usually wrote down my ideas while my friends were sharing their views. They raised their hand [to participate in the discussion], and they talked about the topic. Until some classmates talked about the topic, I completed writing down my views. Then, I asked the teacher's permission to read it aloud, and the teacher confirmed. (S6)

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Another domain inhibiting the development of communicative skills in EFL classes was the participants' mother tongue, i.e., using L1 for communicative competence. Since L1 was the main medium for instruction in EFL classes, teachers preferred using L1 in the teaching of communicative tasks and activities, as well. To illustrate, there were particular expressions (e.g., idioms/proverbs) to help students gain communicative competence, yet these expressions were always studied via their L1 meaning. One student (S5) put it this way: "*Metnin içinde geçtiği zaman asıl ne anlama geldiğini söyledik ve geçtik.*" "*When we encountered the idiom in the text, we learned its meaning, and then we moved on to the next exercise.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note, 14). The field note below verifies this claim:

> In this lesson, reading activities were performed. There was an idiom presented in the first paragraph of the reading text. During the reading activity, Marigold specifically emphasized the idiom (i.e., *don't miss the boat*). She asked what it meant to the students, and students answered its L1 equivalent as: "*Botu kaçırma.*" "*Don't miss the boat.*" In response, the teacher asked: "*Bu hani bindiğimiz bot değil mi?*" "*That is the boat we know, right?*" After the text was studied, the teacher required the students to reread the paragraph and choose the meaning for the idiom. S8 immediately yelled, "*A [ilk seçenek] anlamı oluyor, böyle bir fırsatı kaçırma diyor.*" "*The answer is A [the first option]; it says, do not fail to take advantage of such an opportunity.*" The teacher said, "*Gerçek anlamının dışında kullanıyor değil mi?*" "*It is used without its literal meaning, right?*"

(MC1, Classroom Field Note 13)

One of the most critical findings of this study was how some aspects of communicative competence (e.g., strategic competence, discourse competence) were treated in EFL classes. As was reported in the analysis of the textbook (see section 4.1.2.4 The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11"), there were meaningful practice exercises which were designed for practicing linguistic properties (i.e., grammar). Some visuals were given herein to help students understand in which context the language structure should be used appropriately. On the other hand, the classroom-level practice of such exercises indicated a sort of ineffective practice

for the achievement of discourse competence, as shown in the following field note:

> In this lesson, the activity in the attention part was performed; students were required to look at the pictures and guess what might / must / cannot have happened in them using the prompts in parentheses (see the visual below).

Figure 12. Sample Meaningful Practice Exercise. From Akgedik-Can, M., & Atcan-Altan, N. (2017). *Sunshine English 11 student's book*, p. 145.

> As is seen in the photo above, there were three items involving different visuals. In this exercise, Marigold posed questions to the students before eliciting the answers; the questions were about the pictures given, and they were in L1; for example, she said, "*Kızın elinde bir tane karne var, bütün derslerden geçmiş olmalı değil* mi? *Bütün derslerden geçmiş olmalı nasıl derim?*" "*The girl has a report card in her hand; she must have passed all her classes, right? How do I say she must have passed all her classes?*" to elicit an answer for the second sentence in the exercise above. The last one in the exercise was "*misbehave at school,*" and the sentence was to be made with the language structure "*might have done.*" The teacher took the students' attention to the picture, and she explained the reason why "*might have done*" was used as: "*Fotoğrafta okulda da* böyle *davrandığını göstermiyor.*" "*In the photo, it does not show that he behaves like that at school, as well.*"
>
> (MC1, Classroom Field Note 10)

Lack of instructional planning as one domain of ineffective teaching practices referred to the lessons conducted without effective planning; sometimes the lesson was finished very early, sometimes talking about matters out of lesson caused to lose time. Therefore, lack of instructional planning displayed classroom-level practices of the teachers that were not planned before the lesson, which also indicated ineffective time management. In this regard, one student put it this way:

Ya metni komple çevirmiş ve bitirmiş oluyoruz, çünkü zamanımız buna yetiyor, ya da işte metnin yarısında kalıyor. Ya da metin kısaysa diyelim ki soruların yarısında falan kalmış oluyoruz. Yani hiçbir etkinliği tam anlamıyla bitirdiğimizi ben hatırlamıyorum.	*We either translate the text completely, so finish the translation because our time for the lesson is enough only for this, or we stop halfway through [the translation of] the text. Or, if the text is short, then we stop halfway through the [comprehension] questions. I mean, I do not remember that we finished any activity completely.*

The analysis of classroom observations and conversation with teachers yielded similar findings to the argument mentioned above. To clarify, Snowdrop expressed her comments about the exercise she performed during the lesson in the conversation after her class. In the textbook, there was a sort of reading activity; it was designed in such a way that it provided students to learn how to use monolingual dictionaries (e.g., what do abbreviations such as "ADJ" referred to, what do dictionary entries meant, etc.). For her, these activities were nonsense, she went on her explanation, and she said, "*Bir an başlamış bulundum [egzersizi yapmaya], ne yapacağımı da bilemedim, bari aman yapsınlar dedim.*" "*I started [to practice the exercise] for a moment, I could not decide what to do, and then I said let them do it.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 2).

In another class, Tulip required the students to write about their hobbies and skills. Just after she had elicited the answer from a student, she posed further questions about the writing. For example, a student mentioned listening to music as a hobby, and the teacher asked: "*What kind of music do you listen?*" However, the students generally responded in L1. Tulip did never caution the students to

speak L2, rather she also switched to Turkish, and the conversation went on about things such as doing sport, sports centers in the province, etc., in Turkish (SC2, Classroom Field Note 4).

The remarkable point was that Snowdrop and Tulip admitted lack of preparation for their classes; besides, Tulip was not dissatisfied with the situation as she said: "*Ben hiç hazırlanmadan giriyorum, işte oluyor bence.*" "*I teach my classes without preparation, I think there is no problem.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 13). As for Snowdrop, she shared one of her negative experiences that happened in another class due to the fact that she was not aware of what to be taught during the unit as followed:

> In the attention part of the textbook, there was an activity that required students to read the paragraph given and rewrite it using passive forms where necessary. Snowdrop mentioned her experience in another class (MC3). She thought not to review making active sentences passive in the exam. For this reason, she took students' attention to the structure only and then started to do the exercises in the attention part. Nevertheless, she recognized an exercise that required making the passive form of the active sentences. She said on her own, "*Allaah!*" "*Oh, God!*" She smiled and said that the class which she instructed the first became the trial lesson, as she did not examine the exercises beforehand: "*Tabii ben sadece o anda baktığım için ilk sınıf artık deneme oluyor. Tutarsa diğerlerinde de devam.*" "*Since I only review the exercises the moment I teach them, the first class in which I teach the subject becomes a trial. If it works, I keep on doing the same exercise in other classes, as well.*"
>
> (MC2, Classroom Field Note 12)

Besides, making instant decisions for instruction was something typical for Snowdrop. For instance, in one of her classes, she recognized that it was not possible to teach new subjects before the exam, so she decided to perform an in-class performance-based assessment, and she put it this way: "*Baktım ilerleyemeyeceğim daha fazla, bu dönem hiç yapmamıştım, performans yapayım dedim.*" "*I have recognized that I would not move on to the instruction more, so I decided to perform an in-class performance-based assessment task since I had never done it during the semester.*"(MC2, Classroom Field Note 10).

Covering the coursebook was one characteristic of the teachers' instruction. It referred to teachers' planning and organization of their lessons, especially for teaching the grammar items, according to the textbook only. They taught something (i.e., a linguistic form) only because it was in the textbook. This aspect can be understood from an expression Tulip said, "*Kitapta varsa ben veriyorum, atlamıyorum*," "*I teach if it is in the textbook, I do not skip*" in a conversation about the language structures (i.e., perfect modal) reviewed in the textbook. Marigold asked other colleagues' views about teaching these structures since she thought that these were too difficult for the students. Although Snowdrop wanted to skip these grammar structures, Tulip did not accept the suggestion. Consequently, the decision became to teach these language structures (Field Note, 14.02.2018 / Wednesday).

Moreover, Marigold mentioned a similar situation in the interview; she taught the linguistic forms "prefer and would rather" in one of her classes. Yet, the students complained about reviewing these items since they had already learned them previously. Marigold mentioned responding to students as: "*Çocuklar yapacak bir şey yok, kitapta bu konuyu vermiş.*" "*There is nothing to do; the textbook involves this structure.*" She further clarified her argument as: *"Hani müfredatta olduğu için mecbur veriyoruz."* "*Since it is in the curriculum, we are forced to teach it.*"

As reported above, direct instructional guidance was one step teachers followed in their flow of the lesson (see section 4.2.1.1 Stages of EFL Lessons). Before assigning students, teachers regularly explained what to do in a particular exercise. On the other hand, sometimes they presented a lack of instructional guidance; they did not explain to the students what to do perhaps because the task was easy to understand, they wanted to move fast, and perhaps they were not aware of some of the crucial aspects of a given task. To illustrate, there was a matching activity in the textbook; Tulip did not explain what to do because it was clear (SC2, Classroom Field Note 9).

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In another instance, there was a production-oriented activity, and it was designed in such a way that students were scaffolded via their peers and prompts (i.e., questions) given. In other words, students were required to write down a short comment for the news excerpt that they read beforehand; they were assigned to work in pairs and use the prompts such as *how you felt about the story* and *how you would change the ending*. Nonetheless, Snowdrop did not guide the students, i.e., she did not require them to work in pairs, she did not take their attention to the prompts given; instead, she only required them to write their comments (MC2, Classroom Field Note 2).

Skipping the task when there was no response from the students was characteristic of Marigold. Instead of helping students to perform the activity, she, especially in speaking tasks (e.g., discussion time activities), totally skipped it and moved on to the next activity, as one student (S3) said, "*Etkinliği bırakıyor pek fazla kişi katılmayınca*" "*When students' participation in the activity is not sufficient, the teacher skips the exercise*." This incidence was exemplified in the following field note:

> In this lesson, Marigold started the lesson with a discussion time activity. She read aloud the first question given (i.e., Have you ever read an advice column? What was written in it?), and asked the L1 meaning of the word "advice column." None of the students could respond the L1 meaning of the phrase. The teacher repeated the question a few times and waited for the students to answer. Still, none of the students responded to the question, and then she said, "*Peki o zaman geçelim*." "*Alright, let's skip the exercise, then*." The exercise was thereby skipped, and the teacher moved on to the next exercise (i.e., the reading text).
>
> (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 8)

Similar to the ineffective practice in guiding students, teachers sometimes displayed a lack of response to students' needs. Sometimes students asked questions, but teachers did not respond. Sometimes even if they were aware of the problem, they did not try to find a solution. In one incident, reading comprehension questions were performed, Tulip elicited the answers from the volunteers. S33 was recognized for the last question. He read aloud his answer,

yet it was not possible to hear it well; there was a noise inside the classroom due to the bulldozer digging the schoolyard. Just as S33 had read aloud his answer, she commented: "*Ben duydum da başka duyan oldu mu?*" "*I heard the answer, but is there someone who has heard of it?*" Even though she was aware of the problem, she did not attempt to solve the issue, like requiring S33 to answer once again or closing the windows, and perhaps writing down the answer on the board. Instead, she finished the exercise and moved on to the next exercise in the textbook (SC2, Classroom Field Note 14).

In another instance, one student required Snowdrop to teach her the grammar structures for If Clause, once again. Nevertheless, the teacher rejected the request, and then she said that the only thing they needed to do was write the formula only and then make the sentences according to the formula. She further commented that it was like mathematics: "*You change the numbers in math; you change the words in English.*" S34 agreed, but she said that she did not take note of the lecture for the language structure "if clause." In spite of preparing for the exam by doing the exercises in the textbook and the workbook, she said that she still could not make sentences with the language structure "if clause." Still, Snowdrop did not revise the grammar instruction for the language structure "if clause" (Field Note, 21.05.18 / Monday).

Concerning lack of response to students' needs, Marigold's manners deserve attention. There were a group of students (generally male students), which she usually disregarded in her classes. It was because she had some classroom management problems with these students at the beginning of the school year. In one incident, there was an activity to read the short moral stories and match the morals with the correct stories. As a first step, Marigold required the students to look up the underlined words in the text. A male student (S29) could not understand which exercise they were going to practice and which words to look up to, so he yelled, "*Hangi kelimeleri?*" "*What words?*" a few times. But the teacher never responded to him (MC1, Classroom Field Note 10).

Towards the end, one facet of teachers' instruction detected in this category was the translation-mediated instruction. Among the instructional practices, teachers frequently displayed translation as the medium for performing activities; however, there were some drawbacks in using translation in EFL classes. It was because using translation was observed to be at the center of classroom-level practices; for example, teachers sometimes required the students to translate the answer, or sometimes they said the L1 version of the answer, and then they required the students to translate. In this respect, Marigold performed reading comprehension activities in such a way that she first asked the L1 meaning of the question, and then she asked the answer for the question. After that, she explained the L1 meaning of the answer given by the student (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 6). Complementing field notes, a student explained this procedure as in the following:

İlk önce sorunun İngilizcesini okunup sonra öğretmen tarafından Türkçe ya da işte bize [soruyor] Türkçe' ye çevirecek olan var mı diye, Türkçeye çeviriyor. Ondan sonra Türkçe' sine çevirdikten sonra, sınıf soruyu anladıktan sonra cevap veriliyor sınıftan. İngilizce cevap veren olursa veriyor ama genelde Türkçe cevap veriliyor. Ondan sonra onu işte İngilizce' ye çeviriyoruz ve etkinlikte yerine yazıyoruz. (S8)	*The teacher first reads the question in English and then translates it into Turkish or [asks] if anyone would like to translate it into Turkish. After that, after translating it into Turkish, and after the students understand the question, the question is answered. If there is someone who answers in English, he/she performs in this way; however, generally, the answer is given in Turkish. And then, we translate the sentence into English, and we write it down into the space given in the exercise. (S8)*

Using translation was not limited to the reading comprehension activities; teachers preferred using translation for all sorts of activities (e.g., matching sentences). To give an example, Tulip required the students to combine parts of a sentence to make a meaningful sentence. And she cautioned the students that she also wanted the meaning of the sentences, as well (SC2, Classroom Field Note 1). In addition, what was typical for Tulip was the sentence-by-sentence translation of a reading text; this situation was demonstrated within the following field note:

In this lesson, a reading activity was performed; students completed the blanks in the text with the vocabulary items given. Tulip waited for a while for the students to do the exercise; when she announced to start eliciting the answers, she also reminded them the way they would practice the exercise as: *"Okuduğum yere kadar ilk önce boşluğu doldurup sonra anlamı veriyorsunuz, buna alıştık artık."* *"You complete the blank first within the statement I read aloud, then you tell me the meaning of the sentence; we got used to this practice."* Consequently, she read aloud a few sentences within the text, and then she wanted a volunteer to give the answer for the blank and translate the sentences into L1 afterward. Volunteers gave the answer for the blank and translated the sentence or sentences the teacher read aloud.

(SC2, Classroom Field Note 8)

An interesting finding of this study relevant to the discussion herein is that teachers sometimes required students to translate the statements given in the attention boxes of the textbook, which were presented to review the grammar structure of a particular theme. Bearing on critical perspectives, it was found that attention boxes aiming to the inductive study of grammar structures (see also section 4.1.2.4 The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11") realized as a GTM-oriented instruction within the classroom-level practice.

As an example, Snowdrop required the students to translate the sentences given in attention boxes at times. As noted earlier, attention boxes presented a few sentences encountered in listening comprehension and reading comprehension activities; the aim was to help students become familiar with the language structures reviewed in a particular unit; that is, inductive grammar learning was desired (see also section 4.1.2.4 The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education] Sunshine English 11"). The classroom-level practice of Snowdrop displayed the reverse. The following field note exemplifies how translation-mediated instruction was presented in her instruction:

In this lesson, the attention box given for the past modal structures was studied. The teacher assigned the students to read the sentences given (e.g., I could have studied more for the exam, I might have overreacted, but you should have tried harder) and translate them into Turkish in order to check whether the students understood them. At the end of the lesson, I had a conversation with the teacher.

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I asked the reason why she performed the translation of the sentences in the attention box since she had already taught the structures. She responded that she wanted to check if the students understood or not; she wanted to be sure because the students seemed not to understand the structures well.

(SC1, Classroom Field Note 9)

Since translation was something typical in EFL classes, teachers allowed students to make use of translation apps during classes. Therefore, teacher's permission emerged as one last aspect of the ineffective teaching practices reported under this category. The participants were consulted on the way smartphones were used in EFL classes. In this regard, a student (S1) put it this way: "*Akıllı telefonları diğerleri genelde çeviri olarak kullanıyor, hoca da çeviri olarak kullandıklarını bildiği için bir şey demiyor.*" "*Others usually use smartphones for translation, and the teacher does not caution them not to use smartphones since she knows they use them for translation.*"

Supporting student views, Snowdrop said, "*Telefonlarına başvurmalarına izin veriyorum, normalde telefon kullanmak yasak ama daha önce de demiştim kelime bakmak için ya da işte cümle yaparken kelimelerine bakıyorlar işte çeviri programlarını kullanıyorlar.*" "*I allow them to use their smartphones, normally it is prohibited, but as I said before, they look up the words when they make their sentences, or they use translation apps.*" The interviews were complemented with the observation of the classes. How using translation apps had become a routine in EFL classes can be understood from the conversation that emerged at one incident. In this lesson, students were required to test their knowledge concerning monuments and historical places in Turkey as part of a warm-up activity in the textbook. Most students used smartphone translation apps excluding S1. The conversation below is attention-provoking:

S20: *Çeviri kullanabiliyor muyuz?*
Snowdrop*: Tabii ki.*
S1: *Çeviri seni kullanabiliyor mu?*
(He was kidding his peer)
S20: *İnterneti olan var mı? Açar mısın?*

S20: *Can we use translation apps?*
Snowdrop*: Yes, of course.*
S1: *Can the translation apps use you?*
(He was kidding his peer)
S20: *Is there someone who has the Internet? Can you share your connection with me?*

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 9)

As seen in the conversation above, the student requested a peer nearby to share the Internet connection with him. During personal conversations with this student (S20), I focused on the incident above, and I asked his view about using translation apps to help him learn the language. At first, he responded positively and confirmed that these apps were helpful for him. He further elaborated his view as: "*Zaten yararlı olmasa hocamız izin vermez çeviri kullanmamıza.*" "*If it were not beneficial, our teacher would not allow us to use it.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 9). It was seen that allowing students to use translation apps resulted in conceptualizing these programs as beneficial.

On the other hand, teacher's permission was not limited to using translation apps. Teachers sometimes allowed students to use L1 to answer the questions. In one incident, Tulip asked some further questions during eliciting answers for an exercise. The student understood the question posed and asked for her permission to answer in L1, and she allowed the student to answer in Turkish. The excerpt below from the conversation between the student and Tulip illuminates the issue better:

Tulip: *Do you prefer playing violin to playing guitar?*
S35: *Türkçe cevaplayabilir miyim?* "*Can I answer in Turkish?*"

(SC2, Classroom Field Note 6)

The teacher allowed the student, and he made explanations in L1 about his preference. For the rest of the lesson, although the teacher went on asking further questions in English, the students responded in Turkish.

In brief, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy for EFL revealed a few critical points about the teachers' instructional practices. Although some effective teaching practices were found, a few unfavorable aspects of teachers' instruction were noted hereof. Among these, how teachers practice the communicative competence in EFL classes ineffectively, how they focused on translation in their instruction, and teaching English without planning the instruction were reported. Either negative or positive, how all these instructional practices influenced the students' language learning experiences was discussed in detail below.

4.2.3.3. Students' Language Learning Experiences

The analysis of the data indicated students' language learning experiences were constructed based on the instructional practices of the teachers. How students' language learning experiences reflected instruction was detected in students' explanations for what they did in a typical EFL class. One student (S4) put it this way: "*Hocanın dediği şeylerden farklı bir şey yapmam yani.*" "*I do nothing different from the things teacher said.*" Another (S2) said, "*İngilizce derslerinde öğretmenimizin söylediği gibi yani onun söylediklerini yaptım.*" "*In English classes, I performed the way our teacher guided me; I mean I did what our teacher said to us to do.*" A more detailed explanation by a different student presented information about which aspects of language were studied in EFL classes. S5 unclothed her experiences as:

Gramer görmek benim hoşuma gitti çünkü kendimi daha profesyonel hissettim İngilizce konusunda. Aynı zamanda çeviriyi de seviyorum aslında ama bunu çok fazla yaptığımız zaman biraz sıkıcı oluyor çünkü bunu Türkçe anlamak yerine hani onu İngilizce şeklinde anlamak bence daha doğru. Başka, okumayı [sesli okuma] ben çok seviyorum ama bunu biz 11. Sınıfta yapmadık sadece hocamız okudu. Biz sadece kurduğumuz	*I liked learning grammar because I felt more professional in the area of English. At the same time, I like translation very much. Still, when we frequently perform translation, it becomes boring because understanding English expression is more suitable than understanding it in Turkish. Also, I like reading aloud very much, but we did not perform this in grade 11; only our teacher read it. We just read the*

cümleleri ona okuduk, o şekilde gerçekleşti. Başka da zaten yaptığımız pek etkinlik yok.

sentences we made to her; that was how it was realized. There are not many other activities we do.

In addition to grammar and translation reported above, students mentioned listening comprehension activities, speaking, and writing activities, as well as learning new vocabulary as part of their language learning experiences. How all these experiences were realized in students' language learning journey was discussed in detail below.

4.2.3.3.1. Positive Language Learning Experiences

As its name suggests, positive language learning experiences presented language learning experiences that satisfied the students, and that were preferred. Among these, student engagement and motivation, developing proficiency in language skills such as reading and writing, even performing impromptu speech were uncovered. Table 36 demonstrates language learning experiences that were found to be favorable.

Table 36. Positive Language Learning Experiences

Item	Code
1	Student engagement and motivation
	-Following the lesson
2	Developing listening skills
	-Developing interactive listening strategies
	-Developing intelligibility
3	Developing reading skills
	-Reading for gist
	-Understanding words in context
4	Teacher-led speaking practice
	-Asking further questions for speaking
5	Performing impromptu speech
6	Learning to write
7	Performing technology-integrated tasks
8	High students' practices

At its simplest, student engagement and motivation disclosed moments of interest, curiosity, and attention students displayed during EFL classes. The degree of engagement and motivation was detected in students' expressions such

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as "*Yok İngilizce dersinden kopmam asla*" "*I am never disengaged in English class*" (S8); "*Yani illaki o derse ben yine tutunurum*" "*I follow the lesson in any case*" (S4). Besides, classroom observations showed that although students sometimes appeared to make noise, in essence, they were trying to perform the activity during the lesson. To cite a familiar example, a workbook exercise required students to look at the pictures and write sentences to describe life in ancient times. During the exercise, so many students put their hand up to participate in the lesson. There was noise in the classroom because the students were kidding about the sentences their peers made; they were enjoying the lesson (SC2, Classroom Field Note 1).

The type of activities and tasks students were required to perform influenced the degree of motivation and engagement they displayed. For example, some students enjoyed group work, while some others liked sentence-level production. How tasks and exercises increased student engagement and motivation were illustrated in the field note below:

> In this lesson, there was grammar instruction for past passive forms. Marigold required the students to work in pairs and write an active sentence into a piece of paper as part of grammar practice. She then handed over the students' papers to pairs and required each pair to write the passive form of the sentence. All the students enjoyed the activity. Students from the social sciences field of study showed interest in the lesson and participated in the lesson; they made sentences, as well. Students from the foreign language field of study also interacted with each other and enjoyed the sentences they wrote. For instance, S3 and her peer wrote an active sentence as: "*S36 killed S3.*" In response, S27 made fun of her statement and wrote its passive form as: "*S3 was killed by S36, and I'm very happy to hear it.*" They laughed at S27's comment while the teacher was waiting for the students to write the sentences. At the same time, a student from the social sciences field of study even said, "*Ay İngilizce dersi hiç bitmesin.*" "*Opps, I hope the English class never ends.*" Just as she expressed her view, she was surprised at herself, and her peer laughed at her comment and her surprise for herself.

> (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 12)

The remarkable finding in the above-mentioned field note was that students with varying proficiency levels were engaged in the lesson because SSC1 was

composed of students from the social sciences field of study, as well as students from the foreign language field of study. Dwelling on the issue of student engagement, another finding which was discussed was the way students followed the lesson. Although some students were seemed to be disengaged, they said to follow the lesson, and one student (S1) frankly described his routines in EFL classes as in the following:

Genelde dizi izlerim ama dizi izlerken bir kulağım derstedir her zaman çünkü hani parmak kaldırıp cevap vermek hoşuma gidiyor. Yani o yüzden dizi izlerken bile yine bir kulağım derstedir ve etkinliklere de katılırım ara ara.	*I usually watch series, but I always listen with half an ear when I watch a series because I like to raise my finger and give answers. That is why, even when watching TV series, I still listen with half an ear, and I participate in activities from time to time.*

Supporting his arguments, the field notes showed that S1 responded to the teacher's questions while he was busy with his smartphone (e.g., watching anime or using an application to draw a game character). In one incident, Snowdrop was reviewing grammar instruction for the passive structures. During instruction, she wrote passive sentences on the board (e.g., Worksheets were prepared by the teacher.), S1 exclaimed the L1 translation of the sentences he heard of. After that, he went on watching anime on his smartphone together with his desk mate. They had earphones, one earphone was on his ear, and the other was on his peer's ear (MC2, Classroom Field Note 12).

On a similar line, some students, especially in the sciences classes, performed the activities the teacher assigned during the lesson. Yet, they solved multiple choice practice tests for other classes like math or physics as soon as they ended up in the activity. To give an example, a female student in SC1 continuously solved math tests after she finished the exercise. While the teacher was eliciting the answers, she continuously raised her hand until the teacher recognized her. O, put it another way, she continued to solve practice tests while waiting for the teacher allow her participation (SC1, Classroom Field Note 6).

Developing four language skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) in various ways were observed as another favorable experience students gained in EFL classes. In this respect, teacher-led speaking practice and performing impromptu speech were detected for speaking skills; developing interactive listening strategies was revealed among the listening skills studied; reading for the gist and understanding the words in context were uncovered concerning the reading comprehension skills, and learning to write was found as one last aspect of the language skills students developed in EFL classes.

Starting with the listening comprehension skills, a few students pointed out developing interactive listening strategies as well as developing intelligibility. Furthermore, students' exposure to the language out of the lesson via watching movies or listening to songs helped to develop their listening comprehension skills, as shown in the interview excerpt below:

Öğretmenin akıllı tahtadan açtığı ses kayıtları genelde İngiliz ya da Amerikan aksanları oluyor, çok nadiren başka aksanlar da oluyor ama genelde o ikisi oluyor ve çok hızlı konuşup, harfleri ve kelimeleri bazen yutabiliyorlar. Yani onları iyi dinleyip o yuttukları harfleri ve kelimeleri yakalamak tecrübe istiyordu. Yani ben de zamanla bu dinleme etkinlikleri ile şey yapabildim. (S8)

The recordings that the teacher let us listen to from the smart board are generally British or American accent. They are rarely different accents, but on the whole, they are British and American accents. They speak too fast, and they sometimes swallow the letters and the words. I mean, listening to these recordings well and catching the words they swallowed necessitated experience. I mean, I was able to perform this via the listening activities. (S8)

Besides, listening to foreign singers helped him to recognize the missing sounds in speech, as S8 stated. He noted that he first recognized the missing sounds while listening to the songs, and then he became aware of how the missing sounds were pronounced in the native speaker's speech. He transmitted his ability in EFL classes and achieved success in listening activities. Additionally, students also reported developing interactive listening strategies by communicating with the teacher; S10 denoted that his proficiency in speaking

and understanding the teacher's speech increased via speaking with the teacher one to one.

Various aspects of reading comprehension skills were developed, as well. The participants were asked to express how they developed reading comprehension skills. Students identified developing reading skills due mainly to the relatively long reading texts studied during EFL classes. S7 highlighted that there were paragraphs either long or short in EFL lessons; since they read much, she developed her reading comprehension skills. Supporting her arguments, field notes showed that reading activities were frequently performed; that is to say, although teachers skipped some exercises in the textbook like a writing task or a listening activity, they almost never skipped reading activities in the textbook. Another student (S8) provided a more detailed explanation as followed:

Çok uzun ve büyük paragraf ve diyaloglar vardı. Yani o diyalogları tek seferde okuyup, onun konusunu anlamak ve onu doğru yorumlayabilmek önemliydi ders içinde. O şekilde hani uzun paragraflar okudukça daha çok hani şey tek seferde anlayabilmeye başladım.	*There were very long paragraphs and dialogues. I mean, it was important in the lesson to read these dialogues, understand their topic, and interpret them correctly in one attempt. As I read long paragraphs, I started to understand them in one go.*

More specifically, a few students underlined their ability to guess the meaning of the words in context and overall understanding of the texts. In this regard, one student (S1) put it this way:

Farklı kelimeler oluyor bazen, mesela onların anlamlarını bilmiyor olabilirim. Ama mesela bilmediğim bir anlamı olsa da okuma paragrafıyla alakalı olduğu için onun anlamını çıkartabilirim kendim, hani cümleyle alakalı olarak.	*There are different words sometimes; I may not know their meaning. But even if there is a meaning of the word which I do not know, I can deduce its meaning myself as it is related to the reading text; I mean in relation to the sentence it is placed.*

An interesting finding of this study was detected in terms of developing reading comprehension skills. Analysis of classroom field notes yielded that there

appeared a variety among students to develop reading comprehension skills in the same activity depending on their proficiency in English. As noted earlier, teachers exhibited instructional scaffolding at times. In one incident, Marigold provided a list of vocabulary for students to complete the blanks in a reading activity. Even so, a high proficiency student (S8) did not check for the words written on the board. He performed the exercise the way it was guided in the textbook, i.e., he read the text and completed the summary with a word he found from the text. Conversely, the other students performed the exercise by using the words written on the board (MC1, Classroom Field Note 14). Therefore, high proficiency students created the opportunity to develop their summarizing sub-skill further with their own attempt.

Apart from the receptive skills, students gained experience in productive skills, i.e., speaking and writing. There appeared two features regarding speaking; students became experienced in either teacher-led speaking practice or impromptu speech. In particular, students' impromptu speech performance sometimes emerged because the teacher required students to do so, sometimes because of their personal preference.

In response to the question of how they developed their speaking skills, the participants talked about teacher-led speaking performance. Students mentioned gaining experience in speaking via performing a one-to-one speech in L2 with the teacher; a high proficiency student (S8) even remarked that the teacher initiated a conversation with him in L2 when the lesson became free. He explained that when they were two of them only (i.e., the teacher and the student), the teacher did not switch to L1, rather they spoke English only. Different than S8, some students pointed out performing whole-class speaking activity during the lesson. In this respect, the teacher posed questions to the students and students answered. An excerpt from the interview with S5 demonstrates how it is performed:

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Speaking [konuşma] yaparken de işte hocayla birebir konuşmaya çalıştık, kafamızda cümleler kurmaya çalıştık. Hoca soru sordu. Mesela diyor ki neyi seversin? Mesela ben diyorum ki müzik dinlemeyi severim. Sonra hoca bana tekrar soru soruyor, hangi sanatçıları dinlemeyi seversin tarzında. Ben isim söylüyorum. Ondan sonra neden seversin, işte ne yaparsın tarzında şeyler soruyor. Ben yanıtlıyorum, diyorum mesela Twitter kullanıyorum, diyorum. Twitter kullanınca ne yapıyorsun tarzında sorular soruyor o şekilde.

In speaking activities, we tried to speak one-to-one with the teacher, and we tried to make sentences in our minds. The teacher posed a question; for instance, she says, "what are your interests?" In response, I say, "I like listening to music." Then, the teacher asks another question; it is like which singers you do like listening to. I say the names of a few singers. After that, she asks questions like, why do you like them, and what do you do? I respond, and I say, for instance, I use Twitter. She asks what do you do when you use Twitter, and it is like that.

Furthermore, observation of classes generated similar findings with the argument mentioned above. To clarify, teachers regularly posed supplementary questions to initiate a sort of conversation while eliciting answers for a particular exercise. For example, a student read aloud his written work about himself, and he had touched upon playing violin and guitar in his written work. After he finished reading aloud his work, Tulip initiated a short conversation by posing, "*Do you prefer playing a violin or playing guitar?*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 6).

Analysis of the classroom field notes also showed the impromptu speech performance of a few students; they were either assigned to speak spontaneously, or they preferred to exhibit improvisation in a particular exercise. To put it differently, although teachers instructed pseudo-study of speaking in EFL classes as mentioned above (see section 4.2.3.2.2 Ineffective Teaching Practices), a few high proficiency students did not perform the speaking activities the way teachers assigned them; instead, they voluntarily exhibited simultaneous speech. To cite a familiar example, while the teacher was waiting for the students to write answers for the questions given in a discussion time activity, S1 did not write any answers, instead he chatted with friends and drew some images onto the page. While eliciting the answers, S1 volunteered for the first question, and shared his view as: "*I think the most important monument is Anıtkabir because*

the memorial of Turkish Republic founder is there." (MC2, Classroom Field Note 9).

In another instance, the same high proficiency student (S1) was assigned by the teacher to create a story in his mind and share it with the classroom simultaneously. At first, he rejected it, and he said that it would be challenging to think and translate at the same time. Even so, he performed; he both created and shared the story simultaneously in English (MC2, Classroom Field Note 3). In a similar vein, teachers sometimes forced students to act out a dialogue, and classroom-level realization of this attempt was an impromptu speech opportunity for a few high proficiency students, as seen in the following field note:

> In this lesson, the teacher announced students to act out the dialogues they had written. One student asked if they were allowed to only read their dialogue, the teacher rejected the suggestion, and she strictly said, "*Yazana değil role-play yapana.*" "*Not for those who wrote a dialogue but for those who acted out it.*" S13 and his peer were assigned to act out their dialogue. However, the peer said that he could only perform by reading from his notebook. The teacher did not allow him. Just when the teacher had given up and assigned another student (S3) and her peer to act out theirs, S3 responded that she could perform an impromptu conversation with S13 as "*O [Ö13] çıkarsa ben karşısında bir şeyler uydururum sıkıntı olmaz.*" "*If S13 wants to act out a dialogue, I can be his partner; it is not a problem.*" S13 approved the suggestion, and he also offered to improvise. The teacher accepted their suggestion; S3 and S13 acted out their dialogue in front of the classmates. Their conversation was impromptu, and they were very fluent; the conversation was never stopped; they did not need any time to think; rather, they just responded to each other simultaneously. It was a normal conversation.

> (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 11)

The field notes reported above was complemented with the interviews. High proficiency students claimed that they enjoyed improvisation in EFL classes, as S3 stated. Likewise, S1 disclosed what the teacher required students to do in a given task, and the difference between the classmates' performance and his own practice as followed:

Konuşma etkinliği şimdi şöyle bir şey insanlar tabii not alıyordu, hani vereceği cevapları not alıyordu	*The speaking activity is something like this; people were taking notes, I mean, they were taking notes of their*

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ama onu genelde konuşma için yapıyordu. Öbür iki ödev yazılı oluyordu [sınıf içi performans değerlendirme ödevlerini kastediyor]. Yazı yazıyordun ama hocaya yazılı olarak vermiyorsun. Yazıyorsun sonra o yazdığın şeyi okuyorsun. Ben yazmadan okuyordum [Konuştuğunu kast ediyor]. Bunlar güzel oluyor çünkü hani doğaçlama bir şey yapmak insanın hoşuna gidiyor, yapabildiğini görüyorsun.	*response, but they performed this mostly for speaking. The other two assignments were in written form [he means to the assignments for in-class performance-based assessment]. You wrote about something, but you did not submit it to the teacher. You wrote, and then you read what you wrote. I was reading without writing [he means speaking]. These are satisfying because you like to do something improvised, and you see that you can do it.*

The dichotomy between writing to learn vs learning to write is known; while the former refers to using writing for mastery in linguistic properties, the latter shows studying for writing as a macro language skill. In this regard, analysis of the data indicated sorts of language learning practices in which the aim was already to practice writing, so the students experienced writing skills. They either wrote by looking at a sample text in their textbook, or they created a story. Concerning this, students replied to the question of how they developed writing skills in EFL classes, and one student (S5) put it this way: "*Mesela bir anınızı, bir olayınızı anlatma gibi etkinliklerde de geçerli. [Yazma becerilerini] O şekilde geliştiriyoruz.*" "*For instance, it is related to writing about a memory or an incident you experienced. We develop our writing skills in this way.*" By making a much more detailed explanation of how she produced her written work, S2 noted that she examined sample texts given in the textbook, as well as reviewed grammar structures instructed by the teacher.

Complementing interviews, classroom field notes uncovered a few tasks which provided students to learn to write. To give an example, there was a writing task in the textbook that required students to write a short crime story. Snowdrop assigned it as part of the performance-based assessment for the next lesson. Some students immediately started to produce their written work before the lesson was finished, and S37 was among them. Similar to S2, she performed the task by reviewing the previous exercises done in the textbook. She used the smartphone when necessary. Before the teacher left the classroom, she wanted to

receive feedback about her work. Snowdrop provided instant feedback to her work; she corrected some of her mistakes and cautioned her to make sentences giving more details (SC1, Classroom Field Note 1).

In addition to four skills of language, though few, students performed technology integrated tasks. Marigold assigned her students in MC1 to record a video of the dialogues they had written during the lesson. She asserted that having announced to assess the video recordings as a performance-based assessment, a few pairs performed the task. Analysis of the analytical memos written for three videos revealed that students performed grammatically accurate, fluent, and content relevant speech. In their conversations, there were some pronunciation mistakes, and problems with rhythm and intonation were observed. It was detected that students made use of realia such as earphones to make the videos as authentic as possible (Analytical Memo for Video 1; Analytical Memo for Video 2; Analytical Memo for Video 3).

Concerning this technology integrated task-work, an interesting finding was yielded. Interview with a high proficiency student (S8) unclothed an unexpected experience in the sense that although he did not achieve a score, he had performed the task-work. He mentioned that he had already written down dialogue with a female peer (i.e., the female student in the first video) during the lesson. For him, he did not need to record a video of his speech. Therefore, the female peer worked with another classmate. They recorded videos of their speeches individually, and S8 performed the task-work related to the video editing on behalf of them. He explained how he edited his peers' videos as in the following:

Telefondan montaj programı indirdim çünkü farklı ortamlarda kendi evlerinde çekilmişler ve karşılıklı bir diyalog olması lazım ama parça parça çekilmişler. O parçaları birleştirmem	*I downloaded a video editing application on my smartphone, because they had recorded their videos within different environments, they had recorded them in their home. It must be a video involving a conversation they speak one-to-one. But they recorded it individually. Since I needed to assemble*

| *gerektiği için bir montaj programı indirdim. O parçaları birleştirdim, ondan sonra o videoyu tamamladım.* | *those parts of speech, I downloaded the video editing application from the Internet, I combined the parts of speech, and then I finished the video."* |

As is seen above, the students experienced technology-integrated task-work in the EFL classroom. Despite limitations in interactive communicative practice and ICT use, the students, by and large, got the opportunity to perform a technology-integrated task in which they gained experience in L2 speech.

Mixed ability classes were one characteristic of this school; there were relatively high proficiency students in EFL classes, and their language learning practices presented some favorable points. However, these were realized as a result of students' individual initiatives in doing a particular exercise. That is to say, they did not perform the activities the way the teachers assigned the students to do; instead, they did how they desired. These students' language learning practices in EFL classes were named as high students' practices. Interviews with a few high proficiency students disclosed how they challenged themselves in performing classroom-level tasks. To illustrate, S5 talked about how she performed reading comprehension questions in the textbook; though she liked performing these activities, she clarified her practice as: "*Parçada direk geçen şeyleri yazmak hoş olmuyor yani ben bunları kendi cümlelerimle ifade etmeyi daha çok seviyorum.*" "*It is not nice to write the statements in the text directly as an answer; rather I prefer to answer these questions with my own expressions.*" Another high proficiency student (S8), likewise, explained:

| *Mesela farklı gramerler, farklı tarz cümleler kurmaya çalışıyorum hani farklı işte kalıplar kelimeler kullanmaya çalışıyorum. Kendimce soruyu ve cevapları zorlaştırmaya çalışıyorum. O şekilde cevap vermeye çalışıyorum.* | *For example, I try to make sentences in a different style; I try to use different lexical and grammar structures. I try to make the question and its answer more challenging in my own way. I try to respond in this way.* |

S8 further exemplified his practice; while performing a task about personality and physical appearances, Marigold required the students to make sentences by

using the words given. For the word "*empathy*," S8 used the idiom "*put yourself in your friends' shoes*" in making his sentence. He also signified that the teacher was surprised by the expression he used.

Besides, classroom observations yielded that these students' language proficiency level was something approved in the classroom community. For example, when something was demanding, the students yelled all at once a particular student's name to perform the task. They also expressed their comments, which exhibited their approval of a particular student's high ability. For instance, after a high proficiency student displayed his/her performance in a particular activity (e.g., translating a sentence, reading aloud a sentence), the classmates' expressions were like "*Maşallah*," "*Mashallah*" and "*Müthiş*" "*Terrific*." The following field note exemplifies a similar situation:

> In this lesson, students were acting out their dialogue. The first pairs who were assigned to act out were male students; one from the social sciences field of study, and another was from the foreign language field of study. While they were acting out their dialogue, the social sciences boy had difficulty in pronouncing the words and recalling the phrases, and he seemed to have memorized his utterances, whereas his pair from foreign language field of study was very fluent and accurate, and he even spoke fast. Just after he had made his first speech, the social sciences students commented, "*Amin!*" "*Amen!*"

> (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 11)

As seen above, "*Amen*" was the expression to react against the fluent speech of a classmate. It also meant that these social sciences students were not able to understand the speech, mainly because *Amen* is a word expressed after people listen to a prayer in Turkish society. Though the meaning of the expressions in the prayer is not possible to understand since it is in Arabic, people say *Amen* because they believe that something like goodwill must have been expressed. At another incident, the teacher elicited students' answers for an activity in which they had written down one of their mistakes. The high proficiency student of SC2 (S5) read aloud her writing, which was longer than her peers. After she had finished, a few peers exclaimed: "*Hangi paragrafı okuyoruz hocam? Kaçıncı*

sayfa? Hocam artıyı S5 mı aldı?" "*Hocam, which paragraph are we reading? On which page is it? Hocam, is that S5 who gained a plus?*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 9).

All these expressions, such as "*Mashallah*" and "*Amen*" were unique to the society students lived in; thereby, the students presented their confirmation of the high students' performance by making use of these expressions. High proficiency students and their practices in EFL classes were distinct from their peers due to their own attempts and struggles to satisfy themselves in the classroom-level task work.

In brief, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy indicated a few language learning experiences which were satisfying. Students found opportunities to develop their four language skills, performing technology-integrated task work and many more.

4.2.3.3.2. Language Learning Strategy Use

Another domain of the students' language learning experiences was about language learning strategies they used in and out of the EFL classes. These referred to specific manners and behaviours students performed in order to learn or retain something new about English. Table 37 lists a few strategies students displayed.

Table 37. Language Learning Strategy Use

Item	Code
1	Self-initiated language learning techniques
2	Using cross-linguistic influence
3	Strategic language learning efforts

Analysis of the data revealed several techniques students employed to learn EFL. These were the things that students do to learn EFL, yet the techniques they used

were not taught by the teachers. Therefore, they were called self-initiated language learning techniques. To illustrate, Marigold almost always assigned students to look up unknown words before reading a text; on the other hand, a student (S8) mentioned that he could predict the meaning, so he did not look them up. Also, a similar situation was revealed in one classroom field note; there was a reading activity, S8 did not look up the unknown words listed on the board; instead, he only read the text (MC1, Classroom Field Note 10).

Besides, students accentuated other techniques; S10 said that he was able to make sentences by using the formula SVOPT. It was the abbreviation for the word order in English, i.e., subject, verb, object, place, time. Another interesting technique was about making passive forms of sentences. During personal conversations, S19 elucidated her technique to make active sentences passive as finding the verb in the active sentence and then changing the word order in the sentence by transmitting the word after the verb into the beginning of the sentence. Although this technique worked well in the active sentences made with the regular verbs, it did not work in those with the irregular verbs. On account of the fact she did not know the past participle form of the irregular verbs, she could not detect the verb in the active sentence; thereby, she could not find the object necessary to make the sentence passive (Field Note, 24.05.18 / Thursday).

The second and interesting technique employed by the students was about cross-linguistic influence. Though few, there were multilingual students in this school, and they benefited from their language other than Turkish in the course of doing an activity in EFL classes. The main benefit was about predicting the meaning of the words in a given text. Accordingly, one student (S7) put it this way: "*Almanca bildiğim için Almanca ile yakın oluyor bazı kelimeler, oradan çağrıştırabiliyorum. Diğer yönden paragraflarda da geçen kelimeler genelde yakın oluyor zaten, zorlanmıyordum o yüzden.*" "*Since I know German, some words are close to German; I can recall them by associating them with German. Also, the words in paragraphs are usually similar to the lexis in German; it is*

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not difficult for me." Classroom observations pointed out a similar finding; S27, another multilingual student, associated English words unknown to him with French in order to predict what they meant.

Under this category, the participants further disclosed strategic language learning efforts, which referred to language learning techniques they employed out of EFL classes. These efforts were more related to the social aspect of language learning strategies. Students sometimes benefited from what they learned out of the classroom in their classroom-level practices, and sometimes they used some virtual spaces (e.g., Twitter) as the place to practice what they learned in EFL classes. During interviews, students mentioned various mediums that they employed to use L2, such as social media websites, in addition to the individual learning techniques they employed to learn EFL by themselves. To illustrate, one student (S4) remarked on watching the news on the BBC; a few others (S1, S2, S3, S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10,) denoted watching foreign series and movies, listening to music, playing online computer games, etc. The interview excerpts below elaborate on those arguments:

Ben bu yaz Fethiye'de çalışmıştım otelde, oraya gelen bir Rus müşteri, işte ben de hani İngilizce konuşacak birini arıyordum, o da İngilizce biliyordu. İşte hani konuşalım mı gibisinden bir muhabbet geçti. Instagram' da konuşmaya başladık. Arada fırsat buldukça birbirimize işte nasılsın, günün nasıl gidiyor, yeni haberler var mı, bir şeyler oldu mu gibisinden öyle konuşuyoruz. (S8)

I worked at a hotel in Fethiye[7] this summer; there was a Russian customer who came there; I was looking for someone to speak English, and she knew English. We just attempted to communicate; it was like let us have a conversation. We started talking on Instagram. Whenever we find the opportunity, we talk to each other like how are you, how is your day going, is there anything new happened. (S8)

Mesela ben Twitter kullanıyorum. Twitter' da karşıma örnek cümleler çıkıyor çok fazla. Bunlar orada yaşayan mesela Amerikalı bir insandan gelmiş bir twit oluyor ve hani gramerinin doğruluğuna ben inandığım için ve araştırarak devam ettiğim için bu ilgiye o yüzden hani gramer konusunda daha gelişmiş hissediyorum kendimi. Aynı

For example, I use Twitter. I encounter a lot of sample sentences on Twitter. These are tweets from an American person who lives there, for example. Because I believe in the correctness of grammar in an American's tweet, and I searched for these grammar structures, I feel more advanced in grammar. At the same time, I am trying to use these grammar

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[7] A town located in the Mediterranean Region of the country. It is a famous tourist attraction in Turkey.

zamanda bu gördüğüm şeyleri kendim üzerinde de bu farklı cümlelerde denemeye çalışıyorum ben. Hani onlar gibi twit atmaya çalışıyorum mesela, farklı bir şekilde de olsa o gramer konusuyla ilgili. Mesela okulda gördüğümüz bir gramer konusuyla ilgili o gün veya yarın tutup twit atıyorum, bunu hani yazarak denemeye çalışıyorum. (S5)

structures in my own sentences. For example, I am trying to tweet like them, albeit in a different way, by using that grammar structure. For example, I tweet by using a grammar structure that we reviewed in the EFL class, and I try to use the grammar structure by writing. (S5)

Addressing similar points, Tulip pointed out the difference between her sophomore and junior year students; she mentioned that grade 11 students asked her some words and phrases they encountered in TV series, songs, or social media. The analyses of the interviews were complemented with classroom field notes. To clarify, I observed several instances students benefited from what they learned outside of the classroom in the course of performing an activity in EFL classes. For example, as her routine, Marigold required the students to look up the words she listed on the board before reading the text in the textbook. While the students were looking up these words, a few male students (S38, S39, S8) were reviewing the L1 equivalents of some such as damage, demolish, and destroy—they had already learned them in an online computer game, i.e., Counter-Strike Go (MC1, Classroom Field Note 13).

In support of her above-mentioned claim, S5 used the language structure she learned in a virtual space (i.e., Twitter) in a classroom-level task. In one incident, there was an exercise in the workbook requiring students to make sentences with the language structure "*used to.*" Her examples involved the use of relative clause structures, albeit having never been taught in EFL classes. During personal conversations after the lesson, she expressed that she encountered relative clause structure for the first time in a native speaker's text message in a virtual space (i.e., Twitter). After that she searched the net for its usage and learned it (SC2, Classroom Field Note 1).

To sum up, language learning strategy use comprised the techniques and strategies students employed to learn EFL in and out of EFL classes. These were

attempts the students made to practice English, and they were, by and large, helpful for producing the language and/or understanding something in English.

4.2.3.3.3. Peer Interaction Patterns

Peer interaction patterns emerged under students' language learning experiences referred to all sorts of interaction between students for many reasons. Classroom observations displayed interaction patterns such as pair work and group work. Students also underlined various reasons for interaction with their peers, such as help-seeking behaviors. As Table 38 demonstrates, mutual aids, peer learning, peer help-giving, and different forms of academic help-seeking behaviors were detected in EFL classes.

Table 38. Peer Interaction Patterns

Item	Code
1	Mutual aids
2	Peer learning
3	Academic help-seeking behaviours
	-Executive help-seeking
	-Reciprocal teaching
4	Peer help-giving

The participants articulated several reasons for interacting with a peer; S4 highlighted exchanging ideas in the course of performing an activity, S3 notified reviewing answers for a particular exercise. The benefit gained via the speech of a high achiever classmate was even signified; S6 underlined learning the pronunciation of some words in this way.

Mutual aids as one facet of peer interaction patterns, similarly, indicated how students helped each other to perform a particular task. In this regard, they distributed tasks first and then performed their task individually, thereby a single product produced by a group of students, as stated by S4. Supporting his arguments, classroom field notes showed that students distributed the task work

when they performed a group work task. To cite a familiar example, Marigold assigned students to work in groups of four to perform a workbook exercise. S8 and his peers performed the activity by attaching responsibility for each peer; S8 translated the sentences his peers made in L1. In other words, the peers thought of the ideas to answer the questions given in the exercise, S8 translated their sentences into L2 (MC1, Classroom Field Note 3).

Under this category, peer learning, as another feature of EFL classes, was revealed. It involved sharing knowledge, ideas, and experiences with a peer. Interaction with a peer in such a way indicated enhanced language learning opportunities because all the students benefited from each other; the task was produced altogether. Unlike the distribution of tasks revealed in mutual aids, students performed each step of a given task together in peer learning. Classroom field notes clarified how students performed peer learning. To illustrate, students were required to work in groups and create a story in a workbook exercise. When the students started to do the exercise, there was noise in the classroom because they worked in groups and discussed altogether. S3 and her peers (S36, S40, and S41) in her group discussed the story; they were enjoying the exercise, and they were trying to make a story. They created and discussed the story in L1, and then they wrote the story in English (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 1).

In addition to the classroom observations, students talked about their experiences in working with a peer or in groups to perform an exercise such as writing dialogue, as S8 underlined. What should not go unnoticed were the peer learning moments that appeared as a result of students' attempts. In other words, there was a discussion time activity in the textbook which necessitated peer interaction by nature. Although Snowdrop did not assign students to discuss with a peer, a few students worked together; they interacted with each other, discussed what the questions meant, and tried to answer them (MC2, Classroom Field Note 5).

Furthermore, students demonstrated various academic help-seeking behaviors (e.g., executive and instrumental help-seeking) and reciprocal teaching. At its

simplest, help-seeking behaviors meant various ways students employed when they needed help to perform a task. Students sometimes searched for ready-made answers (i.e., executive help-seeking) while they sometimes looked for help to perform the task (i.e., instrumental help-seeking). They sought help from either a peer or a teacher. Since help-seeking behaviors were taken place, peer help-giving was also observed. Related to the help-seeking and help-giving behaviors, students offered reciprocal teaching, especially before the exams since reciprocal teaching referred to the changing roles of peers as tutor and tutee. The one who was good at English taught English to the peer who was bad at English. And they changed roles for other subjects (e.g., for math).

Classroom field notes showed how students performed academic help-seeking behaviors. In one incidence, an in-class performance-based assessment was performed. Just after S1 announced his decision to perform the task, his classmates insisted on him to help them; they were asking how to say a phrase or a sentence, and some even were calling him to sit nearby. At the same time, the teacher cautioned him not to help his peers. S1 sat down at his desk and called for help to save him from his peers' insistence on help-seeking. At that time, a few classmates exclaimed as: "*S1 bizim çevirimiz.*" "*S1 is our translation program.*" What the peer meant was that S1 was like a translation app so that they could perform the task. For this reason, they wanted him to sit nearby (MC2, Classroom Field Note 16).

As noted above, the help students sought was sometimes instrumental, yet sometimes executive. In this respect, classroom field notes further clarified the sort of help students presented to perform a given task. Executive help-seeking behaviours among students were observed much. To cite a familiar example, there was an exercise which required students to write questions for the following answers in the textbook (e.g., Where …..? / We used to spend our holidays in Datça when I was a kid). In this exercise, "*used to*" as the language structure was aimed to be practiced. While eliciting the answers, S20 was recognized and read aloud the sentence S1 revised as: "*Where did you spend*

your holidays?" In response, the conversation between the teacher and the students was as following:

Snowdrop: "*Used to*" *[Dilbilgisi kalıbı] nerde?*
S20: *Nerde Ö1?*
S1: "*Used to*" *eklemek mi gerekiyordu? Onu da siz ekleseydiniz.*

Snowdrop: *Where is [the language structure] "used to"?*
S20: *Where is it S1?*
S1: *Should we add "used to"? Then, you must have added it.*

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 1)

As seen in the quote above, S20 performed the exercise, yet he did not recognize what was missing in his performance. The way S1, as a high achiever student, performed an exercise, was accepted as true in this classroom community. In another incidence, there was an in-class performance-based assessment. Just after the teacher had announced the exercise as a performance-based assessment, S42 went near S1 and put her textbook in front of him. S1 started to perform the task on behalf of his peer. He wrote sentences about the place "Soumela Monastery" S42 selected. S42 sat down near him in silence till S1 finished the writing (MC2, Classroom Field Note 10).

Students' executive help-seeking behaviors were not unique to MC2, and it was observed in other classes, as well. To give an example, while Tulip was waiting for the students to perform an exercise in the textbook, the noise in the classroom increased because students started to interact with each other. However, this interaction did not result in the achievement of the learning outcomes for all the students, as some students were looking for ready-made answers only. For example, S43 went near S11 and S44. While S11 was doing the exercise, S43 stood at their desk and waited for S11 to perform the task. He had also given his workbook to S44, and S44 was copying the sentences S11 wrote into S43's workbook. In another instance, S16 was copying the answers from a classmate; actually, that classmate had already copied the answers from another peer, S33 (SC2, Classroom Field Note 10).

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Interviews with the participants pointed out similar aspects; especially Marigold described students like S42 and S20 as being in the shadow of a high achiever student. Though the high achiever students were aware of the problem, sometimes they were pleased with the situation, yet sometimes they felt weird. To illustrate, S5 denoted that she was happy with her peers' help-seeking manners because she felt that her ability in EFL was confirmed in the classroom community. On the other hand, S3 mentioned a student from the social sciences field of study who sought executive help during the lesson. She noted that the peer forced her to perform the exercise on behalf of her so that she would participate in the lesson. S3 described the situation as: "*Sen dilcisin, yaparsın, şu soruyu bana yapsana ben de cevap vereyim, hocanın gözüne gireyim şeyi oldu.*" "*She was in a manner like this: as you are a student of the foreign language field of study, you can do it; do the exercise for me so that I could participate in the lesson and get on the teacher's good side.*"

On the contrary, not all the help-seeking behaviors were executive; that is to say, students sometimes sought help only because they wanted to learn how to perform the task or be sure that their task was correct. Since S1 was confirmed as a high achiever student, the classmates almost always required him to check their work. He was like the second teacher for them, and even S21 called him once as: "*S1 Hocam, bir bakar mısınız?*" "*Hocam S1, can you please check my work?*" S1 checked S21's exercise and revised it when necessary (MC2, Classroom Field Note 1). Moreover, interviews with students yielded similar findings. Students pointed out consulting a peer, or when the task was too difficult, they consulted the teacher for help, as S9 stated.

Apart from the academic help-seeking behaviors, students exhibited another similar aspect, i.e., reciprocal teaching, especially when they prepared for examinations. As a high achiever student of EFL classes, S8 explained: "*Arkadaşlarımın İngilizcesi kötü hani onlara bir faydam olur diye ben onları İngilizce çalıştırıyorum, onlar bana başka dersleri çalıştırıyorlar hani karşılıklı.*" "*My friends are bad at English. Just because I may be useful for*

them, I help them study for English; they too help me study for other school
subjects. I mean, that is something mutual."

Complementing interviews, field notes revealed that lower proficiency students searched for high proficiency peers who could help them prepare for EFL examinations. When grammar instruction for past passive forms of the English language was taught, S20 could not understand the instruction during the lesson. As a solution, he required S1 to teach these language structures, and he promised to teach math to him as: "*S1 anlatırsın bize bunları, ben de sana matematik anlatırım.*" "*S1 you will teach us these, and I will teach you math.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 12).

Lastly, peer help-giving behaviors were detected as a natural consequence of help-seeking behaviors. As an example, S37, as a hard-working student, performed the activity early, and then she opened her practice book and solved practice tests. The peers sitting backward asked S37 about the exercise, and she helped them and answered their questions; she dictated to them how to start the question as: "*Did you..?*" (SC1, Classroom Field Note 1).

The classroom observations were complemented with the interviews. Students shared their several experiences in providing help to classmates. As reported above, S5 liked her classmates' consultancies to her knowledge in EFL, but even so, she stated some negative aspects as: "*Kendi şeyime [egzersizime]*
odaklanmak benim için daha iyi olacağı için ve daha iyi bir şey ortaya koymak
istediğim için [arkadaşlarına yardım etmenin] biraz da kötü yanı var." "*Since*
focusing on my task-work would be better for me, and as I want to perform
something well prepared, there are some drawbacks [in helping peers]." S8 mentioned how he helped a classmate (S15) in performing her project-work assignment. S15 was assigned to create a story; she had already written down the story in English. She wanted S8 to review her work. S8 elucidated how he helped as followed:

| *Metinde kullandığı gramerleri farklı kullanmış, kimisine 'was-ve-ing' [sürekli geçmiş zaman yapısı] kullanmış kimisine işte [fiilin] ikinci hali vesaire hani işte farklılıklar vardı, biraz anlam karışımları vardı, onları düzelttim.* | *The grammar structures she used in the text were not coherent; she made some sentences with the structure 'was-and-ing' [past progressive tense structure], yet she made some sentences with the past simple forms of verbs. I mean, the meaning was obscure; I corrected those mistakes.* |

In short, as the third domain discussed under students' language learning experiences, peer interaction patterns indicated various forms of interaction between students. The students sometimes distributed the task work, while sometimes they performed each step altogether. They also exhibited various forms of academic help-seeking as well as help-giving behaviors.

4.2.3.3.4. Rocky Road to Active Participation

The findings of this study generated important results concerning active participation. As seen in Table 39, a few problems students encountered in their attempts at participating in EFL classes were detected, and they were discussed under this title.

Table 39. Rocky Road to Active Participation

Item	Code
1	Becoming disadvantaged
2	"Sözelciler ağlıyor"
3	The beginner's paradox
4	Becoming linguistically disadvantaged
5	Claim of insufficient knowledge (CIK)

Becoming disadvantaged in active participation was concerned with various reasons inhibiting students from participating in the activities during the lesson. To illustrate, one student (S4) stated the lack of a smartphone, which led him to lag behind his peers during bottom-up processing activity (i.e., looking up unknown words in a reading text); another student (S3) underlined the problems in classroom dynamics as the reason. Supporting her arguments, the field notes

showed that she abstained from sharing her idea even when she understood the question to be discussed. This was a discussion time activity in the textbook. During personal conversations, she pointed out the students from the social sciences field of study and explained: "*Hep dilciler katılıyor diye şikayet etmişler. Hoca da hep siz söylemeyin dedi. O yüzden söylemek istemedim.*" "*They complained about the active participation of the foreign language field of the study students in EFL classes. The teacher cautioned us not to participate in the exercises all the time. For this reason, I did not want to share my answer.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 8).

It is of particular to identify that high proficiency students became disadvantaged in general. During field data collection, I observed how these students became disadvantaged in EFL classes many times. Sometimes teachers ignored them in order to provide opportunities for other lower proficiency classmates, yet sometimes they could not allocate sufficient time to complete their tasks as they helped their peers' task work. In this respect, S5 unclothed her experience in performing a classroom-level task as:

Genelde pek kendime odaklandığım olmuyor. Çünkü mesela iki ders varsa, ilkinde bu etkinliğe [hikaye yazma, bir anı anlatma gibi] başladıysak, teneffüste herkes benim başıma üşüşmüş oluyor. Herkes benden yardım istiyor. Ben şunu yazacağım ama nasıl yazacağımı bilmiyorum diyor mesela. Ya onlara yardım etmekle geçiyor zamanım. Kendime hani düşünmekle ya da kurgulamakla ya da yazmakla geçiremiyorum genelde. İkinci dersin başında bitirmeye yakın oluyorken ve hani diğerlerini kendim yaptığım için, arkadaşlarıma yardım ettiğim için onların daha yaratıcı olduğunu düşünüyorum ve derste kendiminkini okumak istemiyorum. Okumaktan kaçıyorum, o şekilde.	*I do not usually focus much on my work. Because if, for example, there are two lessons, if we started this activity [i.e., writing a story, sharing a memory, etc.] in the first lesson, everybody swarms around me during the break time. They ask me for help. They say, for example, I would like to write something, but I do not know how to write it. Either I spend time helping them. I cannot spend my time thinking about my work, writing, or creating something for my work. At the beginning of the second lesson, the duration to complete the task work finishes. As I performed the others' task work, I mean, since I help my friends, I feel like they are more creative, so I do not want to read my work aloud. I abstain from reading it aloud.*

Personal conversations with teachers verified the problem high proficiency students experienced in EFL classes. Specifically speaking, Marigold commented about S8, another high achiever student. Though he continuously put his hand up to participate in the lesson, Marigold wanted him not to answer everything, and she said, *"Parmak kaldırıyor ama hep sen söyleme diyorum."* *"He raises his hand, but I caution him not to share each answer during the lesson."* Marigold's rationale was that she would have finished the book early if she performed her lessons only with S8. Still, otherwise, the other students would not understand anything: *"Ben bu kitabı onunla [S8] yapsam hemen biter, ama bu sefer de ötekiler hiç bir şey anlamayacak."* *"If I elicit the answers for the textbook exercises only from S8, the book will finish immediately, but the other students will not understand anything from the instruction."* She further noted that S8 took offense at this. At the end of the conversation, she emphasized the need for classes organized according to the students' language proficiency levels (MC1, Classroom Field Note 11).

It seemed that multilevel classes were causing some students to have problems in active participation. Similar to becoming disadvantaged, becoming linguistically disadvantaged was related to the multilingual students in this instructional policy space. The multilinguals became disadvantaged mainly because translation-mediated instruction was at the center of language teaching and learning practices in EFL classes. As discussed previously, reading activities were performed much in EFL classes and the way these exercises were performed almost always involved translation. On a similar line, Marigold used translation for her instruction for a reading activity in the workbook. During personal conversations, Marigold mentioned that S27 and S26 could not respond to the questions because of the difficulty they had in Turkish. However, for the majority to understand the text and follow the lesson, she required them to translate the sentences into L1 (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 4). Put another way, although the teacher was aware of the matter for multilinguals, she felt it was compulsory to use translation; otherwise, she thought that most of the students in her classes would not understand the instruction.

In response to the teacher's tacit admission that translation caused multilinguals to become disadvantaged, I had a conversation with a few multilingual students, and I asked their views about the reading exercise performed in the lesson. S27 mentioned that although he knew the meaning of the words, he could not explain them in Turkish because he knew the meaning of the words in French. For this reason, he used a bilingual dictionary (i.e., English-Turkish) during the lesson. He said that he could predict the meaning of the unknown words thanks to French, yet when he looked up their Turkish meaning in the dictionary, it became confusing. Another multilingual student (S26) was silent during the lesson, as well. She said that she could understand the text, yet she could not participate in the lesson because she could not explain what the text was about or what a certain expression meant in Turkish (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 4).

Complementing personal conversations, analysis of classroom field notes demonstrated how S26, as a multilingual student, experienced difficulty in active participation in EFL classes. In one incident, a reading activity in the textbook was performed; while eliciting the answers, S26 volunteered and answered correctly. After that, the conversation between Marigold and S26 as followed:

Marigold: *Ne diyor burada?*	Marigold: *What is the meaning of the statement herein*?
S26: *Hocam ben çeviremiyorum.*	S26: *Hocam I cannot translate.*

(SSC1, Classroom Field Note 13)

Another problem with active participation emerged due mainly to classroom dynamics. As mentioned above, a student (S3) from the foreign language field of study identified the students of the social sciences field of study as the reason for her low participation in activities. A reverse situation emerged in classroom observations. In other words, students of the social sciences field of study experienced becoming disadvantaged in active participation due mainly to their lower proficiency level. The following field note shows how "*Sözelciler*

ağlıyor." "*Students of the social sciences field of study are crying.*" appeared in the classroom:

> In this lesson, students acted out dialogues, some students of the foreign language field of study performed impromptu speeches. During the conversation of two foreign language field of study students (S13 and S3), a few students of the same field of study (S27, S45) were laughing because they could understand what the problem was and what was S3's suggestions for the solution. Her suggestions for the solution were ridiculous like pull the plug, switch off and then switch on, etc. as the problem was about the tablet PC. While these few students of the foreign language field of study were enjoying the conversation, students of the social sciences field of study were very silent. A student from the social sciences field of study even commented, "*Sözelciler ağlıyor.*" "*Students of the social sciences field of study are crying.*" After that, this student recognized that some students in the social sciences field of study were also laughing; she said, "*Siz niye gülüyorsunuz sözelciler?*" "*The students of the social sciences field of study, why are you laughing?*" It was weird for her because she knew that they did not understand the conversation.

> (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 11)

The classroom observations were complemented with interviews; a student (S4) from the social sciences field of study described how he felt himself during such communicative activities presented above. He put it this way:

> *Sınıftan tamamen kopuk hissettim. Bazı cümleleri yakalayabiliyordum, anlıyordum, kafa sallıyordum. Belki böyle arada espri olabilir onlara gülüyordum. Ama onlara katılamıyordum, cevap veremiyordum. O kadar pratik olmadığım için derste ayrı kalıyordum.*

> *I felt completely disengaged in the lesson. I could catch some sentences, understand, and nod. Maybe there were some jokes in the conversation; I was laughing at them occasionally. But I could not join the conversation or respond to them in the conversation. I was becoming disadvantaged in the lesson because I was not that practical in speaking.*

S4 further recounted the rationale behind his disengagement in the lesson; he marked the language proficiency levels differed among students. As he had already had difficulty in spontaneous speech, he became totally demoralized when he did not have time to think of his answer. He even described their situation as being offline in such a classroom environment:

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Şimdi dilciler orta sırada oturur, zaten kendileri kendi arasında tartışır ama sağ ve soldaki sıralarsa tamamen ortadan ayrı, kendileri arasında zaten tartışamıyorlar, ortadakiler de tartışıp dersi yürütüyor, ama diğer taraflar offline [çevrim dışı].	*The students of the foreign language field of study sit in the middle row; they already discuss among themselves. However, the right and left rows are completely separate from the middle, and they cannot discuss among themselves anyway. The students in the middle row discuss about the topic and conduct the lesson, but the other students are offline.*

"*Sözelciler ağlıyor*" was not specific to the SSC1; instead, a similar problem also emerged in a sciences class. The students with mixed proficiency levels in the same classroom led to the lower proficiency level students becoming disadvantaged in EFL classes at times. The following classroom field note illustrates a lower proficiency level student's situation in EFL classes:

> In this lesson, the students read aloud the dialogues they had written down in the previous lesson. S3 and her pair read aloud their work; the dialogue was about the matter people came across in cargo, the packet went to a wrong address. The classroom was silent while they were reading aloud the dialogue. After the dialogue was read aloud, the teacher commented, "*Güzel Aferin. Başkasına mı gitti dağıtımda? En gıcık olduğum şey.*" "*Well done. Is it submitted to someone else in distribution? That is the most annoying thing for me.*" In response, a student asked: "*Ne gitti hocam?*" "*Hocam, what has gone?*" The teacher started to explain in L1 what the matter was in this dialogue as: "*Bir şey sipariş etmiş ve o da başkasına gitmiş.*" "*She ordered something, and it was delivered to someone else.*"

(SC2, Classroom Field Note 8)

Apart from the problems discussed above, the beginner's paradox and claim of insufficient knowledge (CIK) were the other traits inhibiting students' active participation in classes. These two terms were based on the review of related literature on language teaching and learning. James Coady (1997) termed the beginner's paradox to label the incidental word learning that happens when reading is important. For him, still, without enough knowledge of words, one cannot learn new, related words. A similar situation was observed in EFL classes, and some students could not participate in reading activities because they did not understand the text. Therefore, these incidents were labeled the beginner's paradox.

The analysis of the classroom field notes illustrated how students reacted when they could not understand the text while performing a reading activity. In one incident, a reading comprehension activity in the workbook was practiced. In my conversation with a few students during the lesson, they complained about the difficulty of the text. They said that they could not translate the text because there were lots of unknown words for them: "*Çok zor, çeviremedik, bir sürü bilmediğimiz kelime var.*" "*That is too difficult; we could not translate, there are many words we do not know the meaning.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 13).

In another incident, I initiated a conversation with S7 after the lesson in which a reading activity was performed. She was very silent during the lesson, although she followed the lesson. I saw that she had looked up the words and noted their L1 equivalents on the exercise. When I asked her view about the reading exercise, she told me that it became worse for her when they read each paragraph twice because she could not understand the text anyway. There were many unknown words for her, the text was very long for her, and it involved lots of details about historic sites she did not know (MC1, Classroom Field Note 13).

Another domain emerged as a result of a review of related literature on classroom discourse. At its simplest, CIK refers to "I don't knows" that emerged in language classrooms (see Beach & Metzger, 1997, as cited in Sert, 2013). On a similar line, in this study, CIK demonstrated the incidents students could not participate in a particular activity during the lesson, given that they did not have any information about the topic.

As a locally produced material, the textbook involved so many activities about historical events, touristic sites, and monuments in Turkey (e.g., Ephesus, Atatürk's Mausoleum, and the conquest of Istanbul). When the students did not have sufficient knowledge about them, it became difficult for them to participate in the lesson. There was an Azerbaijani student (S6), and she said, "*Ben Türkiye hakkında bilmiyorum.*" "*I do not know about Turkey.*" to explain the reason why

she could not participate in the conversation about historical places in Turkey. A similar situation is shown in the following field note:

> In this lesson, there was an activity involving photos of a few touristic sites in Turkey (i.e., Soumela Monastery, Ishak Pasha Palace, Trojan Horse, and Mount Nemrut). The students were required to work in groups of three and share what they knew about them using the prompts. One student said that she did not know any historic site in this exercise, "*Hiç birini bilmiyorum*." "*I know none of them*." Only S46 remarked that she had visited Soumela Monastery, and she mentioned her experience and how tall it was. The point was that almost all the students did not have any idea about these historic sites, albeit being from Turkey. They did not know what they were, where they were, if they were real or not.

> (SC1, Classroom Field Note 12)

As seen in the classroom field note above, the students could not perform the activity mainly because they did not know these places. Interviews with students lent support for this finding. S10 shared a similar incident he experienced in EFL classes. He mentioned an exercise in the textbook which involved touristic sites such as Ephesus and Çanakkale. In response to the question of how he performed such an activity, he said, "*Ben bunlardan açıkçası hiçbirine gitmedim, galiba o yüzden ben bunu yapmamıştım.*" "*Frankly speaking, I have been to none of them. I guess, for this reason, I did not perform this task.*"

Briefly put, various challenges students experienced in their active participation in EFL classes were outlined. Multilevel classes, students' linguistic and cultural background, classroom dynamics, and more were detected as the problems in participating in EFL classes.

4.2.3.3.5. Low Student Engagement and Motivation

In contrast to the student engagement and motivation reported above as part of positive language learning experiences, low student engagement and motivation was another dimension of EFL classes. In this part, student engagement was considered an extension of student motivation. Given that student engagement

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meant the degree of attention, curiosity, and interest students displayed while learning something in EFL classes, it was detected that some students were never engaged in EFL classes; some students' interest depended on the task or activity, as well. Table 40 presents all these issues.

Table 40. Low Student Engagement and Motivation

Item	Code
1	Self-determined engagement
2	Apathetic students
3	Losing motivation and interest
4	"I got bored"
5	Teacher influence on student motivation
6	"I feel bound to the coursebook"

Low student engagement and motivation, above all else, was the most common problem teachers encountered in EFL classes. As noted earlier in this chapter, teachers were aware of the uninterested students in their classes, yet their principle was to perform activities with the volunteers only. In this regard, interviews with teachers revealed that the students' lack of motivation and engagement were assumed as the norm in this school. Having expressed her principle in student participation on a voluntary basis, Snowdrop put an end to her words by saying "*Öğrencilerin küçük bir kısmı diyeyim yapmaları gerekeni yapar, geri kalan da, işte masa altında telefonla uğraşanlar, kitap okuyanlar ve test çözenler olarak kendi aralarında dağıldılar.*" "*A small portion of the students does what they have to do during the lesson. As for the others, these can be grouped as those who were hanging out with the phone, reading books, and solving multiple-choice practice tests.*"

Marigold verified the low percentage of the student population participating in classroom-level activities. She underlined that almost seven or eight students participated in her classes out of 35 while the rest of them either chatted with peers or lay on their desks during the lesson. According to her, most of the students were getting bored in EFL classes. An excerpt from the personal

conversations with students (S37 and S46) complements those arguments: "*Kimse ciddiye almıyor İngilizceyi, herkes salmış, birkaç kişi yapıyoruz dersi.*" "*Nobody takes English classes seriously, everyone let it slide. Only few of us are following the lesson.*" Nevertheless, another student (S37) claimed that the classmates were all the same in other classes, as well (SC1, Classroom Field Note 16).

One aspect that appeared concerning student engagement was the self-determined engagement some students displayed. In other words, there were a few students who made up their minds whether to participate in the lesson or not, depending on their mood and interest in the topic discussed. Sometimes the easiness of the task, sometimes students' satisfaction with their performance, and sometimes the type of task they felt themselves to be more competent or incompetent played a role in students' engagement in EFL classes. Students recounted this point as followed: One student (S1) put it this way:

Derse o gün ki durumuma bağlı, eğer telefonda dizi yoksa veya izleyesim yoksa bazen derse katılma isteğim de oluyor çünkü eğlenceli geçiyor. Aktivitelere göre birazda mesela hoca bir soru sorar, cevabını bilirsin parmak kaldırırsın. O şekilde şeyleri seviyorum. (S1)

My participation in the lesson depends on my mood that day. Unless I have series on the phone or eager to watch it, I sometimes want to attend the lesson, because it is fun. Depending on the activities performed in the lesson, for example, the teacher asks a question, you know the answer, you raise your finger. I like things like these. (S1)

Normalde katılırım; ama mesela, bir şey yazarız ve bu yazdığım şey bana güzel gelmezse, üst seviye bulmazsam pek okumuyorum ben bunu, okumaktan çekiniyorum çünkü daha iyisini yapmam gerekiyor, bu normal basit bir şey olarak bakıyorum ben. (S5)

Normally I participate in the lesson, but for example, we write about something. If it is not satisfying for me, if I do not think that it is at a high proficiency level, I do not participate in the lesson. I abstain from reading it aloud because I have to perform better. I think that the one I perform is something simple. (S5)

Analysis of the observation of classes disclosed a similar finding to the arguments mentioned above. To give an example, in the lesson, when a reading activity was performed, the teacher required the students to explain in Turkish what they understood from the texts. During personal conversations with

students after the lesson, S3, a high proficiency student, explained why she did not volunteer to explain what the texts were about. She wanted to explain in English what she understood from the text, but she thought that it was not suitable for this classroom community: "*Parçaları anlıyorum ama kursta hep İngilizce konuştuğumuz için İngilizce söylemek istiyorum. O da olmaz burada yani.*" "*I understand the reading texts; however, as we always speak English in the private tuition course, I want to express what I understand from the text in English, but that is not appropriate for this context.*" For this reason, she did not participate in the activity; instead she preferred to wait in silence (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 10).

Another component of low student engagement and motivation was apathetic students as one of the most typical realities of the EFL classes in this school. These were the students who were totally uninterested in the lesson, in that they never participated in the lesson, and just a few of them exhibited participation only when there was an in-class performance-based assessment. These students spent time in various ways during the lesson, such as chatting to peers, drawing images, sleeping, studying for another lesson, and reading books.

All through field data collection, I always observed that more than half of the students were apathetic. Approximately one-third of the students (i.e., 10 out of 30) presented active participation. During personal conversations, students honestly expressed that they were busy with some other issues in EFL classes. For example, a female student noted that she solved practice tests of other classes (Field Note, 16.04.2018 / Monday). Likewise, students were consulted for their rationales behind being apathetic in EFL classes. A male student's (S58) response was fascinating; he said that he had only listened to the English classes three times during the school year. On account of the fact that he was not sleepy and he was getting bored, he followed the lesson: "*Bu sene üç kere dinledim İngilizce dersini, canım sıkılıyordu, uykum yoktu dinledim.*" "*I followed the lesson in English class for three times in this school year. I followed the lesson because I was getting bored and not sleepy.*" (SC1, Classroom Field Note 16).

The following field notes illustrate what apathetic students did in EFL classes when they did not follow the lesson:

> In this lesson, an in-class performance-based assessment task was performed. A few boys were in the back row; among them, a male student was watching a video on his smartphone with earphones. I asked why he did not do the performance task. He was not aware of it; he even did not hear the performance-based assessment announcement perhaps because he was watching the video then. At that time, his peer said, "*Dürttüm ama rahatsız etme dedi.*" "*I poked him, but he told me not to disturb him.*"
>
> (MC2, Classroom Field Note 16)

> In this lesson, Tulip reviewed grammar instruction for if clause, mixed type. While waiting for the students to take note of the grammar instruction, she recognized that a student (S22) was studying for another lesson (i.e., physics). She cautioned him not to do so; a student humorously commented and resembled S22's behavior to the grammar subject they learned in this lesson, i.e., mixed type, and he put it this way: "*Hocam S22 şuan mixed yapıyor; fizikte matematik çalışıyor, matematikte İngilizce, İngilizce' de fizik.*" "*Hocam, S22 is making mixed; he is studying for math in physics class, English in math class, and physics in English class.*"
>
> (SC2, Classroom Field Note 13)

Losing motivation and interest and getting bored was among the issues students mentioned much as long as EFL classes were concerned. Students generally got bored and lost their attention due to the routines they had in EFL classes. One student explained the situation as follows:

> *Hoca sınıfa girer işte, oturabilirsiniz falan der, sonra kitaplarımızı açarız; işte şu sayfayı açın, oradaki etkinlikleri yapın. Çok klasik gelirdi bana o yüzden, sıkılabiliyordum bazen derste. Çok sürekli hep böyle ilerlediği için bence öğrencilerin İngilizce dersine ilgisi de azalıyor çünkü sürekli bir etkinlik bir şey yapmaya çalışıyoruz, bir şey yok yani bir derste bir eğlence. Etkinliği yapın şunu çevirin bunu açıklayın Türkçesi nedir. O şekilde gittiği için biraz ilgimiz azalıyor bence. (S2)*

> *The teacher enters the classroom, and then she says something like, you can sit down, after that we open our books; open the page, do the activities there. It was very old-fashioned to me, so I got bored in the class sometimes. I think the students lose interest in English classes because it is always like this; since we are constantly trying to do something. There is nothing different in the lesson; do the activity, translate it, what is its Turkish meaning, explain it. I think we lose interest since the lesson is conducted that way. (S2)*

Apart from the negative impact of the way EFL was instructed, students drew attention to some other issues about losing their interest and motivation. They pointed out the problem of a negative classroom atmosphere; for example, they noted losing their interest and motivation when the teacher got angry with them. One student (S4) emphasized the interdependent relationship between the teacher's and students' mood: "*Öğrencinin morali direk olarak hocanın moralini de etkiliyor. Hocanın morali düşerse, sınıfın morali de düşüyor.*" "*The students' mood influences the teacher's mood directly. When the teacher loses her morale, the students lose, too.*" Another student portrayed the negative impact of classmates on his interest and motivation:

Bir kıyaslama yaparsak, İngilizce kursunda herkes yapmak istiyor, bilmediği şeyleri bile mesela soru soracağı zaman what is [nedir] diyor. Ama bizim okulda bir insan bilmediği bir konu görünce, bilmiyor daha ama hiç bilmiyor. Sonra diyor ki ben bunu öğrenemem. Öyle dediği için de sonra konuşuyor arkada. Sonra herkes odaklandı, bir anda diyor ki, bu çok zor! Öyle deyince insanın dikkati dağılıyor, sonra başka yerlere bakıyor, kötü oluyor yani. (S10)

If we compare the students in the private tuition course with my classmates, everyone wants to participate in the lesson. Even when there are things they do not know, for example, when they ask about something, they say, what is? But when a peer in our school encounters a subject he does not know, I mean, he/she has never learned about it beforehand, yet he/she still says, I cannot learn this. As he/she thinks so, he/she prefers to chat with friends. When everyone focuses on the lesson, suddenly he/she says that this is very difficult. When he/she says so, one loses interest and then looks around, and it is getting worse. (S10)

Addressing similar points, S3 underlined how low engagement level influenced her interest and motivation negatively: "*Aslında hepsi [derste yapılan etkinlikler] hoşuma gidiyor yeterli katılım olunca. Diğerleri pek katılmayınca, belli kişiler katılınca sıkıcı oluyor bir süre sonra.*" "*I like all the activities performed in the lesson, but when the same students participate in the lesson, I mean when the others do not participate, it is becoming boring.*" A high proficiency student (S8) highlighted one critical aspect; he explained how he felt motivated when he listened to a recording in a listening activity mainly because he was exposed to a

native speaker speech, yet when the recording finished, he felt disappointed because they started to speak in Turkish.

In addition to the above-mentioned issues related to losing motivation and interest, I observed students voicing "I got bored" during the lesson many times. Students got bored due mainly to the types of activities they did during the lesson. To illustrate, there was grammar instruction for "*would rather*" in SC2. After making a few sentences for practice, a few students said that they got bored as: "*Bu ders niye geçmek bilmedi ya?*" "*Why does not the time pass in this lesson?*" "*Ay, çok sıkıldım!*" "*Oh, I'm bored!*" The teacher confirmed that she got bored, as well (SC2, Classroom Field Note 5). Two reading texts were studied in another incident, and reading comprehension questions were performed during the lesson. In a conversation after the lesson, S3 said that when they practiced reading all the time, she got bored (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 8).

Another critical expression students made was "I feel bound to the coursebook" to define how they felt in EFL classes. They were dissatisfied with the way teaching was executed in the classroom. "I feel bound to the coursebook" as an expression showed the low motivation students had toward the lesson because of the textbook-based instruction. In other words, the textbook was the main and the only tool for instruction, and the only aim of the EFL classes was to do the activities there. One student (S2) defined her practices in EFL classes as: "*Sanki dersin bütün amacı etkinlikmiş gibi sadece kitaptaki bir etkinliği yapmak bütün amacı yani dersin, kitaba bağlı zorunluymuşuz gibi hissediyorum!*" "*It is as if the whole purpose of the lesson were the activity; I mean, performing a single activity in the textbook is the whole aim of the lesson. I feel bound to the textbook; I feel as if I were obliged to it.*" S2 further elaborated on her argument as followed:

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Yıllardır kitabı açıyoruz, etkinlik yapıyoruz, ders bitiyor. Kaç senelerdir bunu tekrarlayınca artık insan böyle hissedebiliyor.

For years, we have been performing the lesson in this way; we open the book, do the exercises, and then the lesson finishes. It is because we have been conducting lessons like this way for many years, one can feel like this.

Last but not least, some students drew attention to the teacher's impact on their motivation and interest in EFL classes. In other words, a few students claimed to lose their interest in EFL classes because they did not like their teacher; S47, who was my student in grade 10 (i.e., the sophomore year), was among them. I knew her interest in EFL classes from the previous year. She was almost always engaged in the lesson and highly motivated to learn English. On the other hand, I observed her as an apathetic student all through fieldwork. During personal conversations, S47 frankly shared her negative views about the teacher; she did not like her EFL teacher. For this reason, she preferred not to participate in the activities. She put it this way: "*Hocayı sevmeyince dersi de yapasım gelmiyor.*" "*When I do not like the teacher, I do not want to perform activities in the lesson.*" Her gestures and mimics also showed how negative her feelings towards the teacher, she put an end to her words by saying, "*Bana bu hoca olmadı hiç.*" "*This teacher is not suitable for me.*" (SC1, Classroom Field Note 16).

Analysis of interviews with students supported the argument above; to illustrate, S4 emphasized the teacher as the driving force behind his classroom-level performance. He elaborated his views by pointing out the interest teacher showed in him, especially when she examined his work during the lesson, and he said, "*Kişisel bir ilgi var orada çünkü, hoca seninle ilgilenirse sen de karşılık olarak hocayla ilgilenmek istiyorsun.*" "*There is a personal interest in this situation; when the teacher shows interests in you, you, too, want to show interest in the teacher.*"

To sum up, low student engagement and motivation involved several aspects that led students to become disengaged in EFL classes. There appeared factors such

as a negative classroom atmosphere, types of activities, the routines of the classes, and the personal relationship with the teacher.

4.2.3.3.6. Negative Language Learning Experiences

The analysis of the data yielded some negative outcomes in students' language learning experiences due mainly to the classroom-level instruction for EFL. For example, some language learning experiences students gained in EFL classes emerged as a result of the way grammar was taught; that is, teaching grammar in a rather transmissive mode led to some negative language learning experiences. As noted earlier in this chapter, form-focused instruction was observed, and focus on forms was prevalent in the teaching of linguistic properties. A high proficiency student, S1 explained how this way of grammar teaching influenced his language learning journey as in the following:

Gramer anlatırken özne, fiil olarak anlatılıyor ya benim o konuda Türkçem pek yeterli değil, temelim fazla yok geçmiş sınıflardan. O şekilde anlatıldığı zaman biraz zorlanabiliyorum.	*When teaching grammar, it is instructed according to the rules like subject and verb. My grammar knowledge is not sufficient in Turkish, and I do not have sufficient background knowledge about Turkish grammar taught in previous grades. For this reason, it is getting hard for me when it is taught this way.*

A detailed analysis of the qualitative data uncovered several negative experiences students gained in this school as a result of the classroom-level implementation of the instructional policy. These ranged from lack of opportunity to develop speaking skills to lack of intercultural awareness. Table 41 provides the results in detail.

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Table 41. Negative Language Learning Experiences

Item	Code
1	"Nasip değilmiş"
	-Lack of opportunity for speaking
	-Lack of impromptu speech capability
2	Translation-focused language learning habits
	-Mastery in translation
	-Using translation apps
	-L1 negative interference
3	Lack of interaction
	-Individual study only
	-Teacher-related problems
	-Student-related problems
4	"I wrote"
5	Lack of language learning strategy use
6	Performance-oriented goals
	-This little piggy
	-Digital cheating
7	Lack of intercultural awareness

Note. This little piggy is an English-language nursery rhyme and finger play, technically, toe play. The lyrics are as: This little piggy went to market, this little piggy stayed home, this little piggy had roast beef, this little piggy had none, and this little piggy cried "wee wee wee" all the way home.

The first negative experience of students in EFL classes was about their inability to develop speaking skills. That is to say, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy did not indicate sufficient opportunity for students to develop their speaking skills. Though performing impromptu speech was something desired among the participants, most students were incapable of doing this. In this respect, the expression "*Nasip değilmiş*" emerged as a result of a student's inability to express what she wanted to say in English. A peer commented, "*Nasip değilmiş*" when a communication breakdown appeared between the teacher and the student; how that happened is shown in the field note below:

In this lesson, exercises in the workbook were practiced. There was a reading text about Kayseri[8] with a few reading comprehension questions, and the fourth question was, "*Would you like to visit Kayseri? Why / Why not? Discuss with your friends.*" S48 answered the question and said that she would not like to visit Kayseri. The teacher asked, "Why?" and then she said, "*Önemli gezilecek yerleri yok diyecektim, olmadı, kuramadım.*" "*I wanted to express that there were no such significant places to visit, but I could not, I could not make a sentence to express it.*" In response, a peer commented, "*Nasip değilmiş.*"

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 13)

It is of particular to clarify that "*Nasip değilmiş*" is an expression unique to the spiritual beliefs in the Turkish culture; the expression meant acceptance of an individual's inability, in that a person can achieve something only if God permits him/her. As seen in the field note above, the student's lack of capability in producing the language was assumed as something that God did not permit her to do so. Dwelling on this, the first argument emphasized by the students was about the lack of opportunity for developing speaking skills in EFL classes. They were aware of the fact that they needed to practice speaking, also they desired it as one student (S5) stated: "*Aslında biz konuşmaya istekliyiz ama olmuyor işte! Konuşmadıkça ben de unutuyorum kelimelerin doğru telaffuzunu filan.*" "*We are, actually, eager to speak, but it just does not work! As we do not speak, I forget such things as the correct pronunciation of the words.*" (Field Note, 16.05.2018 / Wednesday).

In support of the above-mentioned claim, analysis of classroom observations disclosed that teachers skipped a few practices which might provide students the opportunity to develop communicative skills. For instance, there was an activity in the textbook which required students to make a poster presentation about their hobbies, likes, and dislikes. Snowdrop transformed the exercise and skipped the presentation aspect. During personal conversations with a few students at the end of the lesson, S37 remarked that they did not practice any speaking performance in the lesson, she pointed out studying for grammar all the time, and she was not

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[8] A province located in the Central Anatolia Region of Turkey.

satisfied with it. She also signified that if they had prepared a poster, the lesson would be more enjoyable (SC1, Classroom Field Note 4).

An interesting finding of this study concerning the lack of opportunity for speaking in EFL classes emerged from interviews with students. Although students mentioned a few experiences in speaking English, these experiences were not gained in EFL classes. To illustrate, one student (S9) shared his English speaking experience; he practiced speaking English with a schoolmate while leaving school: "*Bugün Türkçe yerine İngilizce konuşalım tarzı yapıyoruz. Yani ayrılana kadar öyle günlük hayattan filan, bunu verir misin, al filan o tarz bir şey.*" "*We perform something like this; we say, let's speak English instead of Turkish today. We speak English until we leave, we talk about daily life, say things like can you give me this, yes of course, etc.*" This student had various reasons for not speaking in EFL classes, and he put it this way:

Ortam sağlanamıyor gibi oluyor biraz karışık, ben aslında pek derste konuşmuyorum. Yani çoğu derste hiç konuşmuyorum, sadece dinleyiciyim. Yani S1 filan bizim sınıfta olsa ben yine onunla konuşurdum İngilizce dersinde.	*It is like there is not such an environment provided to speak. I do not speak indeed in the lesson. I mean, I do not speak in most of the classes; I am just a listener. If S1 had been my classmate, I would have spoken English with him.*

Besides, a high proficiency student (S8) described his situation in EFL classes in terms of developing speaking skills as "*Olduğum yerde sayıyorum.*" "*I make no progress.*" He further elaborated his experience in EFL classes as in the following:

Yani ben İngilizce konuşmak istiyorum, öğretmen de İngilizce cevap veriyor ama sonunda yine Türkçe konuşuluyor sınıftaki arkadaşlarımın anlaması için, o yüzden ben ne kadar çaba göstersem de pek bir fayda etmiyor. Ben fırsat buldukça [İngilizce] konuşmaya çalışıyorum, öğretmen de bunun farkında oluyor ama	*I want to speak in English, and the teacher responds to me in English, but in the end, the conversation becomes Turkish again so that my classmates can understand. For this reason, no matter how hard I try, it does not help much. I try to speak [in English] whenever I can. The teacher is also aware of this, but since the classroom peers do not understand,*

sınıftakiler anlamadığı için yapabileceği bir şey olmuyor. Hani derste, ders etkinliği vesaire hakkında olduğu zaman Türkçeye dönüyor ister istemez, öğretmen Türkçe devam ettiği için benim İngilizce devam etmem pek bir anlamı olmadığından dolayı ben de Türkçe devam ediyorum. (S8)

there is nothing she can do. I mean, when it is about an activity in the lesson and so on, she inevitably switches to Turkish. Since the teacher continues speaking in Turkish, it does not make much sense to continue in English, so I continue in Turkish. (S8)

Another experience students had concerning speaking in EFL classes was about the impromptu speech capability. The students mentioned the lack of impromptu speech capability due to their lower proficiency in English. Though there were a few students who could perform simultaneous speech, a huge number of students did not have such capability in speaking. Therefore, they had to plan what they would say before they spoke, and this necessitated time for the students. An excerpt from the interviews with students complements those arguments:

Şöyle diyeyim mesela dediğim gibi boşlukları dolduruyoruz ya bir cümlede okuyorlar ya, sonra ben bir gaza geliyorum mesela, tabii ondan önce 40 saat düşünüyorum, nasıl diyeyim, bir cümleyi söyleyeceğim ya, ben hocanın vereceği cevabı ondan sonra benim vereceğim cevabı falan düşünüyorum, öyle konuşuyordum. Mesela bir konu var kız okuyor mesela cevabı, hoca da ona İngilizce bir şey diyor. Ben de hemen ayrı bir şekilde İngilizce bir şey söylüyorum hocaya, sonra hoca da karşılık veriyor, değişik öyle muhabbet ediyoruz, ama kısa yani çok kısa öyle kısa kısa çünkü ben de o kadar seviye yok. (S10)

Let me explain it in this way; for example, there is a fill in the blanks exercise, and students read aloud the answers. At that time, I am fired up about it. Of course, before I speak, I think for a long time about how I can express myself. Since I will say something, I think of the answer teacher will give and my responses to her answer, and then I speak. For example, there is an exercise, and a peer read aloud her answer, and the teacher says something in response to her answer. I say something in English to the teacher, which is different. Then, the teacher responds to me. We have a conversation like this, but it is short, it is very short because I do not have sufficient language proficiency level. (S10)

Similar to the quote above, most students referred to their inability to express what they think in English simultaneously. Analysis of interviews with students also revealed that students did not have sufficient opportunity to develop

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speaking skills in EFL classes for many reasons. The consequence of these two points of reference was the emergence of communication breakdown in EFL classes. Although students desired to express their thoughts in L2, they could not do so as the expression "*Nasip değilmiş*" indicated.

The findings of the interviews were complemented with the classroom field notes. As reported previously in this chapter, discussion time activities were designed to perform an impromptu speech in EFL classes. Yet, teachers either skipped these parts or transformed them into a writing performance. In one incident, Tulip skipped the discussion time part once again. During personal conversations after the lesson, S5 marked that they tried to practice these parts at the beginning of the school year. However, it was not effective because the students were not able to share their ideas in English (SC2, Classroom Field Note 8).

The linguistic review of the field notes disclosed an emphasis on translation among students. To put it differently, students' expressions detected in the field notes presented a perspective of language learning centered on translation; for example, "*S1 is our translation app.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 11), and "*Let us have S1 do the exercise for us; he is like a translation app!*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 7). Besides, Snowdrop put forth that students claimed for being nothing without translation. Dwelling on these points, translation-focused language learning habits as the second aspect discussed under negative language learning experiences presented some drawbacks concerning the overuse of translation apps. From this perspective, some students even gleaned expertise in using translation apps; for instance, differentiating between translation apps, i.e., Google Translate and Yandex Translate, S49 stated her preference for Yandex Translate as: "*Bu çok iyi çeviriyor, ben proje ödevimi de buradan yapacağım.*" "*This program translates very well; I will perform my project-work assignment using this translation app.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 12).

Regarding the students' particular attitudes toward translation, classroom field notes illuminated that students viewed translation as the main medium to learn and/or understand something in EFL. In one incident, Snowdrop assigned a textbook exercise as part of an in-class performance-based assessment. The students were required to complete the sentences with their own words. During the lesson, students performed the task by making use of translation apps. In a conversation with S34, she claimed that she could not perform the task otherwise. When Snowdrop cautioned her not to do so and guided her to use the grammar instruction notes in her notebook and write her sentences accordingly, she still insisted on using the app. She alleged that she could perform the task this way, and she said, "*Tamam hocam çevirebiliyorum işte*." "*It is alright, teacher, you see, I am able to translate it*." (MC2, Classroom Field Note 16).

The analysis of the classroom field notes further displayed students' perspective of language learning centered on translation in other areas, two of which were learning the new words and understanding a text. To clarify, the way new words were retained displayed learning of the L1 equivalents only. For example, S6 underlined that she learned by writing down its L1 equivalents even when she knew the meaning of the word (SC2, Classroom Field Note 1). The students also perceived that understanding a reading text could only be possible via translation, as S7 interpreted (MC1, Classroom Field Note 10).

In addition to the perceptions and attitudes, translation-focused language learning habits involved students' language learning practices. In other words, translation was at the core of the students' language learning experiences in and out of the EFL classes. Concerning this, the analysis of the classroom field notes showed that students employed translation to perform each activity in EFL classes. As an example, students were required to read the texts and match the main ideas. In this activity, the students did not read the texts from the beginning to the end; but instead, a few female students explained that they translated the text until they understood what it was about; when they got it, they stopped

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translation, matched its main idea and moved on to the next text (MC2, Classroom Field Note 14).

In another critical incident, students were required to interview classmates by posing questions. During personal conversations after the lesson, S37 and S46 explained how they performed the activity; S46 translated the interview questions into Turkish, asked them to S37 in L1, and S37 responded to her in L1. Then, S46 translated S37's answer into English (SC1, Classroom Field Note 8). Supporting those field notes, S4 frankly accounted for performing activities via translation in EFL classes as: "*Cümle cümle İngilizceye çevirince daha rahat oluyor, İngilizce olarak düşünemiyorum çünkü.*" "*It is easier for me to translate sentences one by one because I cannot think of them in English.*"

Apart from employing translation to perform activities in EFL classes, field notes and interviews with students unveiled the prevalence of translation in students' language learning practices outside of the EFL classes, as well. One critical feature of translation-focused language learning habits was detected during personal conversations with students. S46 described her language learning practices outside of EFL classes; she mentioned looking up the L1 equivalents of the words and translating the whole text into L1. She translated the text performed during the lesson, and then she studied for the translation of the text. The photo below is an example study sheet of the student (SC1, Classroom Field Note 12).
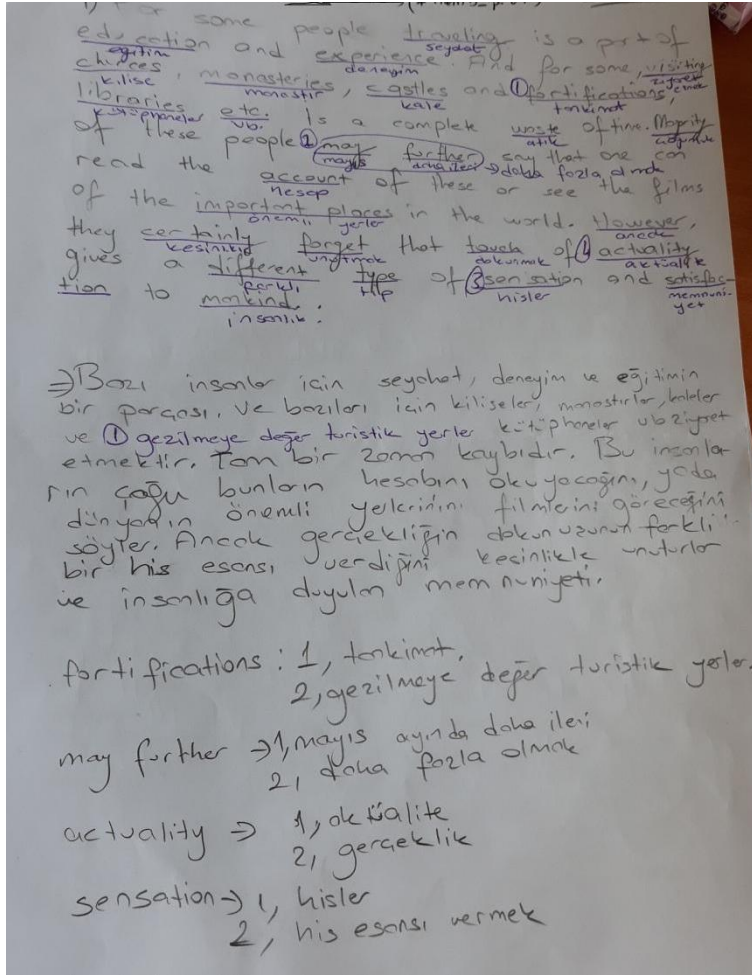
Figure 13. A Photo of Self Study Sheet

As seen in the field note and photo above, translation was not limited to the students' classroom-level language learning practices; rather, students' understanding of studying for EFL was the translation. Translating the reading text reviewed in the lesson and listing L1 equivalents of the unknown words in the text were performed as part of individual language learning practices out of class. In addition to study habits, students mentioned using translation even when they listened to a song or watched an English movie. For example, one student (S9) put it this way: *"Şarkı kelimelerine bakarak, hem İngilizcesine hem Türkçesine bakarak yani kelimeleri öğrendim. Dizilerden mesela söylediklerinin anlamlarına bakarak onun işte anlamını öğrendim." "I learned the vocabulary by looking up the words in the songs; I looked up both English and Turkish*

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equivalents. For example, from the series, I learned the expressions that they say by looking up their meanings."

The classroom-level realization of the instructional policy indicated something critical; students gained mastery in translation rather than developing reading strategies and skills in particular reading activities given in the textbook. Understanding translation as the main medium to learn the language, as well as teachers' use of translation for instruction, perhaps led to mastery in translation among students. In other words, students' ability in translation increased as a result of translating the reading texts in EFL classes. To illustrate, Tulip regularly assigned translation of the reading texts, "*Sayfa 100'deki parçayı istiyorum arkadaşlar cumaya çeviri.*" "*I would like you to translate the text on page 100; it is your homework for Friday.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 14).

Findings of the interview with Tulip lend support for the classroom field notes since she verified her focus on translation as: "*Bir sınava girdiklerinde yapmaları önemli olduğu için daha çok translate [çeviri] ettik, cümle kurduk. Ben onlara çok fazla Türkçe cümle söyledim onlar da İngilizceye çevirdiler.*" "*As it is important to achieve success at an exam, we mostly performed translation, we made a sentence. I dictated sentences in Turkish and they translated these sentences.*" An excerpt from the interviews with students complements those arguments:

Okuma parçasını cümle cümle noktadan noktaya hoca kendisi okuyor. Hoca baştan bir cümle mesela okuyor, bu cümleyi biz kendimiz çevirmeye uğraşıyoruz. Çevirenlere söz hakkı veriyor, o çeviriyi yapıyor. Sonra işte readinge [okuma parçası] tekrar devam ediyor hoca, cümle cümle bu şekilde devam ediyor. (S5)

The teacher reads the reading text; she reads it sentence by sentence; she reads each sentence starting from the beginning to the end. For example, the teacher reads a sentence from the beginning, and we try to translate it ourselves. Those who translate the sentence read aloud the translation. The teacher then moves on reading the text; she reads it sentence by sentence as I described. (S5)

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Using translation apps was part of students' language learning practices; they used their smartphones as the medium to use translation apps. In this respect, using translation apps to perform a task became a routine in EFL classes, as is detected in the following conversation:

S20: S50, Internetin var mı?
S21: Hocam İngilizce dersine girer girmez başlıyor İnternet aramaya.

S20: S50, Have you got the Internet connection?
S21: Hocam, he starts to search for the Internet as soon as English lesson starts.

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 13)

Moreover, analysis of classroom observations showed that students produced incorrect sentences as one consequence of using translation apps. To give an example, for the in-class performance-based assessment task, students made sentences by using the translation app; to make the sentence "*Ankara'da bulunur*," they had written "*Ankara is located*," but what they wanted to say was Anıtkabir is in Ankara (see photo below for more examples) (MC2, Classroom Field Note 10).
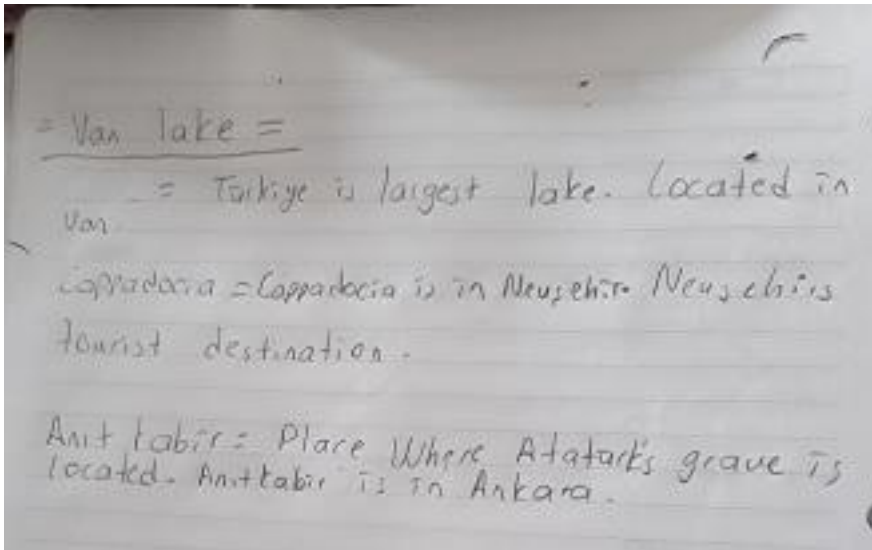
Figure 14. A Photo of Sentences Made via Translation Apps

The photo above presented students' over-reliance on translation apps to perform a task; they accepted what was translated as true. This can be understood in another incident, as well: a student (S20) wanted the teacher to confirm whether the Memorial cup was the correct English form for Anıtkabir. He had learned the expression "Memorial cup" via the translation app. Regarding his question, a peer asked if the memorial cup was used for it; S20 said, "*Öyle yazıyor.*" "*It is written like this.*" (MC2, Classroom Field Note 9). Supporting those field notes, Snowdrop reported that students used their smartphones for translation.

Although most students were satisfied with using translation apps and translating sentences as part of language learning practices, a student was dissatisfied with the over-use of translation in their language learning practices. What she identified was about L1 negative interference, i.e., the effect of L1 on L2. In one incident, Tulip assigned students to translate the reading text into Turkish for the next lesson. During personal conversations, a high achiever student (S5) shared her negative experiences in speaking due to performing translation. She liked translation, but she needed to think of the Turkish version first and then found English, which caused her to think of Turkish versions when she wanted to speak. And she believed that this was worse because she was aware of the fact that she needed to think of English in order to speak in English (SC2, Classroom Field Note 5).

Another attention-provoking issue observed in EFL classes was that the classrooms were silent. It was reported previously that various ways of interaction were desired in EFL classes (see section 4.1.2.2 MNE English Language Teaching Program). Quite the reverse, EFL classes in this school were silent due to the lack of interaction. The review of field notes showed that I jotted down the silence in the classes many times. Accordingly, the data analysis presented that students' and teachers' practices were in favor of individual study only. Concerning this, there were some problems that were related to teachers and students, and they were clarified later under this category.

As a result of the analysis of classroom field notes, it was revealed that three types of exercises were performed in general: i) reading activities in the textbook, ii) activities in the workbook (especially meaningful practice exercises), iii) activities in the attention part (i.e., meaningful practice exercises for the linguistic properties). The common point of these activities was the thing that they could be performed individually. Rewriting sentences via using prompts, inserting sentences into a reading text, and matching vocabulary with their definitions were some of them. As is known, individual study was something welcomed in EFL classes, and performing these sorts of activities individually was something normal. Since these activities were dominant in EFL classes, classroom field notes revealed much individual study. Therefore, the classrooms were silent while the students were performing such tasks, as is reported in the following field notes:

> In this lesson, a reading exercise was done; students were required to match the paragraphs with the main ideas. During the exercise, students worked individually in general, and the classroom was too silent.
>
> (SC1, Classroom Field Note 6)
>
> In this lesson, an exercise in the attention part was practiced; students wrote questions for the following answers. The classroom was silent; though most students did the exercise, they worked individually.
>
> (MC1, Classroom Field Note 1)
>
> In this lesson, an exercise in the workbook was practiced, which required combining parts of a sentence to make a meaningful sentence. While the students were doing the exercise, the classroom was too silent. Students worked individually. Only a few students worked together.
>
> (SC2, Classroom Field Note 1)

As reported in the field notes above, students could work individually due to the nature of these exercises; however, there were communicative practice tasks and activities designed for group work in the textbook. When the way these activities were performed in EFL classes was examined, some problems stemming from the teacher and the students occurred. Teacher-related problems concerned the instructional guidance, in that teachers did not specifically guide students to

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work in pairs in a particular task. Instead, Snowdrop explained the matter as in the following:

Kendileri de iki kişi oldukları oluyor ama ben zaten çoğu zaman şeyi söylüyorum hani beraber kısmını biliyorlar, ben ayrı istediğimde söylüyorum, bunu tek başınıza yapacaksınız diye. Mesela bir paragraf yazılması gerekiyor, kendi anılarını anlatacaklar mesela. Onu da ben performans olarak alacaksam onu özel olarak belirtiyorum, herkesten tek istiyorum diye. Zaten böyle bir şey belirtmediğimde onlar da şeyi biliyorlar, yani birlikte yapabiliyoruz zaten onu biliyorlar.

They themselves work in pairs; they already know when to work in pairs. However, most of the time, I inform them when I want them to work alone. For example, they need to write a paragraph or share a memory. If I assess it as part of the performance-based assessment, I inform them specifically that I want everyone to submit a single task. When I do not inform them this way, they know that they can work in pairs.

As a result of the way Snowdrop conceptualized pair work, students in her classes performed pair work only when they had to do so. To put it differently, classroom observations indicated that students in Snowdrop's classes worked in pairs when a peer did not have the textbook. It was not a choice, and the teacher did not require students to perform pair work; instead, students worked together only because there was a single textbook that they could use during the lesson.

Although some exercises were designed to promote interaction between students, the way the exercise was performed in the classroom presented a lack of interaction between students. First, the teacher transformed the task and skipped some requirements related to peer interaction. Students also did not perform the task the way the teacher assigned them, in that they also skipped some aspects. In the end, a communicatively-oriented task transformed into a sentence-level writing task, as is illustrated in the following field note:

In this lesson, a workbook exercise was performed; students were required to walk around the class and ask interview questions given to classmates. Then, they were required to write down their answers. However, the teacher changed the exercise; she required the students to answer the questions according to themselves and only ask a peer. During the exercise, some students worked individually. They used smartphones to answer the questions. Some students

worked with a peer. There was an interaction between peers, but they never asked the interview questions to each other; it was not a spoken interaction. Instead, they discussed the questions and wrote the answers to the questions. The exercise was more like reading and writing practice rather than performing an interactive listening practice.

(SC1, Classroom Field Note 8)

Apart from teacher-related problems, students mostly did not favor working with a pair. In personal conversations with students, they emphasized their preference to work alone. In this regard, one student (S7) underlined to work alone when the exercise was easy for her, and she further noted that she consulted her peers when she needed them (MC1, Classroom Field Note 8). Another student in SCC1 (S27) said that he did not like working in pairs because he wanted to finish the exercise as early as possible and then move on to performing the next exercises in the textbook (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 9).

The analysis of the interviews indicated that students highlighted writing as the utmost language skill they developed in EFL classes. In response to the question of what they did in EFL classes, S2 said, "*Yazdım*"; the student further explained that this was related to the activities she performed in EFL classes of grade 11. Contrary to learning to write reported above (see section 4.2.3.3.1 Positive Language Learning Experiences), "I wrote" involved sentence-level writing practices students did in EFL classes; these were generally for grammar practice or to answer a question given (e.g., reading comprehension questions and discussion time activities). In other words, "I wrote" referred to too much writing practice, yet the aim was not developing writing skills. Besides, students performed writing because teachers transformed relatively communicative tasks into written practice, as is seen below:

A textbook activity was performed in this lesson, which required students to share their favorite celebrity's hobbies with their friends. It was a speaking exercise; Marigold changed the exercise and required the students to write about their own hobbies. Students worked individually. The teacher waited for the students to write about themselves, and then she required students to read aloud their writings. S8 read aloud his written work as: "*I have two hobbies. One of*

them cycling and other one is swimming." S7 read aloud her writing as: "*I have two hobbies. First, I like watching film. And I like reading books*."

<div align="right">(MC1, Classroom Field Note 4)</div>

Students felt the intense focus on writing in their classroom-level practices for EFL, and they were not satisfied with what they did. In the course of performing a written work, one student (S27) complained about the situation and said, "*Hocam çok kötü bir kitap ya hep yazma var*." "*Hocam, this textbook is such a worse; there is always writing practice*." (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 14).

Bearing on critical perspectives, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy indicated a lack of language learning strategy use, especially among lower proficiency students. Although the sort of techniques and strategies students employed in learning EFL were disclosed (see section 4.2.3.3.2 Language Learning Strategy Use), some students lacked the capability to use these strategies and techniques in language learning. Hence, lack of language learning strategy use referred to the language learners' (especially the lower academic achievers) independent strategy development initiatives which were not appropriate, so these efforts ended up being unsuccessful. The field note below exemplifies how lower proficiency students perform activities in EFL classes:

> In this lesson, a reading activity was performed, which required matching the morals with the stories. A lower academic achiever waited for his peer to complete the task. As the peer (S1) could not perform the task, the lower academic achiever (S21) started to sing a tongue twister to choose the answer. What he did was "*Ip dip do*," and usually this kind of tongue twister was used to select someone or to eliminate someone from the group; however, he used it as a technique to choose the best answer, so to speak, to perform the exercise.

<div align="right">(MC2, Classroom Field Note 8)</div>

Apart from employing "*Ip dip do*" as a technique, students demonstrated some other techniques to do the activities which were not logical. Students chose the best answer according to the similarity of the words. For example, there was a

multiple-choice exercise, and a female student chose "*b. any other suggestions*" to complete the blank in the statement "*just take any bus ….*" Her rationale was that as there was "*any*" within the sentence, she thought filling in the blank with "*any other suggestions*" would be logical (MC2, Classroom Field Note 12).

Another striking behavior students displayed was performance-oriented goals. Contrary to learning goals, performance goals focused on obtaining positive evaluations and avoiding negative evaluations. In that sense, students preferred to display performance in relatively easy tasks. Yet, they did not perform reasonably tricky tasks to avoid the risk of receiving negative evaluation (i.e., getting a lower level degree from a performance-based assessment task). In this school, performance-oriented goals influenced the students' language learning practices; students sometimes performed a particular task just because they wanted to get a degree (i.e., plus), but some students avoided doing a specific activity just because they did not want to lose points. An excerpt from the interviews with students complements those arguments:

[Performans ödevi olarak verilen bir ödev] vardı galiba ama zorunlu değildik hani bizim için artı bir şey olacaktı diye hatırlıyorum ama ben yapmamıştım. Hani zaten notum yüksek dedim onu yapıp uğraşmak istemedim. Uzun bir şeydi böyle hikâye yazmamızı istemişlerdi İngilizce. Cümle kurmada biraz zorlanıyorum zaten hani yanlış olur gramer açısından o yüzden pek yapmak istemedim. (S7)	*I guess there was [an assignment given as a performance-based assessment], but we did not have to perform it. I remember it was going to be supplementary for us, but I did not do it. I thought that my grade was high anyway, so I did not want to deal with it. It was something long because they wanted us to write a story in English. I have difficulty making sentences anyway; just in case it would be wrong in terms of grammar, I did not want to do it. (S7)*

Different from the argument above, classroom field notes displayed that some students performed activities, mostly when it was a performance-based assessment task. As an example, a female student completed the task, which was employed as part of an in-class performance-based assessment. In this task, students were required to work in pairs, ask and answer the questions to write a

paragraph about a peer. Nevertheless, the student completed the task individually. She clarified that her pair did not perform the task; instead, she preferred to lie on the desk during the lesson. Therefore, she translated the questions into Turkish and asked the questions to the peer. The peer answered her in L1, and then she used the translation program to translate the sentences her pair said; in the end, she could complete the task by writing the paragraph with these answers (MC2, Classroom Field Note 6).

Apart from the performance-based assessment, students' participation in the lesson was influenced by their performance-oriented goals. To clarify, when they indicated active participation in a particular exercise for once, they preferred not to participate in the rest. To cite a familiar example, while eliciting the answers, a student volunteered to answer the first question in a reading comprehension activity. After he answered the first question, he did not follow the rest of the lesson (MC2, Classroom Field Note 13).

An interesting finding of this study regarding the students' performance-oriented goals was generated as a result of classroom observations. This little piggy was something that emerged due to the performance orientation of the students. It referred to the situation when a particular student participated in the lesson, but he/she did not perform the task; that is, the student demonstrated the performance without performing the actual task work. As it is in the play itself, there were roles of every individual in the accomplishment of the task work. Though sometimes, it was not a group work task, different students possessed different roles and responsibilities through the task work. The argument was that while some students benefited from the situation, some others did not, and even a few others did not find a chance to take advantage of the situation in EFL classes. In other words, the high proficiency students did the job; some lower proficiency students benefited from the situation, while others could not find any opportunity to take advantage of the situation. The field note below helps to understand better how that happens in EFL classes:

In this lesson, students were required to write a story; a lower proficiency student wanted to perform the task, and she wanted S1, a high proficiency student, to write a story on behalf of her. Though S1 wrote the story, he was disinterested while the teacher was eliciting the answers. He did not volunteer to read aloud the story he had written down into his peer's workbook. Although the female student had a story that S1 had written down for her, she did not raise her hand to read the story. S20, another peer in the classroom, waited for a few minutes, and then he volunteered. However, he did not have any story to read, and then he borrowed the female student's book and read aloud the story.

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 3)

Complementing field notes, the analysis of the interviews with students uncovered a similar practice. S8, another high achiever student of this school, mentioned performing a task on behalf of his classmates. They were required to work in pairs and write dialogue during the lesson. He elucidated that he performed the activity in the lesson with a peer. When the teacher announced students to record a video of their dialogue as part of a performance-based assessment task, he thought he did not need to perform it. Since he had high scores in the EFL course, he suggested another peer record the video on his behalf. Therefore, S39 recorded the video of the dialogue S8 wrote because he wanted to get a performance-based assessment score. S8 edited the video, and then the task was submitted to the teacher.

One of the most striking findings of this dissertation was the students' digital cheating behaviors. The review of the classroom field notes indicated that students found the answers to the exercises on the Internet, and so they participated in the lesson in this way. Also, some students admitted that they found the answer key on the Internet. The main impetus for doing so was frankly expressed by a student (S19) as: "*İnternetten baktım, neden baktığımı da söyleyeyim. İngilizceden anlamıyorum, en azından derse katılayım da performansım yüksek olsun.*" "*I copied the answers from the answer key available on the Internet. Let me explain why I did so; I do not know English, in this way, at least I can participate in the lesson, and I can achieve a high score.*" (SC1, Classroom Field Note 12). The field note below complements those arguments:

> Towards the end of the lesson, something happened; a female student told the teacher that two male students had already answered the listening exercises in the textbook although these activities had not been performed yet. During personal conversations in the break time, the students said, "*Bakıyoruz.*" "*We copy it.*" They had found the answer key of the exercises on the Internet and they wrote the answers of all the exercises into their textbook.

> (SC1, Classroom Field Note 10)

On a similar line, during personal conversations in another class, a male student honestly explicated that he shared the answers to all the exercises in the textbook. The students responded to the question of why they copied the answers. They underlined that at least they participated in the lesson (SC2, Classroom Field Note 12).

Last but not least, a lack of intercultural awareness was observed in this school. Students had a few stereotypes about different cultures and people; for instance, one student (S51) thought that the British were alcoholic and thoughtless. Another student (S8) believed that he would not know where he was if he had lived in Brunei. Yet still, a multilingual student (S7) had written down sentences about her friends she had in Austria. She had a friend from Pakistan and had learned that they did not cut their hair; she wrote her sentence about Pakistan accordingly. Such stereotypes emerged as a result of the task assigned for the speaking practice exam. The teacher required the students to list 10 countries and write a sentence about how their lives would be if they had lived in these countries (MC1, Classroom Field Note 17).

In brief, students gained various experiences in EFL classes as a result of the implementation of the instructional policy ranging from positive to negative. Though some of their experiences emerged due to their own attempts, such as self-initiated language learning techniques and strategic language learning efforts, they sometimes experienced what was not desired, such as getting bored and becoming disengaged in EFL classes; they also experienced several problems in active participation.

All in all, the reflection of instruction on students' language learning experiences as the third theme emerged in this study presented findings of teachers' perceptions and beliefs that influenced their classroom-level teaching practices. Teachers' instructional practices were detected in two groups; while they displayed some satisfying techniques in terms of language teaching, some of their practices were not welcoming. The last category of this theme demonstrated various language learning experiences students gained in and out of EFL classes due to the implementation of the instructional policy in this school. The following section will specifically report the findings concerning assessment and evaluation practices implemented in this school.

4.2.4. Assessment Policy Implementation

This study aimed to understand the journey of an instructional policy from top to down, developed for teaching EFL. Therefore, how regulations prescribed for assessment and evaluation procedures were implemented at the micro policy level were also investigated.

In a very general sense, assessment policy implementation as a theme documented the main procedures of the assessment and evaluation for EFL in this school. Types of assessment and evaluation tools used to determine the achievement level of the students in EFL class were described by Snowdrop as in the following:

Zaten yazılı sınavlarımız var. Onların dışında uygulama sınavları yapıyoruz. Onun haricinde de performans ödevleri istiyoruz. Tabii bunlar daha gözle görülebilir hani elinde evrak olarak tutulabilir değerlendirmeler yapıyoruz.

We already have written examinations. Apart from them, we conduct skills practice exams. Besides, we also assign performance-based assessment tasks. These are more visible, of course; we perform evaluations that can be kept as documents.

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Likewise, three main types of assessment tools were identified by the participants. One student (S8) put it this way: *"Ders içi katılımı, performans ödevi ve sınav notlarının ortalaması diyebiliriz."* *"We can say that it is the mean percentage of written examinations, performance-based assessment tasks, and active participation."* Another student (S9) put it this way:

Sınavlar sonucu oldu bir kısmı, bir kısmı da ders içi etkinliğimize göre. Ders içinde hocaya gösterdiğimiz ödevler karşısında artı veya eksi aldık. Bir performans notumuz da böyle belirlendi.	*Some of them were scored according to the exam results, while some were related to active participation. The teacher scored us plus or minus according to the task work we performed during the lesson. One of our performance-based assessment marks was determined in this way.*

An in-depth analysis of the qualitative data revealed how assessment regulations for FLE were implemented at a public high school, the use of traditional and alternative assessment tools as well as the impact of assessment on teachers' and students' classroom-level practices in EFL classes. These were grouped under four main categories: 1) actualization of assessment regulations, 2) traditional assessment procedures, 3) performance-based assessment procedures, 4) assessment-oriented teaching and learning.

4.2.4.1. Actualization of Assessment Regulations

As reported previously, instructional practices at upper secondary education institutions all over Turkey are adjusted by the official regulations, among which Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions has been the most crucial document to prescribe assessment and evaluation-related decisions to be implemented in the schools (see section 4.1.1.2 Official Regulations for Adjusting Instruction at Upper Secondary Education Institutions). More specifically, characteristics of desired assessment procedures for EFL instruction have been envisioned in the formal curriculum documents and materials (see section 4.1.2.2 2014 MNE English Language Teaching Program, see also section 4.1.2.4 The Instructional Material "Ortaöğretim [Upper Secondary Education]

Sunshine English 11"). This section involved the procedure followed to implement all these features of assessment at a public high school, as well as how decisions concerning assessment and evaluation were made by the micro policy actors, i.e., EFL teachers.

In line with the regulations on assessment and evaluation identified in the macro policy documents, a joint examination procedure was conducted in this school, which was called "*kelebek sistemi*[9]." Snowdrop elaborated how students sat for exams in this system; she noted that all the students at all grades sat for their exam in the same classroom at the same time. In other words, while a junior year student was sitting for an English exam, a final year student sat for his/her math's exam in the same classroom at the same time. Students of grades 9 and 10 also sat for their exams accordingly. The number and the types of assessment tools were also decided accordingly. Snowdrop summarized the procedure carried out for assessment and evaluation practices in this school as in the following:

Yazılılar uygulamalar zaten genel olarak hem Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından hem okul hem zümre tarafından genel olarak karar veriliyor zaten, performans ve proje bunların içinde. Onun dışında da zaten çok karar verebildiğimiz bir durum yok. Yani kaç performans vereceğimiz, projeyi ne vereceğimiz, kaç sınav yapacağımız, bunların hepsi zaten belirli şeyler. Yani tamamen aslında yönetmeliğe göre gidiyoruz. Yani yönetmelikte iki sınav, bir uygulamaysa idare de bunu istiyor, ya da yönetmelik neyse onu istiyorlar açıkçası özel bir

Written and skills practice examinations are all prescribed by MNE, the school, and the teachers' committee decisions; performance-based assessment and project work-oriented assessment practices are included. Apart from this, there are not so many things that we can decide. I mean, the numbers of performance-based evaluation marks, what the project work-oriented assessment will be, and the numbers of examinations we will conduct are all set. I mean, we entirely proceed according to the regulation. If there are two written examinations and two skills practice examinations prescribed in the regulation, the school management requires us to perform the same. Or, they require us to fulfill what the regulation is. They do not

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[9]A system for examinations employed to distribute students in the examination hall. It is based on the principle of mixing the students at the same grade with students of other grades; the distribution is performed in such a way that the students of the same level do not sit for the exam side by side or back to back.

uygulama istedikleri yok ama yönetmeliğin dışına da çıkmak istemezler.	*want us to implement something specific, but they also do not desire us to do something out of the regulation.*

Table 42. Actualization of Assessment Regulations

Item	Code
1	Teachers' committee decisions
2	Language assessment knowledge
3	Teacher-led modifications for assessment
4	Problems experienced in assessment practice
5	Judgments about assessment tools
	-Teachers' views
	-Students' views

With respect to the implementation of the assessment and evaluation-related regulations for EFL courses, teachers' committee decisions played a crucial role in this school. As the number of exams and content of the exams (i.e., written exams, skills practice exams) and even types of questions (e.g., open-ended questions, multiple-choice questions, etc.) were outlined in the policy documents, EFL teachers made decisions about the types of questions, which linguistic items were to be assessed, and how language skills were assessed. Snowdrop explained how EFL examinations for junior year students were prepared in this school:

Yazılı sınavları genelde sadece 11. Sınıflara giren öğretmenler arasında zümre olarak karar veriyoruz. Uygulama sınavlarını da aynı şekilde zümre içinde karar veriyoruz. Hani ne soracağımızı, konunun ne olacağını, nasıl soracağımızı ve kimin hazırlayacağını yine zümre içinde karar veriyoruz. Ona göre ya bir kişi ya yine hep beraber duruma göre hazırlıyoruz.	*We usually decide the written examinations as a teachers' committee who teach EFL in grade 11 classes only. We made our decisions in the same way for the skills practice examinations. I mean, as teachers' committee, we make decisions on what to ask in the exam, what the exam subjects will be, how we will ask them, and who will prepare the exam. Depending on the decision, either one teacher prepares the exam or we all together prepare it.*

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As is seen in the interview excerpt above, EFL teachers made decisions regarding the preparation of the examinations. However, Marigold frankly expressed that the examinations were prepared in a hurry:

Çok alelacele hazırlıyorduk şimdi kabul etmek gerekirse değil mi? Hani kime kalıyorsa, bölüşüyorduk, diyelim ki birimiz reading [okuma parçası] bölümünü buluyorduk, birimiz gramer, kelime bölümünü buluyorduk, birleştiriyorduk. Yani hiç bir araya gelip de bir cevap anahtarı hazırlayıp ya da bu bölüm şöyle kolay gelir, zor gelir diye hiç birleşmedik.

If we accept the truth, we prepared them in a hurry, right? I mean, whoever it was left, we were sharing the parts, be it one of us prepared the reading part, another prepared the grammar part while the other prepared the vocabulary part, then we combined them. I mean, we had never come together to prepare an answer key or to discuss the difficulty or easiness of the questions.

The analysis of the field notes also supported the argument above. In other words, teachers negotiated issues related to the examinations during the break time in that they did not allocate a specific meeting time to negotiate examination-related issues. The procedure for preparing the first written exam in the second term and also the skills practice exam exemplified how teachers made decisions in a hurry. For the first written exam, Snowdrop was assigned to prepare for the exam, yet Marigold found a sample exam in a social media platform and shared it with colleagues. This sample exam paper was examined during the break time, and teachers made decisions accordingly. The decision was to use the exam paper, but also to add some parts to it. Therefore, Snowdrop, as the one who was responsible for preparing the exam, decided to add a few parts to this exam paper. These were a reading comprehension part, another grammar part to assess the gerund and infinitive structures, and a vocabulary part (Field Note, 22.03.2018 / Thursday).

In another decision-making procedure, teachers negotiated the skills practice exam. Marigold shared her idea with colleagues; she had planned to prepare a paragraph with active sentences and ask the students to write its passive form to assess the writing skills. She also shared her decision to perform the speaking exam because Snowdrop had decided not to perform a speaking practice exam in

her classes. Marigold planned to prepare a speaking practice exam in such a way that students would write 10 or 15 sentences about a topic given in the simple past tense. As for the listening comprehension part of the exam, Marigold decided to find a recording from the 9th grade textbook again as it was in the skills practice exam of the previous term. For the reason that the junior year students could not practice the listening exercises in the textbook, she had decided to assess their listening comprehension skills by using something easier from the 9th grade textbook. Snowdrop and Tulip confirmed all the decisions (Field Note, 13.04.2018 / Friday).

Teachers' language assessment knowledge played another critical role in the implementation of the assessment and evaluation procedures. Analysis of interviews with teachers yielded that teachers' language assessment knowledge was constructed according to the textbook. In other words, the textbook, i.e., the content and types of activities in it, was the main tool in determining the content of the examinations, as Marigold stated.

Complementing interviews, field notes further elaborated some other issues related to the teachers' language assessment knowledge bearing influence on the realization of the instructional policy. In this respect, teachers sometimes presented a lack of knowledge in language assessment; although joint examinations were conducted, the way they assessed the exam papers showed variety. Concerning this, Tulip strictly followed the joint examination procedure, so she admitted the phrases in the answer key as the single true answers. In one incident, S5 had lost points in her exam paper, although her answer was correct. To clarify, the students were required to make sentences by using gerund and infinitive forms; S5 had made a sentence without using a verb for the phrase "*People think that I'm gifted in ...*", yet in the answer key, it was required to be written with a verb, i.e., *People think that I'm gifted in taking photographs*. S5 showed the example in the coursebook and mentioned that she made the sentence as it was in the textbook, albeit knowing the alternative form. Tulip's rationale for not admitting her answer as true was the answer key. Since the

exam paper and the answer key were prepared by Snowdrop, the verb was required there, so she did not mark points for this sentence (Field Note, 02.04.2018 / Monday).

Furthermore, Tulip's assessment approach revealed some other aspects that were not satisfying because the assessment was used as a sort of negative reinforcement instrument in her practices. In one incident, she assessed students' performance during the lesson via 'plus or minus' (i.e., the well-known traditional form of assessment), some students complained about receiving minus, and then Tulip left a question that needed to be considered: "*Yapan artı alıyorsa yapmayan neden eksi almasın?*" "*If those who perform the task receive plus, why do not the students who do not fulfill the task receive minus?*" During personal conversations after the lesson, Tulip explained her rationale for assessing students' work via plus or minus as something slight (SC2, Classroom Field Note 9).

Another argument detected under this category was the teacher-led modifications for assessment. Even if joint examinations were conducted in this school, teachers made some modifications in their assessment procedures. In other words, the joint examination procedure was conducted for the pen-and-paper exams; however, speaking exams and performance-based assessment procedures showed variety. Such a variety of assessment procedures can sometimes be welcomed; for example, Marigold mentioned preparing a quiz to further assess the students in a group work task. To clarify, she assigned students to work in groups and create a story. After they submitted their work, she prepared a follow-up quiz that involved questions about the story; there were a few reading comprehension questions, some questions about the past simple forms of the verbs used in the story, as well as a few vocabulary items. She explained the assessment of this task as followed:

Yani o ödevi hazırlayan diyelim ki dört kişi mi,	*Let us say four students prepared the assignment; I did the same exam for all*

dördüne de aynı sınavı yaptım. O [sınav] 100'ün üzerinden herkese ne aldıysa onu ekleyip, ikiye böldük. Çünkü hani bir 100 verdim, hani ödev nasıl olsa geldi diye. Diğeri [quiz] de 19 almış mesela, 119'u ikiye böl, bunun notu 60 olarak geçmiş. *four. We added the score everybody achieved out of 100 from the quiz and divided it in half. On account of the fact that they had already scored 100, as they submitted the task. As for the other [the quiz], for instance, one student achieved 19 out of 100. Then, the total score becomes 119; divide 119 by two, the score becomes 60.*

On the other hand, Tulip's modification for assessment did not present satisfying results. She decided not to implement a speaking practice exam at all (i.e., speaking practice exam equaled one-fourth of a skills practice exam mark). And, she put it this way: "*Ben [konuşma sınavı] yapmayacağım, kendim vereceğim derste katılımlarına göre.*" "*I am not going to conduct [speaking exam]; I am going to score it according to the active participation of the students.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 15).

Under this category, problems that emerged in the implementation of the written examinations were also discussed. The assessment of a linguistic property that was not taught, problems in the answer key as well as in the exam questions (e.g., missing information to answer the question) were some of them. For example, a few students in Marigold's classes (i.e., MC1 and SSC1) claimed that they did not learn the linguistic content 'if clause mixed type,' so they were not able to do the part assessing this linguistic content in the exam (Field Note, 22.05.2018 / Tuesday). Whether this structure (i.e., if clause mixed type) was taught or not was unclear for Marigold, as well. Another problem was that she had not reviewed the exam paper thoroughly. During personal conversations after the exam, she frankly expressed that she thought the exam was appropriate for her classes since her colleagues approved the exam in the text messages before the exam—Snowdrop had shared a sample exam paper in a text messaging platform for review (Field Note, 23.05.2018 / Wednesday).

Perhaps one of the most critical findings of this study concerning the problems in assessment and evaluation practices was the mismatch between what was taught

and assessed. The way linguistic properties were taught in EFL classes and how they were assessed in exam papers did not overlap. As reported earlier in this chapter, form-focused instruction, especially focus on forms, was exhibited in teaching linguistic properties. In this respect, classroom observations generated that teachers taught grammar in a GTM-oriented way; they explained the rule, gave examples, and then wanted the students to translate the sentences to practice the linguistic item (see section 4.2.1.2.1 Developing Linguistic Competence).

On the other hand, a detailed review of the exam papers manifested that the textbook and so the types of exercises/activities (i.e., meaningful practice activities in general) were the main impetus to prepare the exam questions; therefore, the way the linguistic properties were assessed in the exams was similar to the exercises and/or activities in the textbook. However, personal conversations with lower proficiency level students disclosed that they studied for their exam using the grammar notes they had taken during classroom-level instruction for grammar (Field Note, 29.03.2018 / Thursday). A sample study sheet of a lower proficiency level student is illustrated in the following photo:
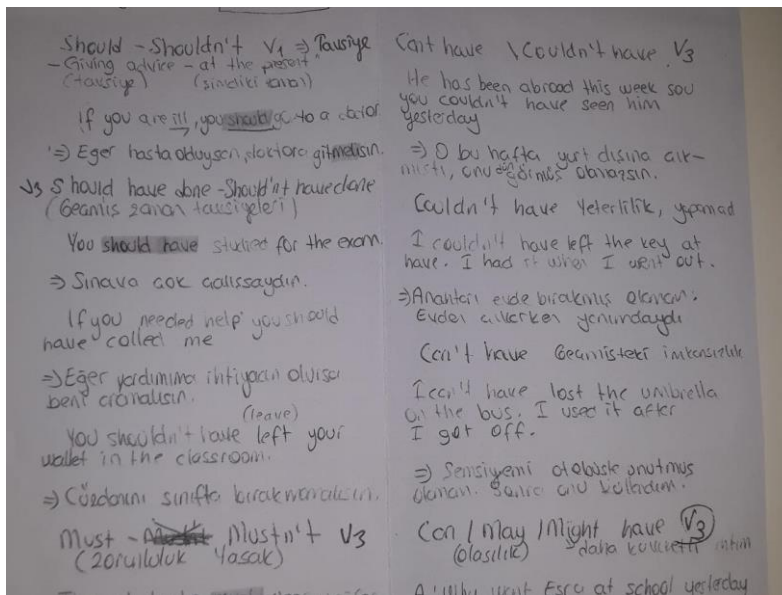
Figure 15. A Photo of Sample Student Study Sheet for Exam

In this study sheet, the student (S30) reviewed some linguistic forms (e.g., past modals). The way she prepared for the exam was based on the sentence-level translation. The student first made sentences in English, following which she took note of its Turkish translation. She highlighted the linguistic forms in the sentences such as "should have," she wrote something like a formula (e.g., can/may/might have V3). She also wrote L1 equivalents of the modal verbs in parentheses under the formulas (Analytical Memo 3).

During personal conversations with the student (S30), it was found that although there were grammar parts in the exam assessing the structures she reviewed in her study sheet, she was not able to get points (e.g., she got 0 out of 20). She studied for the structures via translation, but there was no sentence translation in the exam. The students were required to use the prompts given and write sentences for the situations given in the exam. For instance, the situation was "*The phone rang but I didn't hear it*," the prompts were "*I*" and "*asleep*." The students were required to write sentences by using past modal forms (e.g., I must have been asleep). S30 got 26 out of 100 from the exam. She elaborated that when something was given in parenthesis like it was in the exam, she was not able to do them. She did not know how to use the prompts given in parenthesis (Field Note, 29.03.2018 / Thursday).

The participants were also consulted for their opinions about the assessment tools. Teachers and students shared various views on the content of the exams, the types of questions covered in the exam. All these judgments about examinations were reported from two angles, i.e., teachers' views and students' views.

The actualization of assessment and evaluation regulations was mainly influenced by the teachers' views and subjective judgments about assessment tools. The interview data analysis yielded that teachers' main impetus for preparing exam questions was their concern for students to succeed in the exam. Marigold explained that a list of questions was provided to the students before

the speaking practice exam, and she justified this practice as "*Puan alsınlar diye, tek kaygımız.*" "*Our only concern is that students get points.*" She clarified whether this practice worked or not as in the following:

Şöyle bir şey yine benim sayemde [işe] yaradı. Yani orada mesela 30 puanlık speakingten [uygulama sınavı konuşma bölümü] beş puan vermeyeceğim çocuğa ben zorlamayla 12-13 puan veriyordum kafadan. Oradan biraz, oradan biraz, yaptı, ay hadi uğraştı diye, mesela sıfır alacağına çocuk en azından 10 puan buradan, beş puan oradan 20-30'la [uygulama sınavının dinleme, okuma, yazma bölümlerinden almış olduğu notu kast ediyor] birlikte en azından bir not aldı. O yönden işe yaradı.	*It is something like this; it was useful again, thanks to me. For example, I gave a score of 12 to 13 points for a student whom I usually would not give a score of five out of 30 in the speaking part. Instead of getting zero, the student achieved, at least, a good score by scoring 10 points from a piece, 5 points from another. After that, I added the speaking score to the other scores [of the skills practice exam] in which he/she achieved 20 to 30. It was useful in this way.*

Snowdrop touched on a similar feature of assessment practices. She noted that the vocabulary sections in the exam were the same as it was in the textbook. Since vocabulary activities in the textbook were matching lexis with their L2 equivalents, she said that she was asking the same questions in the same way. She further explained why she did so: "*Öğrencinin puan alabileceği, yapabileceği, yapmışken de iki üç puan alabileceği bir soru olsun diye.*" "*It was in order to have a question that the student can achieve a score, do, and get two or three points while doing it.*"

The analysis of the field notes generated another aspect that influenced teachers' assessment and evaluation decisions and practices. To clarify, the second and remarkable drive behind teachers' assessment and evaluation practices was the inspection. Except for the student achievement, teachers decided whether to conduct a speaking practice exam or not according to the inspectors' visit schools for inspection. As noted above, Tulip did not practice the speaking practice exam, and Snowdrop was not eager, either. And she put it this way: "*Ne bileyim hani gelen giden de olmaz ya artık.*" "*I am not sure; you know no one will visit the school from now on.*" She meant that as MNE inspectors had

already visited the province and finished their visit, there would not be any inspection for the rest of this school year (SC1, Classroom Field Note 11).

On the other hand, Marigold put forth a counter-argument: "*Ben [konuşma sınavı] yapacağım, sonradan biri gelip neye göre verdin derse ne göstereceğiz?*" "*I am going to conduct the speaking exam; if someone visits the school and questions on what criteria you gave the score, what are we going to say?*" (MC1, Classroom Field Note 15). Though Snowdrop was undecided, she performed a speaking practice exam in her classes. Her rationale was that if she had not practiced the speaking exam, her students would have questioned why they did not sit for the speaking exam, "*[Konuşma sınavı] yapmayacaktım ama şimdi diyecekler diğer sınıflar oluyor, biz niye olmuyoruz diye.*" "*I was not going to conduct the [speaking exam], but then the students will question why they do not sit for it while the other classes are sitting for the speaking exam.*" (SC1, Classroom Field Note 14).

Similar to the teachers' concern for student achievement, students' subjective judgments about assessment tools were also centered on the easiness or difficulty of the task. Students generally made comments on the reading comprehension parts of the exams. To illustrate, one student (S20) expressed his dissatisfaction with the reading comprehension part; he complained about the score that could be achieved when all the questions were answered correctly. He said that they needed to write five sentences, but it was only 10 points. Achieving 10 points out of 100 was not satisfying for him (Field Note, 27.03.2018 / Tuesday).

Furthermore, students shared different points of views on the reading comprehension parts of the exams. During personal conversations, S37 compared the first written exam with the second one with respect to the reading comprehension parts. She noted that the reading comprehension part in the second exam was easier than the previous exam (Field Note, 27.03.2018 / Tuesday). On the other hand, the interview data analysis showed that the reading comprehension parts could be time-consuming for the students during the exam.

S7 explained: *"Paragraf ağır oluyordu, uzun oluyordu yani bizim 40 dakikamız var, metni okuyorsun, soruları cevaplamaya çalışıyorsun, anlamaya çalışıyorsun, ağır geliyordu."* *"The paragraph was long and challenging. I mean, we have 40 minutes; you read the text, you try to answer the questions, you try to understand, it was challenging."*

Except for the reading comprehension parts, students also shared their experiences regarding other parts of the exam. Perhaps, one of the most remarkable comments about the vocabulary parts was made by a high proficiency student. The qualitative data analysis revealed that most students were satisfied with the vocabulary parts, mainly because it was the same as the vocabulary exercises in the textbook, as was pointed out by Snowdrop. On the contrary, reviewing vocabulary as discrete items since there was no reading text to understand the vocabulary caused some problems for the high proficiency students. For example, S8 could not do the vocabulary section, and he lost 10 points out of 20 in this part of the exam. He elaborated on this situation and said that he could understand its meaning from the text when the words were given in the reading text. When the words were given on their own without a context, he did not know what they meant, so he could not match them with their L2 explanations correctly (Field Note, 27.03.2018 / Tuesday).

In addition to the pen-and-paper examinations, students shared their comments about the speaking practice exams. Another high proficiency student (S5) in Tulip's class emphasized how eager she was to sit for the speaking practice exam. As aforementioned, Tulip did not perform the speaking exam at all. The way S5 interpreted this practice was as followed:

Bizim okul bizim sınıf için böyle olması daha uygun, çünkü diğer türlü de ezberleyip yapıyorlar, o zaman da neye göre vereceksin yani. Ezberledi diye 100 mü alacak? Öyle de	*It is more appropriate to perform a speaking exam like this for our school and our class because otherwise, they memorize and perform accordingly. Then how are you going to assess the performance? Will the student get 100 only because he/she memorize the speech? It is not so*

olmaz. *Ders içi katılıma göre vermesi bizim okul için, bizim sınıf için daha iyi.*

appropriate. *Considering our school and our class, it is better to give a score according to the in-class participation.*

(Field Note, 16.05.2018 / Wednesday)

In brief, how assessment regulations prescribed in the policy documents actualized in this school, illuminated the running of assessment and evaluation procedures in schools, the teachers' decision-making procedures, and their practices in performing assessment and evaluation. In addition to teachers, students' views shed light on how instructional policy realized in assessment and evaluation in this school.

4.2.4.2. Traditional Assessment Procedures

Traditional forms of assessment refer to conventional testing methods, which emphasize the end product rather than the process of learning. The findings of this study unfolded that some traditional assessment procedures were undertaken in this school to evaluate student achievement. Among the traditional assessment tools, pen-and-paper exams, as well as teacher observation, were prevalent. One student (S3) explained: "*Öğretmenin kendi verdiği puan var, uygulama sınavı, normal sınav haricinde, hangi etkinliklere daha çok katılıyoruz, katıldığımız etkinliklerin sayısı işte ona bağlı olarak puanlama yapıyorlar.*" "*Except for the written and skills practice examinations, there is a score the teacher gives; when we participate in the lesson, they give a score depending on which activities we participate in, and the number of activities we participate.*" Table 43 provides the list of traditional assessment procedures identified in this school.

Table 43 . Traditional Assessment Procedures

Item	Code
1	Using traditional assessment tools
2	Pen-and-paper exams
	-Listening practice exam
	-Scoring criteria
3	The viva voce examination
	-Speaking performance
	-Avoiding speaking performance
	-Criteria for speaking assessment
	-Using a rubric matrix
4	Preparation for examinations
5	Teacher observation
	-Active participation
	-Subjective judgments

Given that traditional assessment procedures involved assessment tools such as true/false sentences and filling in the blanks with the words, analysis of the exam papers as well as the interview data indicated the use of traditional assessment tools in this school. First, the main components of examinations consisted of reading comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary parts as described by Snowdrop. Analysis of the exam papers displayed that students' reading comprehension skills were assessed in either meaningful drills (i.e., reading comprehension questions) or true/false statements. Vocabulary parts were always the same; students were required to match the words with their L2 definitions. In the exam papers, the third part was for grammar; the students' linguistic competence for grammar was assessed by either controlled or meaningful practice questions (see Table 44 below). Concerning controlled practice, write the missing forms of verbs, fill in the blanks with the verbs given and circle the correct answers were found. As for meaningful practice, situations and prompts were given, students were required to rewrite the sentences by making use of particular linguistic items. These are exemplified as in the following:

Table 44. Sample Grammar Parts in Written Exams

B) Complete the sentences with words in parentheses using the SIMPLE PAST or PRESENT PERFECT tense. (*boşlukları "simple past" ya da "present perfect" kullanarak doldurunuz*) (**20p**)

1. Jack _____ (break) his arm when he _____ (fall) off a horse in 2005.
2. I _____ (know) about the problem for months, but I _____ (not / find) a solution yet.
3. _____Tim _____ (finish) his work yet?
4. _____he _____ (finish) it yesterday?
5. The young man _____ (never / be) to Paris, but he _____ (read) a book about this city last year.

C- Read the situations and use the words in brackets to write sentences with *must have V3* and *can't have V3* (Parantez içindeki yapıları ve *__must have V3__- __can't haveV3__* kullanarak duruma uygun cümle yazınız) (**20 points**)

1) The phone rang but I didn't hear it. (I / asleep)
_____.
2) Jane walked past me without speaking. (she/see/me)
_____.
3) The jacket you bought is very good quality. (it/be /very expensive)
_____ .
4) I can't find my umbrella. (I / leave / it in the restaurant last night)
_____.
5) Fiona did the opposite of what I asked her to do. (she / understand / what I said)
_____.

(1ˢᵗ Term 2ⁿᵈ Written Exam) (2ⁿᵈ Term 1ˢᵗ Written Exam)

An interesting finding of this study is that linguistic properties (i.e., grammar) were assessed in the practice exams on behalf of writing skills. The linguistic item 'be going to' was assessed as part of writing in the first term first skills practice exam as: "*Look at the planner and write five sentences with be going to;*" another linguistic item 'wish clause' was assessed as: "*Read the situations and write appropriate wish clauses*" (Skills Practice Exam for the 1ˢᵗ Term). In support of this claim, Marigold frankly admitted that these questions were not assessing writing skill; instead, these were assessing grammar; she put it this way: "*Mesela şöyle bir writing [yazma] olur mu? Şimdi düşünüyorum da bu bildiğin gramer yani, going to [gelecek zaman için kullanılır] ile cümle kur, gramer sorusu gibi.*" "*For instance, would there be a writing part like this? When I think of it now, this is grammar; make a sentence with be going to, it is like a grammar question.*"

Pen-and-paper exams were in two forms; written exams for EFL and skills practice exams. Both were conducted as joint examinations. During the field data

collection procedure (i.e., 2017-2018 school year), four pen-and-paper examinations were performed. Two of them were the written exams for EFL, which assessed reading comprehension skills and linguistic properties (i.e., grammar and vocabulary). Half of them were of the skills practice exam, which was composed of three parts, i.e., listening comprehension, writing, and speaking. Similar to the assessment tools reviewed above, analysis of the documents for the listening practice exam revealed true/false statements and multiple-choice tests. One student notified the steps followed during a typical listening practice exam as in the following:

Hoca kâğıdı veriyor, işte kâğıtta yazılanlara bir bakıyorsun, önce şu bölümden başlayacağız diyor mesela, o bölümle alakalı ses dosyası açıyor. Ses dosyasını dinleyip, bir yandan cevaplıyoruz. Biraz hızlı olduğu için ikinci ve üçüncü tekrarı da yapabiliyoruz. İşte duyduğumuzu yazıyoruz veya duyduğumuz şeyi işaretliyoruz. Diyalog şeklinde oluyor mesela bu konuşma, o diyalog içinden ihtiyacımız olanı çekip yazıyoruz.(S1)	*The teacher gives the exam paper, and you take a look at what is written on it. For example, she says we will start with the following section first, and then she turns on the recording related to this part. We listen to the recording and answer at the same time. We can listen to it twice and three times because the recording is a bit fast. We write down what we hear or mark what we hear. For example, the conversation can be in dialogue; we choose the relevant information from the conversation and write it down into the exam paper. (S1)*

Field notes showed that teachers attempted to regulate joint scoring criteria to assess student achievement due to the joint examination procedure implemented in this school. Personal conversations with teachers disclosed that teachers had a concern for being objective in the assessment. The field notes were complemented with interviews. Marigold pointed out that although she was not satisfied with some aspects of the joint scoring, she used it mainly because it was a joint examination. She explained as followed:

Mesela sizin birçok puan verelim dediğiniz yerlerde ben puan verme taraftarı değildim, sadece hani uyum sağlamak adına kabul ediyordum. Eğer ki grameri ölçüyorsak gramerde	*For example, I did not support the idea that we should give points for some parts; I accepted just because I wanted to be in line with your scoring practice. If we measure grammatical accuracy, then none of the errors should be*

accepted in the grammar part, because if the beginning of the sentence is false, the end of it is also false. But for the questions in the reading part, it is OK, the student might have understood, but he/she made mistakes in making sentences. We can give half points in these parts, but it is either true or false in grammar. I indeed wanted to perform scoring in this way, but as I said before when you perform scoring the way I do not support, I feel forced to assess in the same way in order to be in line with you.

When Marigold was asked to express further the reason for feeling obliged to score in the same way the other teachers did, she unclothed her rationale as in the following: "*Bu çocukların hepsi aynı okulda, aynı sınava giriyor. Bir öğrenci, o hatadan üç puan alırken ben sıfır verirsem haksızlık olacak. O yüzden ben hani ortaklık adına uyum sağlamak istiyordum.*" "*These students are at the same school and sit for the same exam. While a student gets three points in a sentence involving the error, if I give zero points, this will be unfair. For this reason, I wanted to assess according to the joint scoring criteria.*"

Additionally, findings generated from the field notes portrayed the routines of the assessment procedures; the teacher who prepared the exam questions also prepared the answer key. The point was that the answer key was generally provided just after the exam. Teachers, especially Marigold and Snowdrop, met and negotiated the scoring criteria after the exam was conducted. Although the same answer key was used, and the same scoring criteria were determined, Tulip never attended these meetings, so her way of the assessment showed variety. For instance, there was a reading comprehension question: "*Is Zuckerberg's biography inspirational for you?*" Marigold and Snowdrop marked full points for the answers "*No, it isn't, or Yes, it is.*" However, Tulip required her students to explain their answers further, so she did not mark full points (Field Note, 29.03.2018 / Thursday).

Apart from listening and writing parts of the practice exams, there was a speaking practice exam called The viva voce examination hereof. To clarify, classroom observations disclosed that the way speaking practice exams were conducted portrayed a viva voce examination features. Concerning this, students were given a list of questions or topics to prepare for their performance beforehand. Then they memorized their speech, and they sat for their exam during the lesson. When their name was announced from the attendance list, they went near the teacher, took a chair, and either read aloud what they had written or told what they memorized (MC2, Classroom Field Note 15; MC1, Classroom Field Note 17). Also, teachers and students called the speaking performance exam "*Sözlü.*" Supporting those field notes, Snowdrop explained how she conducted the viva voce examination in her classes as followed:

Zaten soruları önceden vermiş oluyoruz, ona göre tarih veriyorum. Yani bu hafta soruları veriyorsam, atıyorum işte haftaya diyelim Cuma günü şu saatte sınav olacaksınız diye söylüyorum. Liste sırasına göre başlıyoruz, sınıftaki diğer kişiler kendi halinde oturuyor. Onlar artık ister çalışıyorlar konularına ister bekliyorlar. Ben her öğrenciyi sıradan yanıma çağırıyorum, bir sıra çekmiş oluyoruz zaten öğretmen masasına. Önce işte greetings [selamlaşma] şeklinde küçük bir giriş, ondan sonra da birkaç soru soruyorum, cevaplarını alıyorum, sonra teşekkür ediyorum, gönderiyorum.	*We already give the questions in advance, and I announce the date of the exam accordingly. I mean, if I provide the list of questions this week, I say, for instance, next week on Friday, you will sit for your exam. We start for the exam with the first student on the attendance list. The other students in the classroom are free; they either prepare for their exams or wait for their turn. I call each student according to the attendance list, and we have already taken a chair near the teacher's table. First, a brief introduction with greetings, then I pose a few questions, I elicit the answers, after that, I thank the student, and I finish his/her exam.*

During the viva voce examinations, teachers attempted to ask further questions after they listened to the students' performance; nevertheless, most students were not able to answer these questions. Marigold asked a few following questions like "*Did you enjoy? Would you like to go…?*" However, the students could not answer. After a few attempts, the teacher decided not to ask further questions (MC1, Classroom Field Note 17).

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Classroom observations also detected variety in students' performance during the viva voce examination. While high proficiency students improvised, lower proficiency students either memorized their speech or only read aloud what they had written. How students sat for their exam is exemplified in the following field note:

> The students' manners in terms of sitting for the exam varied. S52 sat for the exam; he went to the teacher's table, took a chair, and sat there. Then, he read the notes on the screen of his smartphone. During the exam, the phone was in his hand. After he finished reading his notes, the teacher said, "*Okay, good.*" He asked if there was a need for the L1 version, the teacher answered him in L2: "*No, did you write it by yourself?*" He did not understand, and then the teacher asked in L1: "*Kendin mi yazdın?*" S52 clarified that he prepared his speech on his own, yet he also got help from someone else.
>
> Another student (S53) closed his notebook on the teacher's table and said, "*Hocam aklımdan söyleyeceğim.*" "*Hocam, I will speak by heart.*" S1 had not prepared for the exam; while he was waiting for his turn, he made a preparation for the exam, and he posed a few questions like how to say a phrase (i.e., If I would). He had planned to improvise. S54 put her notes on the teacher's table, and she had memorized them as well. She checked the beginning of the sentences from her notes and then said the rest to the teacher.

(MC2, Classroom Field Note 15)

Even though some students performed their speech impromptu or memorization, a few students avoided speaking performance. In other words, they did not sit for the exam at all, and so their skills practice exam was assessed accordingly (i.e., 25 points out of 100 were lost). Teachers had scoring criteria for those who sat for the exam; there was a rubric matrix involving assessment of content, fluency, vocabulary, effort, and accuracy. On the other hand, the way of assessing students' performance with the rubric was different. Teachers did not strictly employ the criteria identified in the rubric. Marigold verified this aspect, and she said, "*Buradaki yaptığımız hani bizim bir şablon vardı ya ona göre vermeye kalksak buradan iki puan, üç puan alamazlar. Ben genelde çocuk hani geldi mi yaptı mı hani uğraştı mı en azından bunlara bakıyordum.*" "*You know, there is a rubric matrix we prepared; if we score according to the criteria in it, they will not get two or three points. I usually concerned with things like at least whether*

the student sat for the exam, tried to perform, etc." She frankly expressed as: "*Yanlışlara bile not veriyordum ben, aslında kriter yok işte ortada!*" "*I gave points even for the mistakes, there is indeed no criterion!*"

Another traditional assessment tool detected under this category was the well-known teacher observation. The interview data analysis uncovered that students' behaviors in the classroom toward the teacher and peers as well as their effort in learning the language were assessed hereof. In this regard, Snowdrop identified this assessment tool as being different from the pen-and-paper exams since it was more subjective. She employed two criteria in her assessment regarding teacher observation; she used it to increase students' grade level or was ineffective. In other words, she did not employ the teacher observation mark as a negative reinforcement instrument. She explained how she assessed students' performance as part of teacher observation as in the following:

Sınıfta hiç ilgisi yoksa derste hiçbir şey yapmıyorsa, hani hiçbir soruyla ilgilenmiyorsa, dersle ilgilenmiyorsa, benle ya da şeyle [egzersizle] hiçbir ilgisi yoksa bu öğrenciye ortalaması neyse onu veriyorum. Yani yine sınav ortalamalarına bakıyorum, aynısını yazıyorum. Ama işte sınavları çok düşük öğrenciler oluyor. Mesela yirmilerde bile olsa yirmilerde, otuzlarda ama çocuk her ders uğraşıyor, her egzersizi yapmaya uğraşıyor, çok saygılı, bana saygılı, arkadaşlarına saygılı bir öğrenciyse, sınav ortalamalarına çok bakmıyorum onda. Hani böyle iyi bir öğrenciye de 100 veriyorum mesela sınıf içi değerlendirmesi olarak.

Suppose the student has no interest in the class. In that case, he/she does nothing in the lesson. If he/she is not interested in any questions and has nothing to do with me or the activity itself, I give this student the same score that his/her average is in the exam results. I mean, I take a look at the average of the exam results, and then I give the same score as part of teacher observation. But there are students whose exams are very low. For example, even if the student's exam results are about twenty or thirty, as long as this student is engaged in every lesson, tries to do every exercise, he/she is a very respectful student, respectful of classmates and me; I do not concern the exam averages very much. I give 100 to such a good student as part of the teacher observation mark.

Complementing interviews, the field notes data analysis revealed Snowdrop's criterion for assessing student's active participation. During personal conversations, she mentioned a lower proficiency student in SC1. Although the

student's exam results were low, Snowdrop was aware of her struggle to participate in the activities during the lesson. Therefore, she planned to score a high-performance mark for this student as part of teacher observation (Field Note, 13.04.2018 / Friday).

Nevertheless, interviews with teachers further pointed out that the teachers' main criterion in assessing student performance as part of teacher observation was the students' achievement in the written exams. Marigold elaborated her way of assessment as: "*Yazılı notlarını çok fazla etkilemeyecek şekilde vermeye çalışıyordum bir tanesini. Hani ne düşürüyordum ne de aşırı yükseltiyordum.*" "*I was trying to give the score for the teacher observation so that it would not affect too much the average gained as a result of the written exams. I neither dropped nor raised the student's grade too much.*" On the other hand, interviews with students showed that the students had already become aware of this criterion, and some of them were dissatisfied with it. An excerpt from the interviews with students complements those arguments:

Çünkü derste çabalıyoruz, mesela derste yapabiliyoruz onu [egzersizi], öğretmenle birlikte dersi dinliyoruz. Ama sınavda yapamıyoruz. Bu yüzden sınava [sınav sonuçlarına] yakın verdikleri için [ders ve etkinliklere katılım notu] düşük geliyor. Ama ders içi performans notu zaten dersin içinde bakılması lazım. Eğer çabalıyorsa bir öğrenci onu yapmaya çalışıyorsa bence yine ona yakın verilmesi lazım; çocuğa uygun verilmesi lazım nota değil de. (S7)

Because we strive to perform in the lesson. For example, we can do it [the activity] in the lesson, and we follow the lesson with the teacher. But we cannot do it in the exam. Because it is given close to the exams [exam results], it [the performance-based assessment mark for the active participation] becomes low. But the in-class performance grade should be scored according to the active participation in the lesson. If a student is trying to do it, I think it should be given accordingly; it should be given according to the student's performance, not according to the exam results. (S7)

Students' preparation for examinations was reported under the traditional assessment procedures, as well. The analysis of students' study sheets they prepared demonstrated two main aspects of linguistic competence; they studied

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for grammar and vocabulary. The analysis of the student interview data verified this inference. The students put it as followed:

Mesela defteri açıyordum, işte hoca örnekler falan yazdırmış, onları tek tek başka bir deftere yazıyordum, öyle çalışıyordum. Mesela formüllerini ezberliyordum. (S6)	*For instance, I was opening the notebook, and the teacher had gotten us to write down some examples in the notebook; I was writing them one by one in another notebook; I was studying for the exam like this. Another example, I was memorizing their formulas. (S6)*
Not çıkartarak hazırlanıyordum, özet çıkartıyorum kendime. Daha çok gramer ağırlıklı yapıyorum, onlarda zorlanıyordum çünkü. Kelime eşleştirmeyi zaten söylüyorlardı, hani bunu sorarız diyorlardı. İngilizce anlamları oluyordu orada [ders kitabında], onları öyle yazıyordum. (S7)	*I was preparing for the exam by taking notes, and I was making a summary for myself. I mainly prepared notes for grammar because I had difficulty in it. They [teachers] had already informed us about the vocabulary matching part, you know, they say they would ask it. There were English equivalents there [in the textbook]; I wrote them down as it was. (S7)*

In addition to taking note of grammar instruction and listing words, students also mentioned searching Google, watching videos for grammar instruction on YouTube, and doing extra grammar practice exercises. Nonetheless, some high proficiency students did not prepare for the examinations; instead, they helped their peers to prepare for the exams. One student (S8) reported that he prepared grammar instruction notes for his friends before the exam. Another high proficiency student (S3) shared her experience in preparing for the speaking practice exam, she remarked speaking English with her elder sister.

To sum up, traditional assessment procedures in this school involved pen-and-paper exams, the viva voce examination, and teacher observation. In particular, a detailed analysis of the exam papers revealed the prevalence of traditional assessment tools. Lastly, students' preparation for their exams was reported under this category mainly because they reported preparing for their pen-and-paper exams and the viva voce examination.

4.2.4.3. Performance-Based Assessment Procedures

Another domain unfolded concerning assessment and evaluation practices in this instructional policy space was the alternative assessment procedures. In this study, performance-based assessment procedures referred to teachers' assessment tools to evaluate student achievement except for the pen-and-paper exams and teacher observation. In particular, assessing student work in this way included classroom-level assessment practices specific to the teacher and the class she was teaching rather than conducting joint assessment procedures. Since alternative assessment procedures were identified as "performance-based assessment" within the main policy document for the running of upper secondary education institutions (see, e.g., Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2017), this category referring to the alternative assessment procedures was named as performance-based assessment procedures.

In this respect, classroom observations showed that Snowdrop employed particular exercises in the textbook as part of performance-based assessment tasks. Interview with Snowdrop verified this finding, she portrayed the textbook exercises which were suitable for performance-based assessment as in the following:

> *Mesela kendileriyle ilgili değerlendirmeleri gereken bir şey varsa, işte paragraf yazmaları, anılarını anlatmaları ya da bir konu hakkında yorum yapmaları gibi kendi yaratıcılıklarını kendi cümlelerini kullanacakları durumlarda performans veriyorum.*
>
> *For example, if there is something they need to evaluate themselves, I conduct a performance-based assessment in situations when they will use their creativity, such as writing paragraphs, telling memories, or commenting on a topic.*

Marigold pointed out another textbook exercise; i.e., a vlog task. She wanted the students to record a video of the dialogue they had written in the classroom, and she described how she assessed it as followed:

Video ödevi vardı mesela, ders	*There was a video assignment; for*
esnasında yaptıkları şeyi	*example, I told them that when they*
[diyaloğu] ses kaydı olarak, görsel	*record a video of what they performed*
olarak çektikleri zaman onlara	*[the dialogue] during the lesson, I will*
direk bir ders performans notu	*give them points that would affect the*
değil de, ders içine [ders ve	*performance-based assessment mark; I*
etkinliklere katılım notunu]	*mean, it was not assessed as a*
etkileyecek bir not olarak	*performance-based assessment grade*
vereceğimi söylemiştim.	*directly.*

As seen above, teachers employed various assessment practices as part of alternative assessment. Table 45 demonstrates performance-based assessment procedures involving in-class performance-based assessments, out-of-class assignments, project-work oriented assessments, quizzes, etc.

Table 45. Performance-Based Assessment Procedures

Item	Code
1	In-class performance-based assessment
	-Reading aloud the output
2	Out-of-class assignment
3	Reactions to in-class assessment
4	Project work-oriented assessment
	-Procedures for project works
	-Students' project work performance
5	Assessing student production
	-Plus or minus-mediated assessment
	-Criteria for performance-based assessment
	-Positive reinforcement instrument
	-Using a rubric matrix
	-Using a quiz

As its name suggests, in-class performance-based assessment alluded to the performance-based assessment work students' performed during the lesson. Such a practice was much observed in Snowdrop's classes. In other words, her way of performance based assessment was mainly performed during the lesson. One student demystified how in-class performance-based assessment was practiced:

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Ödevler, şöyle ödevdi aslında, evde yapılacak ödevler değildi. Hoca performans notu vereceğim diyordu derste, bu etkinliği yapacaksınız performans notu vereceğim. O ödev oluyordu, ders içinde yapıyorduk. O da aslında kitaptaki normal bir etkinlik oluyordu. Yani bir cümle yazacaktık, paragraf oluşturacaktık mesela onun gibi bir şeyler. O paragrafları okuduğumuzda yanlışımız olsa bile hoca notunu veriyordu. Not dediğim artı veriyordu. Biz de notumuzu almış oluyorduk. (S10)	*The assignments were actually like this; they were not assignments that would be performed at home. The teacher announced that she would give a performance-based score; you will do this exercise, and I will give you a score as part of the performance-based assessment. That was the assignment, and we performed it during the lesson. That was indeed an activity in the textbook. I mean, we would write down a sentence, write a paragraph, or something like this. When we read aloud the paragraph, even if we had some mistakes in it, the teacher gave a score. I mean, she gave a plus as a score; therefore, we, too, got points. (S10)*

Supporting students' views, the interview with Snowdrop underlined the assessment of written work only, and so the lack of assessment for spoken production. Snowdrop's rationale for assessing written work only, concerning the in-class performance-based assessment, was the lack of speaking activities performed in her classes. Or, put another way, her performance-based assessment practices did not involve speaking skills because she did not teach speaking skills in her classes.

Observation of Snowdrop's classes indicated that she required students to read aloud their written work; that is to say, the end product was assessed by reading it aloud during the lesson. To cite a familiar example, the students worked on the performance task during the lesson. When a few minutes left, Snowdrop announced the students to read aloud their work. Volunteers read aloud the written work, and Snowdrop listened to them. She did not provide any feedback; she neither performed any revision on students' work (MC2, Classroom Field Note 10).

Aside from Snowdrop, Marigold fulfilled an in-class performance-based assessment for once. While Snowdrop always assigned written work as part of an in-class performance-based assessment, Marigold required students to act out a

dialogue; she informed the students as: "*Burada role-play [rol yapma] şeklinde yapan olursa sözlü notu vereceğim.*" "*For those who act out the dialogue, I will give a score as part of the performance-based assessment mark.*" (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 11).

In addition to the in-class performance-based assessment procedures, out-of-class assignments were also detected as one facet of performance-based assessment procedures. Similar to the characteristics of tasks performed as part of an in-class performance-based assessment, Snowdrop assigned students to write a crime story, an activity in the attention part of the textbook; students were required to answer the questions and write a short crime story (SC1, Classroom Field Note 1). As for Marigold, out-of-class assignments functioned as supplementary for the classroom-level practices. For example, she explained how she conducted a technology-supported task as: "*Diyaloğu zaten sınıfta hazırlamıştık onu bana göstermişlerdi hani oldu mu diye. Onu evde kendileri telefonla konuşuyormuş gibi video, ses kaydını falan yaptılar, birleştirip öyle verdiler.*" "*We had prepared the dialogue during the lesson, they had got it checked to me whether it was correct. They recorded a video at home as if they were talking on the phone; they combined it and submitted the end product to me.*"

Reactions to an in-class assessment presented how students responded to the in-class performance-based assessment practices. Such reactions were typical in Snowdrop's classes because she regularly performed the in-class performance-based assessment. Students' reactions varied; while some students complained about it, some students suggested putting off the task, yet still, some students were totally disinterested (MC2, Classroom Field Note 10; SC1, Classroom Field Note 1).

An interesting finding of this study with respect to the students' reactions to the assessment practices was detected in Tulip's class (i.e., SC2). As might be expected, she presented in-class assessment practices that were conventional

much. For example, memorizing the irregular forms of verbs and writing them by heart was a sort of performance-based assessment for her. At one incident, she required students to perform a writing task in the textbook. In the following lesson, she announced that she would assess their task via minus or plus. The students complained about the practice mainly because they were not informed about assessing their performance beforehand. The students whose name was announced from the attendance list read aloud their work and got a plus as a score; those who did not perform the task got a minus as a score. Towards the end of the exercise, students questioned the way assessment was conducted in this lesson, and they complained about the practice by claiming, *"Hocam niye şimdi biz yazmış olduk? Hiç boşuna."* *"Hocam, why did we perform the task? It is in vain."* Some students had already performed the task, but they did not get a plus, only because their name was not announced to read aloud their work. They further complained that although some students did not perform the task, they were not assessed with a minus since their name was not chosen in the attendance list (SC2, Classroom Field Note 9).

Excluding the performance-based assessment, there appeared a project work-oriented assessment, as well. The word 'oriented' was used to differentiate the practice performed in this school from the project-based assessment. In other words, the thing that was implemented in this school was not a project-based assessment in all sense, yet the term "project work" was used to identify one of the assessment tools to assess student achievement in official documents (see, e.g., Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions, 2017). For this reason, such practices were called "project work-oriented assessment" in this study.

The findings generated from the interviews uncovered the details of the procedure employed for project work-oriented assessment for EFL in this school. Unlike the performance-based assessment tasks, the time limit to study for the project work tasks was longer (i.e., approximately from November to April). The students were required to conduct project work at least in one lesson for each

school year. Those who chose the EFL course prepared tasks as part of project work-oriented assessment, including creating a story, bad habits and their impact, Atatürk's adolescence, etc. All the teachers recounted that students were free to choose the subject matter that they studied. Another feature of this assessment tool was students' requirement to present a process-oriented study of their work. Snowdrop explained how she desired the students to work on these tasks as:

Öğrencilerden istediğim aslında her aşamayı bana getirip göstermeleri yani aylık olması benim tercihim, her ay şu kadar yaptım, şunu araştırdım, buna başladım diye olması tercihim. Bunu söylüyorum, bunun da değerlendirme içinde notu olduğunu söylüyorum. Getirenlerle beraber inceliyoruz ama zaten çok getiren olmuyor. Yani bir ya da iki öğrenci aylık kontrole getiriyor ki onlar da her ay getirmiyor.	*I actually want the students to bring and show each stage to me; that is, my preference is that it should be monthly; I prefer them to report the procedure monthly; I do this, research this, etc. I inform the students about this, and I say that there is also a score for these monthly controls in the assessment. We examine together with those who bring it for the monthly control, but not many students bring their work for monthly control. I mean, one or two students submit their task in-progress for monthly control; they also do not bring it every month.*

Though project-work tasks were assigned early, classroom field notes and conversations with students showed that students generally performed their tasks at the last minute. For example, one student (S15) demystified that there was one week left to submit her work, and so she had decided to start studying it (Field Note, 16.04.2018 / Monday). Moreover, personal conversations with students displayed that the main medium in preparing their written work was using the translation apps; the students mentioned that they had first written down the Turkish version of their work and then translated it. As an example, one student (S16) mentioned getting help from his elder brother, yet this help did not seem instrumental, but instead executive. Since her brother was an undergraduate student at the department of ELT, she sent the L1 sentences via text messaging to her brother, and then her brother translated them (Field Note, 27.04.2018 / Friday).

In my conversations about students' project works, I questioned what they achieved in terms of English proficiency; one critical expression was made by a student as: "*İngilizce açısından pek bir şey öğrendiğimi sanmıyorum.*" "*I do not think that I have learnt something related to English.*" (Field Note, 27.04.2018 / Friday). On the other hand, one student (S35) described his project work as his baby. He elaborated on how he prepared his work; first, he did some research on the Internet. Second, unlike his peers, he did not use translation apps or required someone to translate his work into English. Instead, he translated his sentences by himself, and then he consulted a high proficiency classmate to review and edit his work. After getting feedback and help from the peer, he finalized his written work (Field Note, 27.04.2018 / Friday).

One last domain discussed in this category was about how students' production was assessed. Teachers exhibited a variety of practices in assessing student production in performance and/or project work tasks. Sometimes, they preferred the well-known "plus or minus" to assess whether there was a product or not. Sometimes they preferred to use more recent forms of assessment tools like using a rubric matrix.

Even though they seemed to use the same assessment tool, the way they employed it was different. To give an example, plus or minus mediated assessment was employed by Snowdrop and Tulip; however, it was observed that the so-called minus was a sort of negative reinforcement instrument in Tulip's class (SC2, Classroom Field Notes 9–10). On the contrary, Snowdrop identified the main function of the performance-based assessment mark as increasing students' grade level only. Therefore, she preferred the so-called plus as the only assessment tool; that is, there was no negative reinforcement instrument in her way of assessment practices. The following excerpt from the interview with Snowdrop explicates the argument better:

Performansların değerlendirmesi biraz daha basit düzeyde açıkçası, yani istediğim gibi yapıldıysa, ondaki hatalara göre puanı düşürmüyorum. Yani beş ödev varsa, beşini de yaptıysa bu benim için 100. Yani sonuçta onu çabaladıysa ve uğraştıysa öyle. Dört tane yaptıysa hani ona göre bir puanlama. Onun içinde tekrar bir puanlama yapmıyorum performansı, yani yapıp yapmaması önemli orada. Ama hani beş tane yapana yüz veriyorum, hiç yapmayana sıfır veriyorum gibi bir şey yok, ortalaması neyse onu veriyorum. Yani onda performans olayını göze almıyorum, ortalaması neyse aynısını yazıyorum.

The assessment of the performance-based tasks is a bit simple, actually. If it is performed the way I require the students to do, I do not reduce the score due to its errors. I mean, if there are five assignments, and if the student performs all the five assignments, then its' score is 100 for me. I mean, if the student strives for it, the score is 100 for me. If a student performs four assignments, I score accordingly. I do not score the performance-based assessment tasks once again because the important thing is whether they do the task or not. However, there is no such thing as I give a score of 100 for those who perform all the five tasks, and I give a zero for those who do not perform any task. I give a score according to the grade average achieved in the exams. I mean, I do not consider the performance-based assessment mark in this situation. I give the score, which is the same as the student achieved as an academic average for EFL class.

Addressing similar points, Marigold used performance-based assessment tasks as a positive reinforcement instrument. For her, getting a score in the performance-based assessment tasks was supplementary to the teacher observation. Whereas Snowdrop counted the number of tasks and computed them according to 100 (total degree a student get in any assessment task), Marigold clarified her way of assessment as in the following:

Bu ödevi yapanların ders içi performans notlarını normalde 30 mu vereceğim, hani 20-30 puan yükselteceğimi söyledim ki yaptım da, gerçekten yaptım. Mesela S55'a bile ben 60 mı ne kullanmıştım, yaptı çünkü çocuk ödevini. Hani performans ödevini ders içi performans olarak değerlendirdim. İki tane not [performans

I announced to the students beforehand that if they had performed this assignment, I would have increased their in-class performance-based assessment mark by about 20 to 30 points. I mean, if they normally had deserved 30 points as part of the in-class performance-based assessment score, I would have increased it; and actually, I did it. For instance, I gave about 60, I guess, even for S55, because he performed the task. I mean, I assessed the performance-based assignment as part of an in-class performance-based assessment mark. You know, we give two marks as part

değerlendirme notu] veriyoruz ya bir tanesinde, normalde 20 vereceksem, hani bir 30 puan üzerini vereceğim dedim. O şekilde yansıttım.	*of the performance-based assessment; I informed the students that even though normally, I would have given a score of 20, I would add about 30 points into their performance-based assessment mark. I implemented it in this way.*

Furthermore, the qualitative data analysis yielded that using performance-based assessment tasks as a positive reinforcement instrument influenced the way students performed these tasks. For example, one student (S7) claimed that as it was not obligatory, she did not perform it. A different problem emerged in Snowdrop's classes due mainly to the plus or minus mediated assessment, i.e., plus only. She frankly shared her concern as followed:

> The way Snowdrop assessed student production was to check whether there was an end product or not. Since she gave plus to those who did the written work, she felt that she had to give a high-performance mark to those who, in essence, did not perform on their own. Although she knew that the product was not generated by the students themselves, as long as they submitted the end product, she put a plus. And at the end of the term, she counted the number of plusses and then divided them into the total required number. Therefore, if the students do all the performance tasks, they get 100. She elucidated her solution to this critical problem as: "*Yapana artı veriyorum, kendisi yapmadı biliyorum ama vermesem artık olmayacak. Mecbur ona göre giriyorum bir performansını, diğerini de derse katılım, onu az giriyorum.*" "*I give a plus as a score to the student who performs the task; I know he/she did not do it by himself, but if I do not give a plus as a score, it will not be logical anymore. I feel obliged to give a score for one of the performance-based assessment marks according to the resulting score student achieved as part of fulfilling these tasks. However, the second performance-based assessment mark is about active participation in the activities during the lesson, and I score less than the former.*"
>
> (Field Note, 13.04.2018 / Friday)

The field note above indicated a sort of problem in assessment practice emerging due to plus or minus mediated assessment and using plus as a positive reinforcement instrument. Even though the teacher was aware of the students' fake achievement, she felt obliged to assess their product according to the plus only criterion. As an alternative, classroom observations unfolded that teachers determined a few criteria in terms of performance-based assessment. To illustrate, Snowdrop wanted the students to give details in their written work; she

sometimes announced to the students that she would admit the product prepared by pair work, as well (MC2, Classroom Field Note 10). Marigold also demystified her criterion at times; she did not allow students to read aloud their dialogue. Acting out the dialogue was a criterion in her in-class performance-based assessment task (SSC1, Classroom Field Note 11).

Additionally, teachers pointed out using a rubric matrix to assess students' project work. Teachers employed some criteria for assessing student work via a rubric matrix. In this respect, Snowdrop described her criteria as: "*Zamanında getirilmesinden tutup aylık kontrollere getirilmesine kadar, konuyla bağlantılı mı, gramer olarak nasıl, araştırması nasıl, kaynakçaları nasıl, ona göre belirli bir ölçek var.*" "*There is a particular scale involving criteria such as submitting the task on time, bringing it for monthly controls, relevance to the topic, how the grammar is, how about researching, and the references.*"

Close to the end, a different form of assessment practice was performed by Marigold. She employed a quiz to further assess students' individual performance in the group work task. To put it differently, she assigned a story writing task as a group work task; students worked in groups and created their stories. After they submitted their work, the teacher wanted to further assess the students' individual performance via a short quiz. The following analytical memo for one of the quizzes elaborates Marigold's assessment procedure better.
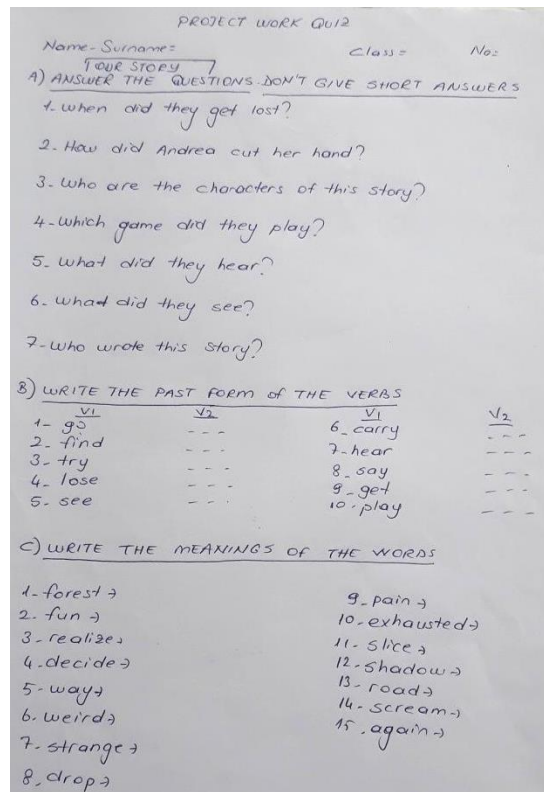
Figure 16. A Photo of Sample Quiz Paper

The photo above shows a sample quiz prepared by the teacher to assess students' performance work called "*Our Story*." It was seen that there was a focus on reading comprehension in part A, and there was a focus on linguistic items in parts B and C. As for Part A, information questions were posed; students were required to answer them with full sentences. Part B assessed grammar knowledge; students were required to write the past forms of the irregular verbs. Part C assessed lexical knowledge, and students were required to write the L1 equivalent of the verbs (Analytical Memo 4).

In brief, performance-based assessment procedures as the second component of the assessment and evaluation practices for EFL in this school displayed a variety of assessment tools employed by the teachers. In-class and out-of-class performance-based assessment, as well as project work-oriented assessment, were common. Under this category, students' reactions and teachers' way of

assessing the end product was also reported since they were related to the assessment tools.

4.2.4.4. Assessment-Oriented Teaching and Learning

Under the theme of assessment policy implementation, one last category was generated to present the influence of assessment on teachers' and students' classroom-level practices. The findings of this study disclosed that teaching and learning practices were centered on examinations in this school. Teachers taught in order to ask in the exams, and students learned or studied to achieve success at examinations. The assessment was put at the center of teaching and learning behaviors. Table 46 below presents the codes discussed under the category of assessment-oriented teaching and learning.

Table 46. Assessment-Oriented Teaching and Learning

Item	Code
1	Exam-oriented teaching
2	Washback effects on learners
	-Positive washback
	-Rote memorization

Concerning the impact of assessment on teachers' teaching decisions and practices, exam-oriented teaching was generated. Field notes revealed that teachers planned their instruction according to the exam. For instance, Snowdrop decided not to teach the linguistic properties given in theme seven, for the reason that assessing students' achievement according to the properties within two units (i.e., themes five and six) were decided in the teachers' committee. She decided to teach the grammar of theme seven as well as the activities within this unit after the exam (MC2, Classroom Field Note 9). On a similar line, Snowdrop informed the students what was going to be asked in the exam as in the following:

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In this lesson, Snowdrop announced to the students what would be asked in the upcoming exam. She informed the students that they would be responsible for what they had learned in the latest themes they studied (i.e., themes five and six). There would be a vocabulary matching part that involved the words with their L2 equivalents; the words studied in theme six would be asked. There would also be another vocabulary part, students needed to complete the sentences with the words studied in theme five. The exam would also involve a reading comprehension part.

(SC1, Classroom Field Note 11)

Tulip made a similar announcement, as well. She said, "*Sınav konuları beş ve altıncı ünite, kelimelere dikkat ediyorsunuz.*" "*Units five and six would be covered in the exam; pay attention to the vocabulary.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 10). Moreover, analysis of classroom field notes revealed that having informed students about the exam, teachers suspended their instruction until the end of the examination week. Personal conversations with teachers displayed teachers' rationale for not performing their classes during the examination week. To illustrate, Marigold believed that the students would not listen to the instruction even if they taught their classes; she put it this way: "*Dokuzuncu üniteye geçsem dinlemezler ki, yedi ve sekizden sorumlusunuz dedik.*" "*If I start teaching unit nine, they will not listen to the instruction because we have already informed them that they need to study for units seven and eight for the exam.*" Therefore, she decided not to start the instruction until the exam was finished (MC1, Classroom Field Note 18).

Additionally, teachers decided which skills to focus on in their instruction according to the pen-and-paper examinations. Tulip explained her rationale for not teaching speaking skills in her class. If this class (i.e., SC2) were a foreign language class, she would practice speaking exercises. She preferred studying for reading exercises only because these students had a pen-and-paper exam for the EFL class (SC2, Classroom Field Note 2). She further elaborated her argument in the interview as followed:

Öncelikle girdiğim sınıf sayısal bir sınıf. İngilizceyi çok fazla önemseyen bir sınıf değil, bir yere kadar katılım sağlıyorlar. Ben de elimden geldiği kadar, bu dört temel dil becerisini geliştirmek yerine sınava girdiklerinde bir şeyler yapabilmelerine odaklı çalıştım.	*First of all, the class I teach English is a sciences class, and they do not care much about English; they participate in the activities to a certain extent. I tried to do my best, and I focused on helping them perform well when they sat for the EFL exam rather than developing these four major language skills.*

Apart from planning instruction according to examinations, teachers used assessment to arouse students' attention to the exercises performed during the lesson. At one incident, Marigold cautioned the students that there might be a part similar to the listening exercises they did in this lesson in the upcoming exam. These activities were not for listening, but in essence, for pronunciation; students were required to listen and repeat the sentences involving reduction in modals (e.g., I should've been open-minded). After the exercise was performed, the teacher frankly shared with me her view as: "*Could've bilse ne bilmese ne, çok gereksiz, ciddiye alsınlar diye sınavda böyle olabilir dedim.*" "*It is really unnecessary to gain knowledge about the linguistic form "could've;" I said there would be something like this in the exam just for them to pay attention to the exercise.*" (MC1, Classroom Field Note 12).

Similar to the impact of assessment on teachers' practices, students' attitudes and manners toward EFL were also influenced by the assessment and evaluation procedures. Therefore, the washback effect on students as a code considered the assessment practices bearing an impact on students' language learning procedures. While assessment practices in this school sometimes positively affected students' language learning, most students' language learning behaviors were negatively influenced by the assessment and evaluation practices in this school. In this respect, positive washback and rote memorization as two competing ideas emerged.

First of all, the analysis of the qualitative data yielded varying influences of assessment on students' language learning behaviors. While assessment practices

stirred some students to perform a given task, the same task became something unnecessary for some others due mainly to the way assessment was conceptualized in this school. In this regard, a few high achiever students' manners and attitudes toward assessment received attention. These students abstained from performing supplementary tasks because they did not need it. Interview with a high achiever student (S8) clarified why he did not perform the supplementary tasks as: "*Çünkü İngilizce sınavlarından yüksek alıyorum ve derse de katıldığım için sınıf içi performans notlarım yüksek geldiğinden dolayı gerek duymadım.*" "*I did not need it because I got high scores in English exams; also, my in-class performance-based assessment mark was high as I actively participated in the activities during the lesson.*"

As aforementioned, vocabulary parts in the examinations were the same as the vocabulary exercises in the textbook. Classroom field notes revealed that students had already become aware of this aspect, and they paid much more attention to these exercises during the lesson. To cite a familiar example, while the text was being read aloud, a student was showing the vocabulary matching exercise to his peer and informed him that it was going to be asked in the exam. He said, "*Sınavda çıkacak, garanti çıkacak.*" "*This is going to be asked in the exam, I guarantee that it is going to be in the exam.*" (MC1, Classroom Field Note 15). Similarly, Tulip cautioned the students to study hard for the words on pages 96 and 97 in the textbook. In response, a few students commented that these words would be covered in the exam as: "*Sınavda kesin çıkar.*" "*They will be asked in the exam for sure.*" (SC2, Classroom Field Note 13).

One critical aspect that displayed the effect of language testing and examination on learning behaviors was about the students' preparation for skills practice exams. Interviews with the students showed that they underlined studying for the writing section only. Concerning this, they shared their experiences in studying linguistic properties. One student (S7) put it this way:

Hazırlanırım ama daha çok yine gramere bakıyordum çünkü dinlemeyi yapabilirim diyordum. Hani diyorlardı uygulama sınavında bu gramer sorulacak diye. Gramere çalışıyordum ama diğer dinleme tarzında yaparım diye düşünüyordum, onlara bakmıyordum.	*I prepared for the skills practice exam, but I mostly studied for the grammar again because I thought I would perform the listening part. They had already informed us about the grammar structure that would be asked in the skills practice exam. I studied for the grammar structure, but as I thought that I could perform well in the other parts like the listening, I did not study for them.*

On the other hand, sometimes, assessment practices supported opportunities for language learning on behalf of students. In particular, in-class assessment procedures led to the engagement of the students during the lesson. As an example, a student (S1) decided to perform the task work when he learned that it was an in-class performance-based assessment task. He asked: "*Proje gibi önemli bir şey mi bu yoksa kitap egzersizi mi?*" "*Is this something important like project work, or an exercise in the textbook?*" The teacher responded that this task was for an in-class performance-based assessment. After that, S1 immediately decided to perform it (MC2, Classroom Field Note 16).

Complementing field notes, interviews with students detected the positive effect of conducting speaking practice exams on students' language learning experiences. A lower proficiency student (S4) mentioned how he prepared for the speaking practice exam. He and a few classmates formed a group and created a game. In this game, they formed questions in L2, and then they asked and answered in turn. S4 clarified what sorts of questions they posed each other as: "*En sevdiğim renk olabilir, babamın nerede çalıştığı, kaç yaşında olduğum, öyle basit basit çok ağır olmadan eğlenceli bir şekilde.*" "*These could be something simple like my favorite color, where my father worked, and how old I was; they were not challenging, but they were enjoyable.*" He stated that they played the game during break times or at the lunch break. S4 further elaborated how they played the game as: "*Dört kişi oluyoruz, o bir soru soruyor, ben ona cevap verip sonra yanımdakine soru soruyorum, o bana cevap verip yanındakine soruyor, o şekilde. Konuşmaya da öyle hazırlanıyoruz.*" "*We are in groups of four. The first*

one asks a question, I answer, and then I ask the one near me. This student answers my question and asks a question to the other student near him/her."

Another benefit of the pen-and-paper examinations was specifically related to the students from the foreign language field of study. The field notes disclosed that a few students from the foreign language field of study were delighted to review vocabulary with their L2 explanations, albeit the negative influence of the vocabulary parts on some students. On account of the fact that they could learn synonyms words at the same time, they also came across these words in the practice tests as they studied for the university entrance examination (Field Note, 23.05.2018 / Wednesday).

By contrast, reviewing vocabulary with their L2 equivalents led to rote memorization among many students. One student (S6) explained: "*Mesela bazı kelimelerin hoca yine demişti bunların anlamlarını bilin diye, çıkacak diye. Onların anlamını ezberlerdim.*" "*For example, the teacher had told us to learn about the meaning of some words, and she said that they would be asked in the exam. I memorized them.*" Another student (S10) left a significant comment to be considered as followed:

Şuan kalıcı bir faydası olduğunu söyleyemem çünkü kalıcı olsa hatırlardım hepsini de, yani o zaman için belli bir süreliğine kelimeleri aklımda tutuyordum, ezberlemiş oluyordum. Sınav sürecine kadar aklımda kalıyordu onlar.	*I cannot claim that it has a permanent benefit now because I would remember all of them if it was permanent. I mean, I had kept the words in my mind for a while at that time, and I memorized them. They were kept in my mind until the exam.*

In support of this view, the field notes analysis detected some techniques students developed to remember the L2 explanations. The following field note illustrates this situation:

In this lesson, I had a conversation with a few students, and I asked how they prepared for the exam since they had already sat for their English exam. One student (S10) told me that he had memorized the words just before the exam— in the lesson before the exam, I guess. When I showed him the vocabulary part,

he told me that his peer (S56) cautioned him to look at the end of the word if there was "-*ly*," then look at the synonym word ending with "-*ly*." In response, I asked S10 if he knew that these were adverbs; he responded that he did not know. It seemed that he learned from his peer to match the words by looking at the end of the word; this "-*ly*" form was like a clue for the students; they matched the words with their synonyms if both involved the "-*ly*" at the end.

(Field Note, 29.03.2018 / Thursday)

Due perhaps to the widespread use of memorization as a strategy among students, sometimes high achiever students also memorized even when they did not need to do so. First, these students had to memorize the words with their L2 explanations; otherwise, they were not able to perform the vocabulary parts in the written examinations. As reported earlier, they were good at guessing vocabulary meaning from context, but the words were given isolated from the context in the exam papers. The second and more important finding was about speaking. During personal conversations, it was found that a high achiever student (S8) had memorized his speech despite being capable enough to perform an impromptu speech. The field note below clarifies this situation:

I had a conversation with S8 after the exam results for the skills practice exam was announced. He had lost three points out of 25 in the speaking part of the exam. When I asked why he lost points in this section, he told me that he lost points in content, vocabulary, and fluency. The striking point for me was fluency; I wanted to delve into that point, and I said, "*in essence, you speak fluently*." He confirmed me, but he forgot his speech in the course of the speaking exam, because he had memorized it. He explained as: "*Ezberledim, orada söylerken unuttum*." "*I memorized, and I forgot while I was performing in the exam*." I asked if he needed to memorize, and he responded that there was no need to do so.

(MC1, Classroom Field Note 18)

All in all, assessment policy implementation enumerated how regulations for assessment and evaluation were implemented in the course of realization of an instructional policy for teaching EFL at a public high school. From this perspective, the significant role of teachers as policy actors in the school-level realization of the instructional policy for assessment was presented. Two main types of assessment procedures were indicated; although traditional assessment

procedures like pen-and-paper examinations and teacher observation were prevalent, alternative assessment practices were also revealed. Finally, the widespread influence of assessment on teachers' and students' language-related practices in and out of the EFL classes was shown. Among these, negative as well as positive washback and rote memorization were discussed.

4.2.5. Summary of the Findings for Realized Instruction

The qualitative data analysis presented the micro-level implementation of the instructional policy for teaching EFL at a public high school. More specifically, the classroom-level realization of the curriculum for teaching EFL in grade 11 classes was demonstrated. In this respect, day to day routines of the EFL classes, realities specific to this school, the instructional practices of the EFL teachers as the main policy actors of the school as well as the language learning experiences gained as a result of instruction were reported. An in-depth analysis of the qualitative data yielded four main themes to uncover how the instructional policy desired at the macro level was realized in this school. The findings generated from each theme were summarized below.

4.2.5.1. Routines of the Teaching and Learning Process

The analysis of the field data showed the main flow of the EFL classes in this instructional policy environment. In this regard, almost every lesson involved a few classroom routines like greetings, turning on the smart board, and so forth. Concerning the rest of the lesson, the teachers strictly followed the textbook; in other words, the textbook was at the center of their instruction. They either performed the exercise next in the textbook or chose the one they wanted to perform in the textbook. Teachers performed the exercises in this manner: First, they explained to the students what to do, second, they allocated time for practice, and then they elicited the answers. Almost each EFL class of this school ended up without a summary of the lesson.

Under this theme, two crucial aspects of EFL instruction were also revealed; it was found that conventional teaching and learning practices, as well as the teaching of receptive skills, were prevalent. With respect to the conventional forms of language teaching and learning, overemphasis on linguistic properties like grammar and lexis was observed. Using L1 as the main medium of instruction was detected. Lastly, the procedures underwent in the teaching of listening comprehension and reading comprehension skills were reported one by one. In particular, the emphasis on translation and the use of L1 for comprehension was seen as the techniques teachers employed to help students understand the given text better.

4.2.5.2. Context-Specific Realities of the Instructional Policy

Several issues were discussed under this theme with respect to the way instructional policy for teaching EFL developed at the macro level was realized at the school. How the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy was influenced from the realities specific to its context were discussed from many angles as the attitudes developed, the use of technology, academic performance and challenges the participants encountered.

Attitudinal aspects of language teaching and learning as the category demonstrated the impact of perceptions, beliefs and views of the micro policy actors (i.e., EFL teachers and their students) on the realization of the instructional policy in EFL classes. The attitudes were sometimes developed as a result of instruction; for example, students developed varying attitudes toward grammar and translation because more time was allocated to the study of these components in instruction. On the other hand, sometimes the participants' attitudes influenced the instruction. To illustrate, some students did not perform the tasks (e.g., research-oriented tasks) because of their negative beliefs. Also, teachers' positive attitudes toward reading comprehension skills in general and the content of the reading texts in particular led to the prevalence of reading activities performed in EFL classes.

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Another context-specific reality found in this school was the psychosocial factors influencing student performance. At one end of the continuum was a few factors inhibiting students' performance while at the other were those of motivation-related variables. Various issues such as negative academic self-concept, low academic orientation and a lack of self-efficacy were found causing students to become unsuccessful in EFL classes. Also, several variables related to motivation influencing language learning behaviours of the students in and out of EFL classes were discussed.

The use of technology in English classes as the third component indicated participants' views and practices about using ICT tools in this school. There appeared two main ICT tools used; these were the students' smartphones and the IWB. EFL teachers and their students as the main actors of the instructional policy for teaching EFL in this school reported several benefits of technology. Even so, using ICT for linguistic purposes such as looking up an unknown word was the most common technology use in EFL classes. Nevertheless, participants accentuated many problems in using technology. Assuming the use of technology out of purpose among students as something normal was striking. Besides, the lack of technology use in EFL classes was found.

Last but not the least, a significant domain discussed in context-specific realities of the instructional policy was the contextual challenges. In this respect, the influence of the realities surrounding the school on the attitudes and behaviours of the micro policy actors (i.e., EFL teachers and their students) were revealed. Problems emerging from how the instructional policy was implemented in this school were described. Also, problems emerging due to the nature of the policy itself were detected. While the former referred to the impact of classroom dynamics on students and teachers' practices in EFL classes, the latter presented how macro policy articles such as the threshold degree and the major area courses were conceptualized in this school. Several views from different angels were reported as part of evaluation of the textbook which was sometimes marked as a challenge for teaching EFL in junior year classes.

4.2.5.3. Reflection of Instruction on Students' Language Learning Experiences

Bearing on the lexical definition of the expression 'a reflection on something,' this theme aimed to unfold the specific connection between the instruction and learning experiences. In other words, teachers' instructional practices, either good or bad, that make students have a particular opinion about and/or gain a particular experience in language learning, were reported.

First of all, to uncover the drives behind teachers' instructional practices and decisions, their perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs were under the spotlight. The knowledge-base of teaching displayed teachers' instructional frame of reference. These involved their knowledge in many areas, including personal practical knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, and knowledge of students. Besides, there appeared teachers' planning knowledge, which exhibited their principles in teaching. That is to say, teachers planned their teaching practices and made decisions according to many circumstances. Sometimes, they considered the students' language proficiency levels while sometimes they are influenced by their practical experiences in instruction.

Bearing on various knowledge(s) identified above, teachers performed their instructional practices. Some of these practices were welcoming, while some were discouraging. Among the desired practices, teachers displayed instructional scaffolding, instructional support, monitoring student learning, and many more. They provided feedback to students' work; they encouraged lower proficiency students instead of eliciting answers from the high achievers only; they also praised students when they performed something satisfying.

On the other hand, there appeared a few discouraging practices teachers demonstrated in their classroom-level practices. One of the major characteristics of their instruction was using translation; they employed translation to perform each and every activity during the lesson (e.g., sentence matching, reviewing

attention boxes, etc.). Moreover, problems related to the way communicative competence was taught in EFL classes were found. In this regard, performing speaking activities as a written production, skipping a communicative task without guiding students to produce the language, as well as using L1 as the main medium to gain facets of communicative competence (i.e., discourse competence and strategic competence) were observed. Some other ineffective practices were also reported, all of which influenced students' language learning experiences.

Students' language learning experiences as the reflection of instruction in EFL classes were reported from many angles Starting with the positive language learning experiences, how students were become engaged and motivated in EFL classes, what sorts of macro language skills they developed (e.g., developing interactive listening strategies, reading for the gist, etc.); besides, some satisfying language learning experiences specific to a few high proficiency students were reported.

The second aspect was the language learning strategy use, which referred to the various techniques and strategies students used to learn English in and out of EFL classes. Among these, some of them were initiated by the students themselves, while some of them were the result of the students' experiences in English out of EFL classes. They presented a few behaviors in performing activities during the lesson; predicting the meaning from context or employing the benefit they gained from the language they knew other than Turkish (i.e., German or French). They also mentioned several mediums that they were exposed to English language, such as watching foreign series and playing online computer games.

Additionally, various sorts of interaction between students displayed in EFL classes were noted under peer interaction patterns as the third domain. The students demonstrated academic help-seeking and help-giving behaviors. They also consulted each other, especially before the exams to study for examinations; they taught English to the peers who were poor at English. In performing

classroom-level task work, sometimes they distributed the responsibility, yet they performed the task altogether at times.

Another issue detected under this category was about the problems students encountered when they wanted to participate in the lesson. Several issues were outlined, such as multilevel classes, students' linguistic background, and a lack of knowledge necessary to perform the task. Students' language proficiency level was crucial; both the high proficiency and the lower proficiency students became disadvantaged depending on the situation.

Low student engagement and motivation as the next concern demonstrated several aspects leading students to become disengaged in EFL classes. The students pointed out types of activities, the flow of the lesson, and their mood as the rationale for losing interest in the lesson. In this school, it was detected that apathetic students were confirmed as if it was something normal. Various ways these students spend their time in EFL classes were seen, some of which were studying for other school subjects, watching videos on the smartphone, lying on the desk, and chatting with friends.

In contrast to several encouraging experiences students' gained in EFL classes of this school, there appeared some negative experiences. The qualitative data analysis showed that while some students had experience in speaking (e.g., performing impromptu speech), some others did not find the chance to develop their speaking skills, and they were also not able to present impromptu speech capability. The negative impact of translation apps on students' language learning procedure was demonstrated. The silence of classes as another problem was reported, and the reasons behind the silence were detected. Though some students employed various encouraging techniques and strategies in learning EFL, a few lower academic achievers presented language learning techniques and strategies which were not satisfying, such as performing the tongue twister "*Ip dip do*." Some other problems emerging from the classroom-level instruction were reported, as well.

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4.2.5.4. Assessment Policy Implementation

Assessment and evaluation as the crucial part of an instructional policy were concerned under this theme. How the prescriptions concerning assessment and evaluation of EFL were realized in this school was examined. Findings illuminated the actualization of these regulations at a public high school, assessment procedures, i.e., traditional and alternative, also the impact of assessment on language teaching and language learning practices.

With respect to the actualization of the assessment regulations, it was seen that the prescriptions in the policy documents were, by and large, followed. The school management and teachers organized and performed assessment and evaluation practices according to these regulations. To give an example, decisions concerning joint examinations, the number of exams, and the type of exams were all run according to the assessment related regulations. While the policy was actualized in terms of assessment and evaluation, EFL teachers' critical role as the main policy actors was found. How their language assessment knowledge influenced student achievement and the modifications they performed in some assessment practices such as the speaking exam were presented. In addition, problems encountered in assessment procedures, teachers as well as students' views about the assessment tools were reported.

The second domain generated as part of assessment policy implementation was the traditional assessment procedures. These tools were threefold as pen-and-paper exams, the viva voce examination, and the teacher observation. There were two types of pen-and-paper examinations; the assessment of reading comprehension and linguistic properties (i.e., grammar and vocabulary) as part of written exams, and the assessment of three language skills, i.e., listening comprehension, writing, and speaking as part of skills practice exams. Besides, analysis of the qualitative data showed that the way speaking practice exam conducted in this school presented the main features of the viva voce examination. In other words, students were given a list of questions; most of

them memorized their speech, sat for the exam to perform their memorization. Unlike examinations, teacher observation as a more subjective form of assessment was revealed. Students got a grade according to their well manners and active participation in activities during the lesson.

Another realm discussed with respect to the assessment and evaluation practices for EFL in this school was the performance-based assessment procedures. Unlike the joint process employed for the pen-and-paper examinations, these assessment tools were specific to the teacher and the class in which she was teaching EFL. Therefore, various forms of assessment practices were presented, such as in-class performance-based assessment tasks (e.g., writing down a paragraph, acting out a dialogue) and out of class assignments (e.g., recording a video). Different than in-class performance-based assessment tasks, procedures employed for the project work-oriented assessment were detailed. Several ways teachers assessed students' work were shown; the dominance of the plus or minus form of assessment and the way teachers employed this criterion was discussed.

Finally, assessment-oriented teaching and learning presented the significant influence of assessment and evaluation practices on the classroom-level language teaching and learning practices. It was found that teachers' teaching practices were mainly centered on the examinations; they planned the pacing in instruction according to the examinations. They also used assessment to arouse students' attention to a particular exercise during the lesson. Concerning learners, the washback effect of assessment was revealed; both positive and negative washback were reported. Students sometimes indicated satisfying behaviors due to the assessment and evaluation practices, whereas they were sometimes affected by the type of assessment tools negatively. To illustrate, they had to perform rote memorization to get a score in the vocabulary part of the pen-and-paper examinations. Below is the table which summarizes main characteristics of realized instruction:

Table 47. Characteristics of Realized Instruction

Satisfactory Teaching and Learning Practices	• Instructional scaffolding • Instructional support • Encouraging student participation • Praising students • Monitoring student learning • Motivating students • Peer interaction (e.g., peer learning, peer help-giving, help-seeking) • Student engagement and motivation (e.g., following the lesson)
Discouraging Teaching and Learning Practices	• Employing volunteers only principle in eliciting answers • Lack of response to students' needs • Lack of instructional guidance • Problems in active participation to classroom activities (e.g., mixed proficiency classes) • Low student engagement and motivation • Lack of interaction (e.g., individual study only)
Traditional Transmissive Mode of Teaching and Learning	• Presentation and Practice Mode of Teaching • Where were we up to? syndrome in teaching • Covering the coursebook • Developing linguistic competence only • Focus on forms • Focusing on linguistic properties in instruction • L1-medium instruction • Using L1 for communicative competence • Lack of intercultural awareness • Translation-mediated instruction • Using translation for comprehension • Translation-focused language learning habits • Teacher-led speaking practice • Pseudo-study of speaking • Lack of opportunity for speaking • Lack of language learning strategy use • Exam-oriented teaching • Rote memorization
Non-Traditional Teaching and Learning Practices	• Using the Internet for research • Focus on form • Teaching receptive skills (listening and reading) • Mastery in language skills (e.g., interactive listening strategies, reading for the gist, performing impromptu speech, learning to write) • Using language learning strategies (e.g., self-initiated language learning techniques)
Using Technology	• Using technology as a tool for traditional instruction • Lack of technology use • Technical and personal problems about using ICT tools • Using technology out of purpose • Digital cheating • Performing technology-integrated tasks

Table 47. (continued)

Assessment	• Traditional assessment procedures (e.g., pen-and-paper exams, the viva voce examination) • Alternative assessment procedures • Using traditional tools for performance-based assessment (e.g., plus or minus-mediated assessment) • Washback effect of examination
Other	• Negative values attached to learning English at school • Developing positive and negative attitudes toward various components of language and instruction (e.g., grammar, translation, tasks and exercises) • The existence of psychosocial factors inhibiting academic performance (e.g., negative academic self-concept, low academic self-efficacy, etc.) • Various types of motivation (e.g., amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation) • Macro policy factors (e.g., value for threshold degree, value attached to core academic classes, distributing a single textbook) • Teacher burnout

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study's primary aim was to investigate the alignment between the instruction envisaged for teaching EFL within policy documents and instruments and classroom-level practices of teachers and students. In so doing, it explored the journey of the instructional policy from top to down, building on the following levels of instructional policy construction: 1) national and ministerial-level policies for FLE, 2) ministerial-level arrangements for EFL instruction, 3) school and classroom level practices. This chapter, firstly, presents the discussion of the findings in terms of the literature on language instruction and policy implementation. Secondly, the implications of the results are presented, and the chapter is concluded by addressing the limitations of the study and providing recommendations for research.

In this chapter, the findings are discussed under the following headings: 1) intended versus realized instruction, 2) top-down policy implementation, 3) the importance of teacher beliefs in policy realization, 4) language learners and language learning practices, and 5) challenges in implementing instructional policy. While the first heading, by and large, attempts to answer the main research question in terms of instructional policy alignment for teaching EFL, the other four headings center on the rationales behind together with the factors influencing the discrepancy between desired and realized instruction.

The main research question of this study is "How does the implementation of instructional policy at a public high school align with the instruction outlined for English language education at the policy documents and instruments?" The characteristics of intended and realized instruction which have been summarized in tables 20 and 47 in the results chapter are synthesized in this section. To that

end, below is the table that summarizes the comparison of intended and realized instruction to answer this research question:

Table 48. Characteristics of Intended versus Realized Instruction

Features of Instruction		Intended Instruction	Realized Instruction
Learner-Centered Approaches	**The Role of Teacher**	*Facilitator	*Transmitter of Knowledge
	The Role of Learners	*Active Participant	*Apathetic Students *Low Engagement
	Features of Instruction	*Collaboration *Peer Interaction *Learner-Centered Instruction	*Silent Classes *Help-Seeking Behaviours *Teacher-Centered Instruction
	Affective Factors	*Developing Positive Attitudes *Motivating and Enjoyable Learning Environment	*Developing Negative Attitudes *Low Motivation and Interest
The Use of Technology		*Technology-Supported Instruction	*Technology-Segregated Instruction
Assessment		*A Mixture of Traditional and Alternative Assessment Procedures	*Using Traditional Assessment Features
Communicative Approach	**Communicative Competence**	*Developing Four Aspects of Communicative Competence

*Lingua Franca and International Aspects of Language and Culture | *Developing Linguistic Competence

*Lack of Intercultural Awareness |
| | **The Study of Language Skills** | *Teaching All Four Skills *Integrated Study of Language Skills | *Teaching Receptive Skills *Discrete Study of Language Skills |
| | **Linguistic Properties** | *Inductive Study of Grammar *Meaningful Vocabulary Learning *Some Focus on Pronunciation | *Deductive Study of Grammar *Isolated Study of Vocabulary *Lack of Pronunciation Study |

5.1. Intended versus Realized Instruction for Teaching EFL

By focusing on the merits and demerits of the instructional policy implementation, alignment between desired and realized instruction is discussed.

The comparison of the realized instruction with the instructional policy's intentions indicates the pendulum of policy coherence swinging from the well-aligned to misaligned practices. Instructional practices at the far ends of a continuum stand in stark contrast to one another: on the one hand, modest alignment between what is desired and what is realized is shown, while on the other, incoherence between the components of the same constructs is detected. In the end, the findings of this study indicated a lack of alignment between the classroom-level realization of the policy and prescriptions of the policy documents and instruments. In the same way, implementation research in local and international contexts reports the discrepancy between policy and practice regarding the teaching of communicative English (Başok, 2020; Butler, 2011; Hamid & Honan, 2012; Kırkgöz, 2007a, 2007b; Wang, 2006; Yoon, 2019).

Starting with the characteristics of intended instruction, the results of the first and the second research questions indicated learner-centered approach, eclectic principle, and CLT. Though different forms of CLT (i.e., weak or strong) were revealed at different policy instruments, the main impetus for FLE is the communicative orientation in the teaching of English. Considering the current understanding of the communicative methodology bearing on the learner-centered and experienced-based view of second language teaching and learning, the desired and realized instruction are compared under CLT as an umbrella term, including the features of learner-centered approach and the eclectic principle when necessary (see, e.g., Harmer, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

On the other hand, the findings of the third research question exploring the realization of the instructional policy at a public high school indicated a lack of CLT in many respects. Although the communicative methodology and learner-centered approaches are the intended instruction for the teaching of EFL at upper secondary education institutions, the traditional transmissive mode of teaching dominates the instructional practices in EFL classes. Likewise, Kırkgöz (2007b) refers to the prevalence of traditional methods of teaching in EFL classes in spite of the claimed introduction of CLT as the leading methodology at the policy

level. The lack of coherence between desired and realized instruction for teaching EFL is discussed from every conceivable angle, such as the use of technology, assessment, and communicative competence.

5.1.1. Learner-Centered Approaches

CLT as a methodology embraces several features related to learner-centered approaches such as facilitator role adhered to the teachers, learner autonomy, alternative assessment, and feedback, as stated by Richards and Rodgers (2014). Comparing the intentions of the policy with the classroom-level practices has indicated a few issues that need consideration.

First, the findings of this study indicated facilitator role of teachers is desired in the policy documents and instruments. Results also showed that teachers presented a few effective teaching practices, such as instructional support, praising students, and monitoring student learning. These characteristics of teachers are in line with the role of teacher identified in the learner-centered classroom, such as being there to guide, encourage, praise students, and many more, as stated by Weimer (2002). Therefore, alignment between the role of the teacher, which is desired and realized concerning the learner-centered approaches, is achieved.

In spite of a few encouraging features mentioned above, the main characteristics of instruction in EFL classes portray traditional approaches and a teacher-directed classroom at a general level. Lockstep teaching and learning is a routine in EFL classes of this policy environment. That is to say, all the students perform the same activity at the same time with the teacher's instructions presenting one facet of a non-learner-centered instruction as claimed by Daniels et al. (2001). Therefore, the findings of this study refer to a transmissive rather than a facilitator role of teachers. Such an aspect shows incoherence between desired and realized instruction concerning learner-centered approaches. In the literature, assuming the teacher as the authority in the classroom and transmitting

knowledge from the teacher to the students are identified as the features of traditional approaches (Anton, 1999; Weimer, 2002).

Except for the role of teachers, this study showed a difference between desired and realized roles of learners in EFL classes. Even though the active participation of the students is expected, low engagement is, on the whole, the defining feature of EFL classes in this school. Nevertheless, some students displayed taking an active role in the learning process and active engagement in the lesson. This finding overlaps with characteristics of learners as taking more responsibility for learning in the learner-centered classroom, which is described by Mostrom and Blumberg (2012). Yet still, some apathetic students never showed any interest in classroom teaching and learning. Considering a learner-centered classroom presenting an environment in which "all students can learn" (Blumberg & Pontiggia, 2011, p.190), there is a low consistency between desired and realized instruction concerning the role of students.

Apart from the role of teachers and students, characteristics of intended instruction involve collaboration, various forms of interaction and focusing on the needs and interests of the learners. Although there is a call for pair work and small group work as part of collaboration at the policy level, the main impetus for interaction is help-seeking in EFL classes of this school. Besides, due perhaps to preference for individual work among students and teachers, characteristics of intended interaction does not realize in all sense. Such a discrepancy concerning interaction patterns basically lends support for the classroom contexts described by Richards and Rodgers (2014) as involving cooperative language learning elements in instructional design but inclined toward traditional approaches.

Perhaps one of the most attention-deserving findings of this study is the silence in EFL classes. What one might expect from a language classroom involving communicative, learner-centered instruction can be the noise emerging as a natural result of interaction between students; however, EFL classes in this

school were silent. The classroom teaching and learning practices did not stimulate a collaborative, interactive learning environment. The comparison of EFL classes' silence with the way interaction is desired in CLT and active participation expected from a learner-centered classroom documents misalignment between desired and realized instruction.

On a more recent understanding of learner-centered philosophy in language teaching methodology, teachability can be determined depending on the learnability (see, e.g., Gass & Selinker, 2008; Long, 2015). However, this study showed that EFL teachers did not make decisions according to the learnability concerns. Instead, they were mainly concerned with the teaching of coursebook content to align their instruction with the curriculum. Therefore, teaching viewed as the delivery of the curriculum is the defining feature of instruction in this policy environment. Such an understanding implies transmission of knowledge as the pedagogical position in the teaching of language, as stated by Kim (2011). In that case, textbook-based instruction forms the main impetus in the teaching practices of the micro policy actors, which are not at all aligned to the intended instruction. This finding demonstrates teacher-centered instruction as claimed by Cuban (1983). Rather than focusing on the language learners' needs, teachers plan their instruction according to the textbook in the non-learner-centered classroom (Allybokus, 2015; Cuban, 1983). Thus, another discrepancy between desired and realized instruction is found.

Additionally, students' affective factors (e.g., motivation, enjoyment, etc.) gain importance in the L2 learning process due to adopting humanistic approach to teaching as a principle in the domain of learner-centered instruction (Sánchez Calvo, 2007). Likewise, the findings of this study revealed developing positive attitudes toward language learning and creating a motivating and enjoyable learning environment were the features of intended instruction.

Nevertheless, the realization of instructional policy indicated differing attitudes toward several components of language instruction such as the use of

technology, performing tasks, doing research, grammar and translation. Parallel to this finding, the influence of classroom activities and how tasks are addressed in the classroom setting are pointed out as traits affecting students' interest which is a key motivational construct (Ainley, 2012). As discussed in this chapter, the way tasks are articulated in classroom-level instructional practices does not match the intended instruction. Such a discrepancy between policy and instruction probably contribute to students' motivation and interest loss, and so "I got bored" is expressed frequently by the students.

As noted above, the findings of this study revealed that conventional teacher-centered instruction was dominant in EFL classes. However, Kassem (2019) claims that students' affective variables are relatively disadvantaged in such a classroom environment. Similarly, this study showed that students developed negative attitudes toward EFL classes and activities performed in the lesson; some students had negative views in using technology while others were dissatisfied with studying grammar and only doing textbook activities during the lesson.

As suggested by Elyıldırım and Ashton (2006), employing effective language teaching strategies (e.g., cooperative learning, role-plays, etc.) can create positive attitudes toward language learning. A language classroom endowed with less effective language teaching practices (e.g., teacher-led instruction, grammar and translation practice, etc.) might then cause students to develop some negative attitudes toward language learning. Therefore, the realization of instructional policy, by and large, fails to reflect policymakers' intentions with respect to the affective factors.

Grounding on the components of learner-centered teaching discussed above, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy reveals a mix of learner-centered and traditional teacher-centered elements. Therefore, only partially learner-centered teaching is realized leading to weak association between policy and practice for teaching EFL. A study by Allybokus (2015) conducted in

Mauritian schools reveals a similar aspect; discussing the possible reasons for partial learner-centered teaching, Allybokus (2015) has pointed out teacher beliefs, which will be discussed in this chapter later on.

5.1.2. Technology

A further strand of instruction designed with the communicative methodology promotes the use of technology, i.e., technology-supported instruction, as stated by Richards and Rodgers (2014). In the same way, the findings of this study revealed a wish for using technology in EFL classes. Despite some inconsistencies (e.g., desire for using ICT tools like wikis and blogs are not promoted in the supported curriculum), characteristics of intended instruction, on the whole, call for technology-supported teaching of EFL to provide learners authentic and meaningful uses of language in and out of EFL classes.

Comparing the use of technology envisioned in the policy documents and instruments and its actual use in EFL classes, some favorable aspects are found to be aligned. Though few, students used the Internet for research. Also, the availability of IWB facilitated performing listening activities thanks to its function as a recording device. Moreover, a few students performed technology-integrated tasks, yet some unfavorable practices were observed in performing the task work. In the end, technology-integrated instructional practices that are somewhat aligned with the intentions of the policy are disclosed.

The use of technology in EFL classes, on the other hand, did not always come to life as it was specified in the policy documents and instruments. Several gaps in policy and practice are revealed. Despite the availability of IWB and the students' smartphones as the ICT tools in EFL classes, the way they were used did not generate technology-supported instruction in EFL classes. IWB functioned as a recording device and/or demonstrating the textbook exercises, while the smartphones were mainly used for linguistic purposes like translating sentences, searching for new information like grammar forms, and etc. Hence,

ICT tools are used for only linguistic purposes in a traditionally-oriented classroom teaching and learning.

There appears a discrepancy between what is desired and what is realized in terms of using technology in EFL classes. This finding is parallel to the division between two major roles of technology: medium versus tool, as stated by Kern (2006). While the former refers to integrating Web 2.0 technologies into the pedagogical practices for language learning, technology has an extension role in the latter form. In other words, technological tools are supplementary for traditional face-to-face means of instruction. Although intended instruction, by and large, promotes the medium role of technology in EFL classes, realized instruction presents the role of technology as a tool at the school-level practices.

Given that the traditional approach to instruction is defined as involving little to no technology (Hara, 2004), the EFL classes of this school, though a few ICT tools (i.e., IWB and smartphones) are available, portray traditional face-to-face classroom instruction. Supporting this finding, Kim, Kim, Lee, Spector, and DeMeester (2013) argue that the presence of IWB as an ICT tool does not make any difference from a traditional whiteboard in a pedagogical sense as long as it is used only for presenting information.

In this instructional policy environment, technology-segregated instruction is prevalent rather than technology-supported instruction prescribed in the policy documents and instruments even though a few facets of technology-mediated learning are observed and ICT tools are used to a degree. Consequently, there appears a lack of association between the intended use of technology and its actual use in the school-level practice.

5.1.3. Assessment

Within the scope of language methodology, Richards and Renandya (2002) argue that the shift from teacher-centered to learner-centered teaching has also

brought about a new paradigm in assessment and evaluation practices. In line with this principle, Richards and Rodgers (2014) claim that alternative assessment has been introduced as one major characteristic of language teaching within CLT methodology.

Regarding the features of assessment proposed at the policy level, the findings revealed that both performance-based and traditional forms of assessment procedures were envisaged. Although using traditional forms of assessment was acknowledged at the policy level, the strong wish for nontraditional forms of assessment was identified in the policy documents and instruments. On a similar line, the findings of realized instruction also showed the use of traditional and performance-based assessment practices in this school. It seems that instructional policy requirements for assessment and evaluation procedures are more or less realized in the school-level practice.

Nevertheless, a detailed analysis of alternative assessment procedures such as skills practice exams and in-class performance-based assessment depicted the prevalence of traditional assessment tools and practices (e.g., plus or minus-mediated assessment). Concerning a few features that make alternative assessment distinctive from the traditional one, focusing on communication, laying emphasis on process rather than product are noted by Richards and Renandya (2002). On the other hand, the alternative assessment tools employed in this school do not favor these aspects, reducing the association between policy and practice.

Moreover, asking students what they can do rather than what they recall and reproduce (Huerta-Macias, 2002), as well as multiplicity of acceptable solutions and answers (Marsh, 2004), are the other defining strands of alternative assessment. Intended instruction appears to promote these aspects by manifesting skills practice exams and the use of open-ended questions in these exams. Although realized instruction seems to comply with these facets, students' practices do not move beyond rote memorization and GTM-oriented study of

linguistic structures. Be it the speaking performance exam, most of the students sitting for the exam either memorized their speech or read aloud what they had written down. Be it a pen-and-paper exam, the students made sentences with suitable linguistic forms as part of writing skills performance. These practices do not reflect alternative assessment characteristics and so misalign with the intended instruction.

In line with the learner-centered and communicative principles adopted at the policy level, the findings of intended instruction showed the desire for using various feedback forms (e.g., peer feedback and self-assessment) as a crucial component of assessment and evaluation practices. Similarly, Blumberg and Pontiggia (2011) identify giving feedback to the students' work as a distinctive component of assessment in learner-centered teaching different than traditional views of assessment. Yet, findings of realized instruction disclosed that assessment policy implementation did not indicate practices related to feedback, leading to a potential mismatch between intended and realized characteristics of assessment.

Apart from discussing the quality of performance-based assessment tools, the rationale for incorporating these tools into instructional policymaking must be considered. It seems that intended instruction speak to skill-based and alternative assessment techniques to overcome the negative backwash effect of assessment. However, findings of realized instruction demonstrated two extremes. On the one hand, employing alternative assessment procedures stirred students to practice speaking and to become engaged in the lesson. Some students became interested in the lesson where there was an in-class performance-based assessment practice, some others referred to performing speaking with peers or a family member in order to prepare for the speaking exam. In the same way, Allen (2016) reports positive washback effect of assessment on students' language learning behaviors, especially performing more speaking.

However, not all students benefitted from assessment practices while the instructional policy was implemented in this school. Findings indicated that students embraced conventional methods of learning such as rote memorization and GTM-oriented study of grammar items to prepare for the examinations. The majority of the students studied for the grammar instruction notes that they had written down during classroom instruction. This finding is consistent with Pan and Newfields' (2012) conclusion that student preferences for traditional methods of learning can be a result of the teacher-centered traditional form of instruction in classroom teaching and learning.

The implementation of assessment policy in this school seems to result in a negative washback effect of examinations on learning content and methods. Similarly, Damankesh and Babai (2015) report the negative impact of high school students' examinations regarding restricting their learning by focusing on formal aspects of language rather than the other elements of communicative competence. Perhaps because of the mismatch between the policy and practice regarding assessment, there appears negative backwash effect causing students' failure in achieving communicative competence and ignoring the study of four language skills.

To sum up, the implementation of assessment policy exhibits convergence to the intentions of the policy to a degree; yet still there appear inconsistencies, some of which are related to responding to the essential strands of alternative assessment procedures. In comparing the degree of overlap between policy and practice for assessment, the main concern is not whether the assessment components are available. Instead, how the essential elements of assessment procedures are implemented is under consideration. Then, a low consistency between policy intentions and school-level assessment practices is found. Likewise, inconsistency between the policy prescriptions and EFL teachers' assessment practices in the Turkish primary education context has been reported (Arslan & Üçok-Atasoy, 2020; Yıldırım & Orsdemir, 2013).

5.1.4. Communicative Approach

With the rise of CLT, language methodology has expanded its scope from achieving linguistic competence only to different sub-competencies (i.e., strategic, discourse, and sociolinguistic), as stated by Richards (2006). In the same way, the findings of this study showed that intended instruction speaks out considering all aspects of communicative competence to help students achieve communication skills.

On the other hand, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy indicated a few aspects that need consideration. First, findings showed that linguistic competence was the only sub-element of the communicative competence developed in classroom teaching and learning. Grounding on the more recent understanding of CLT, characteristics of intended instruction prescribed inductive learning of grammar. In so doing, the study of language structures was introduced with visuals and prompts in the textbook exercises to help students understand using these structures according to the context. The intended instruction then implies the wish for achieving discourse competence by using "materials that are well contextualized and meaningful to learners" as stated by Celce-Murcia (2008, p.51).

However, the findings of this study revealed that the medium of instruction is L1 in EFL classes. This is in agreement with findings reported in the literature, that teachers' and students' various reasons for using L1 in EFL classes are pointed out in local and international contexts (Lu & Fehring, 2015; Öz & Karaazmak, 2019; Sah, 2017; Sali, 2014; Sen, 2010; Yenice, 2018). In this study, findings specifically showed that the visuals given as part of discourse competence were discussed in L1, and then a sentence coherent to the context given in the visual was formulated in Turkish. Such an aspect leads to a sort of ineffective teaching practice to achieve discourse competence. Besides, there were idioms and proverbs incorporated into the instructional material, yet teachers and students studied these expressions by discussing what their equivalent was in Turkish.

Using L1 to achieve communicative competence is seen as the defining feature of realized instruction, leading to a severe discrepancy between policy and practice regarding students' attainment of communicative competence.

Another characteristic of the realized instruction is about the study of speaking skills. Findings revealed that the majority of classroom-level speaking practices did not show a genuine communicative performance. Similar to this finding, lack of speaking in EFL classes is reported in the local context (Hunutlu, 2011; Kara, Demir-Ayaz, & Dündar, 2017; Özen, 2013).

In this study, pseudo-study of speaking that is identified as performing speaking activities by writing down something and then reading it aloud was observed in classroom teaching and learning. In particular, discussion time activities aimed to provide an opportunity for sharing opinions and ideas via improvisation; however, students almost always used translation apps to understand the questions given in the activity and write answers for them. After that, they read aloud their responses to the questions. On a similar line, Özen (2013) argues that the grammar-based approach embraced in EFL classes leads to the failure of Turkish students to speak English when they graduate from high school. The pseudo-study of speaking implies that the way tasks are designed and how they are performed in EFL classes are not well aligned. The communicative and real-life features of a task are cut off at classroom-level practices; thus, intended learning outcomes for a particular task are not achieved.

Except for the achievement of linguistic competence only, the second dimension revealed in this study was the lack of intercultural awareness among the students. In line with the emphasis on CLT in teaching EFL at the policy level, findings of document review showed that intended instruction emphasized all four aspects of communicative competence in addition to the lingua franca and international features of English. This finding is parallel to the more recent conceptualization of communicative competence, which calls for including a few new sub-competencies such as sociocultural competence, as stated by Littlewood (2011).

On the other hand, findings of realized instruction reflected negative labeling toward the people of different nations and their culture among students, excluding a few multilingual students who had the chance to live abroad for a period of time and so become familiar with other cultures.

Due mainly to grounding on the native-speaker norms and ability, Alptekin (2002) questions the communicative competence as a pedagogical model and introduces "intercultural communicative competence," which proposes successful bilingual speakers as the model. When the way communicative competence is conceptualized within instructional policymaking is concerned, a sort of ambiguity is inferred regarding the manifestation of intercultural awareness and competence. Findings showed that intended instruction underscored a wish to reinforce students' understanding of foreign cultures and societies by referencing the CEFR. Yet, the analysis of instructional activities showed either maintenance of native-speaker norms or overemphasis on figures of local culture was fostered. Students' lack of intercultural awareness might result from instructional practices that do not focus on intercultural aspects of language then. Consequently, incoherence between intentions and realization of the instructional policy comes to the fore once again.

As a solution for such inconsistency, the importance of instructional materials and activities that involve not only local but also international contexts have been underscored (Alptekin, 2002). However, Savignon (2017) claims inadequacy of reform goals, materials, and assessment and calls for providing both prospective and in-service teachers with experience in integrating communicative practices in their lessons in order for a program to have a true change.

Regarding the achievement of communicative competence, not only obscurity of the intentions of the policy but also the inadequacy of instructional activities as well as teachers' inefficacy in incorporating communicative experiences in their lessons result in, perhaps the motto of this study as "*nasip değilmiş*." It means

that although the students crave for expressing their views and opinions in English, they are not able to do so because of their low capability in performing spontaneous speech, which is strongly desired to achieve communicative competence at the policy level.

In addition to communicative competence, another premise of the communicative approach is the study of all four language skills, i.e., listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension, and writing (see, e.g., Richards, 2006). In line with this principle, the analysis of the policy documents and instruments revealed specific emphasis laid on the teaching of all four language skills.

Considering the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy, findings showed some facets of the study of language skills. First, the procedures followed in teaching receptive skills (i.e., listening and reading) were observed, yet this was not possible for the productive skills (i.e., speaking and writing). Second, linguistic mastery was more prominent than developing language skills and strategies when performing activities related to paper skills (i.e., reading and writing). Third, classroom teaching and learning did not involve the study of speaking skills much. The most prevalent way of performing speaking was question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students. Therefore, classroom teaching and learning practices are not well aligned to the instructional policy's intentions in teaching language skills.

In particular, conceptualizing question-and-answer exchanges as part of speaking practice reflects a lack of opportunity for actual communicative performance. Supporting this finding, Richards and Rodgers (2014) argue that though supposed to be speaking practice, such a facet of instruction is not manifested in the communicative methodology but rather refers to a more traditional orientation such as the Direct Method.

The findings of the intended instruction disclosed integrated study of all four language skills as another strong wish for the teaching of language skills. This finding is parallel to the manifestation of methodological arguments for integrating skills, albeit acknowledging isolated language skills teaching, when necessary (see, e.g., Burns & Siegel, 2018; Hinkel, 2006). On the contrary, the classroom-level realization of the policy did not reflect these aspects. Instructional practices in EFL classes disclosed discrete study of language skills, usually for the receptive skills (i.e., listening and reading) only. That is to say, the procedures for the teaching of listening and reading skills were detected in EFL classes. There were no procedures to teach speaking and writing perhaps because instructional practices did not present productive activities much.

Except for how to teach four language skills, findings indicated characteristics of intended instruction promoting inductive learning of grammar and meaningful learning of vocabulary. This finding overlaps with more recent approaches and methods to language teaching, as stated by Richards and Rodgers (2014).

Firstly, intended instruction prescribed teaching vocabulary in context and focusing on meaning, form, collocation, as well as example sentences. On the contrary, findings of realized instruction showed the study of lexis with their L1 equivalents only; focusing on the form, pronunciation, as well as collocation of the lexical items was missing. In particular, a few target vocabulary items were listed before performing a reading exercise, and the L1 equivalents of these words were studied in classroom teaching and learning. Supporting this finding, Laufer (2006) advocates employing such a practice, especially in the learning contexts in which creating the learning conditions of FLA is not possible. The way vocabulary is treated in EFL classes implies a focus on forms approach whereas intended instruction encourages the reverse, i.e., a focus on form approach (see, e.g., Laufer, 2006, 2010). Classroom teaching, on the whole, minimally attends to the intentions of teaching vocabulary, and that leads to a lack of association between policy and practice.

Secondly, the findings of this study revealed another contradiction in regard to teaching grammar. Although intended instruction implied the vision for language teaching, which avoids the idea of too much focus on grammatical competence in implementing the instructional policy, developing linguistic competence comprised a significant strand of the language teaching and learning process in EFL classes. Form-focused instruction was detected as the leading method to teach grammar, yet focus on forms seems to be the leading technique used in teaching target linguistic structures in the classroom. In other words, teachers' instructional methods for teaching grammar involved the isolated study of linguistic structures by translating example sentences and explaining the rules of language usage in Turkish. Therefore, this study verifies that an intense focus on the explicit teaching of grammar is a perennial issue that has not been resolved within the context of EFL instruction in Turkey. This is in agreement with findings reported in the literature, that GTM is still commonly used in EFL classes in Turkey (Özen, 2013; Ulum & Uzun, 2020).

In language teaching, although both focus on form and focus on forms are acknowledged, focus on forms is advocated more traditional methods of language instruction such as GTM and ALM, whereas the focus on form has been promoted in more recent language methodologies which have been recognized as an extension of CLT (Long, 2015). Treating grammar structures in a rather synthetic way shows a strong incoherence between intended and realized instruction. With this said the desire for inductive grammar learning rebirths as deductive learning in EFL classes. Likewise, Lambert (2018) puts forward that even if most L2 programs aims at implicit L2 knowledge, students gain explicit L2 knowledge as the outcome of the program.

To sum up, communicative approach as the last component discussed under the title of intended versus realized instruction has indicated one more severe discrepancy. First, although all sub-competencies of communicative competence are expected to be achieved, only linguistic competence is developed in this policy environment. Second, the desire for the integrated study of all four

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language skills comes to life as discrete study of receptive skills only. Third, the way grammatical competence is studied in EFL classes does not accord with the one to be achieved as a result of instructional practices that are in line with CLT. In the end, using L1 as the medium of instruction, the discrete study of language skills, and a more traditional orientation in the study of linguistic properties result in a lack of alignment between policy and practice for teaching EFL.

5.2. Top-Down Policy Implementation

Having compared intended and realized features of instruction within instructional policy construction of this study, some factors causing a severe gap between policy and practice need attention. Perhaps one major problem bringing into misalignment between policy intentions and their implementation is the top-down principle embraced within the Turkish education context. Although there is a theoretically well-grounded prescription for teaching EFL at the policy level, on its journey from the top toward down, contradictory policies are adopted that make the practice of the policy ineffective. In this regard, the findings of this study support the claim by Bamgbose (2004) as "what is implemented at a lower level is often different from what is prescribed at a higher level" (p. 61). Accordingly, a few issues deserve a discussion in this part.

In this study, findings revealed a single curriculum, and a single textbook was distributed to all the high schools as part of the execution of the instructional policy. Perhaps because the instructional policy inclined toward a more structured curriculum plan, the implementation turned into a challenge. First, using the same curriculum for all types of schools at the upper secondary education institutions all through the country was one facet of the policy. Second, only a single textbook prepared according to the pre-determined learning outcomes was distributed. Third, assessment and evaluation procedures were prescribed from the top. According to Baldauf (2006, 2008), these features highlight a top-down policy and planning. The execution of the top-down policy seems to imply a one-size-fits-all curriculum plan then. Supporting this finding,

Long (2015) claims that "education is one of the few areas where the one-size-fits-all approach survives, in the form of state education, especially when beholden to centralized, mandated curricula" (p. 10).

Although several promising features of instruction were documented in the policy instruments (i.e., the curriculum and the instructional material), findings revealed some limitations when putting these features into practice in EFL classes. The ready-made single textbook, albeit building on an impressive communicative focus, does not meet some students' needs, proficiency levels, and so on. Also, teachers' lack of methodological knowledge in teaching EFL with a communicative focus constrains achieving desired outcomes. As discussed by Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, and Bryant (2011), introducing inspiring curriculum policies with a communicative focus is the easy part, whereas implementing that methodology becomes the challenge since implementation requires an appropriate textbook, resources, etc. Similar results have been reported by Butler (2011), who identifies top-down policy implementation as a challenge in implementing CLT in Asian classrooms.

Furthermore, while the policy was moving from the top toward down, a few crucial suggestions or requirements were either underestimated or misunderstood. There was a specific call for materials writers to offer guidelines and video tutorials to train teachers on integrating technology in English classes in the written curriculum (i.e., 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2014). Nonetheless, neither the instructional material provided any tutorial nor any discipline-specific training was given to the teachers during the implementation of the teaching program. A lack of teacher training in using ICT tools might be one reason teachers cannot successfully integrate technology into their instruction, as stated by Frey and Donehue (2002).

There appeared some other fallacies in the policy itself. First, findings showed that some of the requirements about the instructional materials in the written curriculum were missing in the textbook. For instance, the textbook was not

equipped with its software, and there were no audio-visual materials. Only a single textbook with its workbook was sent to the school. Findings of intended instruction also displayed that while the integrated study of language skills was desired on the one hand, the discrete study of language skills was promoted on the other. Besides, the wish for international and lingua franca aspects of ELT disappeared while the policy trickled down from top to bottom. In the macro policy documents, a foreign language that possessed international features was desired. Likewise, the written curriculum underscored lingua franca and international aspects of English. However, the instructional material involved much more focus on the national figures and labels, as well as recordings involved only native speaker speech. In the end, a more native-speaker-bound communicative competence became the goal to be achieved.

In their review of the directions in the policy implementation scholarship, Coburn et al. (2016) claim that implementation of macro-level policies (e.g., national policy) can become possible under two grounds; first, there must be alignment between the policies within different levels (i.e., national, state and district), second, there must be educational infrastructure which would "support teachers' learning and compliance with the policy" (p. 246). Then, the fallacies which come into existence when the policy is putting into use might contribute to the weak association between policy and practice. On a similar line, a series of challenges that are posed by the policy itself has been addressed in the Colombian education context by Correa and Gonzalez (2016).

Additionally, this study showed a few contextual challenges, such as classroom dynamics, the value attached to the threshold degree among students, and English as a core academic class in the upper secondary education program. This result is in line with what others have suggested in the literature on policy implementation: the impracticability of the top-down policy itself due to neglecting the contextual constraints has been manifested as one reason given for the lack of success in policy implementation (Hu, 2007; Li, 2017; Li & Baldauf,

2011). All these challenges arising in the implementation phase of the instructional policy will be discussed in detail in this chapter later on.

Although many governments attempt to create instructional policies that involve learner-centered components (see, e.g., Allybokus, 2015; O'Sullivan, 2002), the learner-centered reform process indicating a top-down model fails to reflect the policymakers' intent in the implementation phase. Teachers' professional capacity has been identified as another reason for this weak association (O'Sullivan, 2004). The findings of this study reflect the same contradiction because teachers' lack of knowledge in methodology, assessment, and alike was found.

Due mainly to the top-down nature of the instructional policy, the EFL teachers are expected to implement the principles of the official regulations as they are (e.g., regulations about assessment). As this study showed, even within the same school, the teachers' instructional practices differ exceptionally. While Marigold decided on performing the speaking practice exam, Snowdrop was undecided. Yet, Tulip performed the opposite, and she did not conduct speaking performance exams at all. From this perspective, assuming policy to be put into use as desired by the policymakers cannot be something more than a dream. On a similar line, when the top-down policy and planning is considered, the gap between policy and practice has already been acknowledged as something inevitable (Hamid & Honan, 2012; Kırkgöz, 2007a; Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008). And as a result, there has been a call for incorporating decentralized LEP which presents bottom-up flexibility for the micro policy actors (Ball, Maguire, & Braun, 2012; Butler, 2011; Carilo, 2018; Levinson, Sutton, & Winstead, 2009; Li, 2017; Menken & Garcia, 2010).

One last aspect that needs to be discussed is the influence of supranational agencies on instructional policymaking and practice in Turkey. Though it was not the main focus of this study, findings indicated the education system in Turkey is under the influence of some international agencies such as the CoE. In

this regard, a few principles of CEFR were acknowledged in developing instructional policies for FLE in Turkey. The CoE then seems to be the leading supranational agency influencing policymaking and execution for FLE in Turkey.

The most apparent influence of the CEFR was found concerning the students' expected and/or desired language levels at certain grades. As regards the participants of the current study (i.e., junior year students), their language proficiency level, which was desired to be achieved, was noted as B1+/B2. However, such global proficiency levels have received sharp criticism due mainly to be psycholinguistically implausible (see, e.g., Long, 2015; Widdowson, 2009).

In this study, findings disclosed that CEFR levels were adapted to meet the specific needs of students. Such an aspect can be welcomed, yet it should be the teacher, not the curriculum designer(s), who should decide on the appropriateness of certain proficiency levels (e.g., B1) for their teaching context. In this regard, the findings of this study also showed that teachers were allowed to conduct a needs analysis and determine the students' proficiency accordingly. However, the actual implementation phase of the policy did not present such features, perhaps because the policy instrument did not make needs analysis a requirement instead offered it as a suggestion for the teachers. Allowing teachers to conduct needs analysis seems to imply "escape clauses" defined by Bamgbose (1991, as cited in Glasgow, 2014). That is to say, the policy manifestation is not specified enough; for this reason, it is not likely to expect the intention to be put into use in the implementation phase. In the end, the instructional policy was implemented in the multilevel classes, and students received instruction using the textbook, which was designed according to their perceived proficiency level in an attempt to develop policies that cohere with the intentions of supranational agencies. Herein the top-down construction of the policy, which deteriorates some crucial intentions for the success of the program, is seen once again.

All in all, several critical issues emerge from the top-down nature of the policy construction in the Turkish education system, impinging on some adverse effect on the realization of the policy as it is desired. It is likely that empowering teachers as the micro policy actors can become a remedy for the challenges experienced during the implementation phase; thereby, more tightly aligned policies and practices can be achieved for teaching EFL in the upper secondary education context in Turkey.

5.3. The Importance of Teacher Beliefs in Policy Realization

Another aspect that has a profound impact on the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy is the teacher cognition, i.e., knowledge and beliefs of EFL teachers. Concerning the pivotal role of teachers in the achievement of effective implementation, how they perceive the policy, what they believe, what they think about the instruction, and what they know exert an influence on their instructional practices. As the findings of this study showed, the teachers' perceived curriculum influenced their instructional decisions and practices (i.e., the taught curriculum), and all these curricula were related to the students' language learning experiences in either good or bad ways. Likewise, Atta (2015) examined the policy and practice dimension from the perspective of different policy actors and reported that the teachers' perceptions gained importance in the school level practice of the policy.

As discussed by Borg (2006), this study verified the relation between EFL teachers' cognition and practices. Depending on teachers' knowledge and beliefs, their instructional practices indicated some satisfying aspects on the one hand, yet several ineffective teaching practices were found on the other. In this regard, the results of this study are parallel to the literature on implementation scholarship (Karabacak, 2018; Kim, 2011; Mack-Stephenson, 2015; O'Laughlin & Lindle, 2015; Pesonen et al., 2015). O'Laughlin and Lindle (2015) report the principals' perceptions and understanding of the policy requirements as factors contributing to the dichotomies in the implementation. In contrast, Pesonen et al.

(2015) identify teachers' values and beliefs as something welcoming in shaping the educational policy implementation.

How teacher beliefs influence their instructional practices (Mack-Stephenson, 2015) and the significance of teachers' perceptions of teaching and curriculum (Kim, 2011) has already been disclosed. On a similar line, findings of this study revealed that EFL teachers' negative attitudes toward some aspects of the program such as the study of listening skills constrained the instruction, whereas their positive attitudes toward other elements like the reading activities fostered the study of these components in EFL classes. Then, while the policy reaches its aims to a degree, practice does not align with the intentions in terms of some other elements.

Given that intrinsic factors such as teachers' commitment to using technology, their personal desire, and their strong beliefs in using technology positively influence the effective use of technology as well as its integration into instruction (Ertmer, Ottenbreit-Leftwich, & York, 2006; Mumtaz, 2000; Pinner, 2012), teachers in this school did present reverse attitudes toward technology in general which might be another rationale behind the low consistency between intended and realized instructional practices in using technology.

Additionally, this study indicated that contextual factors, classroom experiences, and so on affect what teachers know and believe. Using various knowledge(s), teachers made instructional decisions to implement the program in this school. Be it personal practical knowledge (PPK), EFL teachers consulted their language learning experiences and practical experiences, when they made decisions about their instruction. This finding is parallel to the literature on the teacher knowledge base (Borg, 2003; Golombek, 1998; Verloop et al., 2001). In this study, EFL teachers preferred teaching grammar deductively because they learned in this way; they decided which activities to perform depending on their practical teaching experiences in one class. All these decisions reflect their personal understanding of teaching rather than the intentions of the policy. Such

an aspect might then support the claim by Crowley (2015) that teachers' reliance on their way of understanding of the policy contributes to the gap between intentions and realization of the policy.

In particular, although learner-centered approaches that were embraced in the intended instruction encouraged interaction between students via small group work and active participation of all the students in the teaching and learning procedure, teachers' way of understanding the policy showed the reverse. Teachers showcased some negative views about performing group work in EFL classes. Their contextual knowledge also caused them to accept the apathetic students as the norm in EFL classes, and as a result, they did not attempt to encourage these students to participate in the lesson. In the end, the negative impact of teachers' cognition on their instruction resulted in ineffective teaching practices concerning the learner-centered principles of teaching. A similar finding has also been revealed by Allybokus (2015), who claims that teacher beliefs exert an influence on their understanding of learner-centered teaching.

According to Menken and Garcia (2010), variation in teachers' approach to the instructional policy depends on what they know and believe. This study verified this claim by pointing out various knowledge(s) that EFL teachers employ when they make their instructional decisions. Therefore, a variety of instructional practices within the same policy environment using the same mandated curricula and materials were observed. Be it performance-based assessment, Tulip's practices were more inclined toward grammar because she believed that the students needed grammar knowledge. Snowdrop almost always required the students to perform writing because she thought the students' proficiency level was insufficient to accomplish speaking. In a similar perspective, Suwarno (2011) points out teacher characteristics that cause a difference in alignment between the national curriculum standards and instructional practices.

On the other hand, some contextual factors such as curriculum mandates, colleagues, and standardized tests may impinge on teachers' ability to adopt

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instructional practices that are coherent with their beliefs (Borg, 2003). Likewise, the teachers of this school seemed to be aware of some of their ineffective teaching practices (e.g., lack of speaking practices). Yet, they had some reasons such as large class sizes, the indifference of students toward EFL class, the negative value attached to EFL as a core academic class, and lower proficiency level of the students to perform speaking.

In brief, the overarching challenges and deficiencies in school-level practice of the policy sometimes emerge due to unobservable dimensions of teaching, i.e., teachers' knowledge, beliefs, perceptions, etc. On a similar line, Karabacak (2018) reports teachers' competencies and beliefs among the factors affecting misalignment between curriculum and instruction. For achieving tightly aligned practices, the need for teacher professional development and subject-specific in-service teacher training (INSET) come to the fore and will be discussed in this chapter later on.

5.4. Language Learners and Language Learning Practices

The results of this study showed the role of language learners as less visible micro policy actors other than EFL teachers affecting the realization of the policy in sometimes satisfying, yet sometimes discouraging ways. In this regard, the contribution of students in instructional policy realization is seen. This aspect is parallel to the rising arguments on student agency (i.e., the capacity to act) in LPP and curriculum research (Manyukhina & Wyse, 2019; Vennela & Kandaharaja, 2021; Zhang, 2020). The findings of this study showed language learner characteristics which can be grouped under five headings: 1) language users, 2) students of language, 3) lower academic achievers, 4) multilinguals as the least visible policy actors, and 5) apathetic students. Dwelling on the reference points identified, how the students' language learning practices and experiences are aligned or misaligned with the policy are discussed below.

Starting with the characteristics of learners, language users exhibit several encouraging features such as their ability to perform impromptu speech, autonomous learning and using language out of the classroom via various mediums, i.e., social media platforms, online computer games, etc. Secondly, students of language present characteristics like following the lesson, performing activities the way the teacher required, and spending effort on learning the language. Third, lower academic achievers demonstrate some facets similar to the students of language; for instance, translation forms the basis of language learning habits for both groups of students. Lower academic achievers, nevertheless, have several negative perceptions about themselves and their language learning procedure. Multilinguals are the least visible policy actors; neither the policy nor the practice involves any specific concern for these groups of students. Being multilingual in an EFL setting has some advantages yet also some disadvantages. As translation forms the basis of instruction in EFL classes, these students become linguistically disadvantaged. Yet, they can benefit from cross-linguistic influence when necessary. Apathetic students, as the last group, demonstrate neither motivation nor effort to learn the language; they are almost always disengaged in the lesson.

Comparing the language learning experiences students gained and the intentions of the policy reveals a few favorable aspects on behalf of some students. Yet, several unfavorable practices are observed regarding lower academic achievers, apathetic students, and others. Among the language learning behaviours, types of motivation, academic aspirations, the impact of translation on language learning practices, using language learning techniques and strategies, as well as the use of technology are noteworthy.

First, findings of the present study unveiled that there were different sources of motivation among students; while the language users were intrinsically motivated, the students of language and lower academic achievers were, in general, extrinsically motivated. Yet, apathetic students had no motivation to learn the language. Furthermore, the findings of this study showed that those

who were intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn the language also possessed more recent motivational facets like the ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience (see Dörnyei, 2009). Based on all these motivational constructs, students exhibited language learning practices that were better aligned with the intentions of the policy. The motivational constructs became a driving force in following the lesson, active participation in the activities, language learning effort as well as using the language out of EFL classes. Such an aspect is in agreement with findings reported in the literature on motivation (Dörnyei, 2019; Kormos & Csizér, 2014; Kwok & Carson, 2018).

Second, this study revealed dichotomous findings with respect to the academic aspirations of students. On the one hand, there were students who really wanted to learn the language, on the other those of others who had really poor language skills. The latter were the students with low academic aspirations, and there might be several reasons for it. As the data showed, there were some context-specific realities influencing the implementation of the instructional policy. In the literature, several factors related to the individual, the school, the family, etc., have been pointed out causing low academic aspirations (Chenoweth & Galliher, 2004; Hynds, Averill, Hindle, & Meyer, 2017; McCollum & Yoder, 2011; Rubie-Davies, 2015).

The findings of this study, in a sense, demonstrate the influence of some in-school factors leading to low academic aspirations among students. In this regard, findings showed several contextual challenges, among which problems in classroom dynamics were detected. For example, SSC1 was a class composed of students from two different fields of study as foreign language education and social sciences. There were some lower proficiency level students in the social sciences group. And these students reported several negative perceptions about their self-concept and competence in learning English, perhaps because students from the foreign language field of study were more competent at English. This finding is parallel to the literature on academic aspirations that revealed school climate and social psychology of classrooms as negative influencers of student

motivation, aspirations, and expectations of success (Hynds et al., 2017; Rubie-Davies, 2015).

Perhaps one of the most significant in-school factors on students' low academic aspirations can be related to the teacher-student relationships. The teacher participants of this study noted some negative views about students' success; in other words, they put low efficacy beliefs on their students. And they performed instructional practices accordingly. Teachers were not motivated for their lesson, and they did not encourage the students to participate in the lesson most of the time. Similar to this finding, Rubie-Davies and Peterson (2011) found that teachers who had high expectations for their students created warmer classroom climates than those of others holding low expectations. Additionally, McCollum and Yonder (2011) reported interpersonal relationships among students and teachers influencing students' aspirations.

Third, findings indicated that students developed language learning habits which were under heavy influence of the classroom-level language teaching practices. Due mainly to the transmissive and traditional forms of teaching practices which focused on linguistic mastery and translation, students' individual language learning practices revealed attention paid to grammar and translation. Of significance herein is that not only lower proficiency students but also high proficiency students which were characterized as language users presented language learning behaviours centering on linguistic properties much. To give an example, a high proficiency student mentioned paying specific attention to grammar in sharing messages on social media platforms. Another student reported translating the new words that he learnt in the movies, while a different student showed the translation of the reading texts that were studied in the lesson as part of her individual study after classes.

In this sense, the findings of this study are parallel to the studies reporting the relation between classroom-level instruction and students' learning perceptions and practices (Chamot, 2005; Daniels et al., 2001). Classroom-level instruction

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focusing on translation and linguistic mastery seems to have a profound influence on students' language learning behaviours. On the one hand, translation-focused language learning habits were prevalent among students of language and lower academic achievers, as translation helped them to participate in the lesson actively. On the other hand, using translation in instruction influenced language users and multilinguals negatively. In this regard, Öz and Karaazmak (2019) claim that as the students' English proficiency level increase, their willingness to use L1 in EFL classes decrease. The findings of this study revealed a similar aspect; high proficiency students were dissatisfied with performing translation and using L1 in EFL classes, because of L1 negative interference in their language learning procedure. To clarify, these students mentioned thinking of in Turkish rather than in English before they expressed themselves in L2. Even worse, multilinguals could not participate in the lesson when there was translation practice. Considering CLT as the leading methodology at the policy level, translation and its impeding factors are not desired, so a potential mismatch between intended and realized instruction is verified once again.

In the present study, findings unveiled a difference between students according to the language learning strategies they used. On the one hand, there were language users and multilinguals as effective strategy users while on the other lower academic achievers exhibited a lack of strategy use. They did not possess any strategies to employ in performing activities. When the language learning strategies-related intentions of the policy are considered, findings showed several strategies as part of intended instruction, such as skimming and scanning techniques for reading, guessing the vocabulary in context, and inductive learning of grammar. On the other hand, instruction in EFL classes of this school did not present any strategy training for the students.

A striking finding of this study, in this regard, was about the students who developed a few effective strategies like understanding the words in context, getting the gist of a text, etc., with their own attempts. In other words, these

encouraging features appeared not because the teachers fostered such instructional practices but because a few high proficiency students (i.e., language users and multilinguals) did not follow the classroom teaching. For example, teachers' instructional practices for teaching reading skills did not direct students' attention to these areas; rather, they usually required students to translate the text and/or look up the L1 equivalents of the words in the text. A few high proficiency students did not prefer these practices. They followed their own path by guessing the meaning from the context in preference to looking up L1 equivalents and understanding the meaning of the text by reading through it instead of translation. This is in agreement with findings reported in the literature, that strategy use is viewed as the learners' ability to act differently from what they are taught, and it is performed on a voluntary basis (Gao, 2010; Hajar, 2017).

Nevertheless, as the findings of the present study revealed, lower academic achievers tried to survive in EFL classes by using ineffective techniques (e.g., Ip dip do) due mainly to lack of strategy training in instruction. As a result, they experienced failures when they attempted to perform an activity. This finding seems to verify the research underscoring the importance of strategy training in learning and achievement (Chamot, 2005; Dabarera, Renandya, & Zhang, 2014; Lee, Warschauer, & Lee, 2020; Mohammadi, Birjandi, & Maftoon, 2015). The instructional policy then comes to life in a few students' learning experiences in the desired way, albeit not for the rest of the students. The role of students as micro policy actors in instructional policy realization is seen hereof, and it will be discussed in the implications of the study later on.

Bearing on the findings discussed above, this study showed that the students' language learning conceptualization was mainly shaped by the type of language instruction inside the four walls of the EFL classes. Likewise, a study comparing students' perceptions of learning in learner-centered and non-learner-centered classrooms discloses traditional concepts of learning among students receiving instruction in non-learner-centered classrooms (Daniels et al., 2001). Together,

these findings lend support for the claim by Olson and Bruner (1996) as "… each form of pedagogy inevitably communicates a conception of learners that may in time be adopted by them as the appropriate way of thinking about themselves, their learning, indeed, their ability to learn…Pedagogy is never innocent" (p.23). Perhaps one of the most interesting findings of this study was detected in terms of congruence between technology-based learning characteristics, which were prescribed in policy documents and instruments and realized in individual students' lives via their own attempts. Findings showed several strategic language learning efforts employed by the students, which presents characteristics of technology-mediated learning. Bearing on the perspective of digital natives (Prensky, 2001), it was detected that a few students, with their attempts, experienced real-life use of English via the medium of ICT tools. To clarify, some students mentioned making friends on social media platforms and communicating in English regularly. The favorable experiences students gained with their own efforts show tighter alignment between policy and practice. The power of students' ownership of language is seen herein; thus, the role of language learners and their language learning practices in the realization of instructional policy is presented once more.

Different from the previous studies reporting students' lack of exposure to English in their environment as one reason for the implementation failure (O'Sullivan, 2002), this study unveiled that students of today's technologized world have a host of opportunities to be exposed to English in various ways such as the foreign series, social media platforms, online computer games and the like. The findings of this study further revealed that such an advantage of technology augmented language learners' capacity, passion, and interest to learn English, which lessens the learner-related aspects as an impeding factor in explaining the failure in implementation.

Nevertheless, findings showed that allowing students to use ICT tools during classroom instruction brought about a few issues, perhaps the most salient of which can be the misuse of technology like listening to music, surfing the

Internet, and socializing on social networking sites. Similar findings were also reported Dror (2008). Although MALL was an element which was highlighted in the written curriculum, findings of realized instruction indicated that students experienced "hanging out with the phone" in EFL classes.

Another and more serious drawback of using smartphones in EFL classes was the mismatch between desired and realized characteristics of language learners. Students described as digital natives in the written curriculum became digital cheaters in this instructional policy environment. Supporting academic integrity arguments (Berry, Thornton, & Baker, 2006; Ma, Wan, & Lu, 2008), the students in this school seem to assume cheating online as something ordinary. Digital cheating was probably the only solution to participate in the lesson for some learners (e.g., lower academic achievers), because they were not good at English. Therefore, misalignment between intended and realized instruction for using technology in EFL classes appears once more.

All in all, the findings of this study verify the active role of students in policy realization. Various language learning practices that they perform in and out of EFL classes sometimes fortify alignment between policy and practice. Nonetheless, several factors related to students also debilitate the policy to reach its aims. In the end, students display language learning experiences, some of which are aligned, yet some are misaligned with the intentions of the policy.

5.5. Challenges in Implementing Instructional Policy

The results of this study indicated a list of common challenges in implementing instructional policy for teaching EFL, related to students and teachers, school management, and the policy itself. In this respect, the instructional policy on its way from the top toward down came across various difficulties arising from two main sources as i) macro policy factors and ii) micro policy actors. Likewise, Coşkun-Demirpolat (2015) points out several problems in FLE in Turkey, such

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as the large class sizes, teacher education-related dilemmas as well as the policy itself.

Concerning the first dimension, findings unveiled several issues due to the top-down construction of the instructional policy posing challenges in the implementation phase. Among them, English as a core academic class in the curricula for upper secondary education, the value attached to the threshold degree to pass the class, and the problems concerning the instructional material are notable.

In the present study, one of the major difficulties in the successful implementation of the instructional policy emerged from the nature of the policy itself. At the macro policy documents, FLE was identified as a core academic class, which means it is a must-course at each grade of upper secondary education. In this regard, macro policy implies giving importance to FLE, yet such an aspect turned to reverse at the school-level practice. This study revealed that junior year students paid more attention to the major area courses due to the university entrance examination. Therefore, the division between major area courses and core academic classes led to low student motivation and interest in EFL classes. Most students preferred solving multiple-choice tests to prepare for the university entrance exam; thereby, they did not follow the lesson. Similarly, Correa and Gonzalez (2016) report students' lack of motivation to learn English as a challenge in policy implementation.

As the importance attached to English lowered down, and several students aimed at passing class only (i.e., value for 50 as the threshold degree) in this school, their perceptions of success and failure varied accordingly. To illustrate, achieving 25 out of 100 might be assumed as a success for some students because gaining this score in EFL course may be sufficient to achieve the threshold degree and so pass the class. The policy-related aspects then become a challenge for the school-level implementation. Findings also unveiled that students' value for the threshold degree influenced their classroom-level

practices. They presented some unfavorable behaviors, such as executive help-seeking and digital cheating, to perform a task or to exhibit active participation in the lesson. On a similar line, Fitter (2016) reports greater levels of executive help-seeking behaviours among lower proficiency students.

In addition, the findings of this study indicated another issue regarding the understanding and implementation of macro policy requirements. This study showed intended instruction allowed for organizing classes according to students' proficiency level. Nevertheless, this is more like "escape clauses" (Bamgbose, 1991, as cited in Glasgow, 2014); policy intention is left unspecified, so the policy remains only on paper rather than being put into use. Findings of realized instruction exhibited that mixed proficiency classes were one reality of the EFL classes in this school, and it had some severe drawbacks, such as the "*sözelciler ağlıyor*" issue. As these students had a lower proficiency level, they became disengaged in the lesson, especially when there was a communication-oriented practice. This result is in line with Edgerton et al. (2017), reporting that classes with mixed ability students are among the challenges encountered in the successful implementation of an instructional policy.

In this instructional policy environment, though classes were populated with mixed ability as well as mixed proficiency students, the main policy instrument for the instruction was the textbook. As discussed previously in this chapter, distributing a single textbook implies a one-size-fits-all curriculum plan, and Kim (2011) identifies this as a barrier to student learning. The findings of this study lend support for this claim; publishing and distributing a single textbook with a proficiency level "B1+/B2" exerted another negative influence on the classroom-level realization of the policy. There appeared a discrepancy between the perceived language proficiency of the students and their actual language proficiency. As the instructional material was above the proficiency level of some students, that caused these students to become disengaged in EFL classes.

In a similar perspective, Coşkun-Demirpolat (2015) identifies the instructional materials as a problem in teaching EFL in the Turkish education context.

On the other hand, this study showed that the tasks and exercises were too difficult for some students while some of them were too easy and so boring for the others. For example, Sunshine involved several activities like discussion time, simulation, and role-play, yet McDonough et al. (2013) claim that such activities are suitable for more proficient learners. As there is a gap between students' perceived proficiency at the policy level (i.e., B1) and the actual proficiency of several students (i.e., probably A1/A2), all these strongly communication-oriented activities probably become challenging to practice in EFL classes.

Findings also indicated that the textbook content caused some difficulties in active participation. For example, some students were not familiar with the content given in the activities (e.g., the Ephesus), so they could not perform the task. In this regard, Sert and Walsh (2013) argue that the successful management of students' claims of insufficient knowledge is a teaching skill. On the contrary, the findings of this study showed teachers' lack of instructional guidance and response to students' needs which might contribute to the students' low engagement.

Furthermore, reading activities in the textbook became another challenge for the active participation due perhaps to students' lack of vocabulary knowledge. The students with lower proficiency level could not understand the reading text, so they used translation apps to translate the sentences or look up the L1 equivalents of the words. As claimed by Richards and Renandya (2002), reading converts into "a frustrating dictionary-thumbing exercise" in EFL classes of this school, and so it usually distorts "smooth processing of textual information" for some students (p. 299).

The second main source of the challenge is the micro policy actors, i.e., the school administrator, EFL teachers, and students. First, the findings of this study showed negative attitudes of the school principal toward EFL teaching and learning in this school. Such an aspect might contribute to the implementation failure because teachers' effort and motivation decrease as they feel the lack of importance given to EFL classes in this school. The negative attitudes of the school management also show strong contrast in the perceived role of administrators identified in the written curriculum. The findings of intended instruction revealed that the administrators were desired to support the implementation of the EFL curriculum. However, the school principal's negative perceptions toward teaching EFL probably debilitated the implementation in this school. This finding overlaps with the influence of administration's attitudes and perspectives on teachers' perceptions, as reported by Derrington and Campbell (2015). The authors noted that negative attitudes of an administrator may influence perspectives of the teachers and so hinder the implementation.

In this study, another challenge in implementation emerged due to the EFL teachers. This study's findings showed teacher burnout and emotional exhaustion, which influenced teachers' motivation and willingness to teach negatively. Also, teachers identified the students' low motivation and interest in EFL classes as a factor contributing to the burnout and emotional exhaustion they experienced. Similar findings were demonstrated in Skaalvik and Skaalvik's study (2021), which presents low student motivation as an element playing a part in teacher burnout. In relation to the other side of the coin, Shen et al. (2015) reports the negative influence of teacher burnout on student motivation.

Additionally, the results of the present study unveiled some ineffective teaching practices which were observed in EFL classes, such as lack of instructional planning, lack of instructional guidance, and teachers' lack of response to student needs. In this respect, factors concerning the psychology of EFL teachers (i.e., burnout, emotion, etc.) might cause these ineffective teaching practices. It is likely that the psychology of the EFL teachers poses a challenge in classroom-

level realization of the instructional policy. Supporting this finding, Fried, Mansfield, and Dobozy (2015) conclude the importance of teacher emotion in the classroom and its potential influence on classroom life by reviewing teacher emotion research. Besides, Jacobson (2016) reports teacher burnout affects classroom instruction.

The students form the third group of micro policy actors in this study. Findings revealed a few factors inhibiting students' academic performance such as negative academic self-concept, low academic self-efficacy, a lack of learning effort, low academic orientation and low academic competence. In the present study, these factors were found to be a challenge in the implementation of the policy, mainly because they influenced students' attitudes toward learning EFL negatively which is in no doubt an undesired aspect.

In particular, findings showed that some students experienced so much failure in learning EFL in their previous language-learning procedures. They also achieved several unsuccessful results when they attempted to participate in the lesson in EFL classes. These negative experiences seem to cause some learners to believe that they would in no way achieve success in EFL. This finding agrees with the literature on how individuals' self-related perceptions (i.e., self-concept and self-efficacy) are determined depending on the mastery experiences. That is to say, experiencing success may increase self-related perceptions while failure may reduce them (Bandura, 1986; Bong & Skaalvik, 2003). Hence, all these variables pose challenges in classroom teaching and learning.

Apart from micro policy actors, a few other aspects which emerged at the school-level practice offered challenges in implementation. The findings of this study showed a few problems in using technology, some other problems in assessment, as well as classroom management-related issues as factors debilitating the implementation procedure. As the social sciences students with lower proficiency levels were put into the same class with foreign language field of study students, a negative classroom atmosphere was observed, which

influenced teacher and student motivation negatively. The problems in technical equipment like electricity cut-off and IWB breakdown also contributed to the inefficiency in implementation. Findings revealed that the teacher became a recording device for the listening activities when the IWB did not work. All these issues substantiate previous findings reported in the literature; scarce physical and technological resources and classroom management issues are stated among the classroom-level constraints in language education policy implementation (Butler, 2011; Correa & Gonzalez, 2016).

In addition, several problems were experienced in assessment practices, especially conducting joint examination led to some unfavorable practices. As the findings of this study indicated, sometimes linguistic items that were not taught were assessed in the exam, sometimes problems in scoring the exam papers appeared. This study shows the joint examination procedure as a challenge at the school-level assessment practices.

Close to the end, findings showed a serious discrepancy between instruction and assessment, albeit not being a primary concern of the present study. In the school-level assessment practices, the results of this study revealed that the instructional material as a policy instrument defined the content of the assessment. There was a tendency to present linguistic properties (i.e., grammar structures) via meaningful, contextualized exercises in the textbook exercises. On the other hand, classroom teaching focused on grammar structures in a rather GTM-oriented way. The students' preparation for examinations, nevertheless, reflected not the textbook exercises but the classroom instruction. In the end, a discrepancy between assessment and instruction emerged, which caused students to lose points in the exam. Supporting this finding, Saif (2006) emphasizes the need for alignment between teaching and test characteristics to produce positive washback. In a similar perspective, Muñoz and Álvarez (2010) claim students' understanding of the assessment system is necessary to increase their achievement.

It seems that even when the content of the assessment more or less aligns with the intentions of the policy, it may not be possible to reach intended outcomes in terms of language learning behaviors and experiences of the students. Recently, the complexity of the washback mechanism has been high on the agenda, and the context-depended nature of washback has been argued by Ha (2019). On a similar line, the occurrence of an inconsistency like this probably indicates a sort of washback mechanism unique to this school. The discrepancy between assessment and instruction then may well cause difficulties to achieve success in EFL classes of this school.

In brief, several challenges specific to the nature of the policy and the context in which it is implemented are seen in this instructional policy study. While some issues emerge because of the top-down construction of the policy, some others come out due mainly to the attitudes, perceptions, and past experiences of various stakeholders at the school. All these factors seem to play a part in the weak association between the desired and realized instruction for teaching EFL.

5.6. Conclusions

Based on the discussion of the findings, it can be concluded that the alignment between policy and practice in terms of teaching EFL cannot be achieved due to several reasons. First and foremost, the main characteristics of intended instruction promoted CLT as the leading methodology, given that CLT involves the learner-centered and somewhat eclectic theoretical base (Harmer, 2007, Richards & Rodgers, 2014). The comparison of realized instruction with characteristics of intended instruction on several grounds, i.e., the learner-centered approach, the use of technology, assessment, and the communicative approach, revealed a lack of CLT in the classroom-level teaching and learning practices. In the end, there appeared a discrepancy between policy and practice.

Second, due mainly to the top-down, centralized construction of the policy in the Turkish education context, some intentions of the policy did become obscure on

the way from the top toward down. That contributed to the lack of alignment between policy and practice. As an example, macro-level policy documents involved a suggestion for organizing classes according to the proficiency levels of the students. Yet, the reality of mixed ability multilevel classes remained unchanged, and that caused problems in the classroom-level teaching and learning practices.

Third, the beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes of the EFL teachers as the leading micro policy actors became a driving force in the classroom-level instructional practices, which caused the policy to reach its aims on some grounds but also a gap between policy and practice on other grounds. EFL teachers' knowledge-base of teaching became the main ground on their decision-making and instructional practices in this school. As they had positive attitudes toward the reading comprehension skills and activities relevant, the study of reading skills was much more observed in EFL classes. Nevertheless, their negative attitudes toward other aspects like group work contributed to the lack of alignment between policy and practice.

Close to the end, language learners exhibited a wide variety of language learning practices depending on their motivation, interest, and proficiency level. It is of particular to mention the high proficiency students who were categorized as language users. The language learning practices of these students in and out of EFL classes, and language learning efforts of a few students of language, as well as the multilingual students and their survival skills in EFL classes, showed the power of language learners in the successful realization of the instructional policy in EFL classes. On the other hand, some lower proficiency students, like the apathetic students, demonstrated several discouraging practices that caused the motivation loss among teachers and the discrepancy between policy and practice.

Last but not least, both the EFL teachers and the students came across several challenges in the school-level implementation of the policy. Sometimes, they

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were influenced by the administrative attitudes; the context-specific realities surrounding the school itself contributed to the difficulties experienced, as well. Besides, there appeared a few challenges due mainly to the policy itself. The intentions of the policy led to challenges such as the difference between the perceived proficiency of the students as B1 and the actual proficiency of several students, which is lower than B1.

5.7. Implications of the Study

Focusing on the instructional policy alignment for teaching EFL, this study has multiple implications for instructional policy and practice in terms of state-level upper secondary education in Turkey, i.e., instructional policymaking, execution and implementation, INSET, prospective teacher education, and research.

5.7.1. Implications for Instructional Policy and Practice

The results of this study may have some implications for policy as FLE policy continues to mature. In particular, the study has some suggestions for instructional policymaking and implementation as regards to teaching EFL at public high schools in Turkey. The findings of this study revealed the implementation of the instructional policy guided by a single curriculum and using a single textbook in multilevel, mixed ability EFL classes of an academic high school. In this regard, students with different proficiency levels, who gained varying experiences in learning English, either in good or bad ways, were observed. Therefore, some suggestions for developing instructional policy and practice in teaching EFL in the context of public high schools were made as followed;

- Providing more bottom-up flexibility for the EFL teachers in the school-level implementation of the policy.
- Organizing professional development practices for teachers to understand the intentions of the policy.

- Conducting more specific and localized continuous program evaluation studies.
- Creating professional development opportunities for teachers to learn how to respond to various needs of language learners.
- Organizing seminar sessions for teachers on how to use the instructional material effectively.
- Providing opportunity for teachers to choose the textbook to be used in the school.
- Delivering teacher resource packs as an addition to the instructional material.
- Guiding teachers on designing materials and resource packs of their own.
- Preparing technologically rich instructional materials.
- Providing local policy actors that can keep in continuous contact with EFL teachers at schools.
- Designing a certificate-based EFL program as part of graduation from high school.

The most obvious implication is that though educational policies in Turkey are centrally designed and implemented from the top toward down, the findings of this study demonstrated the active role of micro policy actors (i.e., EFL teachers and language learners) in the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy. Assuming teachers and students as "nonauthorized policy actors" (Levinson et al., 2009, p.768) may no longer be true in the Turkish education context; besides, expecting teachers to implement the program the way it is intended is not something easy to become real.

In a similar vein, the top-down nature of language policymaking has been criticized for not considering the opinions of the teachers and putting the policy into use without providing sufficient recourses and creating appropriate external conditions; therefore, there is a call for language policymaking that considers local needs, using local knowledge and expertise as well as responsive materials

(Carilo, 2018; Correa & Gonzalez, 2016). The findings of this study also shed light on similar difficulties experienced when the policy is put into use. In this respect, instructional policymaking in the Turkish state-level education context should provide much more bottom-up flexibility for the EFL teachers in their implementation of the program. Even if there may be attempts to provide flexibility for the policy actors at school, EFL teachers need support and professional development to understand the intentions of the policy and their crucial role in the implementation of the program.

In addition, there needs a language program evaluation that should become an integral part of the ongoing curriculum development process. In the recent past, MNE has conducted a nationwide program evaluation study that involved teachers' evaluation of several subjects in the curricula for primary and upper secondary education levels (MNE, 2020). In this program evaluation study, teachers' views about their subject area (e.g., Turkish literature, EFL, math, etc.) were collected by a scale and open-ended questions. Though this evaluation study provided some feedback about implementing the EFL curriculum, there is a need for more specific and localized ongoing program evaluation studies in the Turkish education context. By conducting district-level language program evaluation studies and collecting data via classroom observation may provide an opportunity to find solutions for the challenging aspects of the program while it is in use and so meet the urgent needs of the EFL teachers in their local context.

Another implication for policy is about possible challenges emerging due to one-size-fits-all curriculum planning. The present study showed that some aspects of the macro level instructional policy for FLE have lagged behind the research in the area of language education, considering the bi/multilingual turn gaining momentum in language education (see, e.g., Ortega, 2013). Although there were some reference points in regard to raising cultural awareness, the needs and interests of young individuals in the written curriculum, no mention of multilingual students and their specific needs in educational policy initiatives developed for FLE at public high schools were found. Also, the classroom-level

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realization of the instructional policy displayed teachers' lack of response to students' various needs.

In this regard, the current dissertation clearly illustrated that the multilingual students were the least visible policy actors since they were ignored within most of the instructional policymaking procedures for state-level upper secondary education in Turkey. The disadvantaged situation of ethnic, linguistic as well as cultural minority students in the centrally designed education systems has been hotly debated, and attempts to develop more inclusive policies have also been initiated, as reported by Williams (2015). On a similar line, instructional policy initiatives in the Turkish education context also involve a few attempts that indicate attention to various needs of the students encountered in EFL classes. From this perspective, in 2018, a policy decision was announced called *Turkey's Education Vision 2023*, which involved a few decisions about FLE. First, the students' language proficiency levels were decided to be determined according to the methods suitable for age groups; second, the skills that students need would be identified according to school types and programs (MNE, 2018). Accordingly, new curricula for teaching EFL at primary, secondary and upper secondary education levels were published (i.e., 2nd-8th Grades English Curriculum, 2018; 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2018).

In particular, the curriculum for primary and secondary education (i.e., 2nd-8th Grades English Curriculum, 2018) involved a few encouraging principles concerning the challenges detected in the present study. For instance, students' cognitive and social characteristics were concerned, learning strategies that can help students learn the language in and outside the classroom were emphasized, and a desire for learners to understand and value international languages and cultures was noted (MEB, 2018b). Bearing on these notions, there seems to be an attempt to walk away from the one-size-fits-all approach in curriculum planning and develop policies that are more responsive to various needs of language learners. Given that the student participants in this study experienced several challenges in EFL classes due to lack of strategy instruction, lack of intercultural

awareness and multilevel, mixed-ability classes, the premises of the ELT curriculum for primary and secondary education can be a remedy for the problems encountered in EFL classes.

Even if all these above-mentioned points are encouraging for instructional policymaking, perhaps another and more effective solution for responding to students' various needs can be educating teachers in terms of learning to teach culturally and linguistically diverse students, as noted by Lucas and Villegas (2013). When the teachers become aware of the linguistic and cultural diversity in EFL classes and how to respond to the needs of various students ranging from ethnic and language minority individuals to learners with academically different proficiency levels, classroom-level realization of the instructional policy can present more promising aspects such as increased student motivation and interest.

As the present study made it very clear, distributing a single textbook with a pre-determined proficiency level (i.e., B1) was the evidence for one-size-fits-all curriculum planning underwent in the Turkish state-level upper secondary education context. As the data revealed, EFL teachers and students experienced several challenges using the textbook as the single instrument in classroom teaching and learning. Sometimes difficulties emerged because of teachers' lack of language methodology knowledge, yet some other problems appeared because the proficiency level of the book was not suitable for the students. In particular, communication-oriented activities became a challenge for the lower proficiency students. In this regard, this study has some implications for materials development and distribution. First, EFL teachers are in need of training before they start to use the instructional material in their classes. Teachers can be informed about the approach adopted in the book, and how they can employ the activities in their classes can be exemplified with a hands-on training session, which is organized before the school year starts. Second, multiple textbooks can be sent to the schools before the new school year starts, and teachers can be allowed to choose the most suitable one for their teaching context.

In the 2nd-8th Grades English Curriculum (2018), teacher resource packs that can be an addition to the textbooks used at the primary level (i.e., the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th grades) were mentioned in order to support teachers to meet the specific needs of their students. Considering the findings of this study that showed problems related to using a single textbook with a perceived proficiency level of B1+/B2, a similar procedure can be employed at the upper secondary level in order to diminish challenges that emerge because of the language proficiency difference of the students in EFL classes.

Perhaps another suggestion can be providing more guidance to the EFL teachers in designing materials or resource packs that are suitable for their teaching context. Tekir (2016) detected some competencies, such as selecting appropriate materials noted in the policy document for teacher competencies. In this regard, incorporating some other competencies into the framework, such as "evaluating available materials and designing new ones for a specific purpose or a group of learners," was suggested by Tekir (2016, p. 255). Such a policy attempt can provide initiatives that can guide EFL teachers in their materials' design procedures.

As a result of remote teaching and learning, the need for technologically rich instructional materials has been boosted. Therefore, the intention for using technology in EFL classes as described in the written curriculum (i.e., 9th -12th Grades English Curriculum, 2014) must be put into use. Instructional materials should involve some ICT tools like blogs, CMC, etc., to provide language learners an opportunity to use English out of EFL classes, as was suggested in the written curriculum (i.e., 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2014). Additionally, the desire for using technology has been persevered in the more recent curriculum (i.e., 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2018). As this study displayed, some students already use English on similar platforms, yet incorporating such aspects into the program will increase the motivation and interest of the language learners toward EFL classes and so increase the value

attached to learning English at school. Moreover, technologically rich instructional materials can allow students to create imagined transnationalism, i.e., the chance to imagine interacting in another language with people in other places. Such materials can increase students' multicultural awareness and communicative proficiency that will help achieve the intended outcomes.

Apart from the instructional policymaking and execution, there is also a need for policy actors who will work hand in hand with the EFL teachers working at public high schools. As an example, a policy agency for executing instructional policy for teaching EFL in the province might be organized. This agency might be responsible for keeping in continuous contact with the teachers, visiting their classrooms, and observing their day-to-day realities while the program is being implemented. These policy actors might help teachers find solutions when problems emerge, and they might also give feedback to the teachers about their instructional practices so that teachers can review and/or revise their practices. The need for such policy actors who will keep in touch with EFL teachers and their day-to-day decision-making and practice is a must to guide teachers in their implementation procedure, as suggested by Le, Nguyen, and Burns (2021). Unless there is not a closer engagement with teachers and the contexts they work at, teachers will continue to conduct their existing beliefs to understand the intentions of the policy (Glasgow, 2014).

In designing policies specific to meet the needs of the EFL learners in the Turkish public high school context, a new form of assessment and evaluation might also be undergrad graduating from upper secondary education institutions. In receiving a diploma, a certificate that proves students' EFL proficiency level might be attached. The students might sit for an exam that can be conducted nationwide and valid to apply for a job. To provide a positive washback effect, assessment tools might involve assessing students' proficiency in the four skills of language—listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension, and writing. As the data revealed, students' attitudes toward EFL classes decreased because English is a core academic class in the curricula for upper secondary

education. Students preferred focusing on major area courses in order to prepare for the university entrance examination. By designing a certificate-based program, the value attached to EFL classes at the upper secondary education institutions can increase, which may motivate teachers and students in classroom teaching and learning.

5.7.2. Implications for Teacher Training and Education

This study revealed the crucial role of EFL teachers as leading actors at the school-level implementation of the instructional policy. In addition to the suggestions given above about instructional policymaking and implementation in the Turkish state-level upper secondary education context, a few implications were drawn for the training of in-service EFL teachers and pre-service teacher education.

Concerning four main features of instruction discussed previously in this chapter (i.e., learner-centered teaching, the use of technology, assessment, and communicative approach), there appears an urgent need for well-designed INSET programs that will help in-service teachers to understand the main intentions of the policy and learn how to implement these components appropriately in their teaching context. On account of the fact that realized instruction demonstrated several ineffective teaching practices.

Although seminars and/or training sessions are organized by MNE, the content of these pieces of training and how they are performed may not meet the needs of EFL teachers. These seminars are generally not organized according to the teachers' subject area, and the context of the training does not involve any hands-on practice. In this respect, inadequate teacher training seems to be a problem in the Turkish state-level upper secondary education context. Likewise, O'Sullivan (2004) points out inadequate teacher training as a factor causing teachers' failure in implementing the learner-centered curriculum.

In the province in which this study was conducted, a seminar was held by the district office of MNE at the beginning of the school year (i.e., 2018-2019 school year). This seminar displayed some problematic aspects of transferring the instructional policy's intentions to the micro policy actors (i.e., EFL teachers of upper secondary education institutions in the province). It was when the new curriculum (i.e., 9th-12th Grades English Curriculum, 2018) was started to be executed. As a member of the institution, I participated in the training as a teacher of English, as well. In this training, the English teachers' provincial head emphasized two practices in teachers' curriculum implementation. These were the requirements prescribed by the stakeholders at the MNE. The first requirement was to write "students will be able to" into the class notebook as part of the learning outcomes achieved at the end of the lesson. The second requirement was holding the curriculum in their hand; teachers were required to carry the curriculum in each and every lesson.

However, teachers were not provided with a coherent explanation of why they should use the phrase "students will be able to" and carry the curriculum in their hands. The training session focused on the 'what' aspect of the teaching rather than explaining to teachers the 'why' aspect: Why do teachers need to use the expression "students will be able to"? What does "students will be able to" mean? How can a teacher understand that at the end of the lesson a particular learning outcome is achieved? What is the sense in holding curriculum in their hand? How can teachers use the curriculum? When do teachers need to have a look at the curriculum in their hands? These aspects were neither discussed nor negotiated in the seminar.

Extending from these perspectives, that seminar was inclined toward a "best practices agenda," causing the teachers to become passive pawns by prescribing them what to do (C. Karaman, personal communication, October 1, 2014). In such an instructional policy context, which paves teachers toward becoming "passive technicians" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003), how one can expect these teachers to employ learner-centered premises in their classroom-level practices is

a question that needs an urgent answer. Rather than organizing seminars reflecting transmissive orientation, providing teachers continuous professional development opportunities have been identified as the solution for the mismatch between the intentions and realization of the learner-centered approaches (Allybokus, 2015). On a similar line, continuous professional development opportunities that involve subject-specific content should be provided to the EFL teachers working at state-level upper secondary education institutions. For instance, teacher training seminars on technology-integrated task work in ELT or learner-centered teaching in EFL classes can be organized. INSET programs should also involve the practice stage instead of focusing on knowledge-building aspects only.

In particular, the positive influence of teacher professional development in authentic assessment task design on students' learning and performance has been pointed out by Koh and Luke (2009). As the data showed, although alternative assessment procedures were employed in this school, the content of the alternative assessment practices reflected traditional assessment features. Therefore, organizing INSET for assessment should not focus on the 'what' of assessment but instead the 'how' of assessment should be the concern. EFL teachers should be provided with examples of alternative assessment tasks, how these tasks are designed, how they are assessed, and how they can guide students in their language production should be the focus of attention. Such a training program should also be integrated into the program implemented at the school. In this way, EFL teachers can employ what they learn in the training when implementing the policy in their classes. Given that ongoing training of the teachers on assessment practices results in positive washback among different aspects of teaching and learning (Muñoz & Álvarez, 2010), developing EFL teachers' expertise in assessment can help the program reach its aims.

Except for the instructional practices, this study disclosed teachers' beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes as a driving force in their decision-making procedures and realization of the instructional policy. Depending on their beliefs and

perceptions, teachers sometimes displayed ineffective teaching practices that presented a lack of language methodology knowledge. As discussed previously, the impact of teacher cognition on their instructional practices, either positive or negative, has been acknowledged in the teacher education literature (see, e.g., Borg, 2003, 2006). In order to achieve instructional practices that are better aligned with the intended instruction, teachers should be exposed to more recent theories and practices in the area of language methodology. Going further, the pivotal role of teachers in taking responsibility in enlarging their understanding of learning theory has been highlighted in the literature (Lam, 2018; Pham & Iwashita, 2018; West, 2018). These might help teachers change their beliefs and attitudes, which will pave the way toward change in their teaching practices. In the end, instructional practices that are better aligned with the intentions of the policy can be realized in EFL classes.

In addition to the components identified above for the training of EFL teachers, there is a need for increasing teachers' awareness of ethnic, linguistic, and cultural diversity that they have come across in EFL classes nowadays. As an EFL teacher of the school, I had witnessed so many deficit mindsets of the teachers when the abilities and needs of multilingual students were considered. For instance, teachers expected multilingual students to achieve high scores in English examinations. When these students achieved reasonably lower scores, teachers thought they did not have sufficient ability in English even if they could speak well. Given that raising awareness of the teachers, especially for the needs, wants, and cognitive procedure of the multilingual students, is a must in today's multicultural, multinational, global world, Williams (2015) emphasizes the need for linguistically and culturally aware teachers in the language classroom. In the present study, not only multilingual students but also students with different proficiency levels were seen in EFL classes. In this respect, there is also a need for EFL teachers who can employ different teaching techniques to meet the needs and wants of the wide variety of language learners in EFL classes of public high schools.

Apart from in-service teachers, teacher education programs should incorporate elements that raise prospective EFL teachers' awareness of the ethnic, linguistic, and cultural diversity in EFL classes. Besides, teacher education programs should focus on employing diverse techniques in teaching to meet the needs of students with different proficiency levels and how to integrate technology in EFL instruction. As the findings of this study revealed a lack of assessment knowledge among EFL teachers, another point that needs to be highlighted in teacher education programs is assessment literacy. In this regard, Llosa (2021) claims a lack of attention to assessment in teacher education programs; that is to say, pre-service teachers graduate from their departments without sufficient background knowledge and expertise in assessment. A similar aspect might be valid for the EFL teachers in this study. For this reason, prospective teachers' assessment literacy should be increased before they graduate from the program.

Perhaps one more crucial aspect that needs to be prioritized in teacher education programs is developing opportunities for pre-service teachers to build professional knowledge through practice. In this regard, Tekir (2016) suggested integrating clinical practice into the current instructional materials course. Regarding the clinical practice stage, training pre-service teachers in selecting, adapting, and designing instructional materials that they can use in school-based experiences was underlined by Tekir (2016). As noted in this study, several problems emerged due to using a single textbook with a perceived proficiency level of B1+/B2. Integrating the clinical practice into the instructional materials course can help educate prospective teachers who know how to adapt and design materials suitable for their teaching context rather than being bound to a single textbook in their instruction.

In addition, teacher education programs can create more opportunities for school-based experiences. In this sense, school-based experiences can be combined with a critical reflection session that will require pre-service teachers to think critically about the instructional practices they observed in schools, as stated by Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015). Discussion and opinion-sharing moments

with classmates can be organized under the guidance of teacher educators. In this way, pre-service teachers' awareness of effective and ineffective instructional practices can be raised. On a similar line, Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015) suggested practice teaching courses as the central component of the teacher education programs starting with the sophomore year. In this way, pre-service teachers can gain more opportunities for reflection, as noted by Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015). Moreover, case-based analysis of successful EFL teachers' path toward becoming a teacher can be examined. This can provide real examples for pre-service teachers in learning how to become professional teachers.

Close to the end, a particular training program for prospective teachers can be organized, as well. Pre-service teachers might be informed about the intentions of the instructional policy for teaching EFL in Turkey, as well as the curriculum itself and how to use it. Also, the learning outcomes, the connection between the learning outcomes and the activities in the textbook, how to use the textbook (e.g., selectivity principle) can be examined via hands-on practices. Raising pre-service teachers' awareness of the intentions of the policy and curriculum in the state-level education context in Turkey might better prepare them for the teaching context that they will work for in the future. Also, this sort of training can increase pre-service teachers' literacy in curriculum and instruction.

Last but not least, the results of this study showed the pivotal role of teachers in reaching the aims of the instructional policy. The top-down nature of the policy and several challenges unique to the environment in which the instructional policy was implemented forced the teachers to make decisions in the school-level implementation of the policy. EFL teachers were the key actors to find solutions to the context-specific problems that emerge while the policy was being implemented in their school. As long as teachers understand what the intentions of the policy are and how they can be implemented and/or appropriated in their teaching context, any instructional policy, top-down or bottom-up, can by and large produce desired results in the life of the young individuals.

Extending from this perspective, this dissertation's findings, in a sense, calls for educating transformative professionals in the area of language teacher education. On the contrary, exploring teacher roles prepared in a foreign language teacher education program in Turkey, Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015) found that teachers became passive technicians. To educate transformative professionals, Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015) suggested several ideas that can be embraced in redesigning teacher education programs in Turkey. To illustrate, Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015) advocated a practicum-based teacher education program. In so doing, a program that provides pre-service teachers to become teaching assistants and increases the days they spend at schools as the years pass is suggested by Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015). In this way, prospective teachers can learn how to link the theory with practice, as Tezgiden-Cakcak (2015) stated. Since the post-method condition prioritizes local knowledge and situation-specific ideas (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2006), a transformative view incorporated into the teacher education programs might help develop language teachers' capacity to find solutions for the situation-specific problems that arise while the policy is put into practice. On a similar line, the idea of 'transformative teacher professionalism' as a situated, context-specific, authentic way of professional learning (Mockler, 2005) should be the perspective adopted in the professional development of in-service EFL teachers.

5.7.3. Implications for Research

One last implication of this dissertation is its contribution to the theoretical and conceptual domains of future instructional policy alignment frameworks. In the present study, alignment between intended and realized instruction for teaching EFL in upper secondary education was investigated. In so doing, characteristics of instruction prescribed and realized at different policy levels were displayed, and the findings showed a lack of alignment between what is intended at the policy level and what is realized in EFL classes. As discussed throughout this chapter, several reasons for the discrepancy between the policy and practice were revealed.

Using a bottom-up perspective on instructional policy alignment research, day-to-day realities, and classroom-level realization of the instructional policy were presented in this study. In doing so, the role of micro policy actors (i.e., EFL teachers and language learners) in the realization of instructional policy was shown. First, the influence of EFL teachers' cognition and instructional practices was revealed in the implementation of the instructional policy. In this respect, EFL teachers were the key policy actors in school-level practices. As the teachers implemented the policy the way they interpreted it, there appeared variation in the implementation of the top-down, centralized education policy.

Second, the present study disclosed the active role of language learners in the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy. In other words, students gained a few language learning experiences sometimes with the help of classroom teaching, sometimes without it, sometimes despite it. Many reasons for the instructional policy not reaching its aims have been discussed throughout the chapter. The top-down nature of the policy and several challenges unique to the environment in which the instructional policy was implemented were identified. In spite of some ineffective instructional practices in EFL classes, language learners, via their own choices, exhibited learning experiences that aligned with the intended instruction. Therefore, sometimes policy intentions reached their aims but not as a result of instruction or implementation of the policy but as a result of students' own attempts. However, sometimes student-related factors such as lack of motivation and low academic orientation debilitated implementation of the instructional policy at the school.

Grounding on the arguments above, there needs a new perspective on instructional policy alignment scholarship. Using a more bottom-up perspective, the classroom should be put at the epicenter of theoretical constructs; thus, the active role of micro policy actors should be explored in alignment studies. Incorporating such an aspect in alignment scholarship might help portray the realization of the instructional policy better. Additionally, there has been a rising argument on the importance of language learner agency, so there is a call for the

attention paid to the choices and voices of learners in their language learning procedure (Larsen-Freeman, 2021). In support of this claim, this study showed the contribution of language learners and their choices in classroom-level realization of the instructional policy. Hence, theoretical and conceptual domains for future instructional policy alignment frameworks should incorporate elements to investigate language learners and their impact on the realization of instructional policy. Alignment research should also glance at teachers as the key policy actors and their making sense of instructional policy and how they implement it in the classroom rather than self-reports to reveal their teaching practices. Based on these aspects, it can be claimed that teachers and students must be conceptualized as the key policy actors, and their day-to-day realities must be examined in order to display under what conditions the instructional policy realizes in EFL classes. In this way, how aligned or misaligned practices emerge in the implementation phase can be understood better.

All in all, the conceptual framework introduced in this study is an attempt to investigate a top-down, centralized instructional policy from a bottom-up perspective, and so the active role of EFL teachers and language learners in the classroom-level realization of the policy. Bearing on the findings of this study, methodological, theoretical, and conceptual domains of future instructional policy alignment frameworks should take a new glance at the instructional policy realization. In this regard, classroom-level practices should be explored in-depth, and the pivotal role of teachers and students in instructional policy realization should be depicted.

5.8. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Future Research

The present study set out to explore how the implementation of instructional policy at a public high school aligned with the instruction prescribed for teaching EFL at the policy documents and instruments. To achieve this aim, a qualitative case study design was embraced. Policy documents were analyzed to reveal characteristics of intended instruction for FLE; besides, the review of policy

instruments was conducted to disclose features of instruction specified for teaching EFL in junior year classes. Using ethnographic methods, the classroom-level realization of the instructional policy was explored via field notes and interviews. As every other research study has, this study has some potential limitations, which are identified herein.

One of the drawbacks of the current PhD dissertation was related to the fact that one respondent teacher ceased to participate in the study in the course of interview data collection. Though interviews were planned to be conducted in four parts, the participant confirmed the first and the second parts of the interview only, and so two parts of the interviews were not conducted with her. In other words, the respondent did not share accounts of her experiences in using technology, assessment and evaluation practices in junior year classes. Considering the fewer number of teacher participants in the study (n:3), one respondent's ceasing to participate in the investigation led to a possible delimitation in exploring the teachers' understanding of the instructional policy for teaching EFL in junior year classes of this school.

One more limitation of this study was that member checks post analysis was not possible because the participants expressed willingness to attend only the field data collection procedure. When the data collection procedure was finished, I shared soft and hard copy samples of raw data (i.e., classroom field notes and interview transcribes) and required their feedback. None of the participants provided any feedback on the raw data. After analyzing the field data, I shared a soft copy of the results chapter with teacher participants by e-mail, and I also sent text messages to inform them that this was the results chapter of the study. They confirmed the messages and e-mails, yet they did not provide any feedback once more.

Another limitation of the study was that this study did not include the opinions of other stakeholders such as the people in decision-maker positions at MNE (e.g., officials in the district office). The role of policy actors (e.g., the head of BED,

general manager of upper secondary education, provincial director of education, etc.) in instructional policy execution for state-level upper secondary education in Turkey and their interpretation of the FLE policy were not explored in this study. In particular, there is a need for conducting interviews with officials in the district office to understand how they understand and execute the policy. Research may also be broadened by eliciting views of various actors at different layers of LPP, such as curriculum specialists and materials writers. Interviews with parents and school administration may be conducted to portray better the implementation phase of the instructional policy. In these ways, complex dynamics of instructional policy construction in the Turkish education context can be elucidated better. And a wide range of perspectives in instructional policy alignment can be shown.

As this study was descriptive in design, the main characteristics of instruction envisaged in policy documents and instruments were reported. Future studies might investigate how the intended instruction for FLE is represented in the policy documents and instruments with a critical lens. Critical discourse analysis might also be utilized to take a new perspective in language education policy research in the local context. In this way, the agency of EFL teachers and students can be examined in the policy documents and instruments.

In this study, instructional policy implementation in junior year classes was explored. As an alternative, a longitudinal study can be conducted to examine students' language learning experiences throughout their high school education from their entry to exit from the program. Also, a comparative study can be conducted at selected academic and vocational high schools for a more comprehensive depiction of instructional policy implementation in the Turkish education context.

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APPENDICES

A. TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

BÖLÜM I. GENEL BİLGİLER

1. Yaşınız:
2. İngilizce öğretmeni olarak çalışmaya ne zaman başladınız?
3. Bu okulda kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz?
4. Hangi üniversiteden ve hangi bölümden mezun oldunuz?
5. Mezuniyet yılınız nedir?
6. Yüksek lisans veya doktora dereceniz var mı? Şayet evetse, hangi üniversite ve hangi bölüm?

BÖLÜM II. ÖĞRETME-ÖĞRENME ORTAMININ GENEL TANIMLAMASI

1. 11. Sınıfta işlediğiniz tipik bir İngilizce dersini anlatır mısınız?
   a. Derse nasıl başlar, nasıl devam eder ve nasıl bitirirsiniz?
   b. Ders boyunca öğrenciler ne yapar? Bir öğretmen olarak siz ne yaparsınız?
2. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinizde ne tür aktivitelere ağırlık verirsiniz? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.
   a. Bu aktiviteleri nasıl yaparsınız? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.
   b. Niçin böyle yaparsınız?
3. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinizde neleri çok seversiniz? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.
   a. Hangi etkinliklerden hoşlanırsınız? Bu etkinlikleri nasıl uygularsınız? Niçin bu etkinliklerden hoşlanırsınız?
   b. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinizde severek yaptığınız bir etkinliği baştan sona anlatır mısınız? Etkinliğe nasıl başladınız, nasıl

devam ettiniz? Etkinlik boyunca neler oldu? Öğrenciler ne yaptı, siz ne yaptınız? Etkinliğin sonunda ne oldu?

4. 11. Sınıf İngilizce öğretiminde karşılaştığınız başlıca zorluklar nelerdir? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz

    a. Sizce bu zorluklarla karşılaşmanızın sebebi nedir?

    b. Karşılaştığınız bu zorluklarla baş etmek için bir öğretmen olarak neler yaparsınız? Bunu nasıl yaparsınız? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.

BÖLÜM III. TEKNOLOJİ KULLANIMI

1. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde kullandığınız teknoloji araç-gereçleri nelerdir? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.

    a. Bu araçları ne amaçla kullanırsınız? Nasıl kullanırsınız? Her dersinizde kullanır mısınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız?

2. 11. Sınıflarda teknoloji araç-gereci kullanarak yaptığınız tipik bir etkinliği anlatır mısınız?

    a. Etkinlik nasıl başlar, nasıl devam eder? Etkinlik boyunca siz ne yaparsınız, öğrenciler ne yapar? Niçin böyle yaparsınız?

3. Sizce 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji araç-gereci kullanmanın faydaları nelerdir? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.

4. Sizce 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji araç-gereci kullanmanın zorlukları nelerdir? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.

    a. Siz bu zorluklarla nasıl baş edersiniz?

5. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinizde teknoloji araç-gereci kullanarak yapılmasını istediğiniz bir proje veya ödev verdiniz mi?

    a. Cevabınız evet ise, bu nasıl bir ödevdi? Niçin böyle bir ödev verdiniz? Öğrenciler bu ödevi nasıl yaptılar? Hangi teknoloji araç-gereçlerini kullandılar? Nasıl kullandılar?

    b. Cevabınız hayır ise, sebebini açıklar mısınız?

BÖLÜM IV. ÖLÇME VE DEĞERLENDİRME

1. 11. Sınıf öğrencilerinizin İngilizce dersi başarısını ölçmek için neler yaparsınız? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz

    a. Kullandığınız ölçme aletleri nelerdir? (ders ve etkinliklere katılım, sınavlar, quizler, vb.) Bunları nasıl kullanırsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız?

    b. Alternatif ölçme aletleri kullanır mısınız? (performans, proje vb.) Bunları nasıl kullanırsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız?

2. 11. Sınıf İngilizce yazılı sınavlarından bahseder misiniz? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler vererek açıklayınız.

    a. Sınav hangi bölümlerden oluşur? Sınavı kim / kimler hazırlar? Sınav hazırlığı nasıl yapılır? Ne tür sorular sorulur? Sınav nasıl uygulanır? Nasıl değerlendirilir? Niçin böyle yaparsınız?

3. 11. Sınıf İngilizce uygulama sınavlarından bahseder misiniz? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler vererek açıklayınız.

    a. Sınav hangi bölümlerden oluşur? Sınavı kim / kimler hazırlar? Sınav hazırlığı nasıl yapılır? Ne tür sorular sorulur? Sınav nasıl uygulanır? Nasıl değerlendirilir? Niçin böyle yaparsınız?

4. 11. Sınıflarda yazılı ve uygulama sınavları dışında kullandığınız ölçme yöntemlerinden bahseder misiniz? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz

    a. Hangi ölçme yöntemlerini kullanırsınız? Bunlara nasıl karar verirsiniz? Bunları nasıl hazırlarsınız? Nasıl uygularsınız? Bu yöntemlerle öğrenci başarısını nasıl değerlendirirsiniz? Niçin böyle ölçme yöntemleri kullanırsınız?

5. 11. Sınıflarda öğrenci başarısını değerlendirme yöntemlerinize nasıl karar verirsiniz? Lütfen açıklayınız.

    a. Yönetmelikler
    b. Müfredat
    c. Okul idaresinin telkinleri
    d. Zümre kararları

6. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde öğretim yılı boyunca yaptığınız ancak benim sormadığım bir uygulama var ise, lütfen açıklayınız.

a. Bunlar ne tür uygulamalardır? Bunları nasıl yaparsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız? Sizce bu uygulamaların öğrencilere katkısı nedir?

B. STUDENT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

BÖLÜM I. GENEL BİLGİLER

1. Yaşınız:
2. Cinsiyetiniz
3. Hangi bölümde öğrencisiniz?
4. Kaç yıldır İngilizce öğreniyorsunuz?
5. İngilizce derslerinizde hangi teknoloji araç-gereçlerini kullanırsınız?

BÖLÜM II. ÖĞRETME-ÖĞRENME ORTAMININ GENEL TANIMLAMASI

1. 11. Sınıfta işlediğiniz tipik bir İngilizce dersini anlatır mısınız?
    a. Ders nasıl başlar, nasıl devam eder? Ders nasıl biter?
    b. Siz bir öğrenci olarak tipik bir İngilizce dersinde neler yaparsınız? Bunları nasıl yaparsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız?
    c. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinizde ne tür aktiviteler yaparsınız? Bunları nasıl yaparsınız?
2. Sizce 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde hangi dil becerilerini geliştirdiniz? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz
    a. Bu becerileri nasıl geliştirdiniz? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz
3. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde neleri çok seversiniz? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.
    a. Niçin bunları seversiniz?
    b. Bunları nasıl öğrenirsiniz? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.
4. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde hangi etkinliklerden hoşlanırsınız? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz
    a. Bu etkinlikleri nasıl yaparsınız? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz
    b. Niçin böyle yaparsınız?

5. 11. Sınıfta İngilizce öğrenirken karşılaştığınız başlıca zorluklar nelerdir? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.

    a. Niçin bu zorluklarla karşılaştınız?

        -Ders materyalleri

        -Dersin içeriği, işlenen konular vb.

        -Öğretmenin ders anlatımı

        -Sınıf ortamı/atmosferi

        -Fiziki şartlar

        -Kişisel sebepler

    b. Bu zorluklarla baş etmek için neler yaparsınız? Bunu nasıl yaparsınız? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.

BÖLÜM III. TEKNOLOJİ KULLANIMI

1. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde kullandığınız teknoloji araç-gereçleri nelerdir? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.

    a. Bu araçları ne amaçla kullandığınızı açıklar mısınız? Bu araçları nasıl kullanırsınız?

2. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji araç-gereci kullanarak yaptığınız tipik bir etkinliği anlatır mısınız?

    a. Bu ne tür bir etkinlikti? Etkinlik nasıl başladı? Etkinlik boyunca neler oldu? Hocanız ne yaptı? Siz bir öğrenci olarak neler yaptınız? Bunları nasıl yaptınız? Niçin böyle yaptınız? Etkinlik boyunca kendinizi nasıl hissettiniz? Etkinliğin sonunda ne oldu?

3. Sizce 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji araç-gereci kullanmanın faydaları nelerdir? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.

    a. Kullandığınız teknoloji araç-gereçleri İngilizce derslerinde ne açıdan işinize yaradı? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.

4. Sizce 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji araç-gereci kullanmanın zorlukları nelerdir? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.

    -Teknik sıkıntılar (Teknoloji araç-gereçlerinin bozulması, çeşitli programları yükleyememek vb.)

-Fiziki şartlar (teknoloji araç gereçlerinin yetersizliği, bozuk olması, kullanılamaması vb.)

-Kişisel sebepler (Teknoloji araç-gereçlerini kullanmayı bilmemek, teknoloji araç-gerecine sahip olmamak vb.)

    a. Bu zorluklarla baş etmek için neler yaparsınız? Bunu nasıl yaparsınız? Tecrübelerinizde örnekler veriniz.

5. 11. Sınıfta İngilizce dersiyle alakalı proje veya ödevlerde teknoloji araç-gereci kullanmanız gerekti mi? Cevabınız evet ise, lütfen açıklayınız.

    a. Bu ne tür bir ödev/projeydi? Hangi teknoloji araç-gereçlerinden yararlandınız? Bu teknoloji araç-gereçlerini nasıl kullandınız? Niçin bu araçları kullandınız? Bu ödev/proje boyunca kendinizi nasıl hissettiniz? Niçin böyle hissettiniz? Sizce bu ödev/proje size nasıl bir katkı sağladı?

BÖLÜM IV. ÖLÇME VE DEĞERLENDİRME

1. 11. Sınıfta İngilizce dersi notunuz neye göre belirlenir? Lütfen tek tek belirtiniz.

-Sınavlar (Yazılı sınavı, uygulama sınavı vb.)

-Ödevler (Performans ödevi, proje ödevi vb.)

-Sınıf içi faaliyetler (Ders ve etkinliklere katılım, ders materyallerini hazır bulundurma, tavır ve davranışlar vb.)

2. Yukarıda bahsettiğiniz tüm bu alanlarda İngilizce dersi notunuz nasıl belirlenir? Lütfen tek tek açıklayınız.

    a. Performans / Proje Ödevleri (Ne tür ödev/projeler hazırlarsınız? Bu ödevleri nasıl hazırlarsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız? Ödevi hazırlarken karşılaştığınız zorluklar nelerdir? Bunlarla nasıl baş edersiniz? Bu ödevleri yapmanızın sizin için faydası nedir? Ödevin sonunda kendinizi nasıl hissedersiniz? Niçin böyle hissedersiniz?)

    b. İngilizce yazılı sınavları (Yazılı sınavlara nasıl hazırlanırsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız? 11. Sınıfta girdiğiniz bir İngilizce

sınavına nasıl hazırlandığınızı baştan sona anlatır mısınız? Nelere çalışırsınız? Bunlara nasıl çalışırsınız? Niçin böyle çalışırsınız?)

c. Uygulama sınavları (Uygulama sınavlara nasıl hazırlanırsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız? 11. Sınıfta girdiğiniz bir İngilizce uygulama sınavına nasıl hazırlandığınızı baştan sona anlatır mısınız? Nelere çalışırsınız? Bunlara nasıl çalışırsınız? Niçin böyle çalışırsınız?)

d. Sınıf içi faaliyetler (Der ve etkinliklere nasıl katılırsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız? Bu aktivitelere katılmanızın sizce faydası nedir? Tecrübelerinizden örnekler veriniz.)

3. 11. Sınıf İngilizce derslerinde öğretim yılı boyunca yaptığınız ancak benim sormadığım bir uygulama var ise, lütfen açıklayınız.

a. Bunlar ne tür uygulamalardır? Bunları nasıl yaparsınız? Niçin böyle yaparsınız? Sizce bu uygulamaların size katkısı nedir?

C. SAMPLE REFLECTIVE JOURNAL ENTRY

Week 14 / 10.05.18 _ Thursday

*Science Class 1 > Observation 12 > "*hepinizinkini düzelttik zaten tek tek!*"

In this lesson, exercises in the coursebook were performed; students performed the exercises and then showed them to the teacher. The teacher checked their work and corrected the mistakes. At the end of the lesson, she said "*hepinizinkini düzelttik zaten tek tek.*" She meant that there was no need to review the exercise from the beginning in whole class manner, because every student had already received feedback about their errors and mistakes.

What influenced me in this lesson was the thing that I had already known. In essence, this lesson proved me the issue that I knew. I mean that although the number of the students were normally above 30 in each class in our school, the students who participated in the lesson were almost 10 in this lesson which was the typical feature of most English classes in our school, even perhaps all the other classes. I mean that what I observed was the flow of lesson via only the same students. The others dealt with some other stuff and the teacher did not bother this.

In this school, in essence, the students who never participate in the lesson are the low achievers, and so the exercises in the course book are not suitable for them. They also accepted to fail class in English, and for this reason they prefer to study for other classes. Whereas some students are successful in English, they prefer not to participate in the classes because they sometimes find the classes boring sometimes they prefer to spend their time with reading novels because they believe that the instruction is too easy and some even believe that studying for other classes would be more beneficial since they would not solve any English in university entrance exam.

I see that students have numerous reasons to not to follow the classes. It does not matter they are successful or not in English classes. For this reason, when I examine this lesson, I see that the curriculum came to life in some respects such as the praxis of grammar exercise in the workbook perhaps as an attempt to address discourse competence and receiving feedback from the teacher. However, the problem was that that was only true for 10 out of 30 students, so *the curriculum more or less came to life only for **one third** of the students.*

So What! > I think ***wholesale trading perception*** at the ***National Layer*** of the policy in terms of preparing curriculum to cover instruction at each and every upper secondary education institution throughout the country and also preparing and delivering the same course book to each and every student without considering their language proficiency level seem to be the problems with the formal curriculum. In addition, putting the students with varying proficiency levels into the same classes add another negative aspect into the issue which might refer to the ***Institutional Layer*** which operates with the rules and management of National Layer in such a top-down policy context. More than that, the teachers' *general acceptance* for those who are apathetic in the lesson as something normal result in the absence of ***Interpersonal Layer*** for these students. So, the result is the decrease in the number of the students who experienced the curriculum, which is, in essence, the main issue of all these policymaking procedure. I mean ***the problematic aspect at the top grows like a snowball till the down and when it comes to the classroom it becomes an avalanche and most students are buried under the avalanche***!

D. A LIST OF MACRO POLICY DOCUMENTS ANALYZED

Name of the Document	Document Type	Acceptance Date	Source
Foreign Language Teaching and Learning Act	Law	14.10.1983	Official Gazette
Ministry of National Education, Regulation on Foreign Language Education and Teaching	By-law	31.05.2006	Official Gazette
Ministry of National Education, Regulation on Upper Secondary Education Institutions	By-law	07.09.2013	Official Gazette
Ministry of National Education, Regulation (Amendment) on Upper Secondary Education Institutions	By-law	13.09.2014	Official Gazette
Ministry of National Education, Regulation (Amendment) on Upper Secondary Education Institutions	By-law	01.07.2015	Official Gazette
Ministry of National Education, Regulation (Amendment) on Upper Secondary Education Institutions	By-law	28.10.2016	Official Gazette
Ministry of National Education, Regulation (Amendment) on Upper Secondary Education Institutions	By-law	16.09.2017	Official Gazette
Policy Summary Paper of General Directorate of Upper Secondary Education	Policy Summary Paper	June, 2017	Retrieved from http://ogm.meb.gov.tr/meb_iys_dosyalar/2017_07/06180420_orta-ogretim-brosss.pdf
Legislative Decree About Amendment Regulations for Some Laws with the law numbered 477	Legislative Decree no. 698	04.07.2018	Official Gazette

Observation 13: 16.04. 2018 –Monday / Lesson 4

Description of Events

-***Theme 7_Part 25. Read the text again and complete the summary with ONE word from the text, p. 90***-

When I entered the classroom, the teacher was waiting for the students to be silent. Students were standing and the smart board was being switched on.

The teacher started the lesson by announcing that she would receive the answers only and then move the next section "*kelimeleri yerleştirmiştiniz herhalde, sadece cevaplarını alayım geçeyim hızlıca*" Volunteers gave the answers. A student who volunteered was recognized, read aloud the sentence with the answers for the blanks. The teacher only repeated the answers (e.g., three: dome, four: architecture).

Theme 7_Part 26. Work in groups of three. Look at the pictures of some historic sites from Turkey and identify their names. Share what you know about these places using the prompts, p. 90-

The teacher read aloud the instruction in L2 and then explained what it meant in L1 "*resimler verilmiş, hangisiyle ilgili ne biliyorsunuz?*" The teacher waited for the students to do the exercise and replied their questions in L1 when they asked.

During the exercise[*Theme 7_Part 26. Work in groups of three. Look at the pictures of some historic sites from Turkey and identify their names. Share what you know about these places using the prompts, p. 90*], the classroom atmosphere and the students comments were as follows;

S20: *Hocam ismini nasıl* anlatıcaz ki! Mesela sol ilk resimdeki ne?

S 60: Hocam ben Truva atını biliyorum ama onunla ilgili hiç bilgim yok.

The teacher: Ne biliyorsanız.

S 61 (to the class): Truva atı Çanakkale'de mi?

S20: *S50 internetin var mı? (S21 commented that S20 starts to search for internet as soon as English lesson starts: Hocam İngilizce dersine girer girmez başlıyor İnternet aramaya)*

During the exercise[*Theme 7_Part 26. Work in groups of three. Look at the pictures of some historic sites from Turkey and identify their names. Share what you know about these places using the prompts, p. 90*], I walked around the classroom and checked how the students did the exercise. Two peers had written a sentence on one's book near the picture as "*Trojan Horse is also in the Çanakkale*" to mean that "*Truva atı Çanakkale'de bulunmaktadır.*" When I asked the reason why they wrote this, the peer answered me that "*onun hakkında sadece onu biliyoruz o yüzden*", another peer said "*çeviri öyle yazdı.*" Their second sentence for the second picture was another version of the sentence above "*Nemrut Mountain is also in The* Adıyaman."

The teacher received the answers from the volunteers. Each volunteer read aloud a sentence about a different place in the exercise [*Theme 7_Part 26. Work in groups of three. Look at the pictures of some historic sites from Turkey and identify their names. Share what you know about these places using the prompts, p. 90*]. The students read aloud the sentence and the teacher praised them as "*OK Good.*"

Theme 7_WB_Part 2. Read the short text about Kayseri and answer the following questions, p. 39-

The teacher read aloud the instruction in L2 and then waited for the students to do the exercise. While waiting for the students, the teacher cautioned the students for the last question in L1 and required them to answer accordingly "*son soruda sizin fikrinizi soruyor ona göre cevaplayın.*"

At the beginning of the exercise [*Theme 7_WB_Part 2. Read the short text about Kayseri and answer the following questions, p. 39*], S34 was complaining about skipping part 1 in the workbook because she had not got her course book, she had left it at home because she thought that the unit was finished. Therefore,

while her peers were practicing part 26, she did the exercise on part 1. For this reason, she was complaining about skipping it.

During the exercise [*Theme 7_WB_Part 2. Read the short text about Kayseri and answer the following questions, p. 39*], S20 asked what the first question (*1. What is Kayseri mostly famous for?*) meant "*Hocam ilk soruda ne diyor. Kayseri neyiyle ünlüdür mü?*" By the way he was searching the net and he was expressing the famous things like mantı, kayısı. Then he asked again "*hocam illa parçaya göre yapmak zorunda mıyız?*" The teacher replied that they had to answer according to the text. I had a conversation with him and asked the reason why he was searching the net; he said that "*because he could not find the answer from the text.*"

I had a conversation with another student who was sleeping and I asked the reason why he was sleeping. He said to me that "*İngilizceyi hiç sevmedim, yapamıyorum, yapamadıkça da daha çok sevmiyorum.*"
In my conversation with a few other students, they complained about the difficulty of the text [*Theme 7_WB_Part 2. Read the short text about Kayseri and answer the following questions, p. 39*]. They said that they could not translate the text because there were lots of unknown words for them: "*Hocam çok zor ya, çeviremedik. Bir sürü bilmediğimiz kelime var.*"
A boy was not writing the answers, instead he was playing game on his phone while the teacher was waiting for them to do the exercise [*Theme 7_WB_Part 2. Read the short text about Kayseri and answer the following questions, p. 39*].
A student who answered the question said that she only changed the first word and wrote "it" instead.

The teacher received the answers from the volunteers only. While giving the answers, a boy volunteered for the first question and he was recognized [*Theme 7_WB_Part 2. Read the short text about Kayseri and answer the following questions, p. 39 > What is Kayseri mostly famous for?*]. After he gave the answer

for the first question, he did not follow the rest of the lesson. When I asked the reason, he told me that he slept much last night and now he had a headache.

S59 answered question 4 (*4. Would you like to visit Kayseri? Why / Why not? Discuss with your friends*) and said that *she would not like to visit Kayseri*. The teacher asked "*WHY?*", then she said in L1 "*önemli gezilecek yerleri yok diyecektim, olmadı kuramadım*" In response, a peer said "*nasip değilmiş*" and complained "*neden Kayseri Hocam ya?*"

I asked S59, her views about KAYSERİ at the end of the lesson because she would not like to visit there. In our conversation, she told me that she was surprised to see a place from the central region because generally the places are from the touristic regions. She further commented positively and said that "*kaybolmuş değerlerimizi bulmak daha güzel hocam, bence iyi olmuş böyle olması.*"

After the answers were received for the exercise [*Theme 7_WB_Part 2. Read the short text about Kayseri and answer the following questions, p. 39*], the lesson was finished.

F. SAMPLE FIELD NOTE

<div align="right">22.03.18 _Thursday</div>

When I arrived at the school, it was the time for the third lesson. I went into the teacher's room and I saw that all the three colleagues were there. Although Snowdrop and Marigold were sitting down together, Tulip was sitting down with her peers.

Snowdrop initiated the conversation with me as soon as I entered the teacher's room. I took a chair and sat down near them. She continued the conversation and told me that Marigold had found a sample exam on the Internet—one of the Facebook Groups in which she was a member, as well—and they decided to add some parts into this exam to prepare it for our exam. Snowdrop said for a few times that Marigold solved the issue although she was the one who needed to prepare the exam. She further said that she had already been thinking of what to ask and could not find anything to cover in the exam. When I asked the details about the exam, they told me that there was not any reading part in it; it was an exam, which involved only grammar. For this reason, Snowdrop will find a reading text and add it to our exam. She also said to me that she will add a part to cover the grammar of Theme 5 (gifted in etc.); she will also add a vocabulary section.

After I sat down and had conversation with them (Snowdrop and Marigold) about various matters, I left them, but I was still in the teacher's room. While I was standing near the door, Tulip was walking away. She did not greet me, so I called her by name and informed her about the exam. She smiled and said OK only.

G. SAMPLE SELF-REFLECTION

I started Theme 7 yesterday in my grade 11 class. Part 1 was a warm-up exercise and Part 2 covers the functions: Describing cities and historic sites & talking about landmarks and monuments.

Although I prefer using English as much as possible in my instruction, I felt the need to use Turkish because the students were too silent. They did not have any reaction to my questions. I also felt the need to be quick because I was the slowest one in the instruction. Then, I used Turkish much during my interaction. That experience showed me that as long as there is no reaction from the students, I mean as long as there is no interaction between the students themselves and between the teacher and the students, it is not highly possible to use English, because otherwise you as a teacher felt like they do not respond because they do not understand you.

P.S. Normally this class is too silent classroom, which was acknowledged and satisfied by the teachers. However, their consultant teacher was not satisfied with this. He compared his class with the science class 2, and he said that there is noise in the science class but they are doing something, yet there is no noise in this class because they do not do anything or they are not able to answer or comment on something.

H. SAMPLE ANALYTIC MEMO ON VISUAL DATA

Week 6 /15.03.2018 / Thursday – Lesson 7

This is a reading practice lesson. The teacher listed a few words from the reading text to help students comprehend the text better. The students are required to look up L1 equivalents of the words. As is seen in the photo, there is a student who is searching for a certain word written on the board via using her smart phone. There is also another student who is lying on her desk. A few students are interacting with their peers (desk mate).

I. SAMPLE SUPPLEMANTARY DOCUMENT

.... ANADOLU LİSESİ 2017-2018 EĞİTİM ÖĞRETİM YILI 11. SINIF

1. DÖNEM İNGİLİZCE DERSİ UYGULAMA SINAVI (WRITING)

A) Look at the planner and write five sentences with " be going to" (40p)

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sunday
7:00							
10:00		Have math exam					
1300							
16:00						Go out with friends	
18:00			Prepare biology project with classmates				
20:00	Study for the math exam						Surf on the net

1- I...

2- My brother...

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3- Sue&Andie..

4- You...

5- She...

B) Read the situations and write appropriate "wish clauses"

1- My mother needed help at the weekend but I didn't help her and hang out with my friends.

....

2- Emre cheated on the english exam and passed it but he regretted about it later.

....

3- I made fun of a classmate the other day and made her feel sad but now I feel guilty about it.

....

4- While Pınar was riding her bicycle very fast, she fell down and broke her arm.

....

5- I didn't do the project so I couldn't pass the class.

....

LISTENING PART

PART 1. LISTEN TO ANDY&SUE TALKING ABOUT THEIR ROOMS.WRITE TRUE or FALSE(35p)

1-Andy and Sue are at Sue's house.

2-'Make yourself at home ' is to relax and feel comfortable.

3-Sue's wardrobe is smaller than Andy's

4-Andy's wardrobe is tidy.

5-Andy's desk is between the wardrobe and the bed.

6-Sue doesn't like posters in her room.

7-Andy has got paintings on the wall.

<u>SPEAKING PART (25P)</u>

Content (8p)	
Fluency/pronunciation (3p)	
Vocabulary(4p)	
Effort(4p)	
Accuracy (6p)	

J. A LIST OF THE MINISTERIAL LEVEL REGULATIONS FOR TEACHING EFL AT ANATOLIAN HIGH SCHOOLS (GRADE 11)

Name of the Regulation	Document Type	Acceptance Date	Source
Textbooks for Primary and Upper Secondary Education to be Taught in 2015-2016 School Year	Circular	12.01.2015	Official Bulletin, January 2015
English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12)	-	26.11.2014	Official Bulletin, March 2015
Textbooks for Primary and Upper Secondary Education to be Taught in 2016-2017 School Year	Circular	12.01.2016	Official Bulletin, January 2016
List of Textbooks to be Taught in 2016-2017 School Year	-	13.05.2016	Official Bulletin, June 2016
Textbooks for Primary and Upper Secondary Education to be Taught in 2017-2018 School Year	Circular	13.01.2017	Official Bulletin, January 2017
Upper Secondary Education English 11 Textbook, Workbook, Teacher's Book	Announcement	-	Official Bulletin, April 2017
Ministry of National Education, Weekly Course Schedule for Upper Secondary Education Institutions	-	30.05.2017	Official Bulletin, June 2017
English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12)	-	17.07.2017	Official Bulletin, July 2017

K. FINAL VERSION OF THE CODEBOOK

Codes- Categories -Themes	Frequencies
1 ROUTINES OF TEACHING AND LEARNING PROCESS	15
1.1 The Flow of the Lesson	3
1.1.1 Classroom Routines	4
1.1.2 Review and Warm-up	12
1.1.2.1 "Where were we up to?"	11
1.1.3 Direct Instructional Guidance	74
1.1.4 The Practice Stage	18
1.1.4.1 Checking Student Work	9
1.1.5 Eliciting Answers	42
1.1.5.1 Volunteers Only	47
1.1.5.2 Choosing in Random Order	3
1.1.6 Lack of wrap-up	48
1.2 Conventional Teaching and Learning Practices	0
1.2.1 Developing Linguistic Competence	37
1.2.1.1 Focus-on-Forms	43
1.2.1.2 Focus on Form	0
1.2.1.2.1 Explicit FonF	10
1.2.1.2.2 Interactive FonF	20
1.2.1.2.3 Reactive FonF	33
1.2.1.3 Focusing on Linguistic Properties	26
1.2.2 L1-Mediated Instruction	24
1.2.2.1 English First	18
1.2.2.2 Using L1 for Comprehension	9
1.2.2.3 Using L1 for Classroom Interaction	12
1.3 Teaching the Language Skills	0
1.3.1 The Steps for Teaching Listening Comprehension Skills	9
1.3.1.1 Guiding Students	6
1.3.1.2 Repeated Listening	7
1.3.1.3 Eliciting Answers	11
1.3.1.4 Providing Informative Feedback	3
1.3.2 The Steps for Teaching Reading Skills	8
1.3.2.1 Activating the Schemata	2
1.3.2.2 Bottom-up Processing	29

Codes- Categories -Themes	Frequencies
1.3.2.2.1 Reviewing lexis and grammar	9
1.3.2.3 Reading Aloud	17
1.3.2.3.1 Repeated Reading	2
1.3.2.4 Focusing on Reading Comprehension	9
1.3.2.4.1 Teacher-Made Questions for Comprehension	9
1.3.2.4.2 Using Translation for Comprehension	11
1.3.2.5 Doing Exercises	8
1.3.2.5.1 Meaningful Drills	9
1.3.2.5.2 Studying for Active Words	5
2 CONTEXT-SPECIFIC REALITIES OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL POLICY	0
2.1 Attitudinal Aspects of Language Teaching and Learning	0
2.1.1 A: EFL Course	5
2.1.1.1 -V: English at School	6
2.1.2 Learning Practices	10
2.1.2.1 A: Grammar	4
2.1.2.2 A: Tasks and Exercises	22
2.1.2.3 +A: Translation	6
2.1.2.4 -A: Research-Oriented Tasks	1
2.1.3 Language Learning Efforts	5
2.1.3.1 Preparing for the Lesson	3
2.1.4 Language Learning Perceptions	10
2.1.4.1 Perceptions of Success and Failure	10
2.1.5 +A: Teaching Reading	5
2.2 Psychosocial Factors on Academic Performance	1
2.2.1 Factors Inhibiting Academic Performance	2
2.2.1.1 Lack of Learning Effort	8
2.2.1.2 Low academic orientation	13
2.2.1.2.1 Lack of Preparation for Exams	13
2.2.1.3 Low academic self-efficacy	4
2.2.1.4 Negative academic self-concept	11
2.2.1.5 Perceived low academic competence	5
2.2.1.6 Poor academic performance	5
2.2.1.7 A Sense of Personal Agency	3
2.2.2 Motivation-Related Variables	0

Codes- Categories -Themes	Frequencies
2.2.2.1 Amotivation	1
2.2.2.2 Extrinsic Motivation	11
2.2.2.2.1 Introjected Regulation	7
2.2.2.2.2 Identified Regulation	4
2.2.2.3 Intrinsic Motivation	24
2.2.2.4 Achievement Motivation	1
2.2.2.5 The Ideal L2-Self	2
2.2.2.6 L2 Learning Experience	17
2.3 The Use of Technology in English Classes	16
2.3.1 Perceived Usefulness of ICT Tools	14
2.3.1.1 Using IWB as a Recording Device	21
2.3.1.2 Using ICT for Demonstration	46
2.3.1.3 Using ICT for Linguistic Purposes	53
2.3.1.4 Using the Internet for Research	11
2.3.1.5 "It's no use!"	4
2.3.1.5.1 -A: Using ICT Tools	3
2.3.2 Problems in Using Technology	0
2.3.2.1 Using ICT Tools Out of Purpose	16
2.3.2.2 Technical Problems About Using ICT Tools	15
2.3.2.2.1 Teacher as the Recording Device	1
2.3.2.3 Personal Problems About Using ICT Tools	4
2.3.2.4 Lack of Technology Use	24
2.3.2.4.1 Lack of Challenge in using ICT Tools	8
2.4 Contextual Challenges	16
2.4.1 Classroom Management Practices	16
2.4.1.1 Problems in Classroom Dynamics	14
2.4.1.2 Lack of Monitoring	2
2.4.2 Challenges in Language Learning	10
2.4.2.1 Challenges in The Study of Listening	6
2.4.2.2 Problems and Limitations	2
2.4.3 V: Threshold degree	7
2.4.4 Major Area Courses vs Core Academic Classes	18
2.4.5 Evaluating the Textbook	2
2.4.5.1 Perceived Proficiency vs Real Proficiency	19
2.4.5.2 Positive Views	16

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Codes- Categories -Themes	Frequencies
2.4.5.3 Negative Views	35
2.4.6 Teacher Burnout	3
2.4.6.1 Feelings of inadequacy and failure	2
2.4.6.2 Emotional exhaustion	1
3 THE REFLECTION OF INSTRUCTION ON STUDENTS' LANGUAGE LEARNING EXPERIENCES	6
3.1 Knowledge-Base of Teaching	4
3.1.1 Planning Knowledge for Teaching	29
3.1.2 Using Personal Practical Knowledge	30
3.1.3 Using Pedagogical Content Knowledge	7
3.1.4 Contextual Knowledge	5
3.1.4.1 Knowledge of Students	17
3.1.5 Lack of Language Methodology Knowledge	2
3.1.6 Volunteers Only Principle	2
3.2 Teachers' Instructional Practices	3
3.2.1 Effective Teaching Practices	0
3.2.1.1 Instructional Scaffolding	16
3.2.1.2 Instructional Support	11
3.2.1.3 Teacher Help-Giving	22
3.2.1.4 Preparing for class	11
3.2.1.5 Encouraging Student Participation	7
3.2.1.6 Praising students	15
3.2.1.7 Monitoring Student Learning	9
3.2.1.8 Motivating Students	4
3.2.2 Ineffective Teaching Practices	0
3.2.2.1 Pseudo-Study of Speaking	19
3.2.2.2 Using L1 for Communicative Competence	8
3.2.2.3 Lack of Instructional Planning	19
3.2.2.4 Covering the coursebook	12
3.2.2.5 Lack of Instructional Guidance	3
3.2.2.5.1 Skipping The Task	4
3.2.2.6 Lack of Response to Student Needs	6
3.2.2.7 Translation-Mediated Instruction	41
3.2.2.8 Teacher's Permission	6
3.3 Students' Language Learning Experiences	9

Codes- Categories -Themes	Frequencies
3.3.1 Positive Language Learning Experiences	0
3.3.1.1 Student Engagement and Motivation	25
3.3.1.1.1 Following the lesson	15
3.3.1.2 Developing Listening Skills	2
3.3.1.2.1 Developing Interactive Listening Strategies	2
3.3.1.2.2 Developing Intelligibility	4
3.3.1.3 Developing Reading Skills	3
3.3.1.3.1 Reading for Gist	2
3.3.1.3.2 Understanding Words in Context	2
3.3.1.4 Teacher-Led Speaking Practice	5
3.3.1.4.1 Asking Further Questions for Speaking	2
3.3.1.5 Performing Impromptu Speech	18
3.3.1.6 Learning to Write	15
3.3.1.7 Performing Technology-Integrated Tasks	5
3.3.1.8 High Students' Practices	21
3.3.2 Language Learning Strategy Use	0
3.3.2.1 Self-Initiated Language Learning Techniques	14
3.3.2.2 Using Cross-Linguistic Influence	3
3.3.2.3 Strategic Language Learning Efforts	37
3.3.3 Peer Interaction Patterns	6
3.3.3.1 Mutual Aids	5
3.3.3.2 Peer Learning	6
3.3.3.3 Academic Help-Seeking Behaviours	19
3.3.3.3.1 Executive Help-Seeking	13
3.3.3.3.2 Reciprocal Teaching	2
3.3.3.4 Peer Help-Giving	18
3.3.4 Rocky Road to Active Participation	0
3.3.4.1 Becoming Disadvantaged	12
3.3.4.2 "Sözelciler Ağlıyor"	7
3.3.4.3 The Beginner's Paradox	3
3.3.4.4 Becoming Linguistically Disadvantaged	4
3.3.4.5 Claim of Insufficient Knowledge (CIK)	6
3.3.5 Low Student Engagement and Motivation	18
3.3.5.1 Self-Determined Engagement	18
3.3.5.2 Apathetic Students	47

Codes- Categories -Themes	Frequencies
3.3.5.3 Losing Motivation and Interest	14
3.3.5.4 "I got bored"	14
3.3.5.5 Teacher Influence on Student Motivation	4
3.3.5.6 "I feel bound to the coursebook"	2
3.3.6 Negative Language Learning Experiences	1
3.3.6.1 "Nasip Değilmiş"	4
3.3.6.1.1 Lack of Opportunity for Speaking	11
3.3.6.1.2 Lack of Impromptu Speech Capability	10
3.3.6.2 Translation-Focused Language Learning Habits	21
3.3.6.2.1 Mastery in Translation	14
3.3.6.2.2 Using Translation Apps	30
3.3.6.2.3 L1 negative interference	1
3.3.6.3 Lack of Interaction	1
3.3.6.3.1 Individual Study Only	24
3.3.6.3.2 Teacher-Related Problems	13
3.3.6.3.3 Student-Related Problems	10
3.3.6.4 "I wrote"	33
3.3.6.5 Lack of Language Learning Strategy Use	7
3.3.6.6 Performance-Oriented Goals	12
3.3.6.6.1 This little piggy	3
3.3.6.6.2 Digital Cheating	11
3.3.6.7 Lack of Intercultural Awareness	3
4 ASSESSMENT POLICY IMPLEMENTATION	6
4.1 Actualization of Assessment Regulations	8
4.1.1 Teachers' Committee Decisions	18
4.1.2 Language Assessment Knowledge	8
4.1.3 Teacher-led Modifications for Assessment	4
4.1.4 Problems Experienced in Assessment Practice	10
4.1.5 Judgments About Assessment Tools	0
4.1.5.1 Teachers' Views	26
4.1.5.2 Students' Views	17
4.2 Traditional Assessment Procedures	7
4.2.1 Using traditional assessment tools	36
4.2.2 Pen-and-Paper Exams	7
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L. SAMPLE ANALYTIC MEMO

14.10.20

FINDINGS MEMO: "I WROTE" vs LEARNING TO WRITE

Simply "I Wrote" as a code label refers to sources of data which students refer to much more emphasis on writing. They feel like they developed themselves at the writing skill much, they also sometimes complain about writing practice, they feel like they focus much on writing and this causes them to be disturbed and perhaps to get bored. (P.S. Details for the code label are below)

I have two different codes about writing. One of them is the one hereof; "I Wrote" > This code involves two main instances of data: First, it involves the data in which students practice writing although the aim of the task is not so, even reverse the task aims at communicative practice. Second, it refers to sentence-level grammar practice, and even making sentences by translation to practice a certain linguistic form. Also, overuse of meaningful practice activities to practice linguistic forms.

As for the second Writing-Related Code, although I have not made up my mind about its label (perhaps it can be labeled as "The Study of Writing" or "Learning to Write"), it refers to sort of language learning practices in which the aim is already to practice writing and the students experience writing. They either write by looking at a sample reading text in their book or they create a story or share their memories by writing.

P.S. If I label these second group of writing data as "The Study of Writing," I will put it under "Segregated Skill Instruction" > yet it does not seem to be segregated all the time! If I label them as "Learning to Write," I can put them under the sub-category of "Positive Language Learning Experiences."

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P.S. I have just made up my mind, I labeled the second group of data as __Learning to Write__, cause here we see that not everything is segregated, students sometimes make use of the reading text, or maybe writing practice is the follow-up for reading practice, so we can't always say that it is segregated. I also know by person, who has already used the coursebook; the book involves writing tasks always after the study of reading.

M. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

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29 OCAK 2021

Konu : Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi : İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Ayşegül DALOĞLU

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız Pınar Yeni PALABIYIK'ın *"Yabancı Dil Eğitim Politikası Uygulaması: Türkiye'de Bir Devlet Lisesinde Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi"* başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **2018-EGT-020** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof. Dr. Mine MISIRLISOY
İAEK Başkanı

N. OFFICIAL PERMISSION OF THE DISTRICT OFFICE OF MNE FOR THE RESEARCH

T.C.
ADAPAZARI KAYMAKAMLIĞI
İlçe Millî Eğitim Müdürlüğü

Sayı : E-67739071-44-33039399

Konu : Araştırma İzni
(Pınar YENİ PALABIYIK)

27.09.2021

Sayın Pınar YENİ PALABIYIK
(SUBÜ Yabancı Dil Yüksek Okulu Esentepe Kampüsü Serdivan/SAKARYA)

İlgi : 27/09/2021 tarihli ve 33031117 sayı ile kayda alınan dilekçe talebiniz.

İlgi dilekçede belirttiğiniz talebiniz incelenmiş olup; Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Bölümündeki doktora çalışmanızla ilgili olarak Prof.Dr.Ayşegül DALOĞLU rehberliğinde "Yabancı Dil Eğitim Politikası Uygulaması : Türkiye'de Bir Devlet Lisesinde Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi" isimli araştırmanızı İlçemizdeki resmi bir Anadolu Lisesinde yaptığınız anlaşılmıştır.

Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

Coşkun BAKIRTAŞ
Milli Eğitim Müdürü

Güvenli Elektronik İmzalı
Aslı İle Aynıdır.
2.7. Eylül 2021
Mesut ÇALIŞKAN
Memur

O. SAMPLE INFORMED CONSENT FORM

ARAŞTIRMAYA GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu çalışma ODTÜ İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü öğrencilerinden Pınar YENİ PALABIYIK tarafından Prof. Dr. Ayşegül DALOĞLU danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir?

Bu çalışmanın amacı Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından uygulanan 11. Sınıf İngilizce öğretim programının uygulama boyutunu incelemektir.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz?

Araştırma çalışmanın yapılması için belirlenen devlet okulunda yapılacaktır. 11. Sınıflarda ders veren İngilizce Öğretmenleri katılımcı olarak davet edilecektir. Bu öğretmenlerin her biri ile yaklaşık 30 dakika sürmesi beklenen görüşmeler yapılacaktır. Araştırma boyunca yapılacak her türlü görüşme çalışmanın yapıldığı okulda müsait bir odada gerçekleştirilecektir ve görüşmeler boyunca ses kaydı yapılacaktır. Ayrıca bu öğretmenlerin 11. Sınıflarda yaptıkları İngilizce dersleri gözlemci katılımcı olarak araştırmacı tarafından gözlemlenecektir.

Sizden Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız?

Araştırmaya katılımınız tamamen gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Araştırmada sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Katılımcılardan elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde değerlendirilecek ve bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır. Sağladığınız veriler gönüllü katılım formlarında toplanan kimlik bilgileri ile eşleştirilmeyecektir.

Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:

Çalışma, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda çalışmayı uygulayan kişiye, çalışmadan çıkmak istediğinizi söylemek yeterli olacaktır.

Araştırmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz:

Çalışmayla ilgili soru ve yorumlarınızı araştırmacı Pınar YENİ PALABIYIK'a pnaryeni@gmail.com adresinden iletebilirsiniz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

(Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

İsim Soyadı	Tarih	İmza
	---/----/-----	

P. PARENT CONSENT FORM

Veli Onay Formu

Sayın Veliler, Sevgili Anne-Babalar,

Bu çalışma Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi doktora öğrencisi Pınar Yeni-Palabıyık tarafından Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Daloğlu danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir.

Bu çalışmanın amacı nedir? Çalışmanın amacı, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı tarafından uygulanan 11. Sınıf İngilizce öğretim programının uygulama boyutunu incelemektir.

Çocuğunuzun katılımcı olarak ne yapmasını istiyoruz?: Bu amaç doğrultusunda, çocuğunuzdan ilk olarak hazırlanan görüşme sorularını sözel olarak cevaplamasını isteyeceğiz ve yapılan görüşme esnasında ses kaydı yapılarak görüşmeyi kayıt altına alacağız. Sizden çocuğunuzun katılımcı olmasıyla ilgili izin istediğimiz gibi, çalışmaya başlamadan çocuğunuzdan da sözlü olarak katılımıyla ilgili rızası mutlaka alınacak.

Çocuğunuzdan alınan bilgiler ne amaçla ve nasıl kullanılacak?: Çocuğunuzdan alacağımız cevaplar tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacı tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Elde edilecek bilgiler sadece bilimsel amaçla (yayın, konferans sunumu, vb.) kullanılacak, çocuğunuzun ya da sizin ismi ve kimlik bilgileriniz, hiçbir şekilde kimseyle paylaşılmayacaktır.

Çocuğunuz ya da siz çalışmayı yarıda kesmek isterseniz ne yapmalısınız?: Katılım sırasında sorulan sorulardan ya da herhangi bir uygulama ile ilgili başka bir nedenden ötürü çocuğunuz kendisini rahatsız hissettiğini belirtirse, ya da kendi belirtmese de araştırmacılar çocuğun rahatsız olduğunu öngörürse, çalışmaya sorular tamamlanmadan ve derhal son verilecektir.

Bu çalışmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz: Çalışmaya katılımınızın sonrasında, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız yazılı biçimde cevaplandırılacaktır. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için İngiliz Dili Öğretimi Bölümü öğrencilerinden Pınar Yeni-Palabıyık ile (e-posta: pnaryeni@gmail.com) iletişim kurabilirsiniz. Bu çalışmaya katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum ve çocuğumun bu çalışmada yer almasını onaylıyorum (Lütfen alttaki iki seçenekten birini işaretleyiniz.

Evet onaylıyorum___   *Hayır, onaylamıyorum___*

Annenin/ Babanın adı-soyadı: _____   Bugünün

Tarihi:_____

Çocuğun adı soyadı ve doğum tarihi:_____

(Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra araştırmacıya ulaştırınız).

R. A LIST OF THE OFFICIAL REGULATIONS FOR TEACHING EFL IN JUNIOR YEAR (GRADE 11) CLASSES

Name of the Regulation	Document Type	Acceptance Date	Source
English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12)	-	26.11.2014	Official Bulletin, March 2015
Textbooks for Primary and Upper Secondary Education to be Taught in 2017-2018 School Year	Circular	13.01.2017	Official Bulletin, January 2017
Upper Secondary Education English 11 Textbook, Workbook, Teacher's Book	Announcement	-	Official Bulletin, April 2017
Ministry of National Education, Weekly Course Schedule for Upper Secondary Education Institutions	-	30.05.2017	Official Bulletin, June 2017
English Language Teaching Program for Upper Secondary Education (Grades 9, 10, 11, and 12)	-	17.07.2017	Official Bulletin, July 2017

S. CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL

INFORMATION

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EDUCATION BACKGROUND

Degree	Institution	Graduation
Ph.D.	Middle East Technical University *English Language Teaching*	2021
M.A.	Abant Izzet Baysal University *English Language Teaching*	2013
B.A.	Hacettepe University *English Language Teaching*	2009
High School	Tekirdağ Teacher Training High School	2004

RESEARCH INTERESTS

Instructional policy, language policy and planning, policy alignment, curriculum research, language learner agency, inservice teacher education, identity research, English language teaching methodology, qualitative research

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English

WORK EXPERIENCE

Duration	Institution	Job Title
July, 2020 – Present	Sakarya University of Applied Sciences	English Language Instructor
September, 2010 – June, 2020	Ministry of National Education	English Language Teacher
September, 2009 – August, 2010	Namık Kemal University	English Language Instructor

PUBLICATIONS & OTHER ACADEMIC WORK

Books & Book Chapters

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2021). Path toward the construction of professional identity: A narrative inquiry into a language teacher's experiences. In A. C. Karaman, & S. Edling (Eds.), *Professional Learning and Identities in Teaching: International Narratives of Successful Teachers* (pp. 155-171). Routledge. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003028451-10

Articles

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2017). Developing a language teaching policy for the endangered languages in Turkey. *ELT Research Journal, 6*(1), 154-171.

Yeni Palabıyık, P., & Daloğlu, A. (2016). English language teachers' implementation of curriculum with action-oriented approach in Turkish primary education classrooms. *I-manager's Journal on English Language Teaching, 6*(2), 45-57.

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2014). A study of Turkish high school students' burnout and proficiency levels in relation to their sex. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language), 8*(2), 169-177.

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2014). Perceptual learning style preferences among Turkish junior high school students. *Journal of Education and Future, 6*, 59-70.

Bozdoğan, D., & Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2014). A technology-oriented meta-analysis of language conference proceedings. *EKEV Akademi Dergisi, 18*(59), 61-79.

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2012). Pre-service teachers' beliefs about foreign language learning in relation to year of study. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, *12*(2), 259-272.

MA Thesis

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2013). *In-service English as a foreign language teachers' self-efficacy beliefs for technology integration: Insights from Fatih project* (Unpublished master's thesis). Abant İzzet Baysal University, Bolu.

Conference Papers

Yeni Palabıyık, P., & Daloğlu, A. (2017, October). *Responsive evaluation of the 9th grade English language teaching program*. Paper presented at the 18th INGED International ELT Conference, Istanbul, Turkey.

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2017, June). *The story of becoming a professional teacher*. Paper presented at the 3rd International Language, Culture & Literature Symposium, Antalya, Turkey.

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2017, April). *The discursive construction of language teaching policy for living languages and dialects*. Paper presented at the 2nd International Scientific Researchers Congress on Humanities and Social Sciences, Istanbul, Turkey.

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2013, October). *In-service EFL teachers' perceived self-efficacy beliefs and practices for technology integration*. Paper presented at the 4th Black Sea International ELT Conference, Bolu, Turkey.

Bozdoğan, D., & Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2012, May). *Techferences: Technology in conferences*. Paper presented at the 11th METU International ELT Convention, Ankara, Turkey.

Yeni Palabıyık, P. (2012, April). *Pre-service EFL teachers' language learning beliefs in relation to year of study*. Poster session presented at the Seventh International ELT Research Conference "Philosophical Perspectives in ELT Research", Çanakkale, Turkey.

Projects

Renault – Your Ideas Your Initiatives International Challenge (International Youth Project for Road Safety), 2018 (Project Coordinator)

18-31 March 2012: *Solitifola* (Solidarity and Ageing in Teaching Foreign Languages) Erasmus IP, University of Reading, UK (student participant)

27 March-09 April 2011: *CitiFola* (Citizenship in Teaching Foreign Languages) Erasmus IP, Krems, Austria (student participant)

Scientific & Professional Membership

TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages, USA), 2021–2022

INGED (Association of English Language Teachers, Turkey), 2017–2018

IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language, England), 2014–2015

Awards & Scholarships

2211-A TUBITAK (The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey) General Doctorate Scholarship Holder (2014-2017).

Eastbourne School of English − Graham Smith Scholarship Winner to attend the 49th International IATEFL Conference and Exhibition from 11th -14th 2015 in Manchester, UK.

Certificate of the Best Paper Award for the paper entitled *The discursive construction of language teaching policy for living languages and dialects*. The 2nd International Scientific Researchers Congress on Humanities and Social Sciences, April 20 - 23, 2017, Istanbul, Turkey.

The Winner of Funding Support from American Embassy in Ankara for Participation in International Conference on Quality Assurance and Accreditation in Foreign Language Education, 11-12 May, 2018, Bandırma Onyedi Eylül University, Bandırma, Turkey.

YABANCI DİL EĞİTİM POLİTİKASI UYGULAMASI: TÜRKİYE'DE BİR DEVLET LİSESİNDE YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETİMİ

1. GİRİŞ

Dil planlamacıları Rubin ve Jernudd (1971, aktaran Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003) tarafından ortaya atılan ilk sorulardan biri "Dil planlanabilir mi?" idi. Bu soru, Pasifik Havzası'ndaki dil politikası ve planlaması girişimlerini inceleyen Kaplan ve Baldauf' tan (2003) olumlu bir yanıt aldı. Araştırmacılar ayrıca, çeşitli hedeflere ulaşmak için planlamanın yapıldığını belirttiler (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003). Bu bağlamda, Kaplan ve Baldauf (2003) tarafından iki ana ilkeden oluşan dil planlaması hedefleri için bir çerçeve çizilmiştir: dil politikası ve planlaması hedefleri ve yetiştirme-planlama hedefleri.

Baldauf (1994)' un dil politikası ve planlamasını açık (açık, planlı) ve gizli (örtük, plansız) olarak iki alana bölmesinden yola çıkarak, Kaplan ve Baldauf (2003), dil politikası ve planlaması yaklaşımlarının dört ana türünü sıralamaktadır: i) statü planlaması, ii) derlem planlaması, iii) eğitimde dil planlaması, iv) prestij planlaması. Statü planlaması toplumla ilgiliyken (örneğin, resmileştirme, ulusallaştırma vb.), derlem planlaması dilin kendisiyle (örneğin, dilbilgisi, sözcük, vb.) ilgilidir. Eğitimde dil planlaması sadece öğrenme ile ilgiliyken, prestij planlaması dilin imajıyla (örneğin, bilim dili, yüksek kültür dili vb.) ilgilidir.

Kaplan ve Baldauf (1997), sadece eğitim sektörünü ilgilendiren eğitimde dil planlamasını toplumun çeşitli kesimlerini etkileyen dil planlamasından ayrı tutmakta ve bu nedenle eğitimde dil planlamasını örgün eğitimle ilgili olarak

tanımlamaktadırlar. Bu bağlamda Kaplan ve Baldauf (2003) eğitimde dil planlamasını dil eğitimi planlaması olarak adlandırmakta veya bu terim edinim planlaması olarak tanımlanmaktadır (Cooper, 1989). Bu nedenle dil eğitimi planlaması, dili öğrenenlerle ilgili öğrenme hedeflerini ifade eder ve bunlar örgün eğitim sistemi aracılığıyla elde edilebilir (Kaplan ve Baldauf, 2003). Burada temel kaygı, eğitim sistemindeki süreçler için ölçütlerin belirlenmesidir. Bunu yaparken amaç "hangi dillerin, kime, hangi gerekçeyle, hangi yöntemle, hangi materyal kullanılarak öğretileceğini ve başarının nasıl değerlendirileceğini" düzenlemektir (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003, s. 217). Bu amaçla Kaplan ve Baldauf (2003), politika geliştirmenin yedi önemli parçasından oluşan bir dil eğitimi planlama çerçevesi geliştirmiştir: erişim politikası, müfredat politikası, yöntem ve malzeme politikası, personel politikası, kaynak sağlama politikası, topluluk politikası ve değerlendirme politikası.

Yukarıda bahsedilen biçime ilişkin politika planlamasına ek olarak, Kaplan ve Baldauf' un (2003) çerçevesindeki ikinci ilke olarak yetiştirme planlaması dilin işlevine odaklanır. Diğer bir deyişle, eğitimde dil politikası, dil öğrenme programları oluşturmayı amaçlar ve temel olarak, dil öğrenimi için farklı sebeplere ve geçmişlere sahip çeşitli grupların ihtiyaçlarının nasıl karşılanacağı ile ilgilenir. Yabancı dil ve ikinci dil (L2) öğrenimi dil planlamasının bu yönüyle ilişkilidir ve bu nedenle birçok ülkede okul temelli programlar geliştirilmektedir (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003).

Kachru (1985)'nun geliştirdiği çerçeveye göre, Türkiye İngilizce kullanımı açısından genişleyen daireye ait bir ülke olarak tanımlanmaktadır ve bu tür ülkelerde İngilizce, tüm dünyadaki diğer topluluklarla daha geniş bağlantı kurmak için bir iletişim dili olarak öğretilmektedir. Merkezi bir eğitim sisteminin özelliklerini sunan bir ülke olarak, Türkiye' de makro düzeyde politika tasarımı ve mikro düzeyde uygulama gerçekleştirilmektedir (Wang, 2006). Yani mevzuat ve siyasi süreçler yoluyla ulusal düzeyde politikanın özellikleri geliştirilmekte ve bu özelliklerin işleyişi belirtilmekte iken (Wang, 2006), öğretmenler gibi bireyler tarafından kurumsal düzeyde (örn. okullarda) bu politika uygulanmaktadır

(Ricento & Hornberger, 1996). Bu durum tepeden inme bir müfredat planlama modeliyle sonuçlanmaktadır (Deng, 2010).

Politika oluşturma üzerine yapılan çalışmalar, özellikle dil politikası uygulaması söz konusu olduğunda, dil kullanımının makro ve mikro boyutları arasındaki bağlantıları anlama ihtiyacını vurgulamaktadır (Hult, 2010; Johnson, 2009b, 2010; Ricento, 2000). Bununla birlikte, dil politikası ve planlaması üzerine yapılan araştırmalar, makro düzeyde arzu edilen ile politikanın mikro alanında gerçekleştirilmesi arasında tutarsızlık olduğunu işaret etmektedir (Liddicoat, 2014; Gafaranga & Niyomugabo, 2013; Mortimer, 2013; Valdiviezo, 2013; Wallen & Kelly-Holmes, 2006). Kırkgöz (2007a), merkezi eğitim sistemlerinin olduğu alanlarında, tepeden inme politikalar ile bu politikaların uygulamaları arasındaki tutarsızlığın kaçınılmaz olduğunu varsaymaktadır. Bu açıdan bakıldığında, İngilizce öğretimine yönelik yabancı dil eğitim politikasının bir devlet lisesinde uygulanması arasındaki uyumun yakından incelenmesi çok önemlidir. Politika ve uygulama arasındaki uyumu araştırmak, merkezi eğitim sistemlerinde politika uygulamasının zorluğunu ve genç bireyleri gelecekteki kariyerlerine hazırlamak için program uyumu yüksek dil öğretim programlarının önemini vurgulamaya yardımcı olabilir.

1.1. Çalışmanın Önemi

Küreselleşme ve teknolojik yenilik dünyayı değiştirmekte ve bu da birçok ulus devleti eğitimde etkili bir değişim istemeye itmektedir (OECD, 2019). Bu nedenle zaman zaman bir dizi eğitim reformu ve politika girişimi başlatılmaktadır. Ancak, uygulama yönüne daha az dikkat edilmesi nedeniyle, bu girişimler gerçeğe ulaşamamaktadır (OECD, 2019). Öğretim politikalarının okullarda uygulanmasını engelleyen bir diğer faktör ise politika ve uygulama arasındaki zayıf uyumdur (OECD, 2019). Bu nedenle, bir öğretim politikasının uygulanmasını araştırmak, dikkati doğrudan uygulama yönüne yöneltecektir ve böyle bir çalışma, genel olarak bir öğretim programının gerçek hayatta

uygulanması üzerine daha iyi planlamaların artmasına katkıda bulunacaktır. Bu anlamda bu çalışma pek çok açılardan dikkat çekici olacaktır.

Her şeyden önce, bu çalışma, makro politika belgelerinde ifade edilen devlet liselerinde yabancı dil eğitimi için hedeflenen öğretimin özelliklerini araştırmaktadır. Ulusal literatürde makro düzeyde dil politikası girişimlerini inceleyen bazı çalışmalar olsa da (bkz., örneğin, Kırkgöz, 2009; Köksal & Şahin, 2012; Seyratlı-Özkan, Karataş & Gülşen, 2016), bu çalışmaların hiç biri Türkiye'de lise düzeyinde İngilizce öğretimini etkileyen politikalara özel bir atıfta bulunmamaktadır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, makro politika belgelerinde lise düzeyinde yabancı dil eğitimi için hedeflenen öğretimin özelliklerini inceleyerek dil politikası ve planlaması araştırması ile ilgili alan yazına katkıda bulunmaktadır.

Çalışmanın bir başka önemi de müfredatı kavramsallaştırma biçiminden kaynaklanmaktadır. Öğretmenler ve materyal yazarları gibi farklı paydaşlar tarafından çizilmiş tek bir belgeden ziyade, bu çalışma, müfredat oluşturmanın farklı seviyelerine ışık tutmayı amaçlamaktadır. Yalnızca öğretmenler değil, öğrenciler de müfredat oluşturma prosedürü ve dolayısıyla dil politikası ve planlamasının mikro düzeyde gerçekleştirilmesinde rol alan aktörler olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Araştırmacı, böylesi bir yönün, yabancı dil sınıflarında gerçekleştirilen öğretimi, tek veri kaynağı olarak öğretmenlerin algılarını (bkz. örn., İnceçay, 2012; Wang, 2008; Şahin, 2013) veya uygulamalarını (bkz. örn. Kırkgöz, 2008; Yeni-Palabıyık & Daloğlu, 2016) araştıran önceki çalışmalardan daha iyi yansıtacağına inanmaktadır.

Bu çalışma, ortaöğretimde İngilizce öğretimi açısından politika ve uygulama ilişkisini incelemektedir. Bu, araştırmanın en önemli noktasıdır, çünkü temel olarak bu çalışma, yabancı dil öğretimi için makro düzeydeki politika kararları, bu kararların öğretim politikası araçlarında talimatlandırılması ve daha sonra öğretmen ve öğrenciler tarafından sınıf düzeyinde öğretimin gerçekleştirilmesi arasındaki uyumu analiz etmeye çalışmaktadır. Bu amaçla bu çalışma, bir devlet

lisesinde uygulanan İngilizce öğretiminin makro politika belgelerinde ve müfredat uygulama araçlarındaki (yani öğretim programı ve ders öğretim materyalleri) hedeflenen öğretim özellikleri ile uyumunu gösterecektir.

1.2. Çalışmanın Amacı ve Araştırma Soruları

Merkezi eğitim sisteminin gerçekleri göz önüne alındığında, politika ve uygulama uyumunu araştıran bir çalışmanın bulguları beklenen sonuçları ortaya koyabilir, yani, istenen ve gerçekleşen talimat arasındaki uyumsuzluk. Merkezi bir eğitim sistemi yapısı içinde sınırlı olmakla birlikte, dil öğretim uygulamaları, programın aktörleri olarak öğretmenler ve öğrenciler tarafından sınıf düzeyinde yeniden yapılandırılabilir. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, Türkiye'de ortaöğretim için geliştirilen yabancı dil eğitim politikasının farklı alanlarında İngilizce için hedeflenen ve gerçekleştirilen öğretim uygulamalarının derinlemesine bir analizini sağlamayı amaçlamaktadır. Başka bir deyişle, bu çalışma, mikro düzeydeki İngilizce öğretiminin makro düzeydeki politikalara ve eğitim programının talimatlarına uyumunu araştırmaktadır. Daha açık olmak gerekirse, bu çalışma ilk olarak, öğretim politikası belgelerinde dile getirilen politika yapıcılar tarafından istenen öğretimin özelliklerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. İkinci olarak, çalışma, devlet liselerinin 11. sınıflarında İngilizce öğretiminde arzu edilen öğretime yönelik bakış açılarını yansıttığı için, politika araçlarının öngördüğü öğretim özelliklerini analiz etmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Üçüncü olarak, bu çalışma, 11. sınıf İngilizce derslerinin günlük gerçeklerinde neler olduğuna daha yakından bakmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu sayede çalışma programın ana aktörleri olarak öğretmen ve öğrencilerin sesinin duyulmasını da sağlamaktadır. Tüm bu amaçlar göz önünde bulundurularak, bu vaka çalışması, aşağıdaki kapsamlı araştırma sorusuna ve onun alt sorularına cevap vermeyi amaçlamaktadır:

Bir devlet lisesinde öğretim politikasının uygulanması, politika belgelerinde ve araçlarında İngilizce öğretimi için belirtilen talimatla nasıl uyumludur?

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1) Politika belgelerinde belirtilen öğretim özellikleri nelerdir (Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Kanunu, Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği, Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği, Ortaöğretim Genel Müdürlüğü Politika Özet Belgesi)?

2) Politika araçlarında belirtilen İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak öğretilmesine yönelik öğretimin temel özellikleri nelerdir (MEB Tebliğler Dergisi, 9-12. Sınıflar İngilizce Öğretim Programı, 11. Sınıf İngilizce Müfredatı, Öğretim Materyali "Sunshine English 11")?

3) Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi için geliştirilen öğretim politikası Türkiye'de bir devlet lisesinde nasıl gerçekleşmektedir?

    i.   Yabancı dil sınıflarında öğretmenlerin öğretim uygulamaları nelerdir?

    ii.   Dil öğrencileri yabancı dil sınıflarında öğretim politikasını nasıl deneyimlemektedir?

2. YÖNTEM

Nitel bir vaka çalışması olarak tasarlanan bu tez, sosyal yapılandırmacı (yani yorumlayıcı) paradigmayı benimsemektedir. Bu durumda, mevcut çalışma, gerçekliğin çoklu olduğu ve bireylerin yaşadıkları deneyimler yoluyla ve başkalarıyla etkileşime girerek kendi gerçekliğini inşa ettiği fikrini benimsemektedir.

Bu çalışma, bir devlet lisesinin belirli bir yabancı dil eğitim programında İngilizce öğretimi için hedeflenen ve uygulanan öğretim arasındaki uyumun derinlemesine incelenmesini amaçlamaktadır. Nitel bir araştırmanın benimsenmesi, araştırmacının bağlama birden fazla perspektiften bütüncül bir genel bakış elde etmesini sağlar (Miles ve Huberman, 1994). Ayrıca nitel araştırma, doğal bir ortamda, katılımcılarla yakın etkileşim içinde yürütülen bir çalışmaya son derece uygundur (Creswell, 2007). Sınıf gözlemleri ve öğrencilerle ve öğretmenlerle yapılan görüşmelerin yanı sıra zengin belge kaynaklarının (yani politika belgeleri ve araçları) analizinin kullanılması,

incelenen öğretim politikası ve uygulamasına bütünsel bir bakış açısı sağlamaktadır.

Durum çalışması, "sınırlı bir sistemin derinlemesine tanımlanması ve analizi" olarak tanımlanır (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, s.37). Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma "çağdaş bir fenomeni derinlemesine ve gerçek yaşam bağlamında araştırmayı" amaçlamaktadır (Yin, 2009, s.18): "çağdaş fenomen", "lisede İngilizce öğretimi için öğretim politikası ve uygulaması" ve "gerçek yaşam bağlamı", bir devlet lisesinin 11. sınıflarındaki İngilizce öğretimidir. Bu nedenle, çalışma birimi, yani ortaöğretimde İngilizce öğretimi için öğretim politikası ve uygulaması, zaman ve yer ile sınırlıdır (Creswell, 2013). Veriler 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılında toplanmıştır ve Türkiye'nin kuzeybatı ilinde bulunan bir devlet lisesinin 11. sınıflarında yürütülen İngilizce öğretimi durum çalışmasını sınırlamaktadır.

2.1. Örnekleme, Katılımcılar ve Bağlam

Nitel durum çalışmalarının gerekliliklerinden biri, araştırılacak analiz birimini belirlemektir. Bu işleme örnekleme denir. Nitel bir durum çalışması olarak tasarlanan bu tez çalışmasında amaçlı örnekleme stratejilerinden yararlanılmaktadır. Tanım olarak, amaçlı örnekleme, katılımcıların, ortamların ve olayların kasıtlı olarak seçilmesini ifade eder. Patton'ın (2015) belirttiği gibi, "amaçlı örneklemenin mantığı ve gücü, derinlemesine çalışma için bilgi açısından zengin vakaların seçilmesinde yatmaktadır" (s. 264). Bu açıdan bakıldığında, bu çalışmanın örneklenmesindeki ilk adım, Türkiye'de devlet liselerindeki eğitim bağlamında İngilizce öğretimine yönelik öğretim politikasını ve uygulamasını anlamak için bilgi verecek duruma ulaşmaktı.

Örnekleme açısından, Merriam (1998) nitel vaka çalışmalarının iki düzeyde örnekleme gerektirdiği gerçeğinden dolayı nitel durum çalışmalarını diğer nitel araştırma türlerinden ayırır. İlk olarak, incelenecek olan "vaka" nın seçilmesine ihtiyaç vardır. İkinci olarak, araştırmacılar vakadaki tüm bireylerle görüşmeyi ve onları gözlemlemeyi ya da tüm belgeleri incelemeyi planlamadıkları sürece,

vakanın içinden örnekleme gereklidir. O zaman, bu çalışmanın doğası gereği, araştırma ortamını ve katılımcıları seçmek için iki örnekleme stratejisi kullanılmıştır.

İlk olarak, araştırma ortamını seçmek için kolayda örnekleme kullanılmıştır. Wellington'a (2000) göre, kolayda örnekleme, kaliteli bilgi elde etmek için bir okulla var olan kişisel bağlantılardan yararlanmayı ifade eder. Araştırma ortamının daimi personeli olarak, okulun kendisi ve bilgi verenlerle (yani öğretmenler ve öğrenciler) zaten kişisel bağlantılarım vardı. Bu anlamda okulun kadrolu öğretmeni olmak bana zaman, para, yer ve katılımcı açısından bazı fırsatlar sağladı.

İkinci olarak, en büyük farklılıkları temsil eden bilgi kaynaklarının seçilmesi olarak tanımlanan maksimum çeşitlilik örneklemesi (Cresswell, 2013; Wellington, 2000), gözlem için sınıfları ve görüşme için öğrenci katılımcıları seçmek için kullanıldı. Bu kapsamda beş farklı sınıfta sınıf gözlemleri yapılmıştır. Akademik liselerde üçüncü yıl sınıfların çalışma alanlarına göre düzenlenmesini gerektirdiğinden, öğretim politikasının sınıf düzeyinde gerçekleştirilmesinde geniş bir perspektif yelpazesi elde etmek için çalışma alanlarının dağılımı dikkate alınmıştır. Bunlar fen bilimleri, eşit ağırlıklı, yabancı dil ve sosyal bilimler çalışma alanlarıydı. Gözlem dışında, görüşme için öğrenci katılımcıları seçmek için birkaç kriter kullanıldı: 1) öğrencilerin akademik başarısı, 2) cinsiyeti ve 3) çalışma alanı.

Bu çalışmanın katılımcıları 11. sınıf öğrencileri ve onların İngilizce öğretmenleridir. Veri toplama prosedürü sırasında, üç İngilizce öğretmeni 11. sınıflarda İngilizce öğretiyordu ve tüm öğretmenler çalışmaya katıldı. 11. sınıf öğrencileri bilgi kaynağı olarak seçilmiştir, çünkü bu öğrenciler liseye başladıklarında (2015-2016 eğitim öğretim yılı) yeni 9-12. sınıf İngilizce müfredatı (MEB, 2014) devreye girmiştir. Yani, 11. sınıf öğrencileri veri toplama sürecinde (2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılı) uygulanan yeni öğretim programı (9-12. Sınıflar öğretim programı, 2014) hakkında 9. ve 10. sınıf

öğrencilerinden daha tecrübeliydi. Ayrıca programın kademeli uygulanması sebebiyle, 12. sınıf öğrencileri zaten hiçbir zaman yeni öğretim programı ile tasarlanmış bir yabancı dil eğitimi almamıştı. Bunun yanı sıra, veri toplama sürecinden bir önceki yıl (2016-2017 eğitim-öğretim yılı), araştırmacı bu çalışmanın katılımcılarının bulunduğu sınıflarda pilot çalışma gerçekleştirdiği için. 11. sınıf öğrencileri çalışmanın konusuna ve araştırmacının sınıflarındaki varlığına aşinaydı. Saha çalışması aracılığı ile veri toplanan bu nitel durum çalışmasında araştırmacının varlığının kabul görmesi toplanan verinin sağlamlığı açısından önemliydi.

Bu çalışmada sınıf gözlemleri beş ayrı sınıfta gerçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmanın katılımcıları bu sınıflarda yer alan öğrenciler ve onların İngilizce öğretmenleridir. Öğrenci mülakatlarına her sınıftan iki kişi olmak üzere toplamda 10 öğrenci katılmıştır.

2.2. Veri Toplama ve Analiz Süreçleri

Bu çalışmada verile etnografik yöntemler kullanılarak toplanmıştır. Atay (2016), etnografinin tarihsel gelişimini "Bu insanlar böyle yaşar" perspektifinden "Bu insanlar ve ben böyle yaşadık" (s. 12) perspektifine geçiş olarak bildirir. Etnografik bir mercekten yola çıkarak, bu tez çalışmasında içeriden biri olarak veri topladım. Nitel araştırmalarda Creswell (2013) gözlem, görüşme, doküman ve görsel-işitsel materyaller olmak üzere dört temel veri türünden bahseder. Durum çalışması araştırması ile ilgili olarak, Yin (2003), altı veri kaynağı tanımlar: dokümantasyon, arşiv kayıtları, görüşmeler, doğrudan gözlemler, katılımcı gözlem ve fiziksel eserler. Aynı şekilde, bu çalışmada araştırmacı düzenli olarak katılımcılarla günlük konuşmalar gerçekleştirmenin yanı sıra kapsamlı gözlemler ve görüşmeler gerçekleştirmiştir; ayrıca çeşitli belgeler ve görsel-işitsel veriler de toplanmıştır.

Bu çalışmada veriler eş zamanlı olarak toplanmamıştır. Saha verilerini toplama dönemi Ekim 2017'de başlamış ve Kasım 2018'de sona ermiştir. Ekim 2017 ile

Haziran 2018 arasındaki bir eğitim-öğretim yılı içinde sınıf gözlemleri yapılmış ve alan notları alınmıştır. Daha sonra, Temmuz-Kasım 2018 tarihleri arasında görüşme verileri toplanmıştır. Ancak, belge toplama dönemi belirli bir takvime uymadı. Politika araçları, saha verilerinin toplanmasına başlamadan önce elde edilmiş olsa da, veri toplama prosedürünün son kısmı olarak politika belgeleri toplanmıştır.

Temel olarak veri toplama süreci iki aşamadan oluşmaktadır. İlk aşama, birinci ve ikinci araştırma sorularını yanıtlamayı amaçlamıştır. Bu bağlamda politika belgeleri ve politika araçlarında aktarılan ortaöğretim İngilizce öğretimi için hedeflenen öğretimin özellikleri resmi belgelerden (örneğin, Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği) ve politika araçlarından (örneğin, müfredat kılavuzu) toplanan verilerden yararlanarak ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Birinci araştırma sorusunu cevaplamak için toplanan makro politika belgeleri şu şekildedir;

- Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Kanunu, 1983
- Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği, 2006
- Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği, 2013-2017
- Ortaöğretim Genel Müdürlüğü Politika Özet Belgesi, 2017

Bu belgelerin elde edilmesi için çevrimiçi platformda Resmi Gazete' de araştırma yapılmış, bazı dokümanlar ise Milli Eğitim Bakanlığının (MEB) resmi web sitelerinden indirilmiştir. İkinci araştırma sorusunu cevaplamak için toplanan politika araçları ise şunlardır:

- MEB Tebliğler Dergisi, 2015-2017
- 9-12. Sınıflar İngilizce Öğretim Programı, 2014
- 11. Sınıf İngilizce Müfredatı, 2014
- Öğretim Materyali "Sunshine English 11", 2017

Bu dokümanların elde edilmesi için de Tebliğler Dergisi'nin çevrimiçi platformunda araştırma yapılmış, ilgili dokümanlar indirilmiştir. Bunun yanı sıra

diğer dokümanlar için de MEB' nın ilgili kuruluşlarının (örn. Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu) çevrimiçi platformlarında araştırma yapılmıştır.

Veri toplama sürecinin ikinci aşamasında amaç, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi için öğretim politikasının bir devlet lisesinin belirli bir programında nasıl uygulandığını keşfetmekti. Öğretim politikasının sınıf düzeyinde gerçekleşmesini ve program uygulanırken ortaya çıkan günlük gerçekleri ortaya çıkarmak için saha verileri toplanmıştır. Böylece sınıf gözlemleri yapılmış ve birkaç görsel veriye ilişkin analitik notlar tutulmuştur. Sınav kâğıtları gibi ek belgeler de toplanmıştır. Farklı paydaşlarla (okul yöneticisi, öğretmenler ve öğrenciler gibi) günlük görüşmelere ek olarak, öğretmenler ve öğrencilerle mülakatlar yapılmıştır.

Bu bağlamda veri toplama sürecinin ikinci aşamasında araştırma için seçilen beş sınıfı, okul yılı boyunca (yani, 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılı) düzenli olarak ziyaret ederek derinlemesine, kapsamlı alan notları topladım. Her sınıf için 15 ile 18 arasında değişen toplam 81 sınıf gözlemi yapılmıştır. Sınıf alan notlarının üç veya dördü Ekim-Kasım 2017 arasındaki ilk yarıyılda, geri kalanı ise Şubat-Mayıs 2018 eğitim-öğretim yılının ikinci döneminde toplanmıştır. Sınıf gözlemleri esnasında, araştırmacının katılım derecesi olay ve durumlara bağlı olarak değişiklik göstermiştir. Gold'un (1958) klasik tipolojisindeki dört olası duruş göz önüne alındığında, olaylara katılımım tam bir katılımcıdan tam bir gözlemciye doğru bir süreklilik içinde ilerledi. Sınıf alan notlarına ek olarak, araştırma ortamında gözlemlerimi ve farklı paydaşlarla günlük konuşmaları içeren alan notları tuttum. Bu çalışmada, sınıf dışında gözlemlenen olaylar ve konuşmalar nedeniyle alan notlarının tutulması gerekli olmuştur. Yani sınıf alan notları, sınıf içinde gözlemlenen öğretme ve öğrenme uygulamalarına ilişkin verileri içeriyordu, ancak saha notları, okulun herhangi bir yerindeki paydaşlarla yaptığım günlük konuşmaları içeriyordu. 11. sınıfta İngilizce öğretimi için kararlar alınırken öğretmenleri öğretmen odasında gözlemledim. Ayrıca öğrencilerle bazen okul koridorunda, bazen okul bahçesinde, bazen de kantinde günlük görüşmeler yaptım. Hatta okul müdürüyle sohbet ettim ve bu okulda

İngilizce öğretimi konusundaki görüşlerini öğrendim. Bu tür verilerin tümünü alan notları olarak not aldım. Saha notlarının tutulması Şubat 2018'den Mayıs 2018'e kadar 16 hafta sürmüştür. Alan notlarını günlük olarak bilgisayarda bir word belgesinde tuttum. Bu çalışmada 16 hafta boyunca toplanan verileri içeren toplam 16 alan notu belgesi vardı (yani, haftada bir belge).

Bu tezde, veri toplama prosedürleri bazı görsel verileri de (yani, fotoğraflar ve videolar) içermektedir. Bu tür verileri analiz etmek için Saldana (2013) "görsel verilere eşlik eden dil tabanlı veriler oluşturmak" için analitik notlar tutulmasını önerir (s. 52). Bu açıdan araştırmacı, fotoğraf veya videodaki olayları açıklayan betimleyici notlar almıştır. Üçü video olmak üzere yedi görsel veri vardı. Sınıf gözlemleri sırasında iki fotoğraf çekilirken, videolar öğrenciler tarafından performans değerlendirme ödevinin bir parçası olarak hazırlanmıştır. Görsel verilere ek olarak, sınav kâğıtları ve öğrenci çalışma kâğıtları gibi birkaç ek belge toplandı. Tamamı ölçme ve değerlendirme amacıyla hazırlanmış dört farklı ek belge kaynağı vardı: 1) yazılı sınav kâğıtları, 2) kısa sınav kâğıtları, 3) sınavlar için öğrenci çalışma kağıtları, 4) proje çalışması veya performans çalışması eserleri. Toplam 15 belge toplandı; bunların altısı sınav kâğıdı, üçü kısa sınav kâğıdı, üçü öğrencilerin performans veya proje çalışması örnekleri ve üçü sınavlar için çalışma kâğıtlarıydı.

Nitel araştırmalarda gözlemin yanı sıra görüşmeler de diğer bir ana veri kaynağıdır (Merriam, 1998); görüşmelerin yapılması, katılımcıların bakış açılarını derinlemesine anlamak için gereklidir. Bu çalışmada bireysel yarı yapılandırılmış yüz yüze görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Görüşme formları dört bölümden oluşmaktadır: 1) Katılımcıların demografik bilgileri, 2) İngilizce derslerinin genel tanımı, 3) İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji kullanımı ve 4) Ölçme ve değerlendirme uygulamaları. Her bölüm, bilgi verenin açıklamalarını detaylandırmasına yardımcı olacak komutların yanı sıra üç ila altı arasında değişen sorular içeriyordu. Bu çalışmada kullanılan görüşmeler, katılımcıların kayıtlı oldukları/ öğretmenlik yaptıkları yabancı dil eğitim programına ilişkin deneyimlerini ve görüşlerini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır; yani İngilizce

derslerinin rutinleri, İngilizcenin öğrenilmesi ve öğretilmesinde teknolojinin kullanımı ve 11. sınıftaki ölçme ve değerlendirme uygulamaları irdelenmiştir. Bu okulun 11. sınıflarında öğretim politikasının uygulanmasına ilişkin bilgi verenlerin deneyimlerine odaklanan görüşme soruları olduğu için, mülakatlar öğretim yılı sona erdikten sonra yapılmıştır. Bu bağlamda, bilgi veren kişilerle yapılan görüşmeler Temmuz ile Kasım 2018 arasında yapılmıştır. Mülakatlara üç İngilizce öğretmeni ve 10 öğrenci katılmıştır. Katılımcılarla yapılan görüşmelere ek olarak, görüşmeler sırasında verdikleri cevapları daha da detaylandırmak için takip görüşmeleri yapılmıştır. Öğretmen katılımcılarla toplam 12, öğrenci katılımcılarla ise 38 görüşme yapılmıştır.

İki aşamalı veri toplama işlemlerinin ardından, hedeflenen öğretim için doküman incelemesi ve gerçekleştirilen öğretim için saha verilerinin analizi ayrı ayrı yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın ilk aşamasında iki ana grup belge toplanmıştır; makro öğretim politikası belgeleri ve politika araçları. Ve bu dokümanlar doküman analizi yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir. Bu bağlamda veriler belgelerin gözden geçirilmesi, okunması ve yorumlanması yoluyla analiz edilmiştir (Bowen, 2009). Veri analizinin ikinci aşamasında ise, saha verilerinin analizi yapılmıştır. Nitel araştırmalarda verileri analiz etmek için araştırmacıların Creswell'in (2013) belirttiği, 1) verilerin analiz aşaması için hazırlanması ve düzenlenmesi, 2) verilerin kodlanması ve anlamlı bölümlere indirgenmesi ve 3) verilerin şekiller, tablolar ve çizelgelerle görüntülenmesi şeklinde bazı adımları izlemesi gerekmektedir. Bu bahsedilen işlemlerden hareketle bu çalışmada ilk adım verilerin hazırlanması ve düzenlenmesi olmuştur (Crewell, 2013). Bu bağlamda, sınıf alan notları, alan notları, görsel verilere ilişkin analitik notlar, ek belgeler ve görüşmeler gibi tüm alan veri kaynakları bir araya getirilmiştir. Tüm saha verileri Microsoft Word dosyalarına kaydedilmiş ve nitel veri analiz yazılımı MAXQDA Software 2020 (sürüm 20.0.6) kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Bu tezde, veri analizi Ocak-Kasım 2020 arasında yaklaşık dokuz ay sürmüş ve veri analiz süreci kod kitabı oluşturmak için bir ön veri analizi ile başlamıştır. Bu bağlamda saha verilerinin %20'si kod kitabı oluşturmak için analiz edilmiştir.

Analizin bu aşamasında eldeki verileri anlamlandırmak için tümevarımsal ve tümdengelimli akıl yürütme kullanılmıştır (Creswell, 2013). Patton'a (2015) göre, "nitel analiz, özellikle içerik analizi için bir kod kitabı geliştirirken veya olası kategorileri, kalıpları ve temaları ortaya çıkarırken, erken aşamalarda tipik olarak tümevarımlıdır" (s. 543). Bu nedenle, verilerin kendisi araştırmacıya onu kodlaması için rehberlik etti. Saha verilerinin toplanması sırasında tutulan kapsamlı yansıtıcı günlük notları olduğundan, bu notlar iyice okundu ve verilerin kodlanmasına yardımcı olabilecek bir ifade listesi yapıldı. Tümdengelim bileşeni ile ilgili olarak, kavramsal çerçeve ve araştırma soruları araştırmacıya rehberlik etmiştir. Ayrıca araştırmacı, veriyi kendisi için anlamlı kılacak dil öğretim metodolojisi (örn., Long, 2015; McDonough, Shaw & Masuhara, 2013; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), dil ölçme ve değerlendirmesi (örn., Richards & Renandya, 2002; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), öğretmen bilişi (örn., Borg, 2003, 2006), dil öğrenenler ve dil öğrenme uygulamaları (örn., Chamot, 2005; Dörnyei, 2019) gibi çeşitli literatür okumaları yapmıştır. Tümdengelimli analiz, verileri analiz etmek için tümevarımsal analizden ortaya çıkan kodları ve kategorileri kullanmayı içerdiğinden (Patton, 2015), kod kitabı araştırmacıya nitel tümdengelimli analizin bir parçası olarak verilerin geri kalanını analiz etmede rehberlik etmiştir.

Bu çalışmada, verileri analiz etmek için tümevarımsal ve tümdengelimli nitel içerik analizi kullanılmıştır. Patton (2015), içerik analizini "bir miktar nitel materyal alan ve temel tutarlılıkları ve anlamları belirlemeye çalışan herhangi bir nitel veri indirgeme ve anlamlandırma çabası" olarak tanımlar (s. 541). İçerik analizinin çeşitli biçimleri vardır ve Krippendorff (2004), Berelson (1952, aktaran Krippendorff, 2004) tarafından önerilen içerik analizinin "nicel" ve "açık" özelliklerine karşı çıkar. Benzer bir çizgide, verilerin sayılması veya nicelleştirilmesi bu tezin veri analizinde söz konusu değildi; bunun yerine tek bir yorum, verilerde tekrar tekrar ortaya çıkan ifadeler ve olaylar kadar önemli kabul edildi. İçerik analizi, verilen içeriğin temel anlamları olan kalıplara ve temalara ulaşmayı mümkün kılan bir metodolojidir. Ve kodlama, bu kalıplara ve temalara ulaşmanın ilk adımıdır. Veri analizinin kodlama prosedüründe, Saldana (2013)

tarafından önerilen birinci döngü ve ikinci döngü kodlama prosedürleri analize rehberlik etmiştir. Ancak, kodlama döngüsü iki döngü ile sınırlı değildi; bunun yerine kodlama döngüsü, Saldana'nın (2013) önerdiği gibi kod üretimi gerçekleşene kadar devam etmiştir.

Bu çalışma nitel bir araştırmadır. Bu bakımdan Guba ve Lincoln (1982)'ün natüralist sorgulamalar için yaygın olarak kullanılan perspektiflerini ve ölçütlerini takip etmiştir.

Bu bağlamda güvenilirlik için şu dört ana yol izlenmiştir: 1) inandırıcılık, 2) aktarılabilirlik, 3) güvenilirlik ve 4) uygunluk. Bu tezde, inandırıcılık, farklı veri kaynaklarının üçgenleştirilmesi, çoklu veri toplama yöntemleri, uzun süreli katılım, akran sorgulaması ve refleksivite kullanılarak ele alınmıştır. Veri toplama yöntemlerinin üçgenleştirilmesi çalışmanın güvenilirliğini de sağlamıştır. Araştırmacı, ortamın ve katılımcıların zengin ve ayrıntılı tanımlamasını yaparak aktarılabilirliği ele almıştır; ayrıca, Merriam ve Tisdell (2016) tarafından önerildiği gibi, bulguların ayrıntılı aktarımını sağlamak için görüşmelerden, alan notlarından ve belgelerden doğrudan alıntılar eklenmiştir. Son olarak, bu tez çalışması, araştırma sürecinin ve araştırmacının rolünün ayrıntılı bir açıklamasını yapan uzun bir metodoloji bölümünü içerir; bu da çalışmanın uygunluğunu artırmaktadır.

3. BULGULAR

Bu bölümde araştırmanın bulguları verilmektedir. Bulgular iki ana bölümden oluşmaktadır: 1) politika belgeleri ve araçlarında öngörülen öğretimin özellikleri, 2) bir devlet lisesinin yabancı dil eğitim programında yürütülen öğretimin özellikleri.

3.1. Hedeflenen Öğretimin Özellikleri

Öğretim politikası belgelerinin analizi, bir yandan makro alanda politikanın yapılanmasını, diğer yandan bu belgelerde aktarılan öğretimin özelliklerini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Buna göre, örgün ve yaygın eğitimde yabancı dil öğretimi için düzenlemeler yapan en üst düzey hükümet mercii Milli Eğitim Bakanlığıdır. Yakın geçmişte, MEB tarafından ortaöğretim kurumlarında yabancı dil öğretimini etkileyen iki önemli düzenleme yapılmıştır: Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği (2006) ve Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (2017). Her şeyden önce, Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği (2006) yabancı dil eğitiminin amacını belirtmektedir. İkinci politika belgesi, yani Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (2017), alan verilerinin toplandığı zaman diliminde (yani, 2017-2018 eğitim öğretim yılı) tüm Türkiye'de ortaöğretim kurumlarının işleyişini düzenleyen ana politika belgesiydi. Bu politika belgesinde özellikle ortaöğretim kurumlarında uygulanmak istenen ölçme ve değerlendirme prosedürleri belirtilmektedir.

Ortaöğretim Genel Müdürlüğü tarafından 2017 yılında yayınlanan Politika Özet Belgesine özellikle dikkat çekmek gerekir çünkü bu dokümanda 2015-2017 yılları arasında Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği'nin (2006) değiştirilmesine yönelik politika girişiminden bahsedilmektedir. Ancak bahsedilen bu politika girişimi halen gerçekleştirilememiştir. Daha da önemlisi, saha verilerinin toplandığı süre boyunca (yani 2017-2018 eğitim-öğretim yılı) 2014 yılında yayımlanan İngilizce Müfredatı kullanılıyor olmasına rağmen, ortaöğretim seviyesi için öğretim programlarının yanı sıra öğretim materyallerinin de güncellenmesi planı yapıldığı bu Politika Özet Belgesinde duyurulmuştur. Politika Özeti Belgesinde önerilen iddia doğrultusunda, MEB Tebliğler Dergisi'nin analizi, 2018-2019 eğitim-öğretim yılından itibaren ortaöğretimin tüm sınıflarında İngilizce öğretimi için yeni İngilizce müfredatının uygulanacağını ortaya koymuştur.

MEB Tebliğler Dergisi, lise eğitim kurumlarının 11. sınıflarında İngilizce öğretimi için kullanılan resmi müfredat belgelerini ve materyallerini belirlemek için analiz edildi. Böylece, 2014 yılında yayınlanan 9-12. Sınıf İngilizce Öğretim Programı ve bu müfredatın sonuna eklenmiş 11. Sınıf İngilizce Öğretim Programı ve "Ortaöğretim Sunshine English 11" öğretim materyalinin öğretim politikasının araçlarını oluşturan dokümanlar olduğu bulunmuştur.

Yukarıda belirtilen tüm bu belgeler, farklı politika alanlarında aktarılan İngilizce öğretiminin öğretimin özelliklerini ortaya çıkarmak için titizlikle analiz edildi. Genel anlamda, belgelerin analizi, İletişimsel dil öğretiminin (CLT) ortaöğretim kurumlarında İngilizce öğretimi için hedeflenen öğretimin ana belirleyicisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Yine de, iletişim odaklı öğretimin özellikleri, politika tepeden aşağıya inerken değişmektedir. Daha açık ifade etmek gerekirse, hedeflenen öğretimin özelliklerini tanımlamaya yönelik ilk somut girişim 2006 yılında Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği ile ortaya konmuştur. CLT' nin en iyi bilinen özelliklerinden bazıları burada tanımlanmıştır, yani dört dil becerisinin kazanılması—dinlediğini anlama, okuduğunu anlama, konuşma ve yazma ve iletişim becerilerine vurgu yapılmaktadır. Ortaöğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği adlı belge incelendiğinde, özellikle öngörülen ölçme ve değerlendirme prosedürleri içerisinde görev-tabanlı dil öğretimi (TBLT) ilkelerinin belirtildiği görülmektedir; yani performans çalışması ve proje çalışması tercih edilmekte ve (beceri) uygulama sınavları gerektiği ifade edilmektedir. Ayrıca, hümanist yaklaşımlar benimsenmiş (ör. öğrenen özerkliği) ve öğrencilerin üretken ve yenilikçi bireyler olmasının arzu edilmesi gibi öne çıkan birçok özellik vardı. Tüm bu unsurlar öğrenen merkezlilik kavramını göstermektedir.

Belki de ortaöğretimde İngilizce öğretmek için hedeflenen öğretimin özelliklerine ilişkin en ayrıntılı bilgi politika araçlarında bulunabilir. Bu bağlamda, 9-12. Sınıf İngilizce Öğretim Programında (2014) eklektik yaklaşım benimsenen öğretim özelliği olarak açıkça belirtilmektedir. Öğretim programının derinlemesine analizi, öğrenen merkezli yaklaşımın özelliklerinin (örneğin,

öğrenen özerkliğine yapılan vurgu, özgüven kazanma vb.) yanı sıra CLT, TBLT ve hatta geleneksel dil öğretimi ve öğrenme yöntemleri gibi öğretim biçimlerinin de hedeflenen öğretim özellikleri arasında kabul gördüğünü ortaya çıkardı. Öyle olsa bile, teknoloji destekli öğretim, özgün materyal kullanımı ve iletişimsel işlevler vurgulandığından, öğretim programında benimsenen öne çıkan yaklaşım, CLT'nin güçlü biçimi gibi görünmektedir. 11. Sınıf İngilizce Müfredatının analizi de CLT' yi hedeflenen öğretim açısından benimsenen metodoloji olarak göstermiştir. Ancak, belgedeki öğrenme kazanımlarının titiz bir şekilde incelemesi, dilsel özelliklere çok fazla vurgu yapıldığını göstermiştir. Bu anlamda, hedeflenen öğretim özelliği olarak CLT tercih edilmesine rağmen, belge tarafından aktarılan öğretim özellikleri, CLT'nin zayıf formu gibi görünüyordu. Son belge olan "Sunshine" öğretim materyali incelendiğinde, kitapta da iddia edildiği gibi CLT'nin özellikleri bir kez daha ortaya çıktı. Kitaptaki etkinliklerin ayrıntılı analizi, hedeflenen öğretim özelliği olarak CLT'nin güçlü biçimine benzeyen birçok özelliği gösterdi (örneğin, tümevarımsal dilbilgisi öğrenimi, dil temelli realia, teknoloji destekli öğretim, üst düzey düşünme becerilerini geliştirme).

Sonuç olarak, politika belgeleri ve öğretim politikası araçlarının analizi hedeflenen öğretimin temel özelliklerinin öğrenci merkezli yaklaşımları, eklektik yaklaşımı ve CEFR ilkeleri gibi birkaç başka yönü içerdiğini ortaya koymuştur. CLT'nin son zamanlardaki kavramsallaştırılmasında ikinci dil öğretimi ve öğrenimine yönelik öğrenci merkezli ve deneyime dayalı bir görüşü benimsediği göz önüne alındığında, CLT, çeşitli özellikleri (örneğin, öğrenci merkezli yaklaşım, teknoloji destekli öğretim ve göreve dayalı önermeler) içeren önde gelen metodoloji olarak tanımlanabilir. Özetle, bu vaka çalışmasındaki belge analizi, CLT'nin lisede İngilizce öğretmek için arzu edilen ana metodoloji olduğunu göstermiştir. Bununla birlikte, bu belgelerin ayrıntılı analizi, politika seviyesinde ne tür bir CLT metodolojisinin öğretilmesi arzu edildiği ile ilgili talimatların bazılarının çok net olmadığı sonucunu göstermiştir.

3.2. Gerçekleşen Öğretimin Özellikleri

Tüm veriler nitel içerik analizi ile analiz edilmiş ve ortaya çıkan kodlar dört ana tema altında kategorize edilmiştir: 1) öğretme ve öğrenme sürecinin rutinleri, 2) öğretim politikasının bağlama özgü gerçekleri, 3) öğretimin öğrencilerin dil öğrenme deneyimlerine yansıması ve 4) ölçme ve değerlendirme politikasının uygulanması. İlk iki tema (yani öğretme ve öğrenme sürecinin rutinleri, öğretim politikasının bağlama özgü gerçekleri) bir devlet lisesinde yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretimi politikasının nasıl gerçekleştirildiğini ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamaktadır. Üçüncü tema olarak öğretimin öğrencilerin dil öğrenme deneyimlerine yansıması öğretmenlerin öğretim uygulamaları sonucunda ortaya çıkan dil öğrenme deneyimlerine ilişkin bulguları sunmaktadır. Son tema ölçme ve değerlendirme politikası uygulaması, mikro politika uygulamasının bir bileşeni olarak değerlendirilen müfredata atıfta bulunan verilerin bulgularıyla ilgilidir.

3.2.1. Öğretme Ve Öğrenme Sürecinin Rutinleri

Saha verilerinin analizi, bu öğretim politikası ortamında İngilizce sınıflarının ana akışını gösterdi. Bu durum, hemen hemen her ders selamlama, akıllı tahtayı açma vb. gibi birkaç sınıf rutini içeriyordu. Dersin geri kalanıyla ilgili olarak, öğretmenler ders kitabını sıkı bir şekilde takip ettiler; başka bir deyişle, ders kitabı öğretimlerinin merkezindeydi. Ya ders kitabında bir sonraki alıştırmayı yaptılar ya da ders kitabında yapmak istediklerini seçtiler. Öğretmenler egzersizleri şu şekilde gerçekleştirdi: önce öğrencilere ne yapacaklarını anlattılar, sonra uygulama için zaman ayırdılar ve ardından öğrencilerden cevapları aldılar. Bu okulda neredeyse her İngilizce dersi, ders boyunca yapılanların bir özeti yapılmadan sona erdi.

Bu tema altında, İngilizce öğretiminin iki önemli yönü de ortaya çıktı; geleneksel öğretme ve öğrenme uygulamalarının yanı sıra alıcı becerilerin öğretiminin de yaygın olduğu bulunmuştur. Geleneksel dil öğretimi ve öğrenimi biçimleriyle

ilgili olarak, dilbilgisi ve sözcük gibi dilsel özelliklere aşırı vurgu gözlemlendi. Birinci dil / anadilin (L1)'in temel eğitim aracı olarak kullanıldığı tespit edildi. Son olarak dinlediğini anlama ve okuduğunu anlama becerilerinin öğretiminde yapılan işlemler tek tek rapor edilmiştir. Özellikle çeviriye yapılan vurgu ve anlama için L1'in kullanılması, öğrencilerin verilen metni daha iyi anlamalarına yardımcı olmak için öğretmenlerin kullandığı teknikler olarak görülmüştür.

3.2.2. Öğretim Politikasının Bağlama Özgü Gerçekleri

Makro düzeyde geliştirilen yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğretim politikasının okulda gerçekleştirilme şekliyle ilgili olarak bu tema altında çeşitli konular tartışıldı. Öğretim politikasının sınıf düzeyinde gerçekleştirilmesinin bağlamına özgü gerçeklerden nasıl etkilendiği, geliştirilen tutumlar, teknoloji kullanımı, akademik performans ve katılımcıların karşılaştığı zorluklar gibi birçok açıdan değerlendirildi.

Bu tema altında beliren bir kategori olarak dil öğretimi ve öğreniminin tutumsal yönleri, mikro politika aktörlerinin (yani, İngilizce öğretmenleri ve öğrencileri) algılarının, inançlarının ve görüşlerinin İngilizce derslerinde öğretim politikasının gerçekleştirilmesi üzerindeki etkisini göstermiştir. Tutumlar bazen öğretimin bir sonucu olarak geliştirildi; örneğin, öğrenciler dilbilgisi ve çeviriye karşı değişen tutumlar geliştirdiler çünkü öğretimde bu bileşenlerin çalışılmasına daha fazla zaman ayrıldı. Öte yandan, bazen katılımcıların tutumları öğretimi etkiledi. Örnek vermek gerekirse, bazı öğrenciler olumsuz inançları nedeniyle bazı ödevleri (örneğin araştırma odaklı görevler) yerine getirmediler. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin genel olarak okuduğunu anlama becerilerine ve özelde okuma metinlerinin içeriğine yönelik olumlu tutumları, İngilizce derslerinde okuma etkinliklerinin daha çok uygulanmasına neden olmuştur.

Bu okulda öğretim politikasının uygulanması konusunda ortaya çıkan bir başka bağlama özgü gerçeklik, öğrenci performansını etkileyen psikososyal faktörlerdi. Değneğin bir ucunda öğrencilerin performansını engelleyen birkaç faktör varken

diğer ucunda motivasyonla ilgili değişkenler vardı. Olumsuz akademik benlik kavramı, düşük akademik yönelim ve öz yeterlik eksikliği gibi çeşitli sorunların İngilizce derslerinde öğrencilerin başarısız olmasına neden olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin İngilizce dersleri içinde ve dışında dil öğrenme davranışlarını etkileyen motivasyonla ilgili çeşitli değişkenler bulunmuştur.

Üçüncü bileşen olarak İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji kullanımı, bu okulda Bilgi İletişim Teknolojisi (BİT) araçlarının kullanımına ilişkin katılımcıların görüş ve uygulamalarını belirtmiştir. Kullanılan iki ana BİT aracı ortaya çıktı; bunlar öğrencilerin akıllı telefonları ve akıllı tahtaydı. Bu okulda İngilizce öğretimi için öğretim politikasının ana aktörleri olarak İngilizce öğretmenleri ve öğrenciler, teknolojinin çeşitli faydaları olduğunu bildirdiler. Buna rağmen, bilinmeyen bir kelimeyi aramak gibi dilsel amaçlar için BİT' kullanmak, İngilizce derslerinde en yaygın rastlanan teknoloji kullanımıydı. Ayrıca, katılımcılar teknoloji kullanımındaki birçok sorunu vurguladılar. Öğrenciler arasında teknolojinin amaç dışı kullanımının normal bir şey olarak görülmesi dikkat çekiciydi. Bir de İngilizce derslerinde teknoloji kullanımının yetersiz olduğu tespit edilmiştir.

Son olarak, öğretim politikasının bağlama özgü gerçekliklerinde tartışılan önemli bir alan, bağlamsal zorluklardı. Bu açıdan, okulu çevreleyen gerçeklerin mikro politika aktörlerinin (yani İngilizce öğretmenleri ve öğrenciler) tutum ve davranışları üzerindeki etkisi ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Bu okulda öğretim politikasının nasıl uygulandığından kaynaklanan sorunlar anlatılmıştır. Ayrıca politikanın doğası gereği ortaya çıkan sorunlar tespit edilmiştir. İlki, sınıf dinamiklerinin öğrenciler ve öğretmenlerin İngilizce derslerindeki uygulamaları üzerindeki etkisine atıfta bulunurken, ikincisi, eşik derecesi ve alan dersleri gibi makro politika maddelerinin bu okulda nasıl kavramsallaştırıldığını sundu. 11. sınıfta İngilizce öğretimi açısından bazen bir zorluk oluşturduğu belirtilen ders kitabının değerlendirilmesi ile ilgili farklı görüşler rapor edildi.

3.2.3. Öğretimin Öğrencilerin Dil Öğrenme Deneyimlerine Yansıması

'Bir şeyin yansıması' ifadesinin sözlük tanımına dayanarak, bu tema, öğretim ve öğrenme deneyimleri arasındaki özel bağlantıyı ortaya çıkarmayı amaçladı. Diğer bir deyişle, öğrencilerin dil öğrenimi konusunda belirli bir fikir sahibi olmalarını ve/veya belirli bir deneyim kazanmalarını sağlayan öğretmenlerin iyi veya kötü öğretim uygulamaları rapor edilmiştir.

Her şeyden önce, öğretmenlerin öğretim uygulamalarının ve kararlarının arkasındaki itici güçleri ortaya çıkarmak için algıları, tutumları ve inançları mercek altına alındı. Öğretimin bilgi tabanı, öğretmenlerin öğretimsel referans çerçevesini gösterdi. Bunlar, kişisel pratik bilgi, pedagojik içerik bilgisi ve öğrencilerin bilgisi dahil olmak üzere öğretmenlerin birçok alandaki bilgilerini içeriyordu. Ayrıca öğretmenlerin öğretim prensiplerini ortaya koyan planlama bilgileri ortaya çıkmıştır. Yani öğretmenler birçok duruma göre öğretim uygulamalarını planlamış ve kararlar vermişlerdir. Karar verirken bazen öğrencilerin dil yeterlilik düzeylerini göz önünde bulundururken, bazen de öğretimdeki pratik deneyimlerinden etkilenmişlerdir.

Öğretmenler yukarıda belirtilen çeşitli bilgi(ler)den hareketle öğretim uygulamalarını gerçekleştirmişlerdir. Bu uygulamaların bazıları hoş karşılanırken bazıları cesaret kırıcıydı. İstenen uygulamalar arasında öğretmenler, öğretim iskelesi, öğretim desteği, öğrenci öğrenmesini izleme ve daha pek çok şey sergilediler. Öğrencilerin çalışmalarına geri bildirimde bulundular; ders esnasında cevapları sadece yüksek başarı gösterenlerden almak yerine daha düşük seviyedeki öğrencileri derse katılmaya teşvik ettiler; ayrıca tatmin edici bir şey yaptıklarında öğrencileri övdüler.

Öte yandan, öğretmenlerin sınıf düzeyindeki uygulamalarında gösterdikleri cesaret kırıcı birkaç uygulama da ortaya çıktı. Öğretimlerinin en önemli özelliklerinden biri çeviri kullanmaktı; ders sırasında her etkinliği (örneğin, cümle eşleştirme, dikkat kutularını gözden geçirme, vb.) gerçekleştirmek için

çeviri kullandılar. Ayrıca, İngilizce derslerinde iletişimsel yetkinliğin öğretilme şekliyle ilgili sorunlar bulunmuştur. Bu bağlamda, konuşma etkinliklerinin yazılı bir üretim olarak gerçekleştirilmesi, öğrencileri dili üretmeye yönlendirmeden iletişimsel bir görevi atlamanın yanı sıra L1'in iletişimsel yetkinliğin çeşitli yönlerini (yani, söylem yetkinliği ve stratejik yetkinliği) kazandırmak için ana araç olarak kullanıldığı gözlemlenmiştir. Öğrencilerin dil öğrenme deneyimlerini etkileyen diğer bazı etkisiz uygulamalar da rapor edilmiştir.

EFL sınıflarındaki öğretimin yansıması olarak öğrencilerin dil öğrenme deneyimleri birçok açıdan rapor edilmiştir. Olumlu dil öğrenme deneyimlerinden başlayarak, öğrencilerin İngilizce derslerine nasıl dâhil oldukları ve motive oldukları rapor edildi. Bulgular ikinci olarak, öğrencilerin sınıfta ve sınıf dışında İngilizce öğrenmek için çeşitli dil öğrenme teknik ve stratejileri kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Ek olarak, İngilizce derslerinde öğrenciler arasında çeşitli etkileşim türleri, üçüncü alan olarak akran etkileşim örüntüleri altında not edilmiştir. Bu kategori altında tespit edilen bir diğer konu ise öğrencilerin derse katılmak istediklerinde karşılaştıkları sorunlar olmuştur. Bir sonraki durum ise düşük öğrenci katılımı ve motivasyonu alt kategorisi öğrencilerin İngilizce derslerinde dersten kopmalarına neden olan çeşitli yönleri göstermiştir. Bu okulda İngilizce derslerinde öğrencilerin kazandıkları çeşitli cesaretlendirici deneyimlerin aksine, bazı olumsuz deneyimler de ortaya çıkmıştır. Bazı öğrenciler İngilizce öğrenirken çeşitli teşvik edici teknikler ve stratejiler kullansa da, daha düşük akademik başarı gösteren birkaç kişinin İngilizce derslerinde tatmin edici olmayan dil öğrenme teknikleri ve stratejileri kullandıkları gözlemlenmiştir. Sınıf düzeyindeki öğretimden kaynaklanan diğer bazı sorunlar da rapor edilmiştir.

3.2.4. Ölçme Ve Değerlendirme Politikasının Uygulanması

Bir öğretim politikasının çok önemli bir parçası olan ölçme ve değerlendirme bu tema altında ele alınmıştır. Bu okulda İngilizce dersinin ölçme ve değerlendirmesine ilişkin talimatların nasıl gerçekleştirildiği incelenmiştir.

Bulgular, bu düzenlemelerin bir devlet lisesinde hayata geçirilmesine ışık tutmuştur; geleneksel ve alternatif değerlendirme prosedürleri, ayrıca değerlendirmenin dil öğretimi ve dil öğrenme uygulamaları üzerindeki etkisi tespit edilmiştir.

Değerlendirme düzenlemelerinin hayata geçirilmesine ilişkin olarak, politika belgelerinde yer alan yönergelere genel olarak uyulduğu görülmüştür. Politika, ölçme ve değerlendirme açısından hayata geçirilirken, ana politika aktörleri olarak İngilizce öğretmenlerinin kritik rolü tespit edilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin dil değerlendirme bilgilerinin öğrenci başarısını nasıl etkilediği ve konuşma sınavı gibi bazı değerlendirme uygulamalarında yaptıkları değişiklikler bu tema altında sunulmuştur.

Değerlendirme politikası uygulamasının bir parçası olarak oluşturulan ikinci alan, geleneksel değerlendirme prosedürleriydi. Bu değerlendirme araçları kalem-kağıt sınavları, sözlü sınav ve öğretmen gözlemi olmak üzere üç aşamalıydı. Bu okulda İngilizce öğretimine yönelik ölçme ve değerlendirme uygulamaları açısından tartışılan bir diğer alan da performansa dayalı değerlendirme prosedürleriydi. Bulgular, sınıf içi performansa dayalı değerlendirme görevleri (örn. bir paragraf yazma, bir diyalogu canlandırma) ve sınıf dışı ödevler (örn. video kaydetme) gibi çeşitli değerlendirme uygulamaları sunmuştur.

Son olarak, değerlendirmeye dayalı öğretim ve öğrenme, ölçme ve değerlendirme uygulamalarının sınıf düzeyindeki dil öğretimi ve öğrenme uygulamaları üzerindeki önemli etkisini ortaya koymuştur. Öğretmenlerin öğretim uygulamalarının ağırlıklı olarak sınav odaklı olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Öğrencilerle ilgili olarak ise, değerlendirmenin geri tepme etkisi ortaya çıktı; hem pozitif hem de negatif geri dönüş bildirilmiştir.

4. TARTIŞMA VE SONUÇ

Bu bölümde, bulgular şu başlıklar altında tartışılmaktadır: 1) hedeflenen öğretime karşı gerçekleşen öğretim, 2) tepeden inme politika uygulaması, 3) politikanın gerçekleşmesinde öğretmen inançlarının önemi, 4) dil öğrenenler ve dil öğrenme uygulamaları ve 5) öğretim politikasının uygulanmasındaki zorluklar. İlk başlık, genel olarak, ana araştırma sorusunu İngilizce öğretimi için öğretim politikası uyumu açısından yanıtlamaya çalışırken, diğer dört başlık, hedeflenen ve gerçekleşen öğretim arasındaki farklılığı etkileyen faktörlere ve bu tutarsızlığın arkasındaki gerekçelere odaklanmaktadır.

Araştırma bulguları ışığında, İngilizce öğretimi açısından politika ve uygulama arasındaki uyumun çeşitli nedenlerle sağlanamadığı sonucuna varılabilir. Her şeyden önce, hedeflenen öğretimin temel özellikleri, CLT'nin öğrenci merkezli ve biraz eklektik teorik temeli içerdiği göz önüne alındığında (Harmer, 2007; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), CLT'yi önde gelen metodoloji olarak teşvik etmiştir. Gerçekleştirilen öğretimin, hedeflenen öğretimin özellikleriyle, yani öğrenci merkezli yaklaşım, teknoloji kullanımı, değerlendirme ve iletişimsel yaklaşım gibi çeşitli özellikleri ile karşılaştırılması, sınıf düzeyinde öğretme ve öğrenme uygulamalarında CLT eksikliğini ortaya çıkarmıştır. Aynı şekilde, yerel ve uluslararası bağlamlardaki uygulama araştırmaları, iletişimsel İngilizce öğretimine ilişkin politika ve uygulama arasındaki çelişkiyi rapor etmektedir (Başok, 2020; Butler, 2011; Hamid ve Honan, 2012; Kırkgöz, 2007a, 2007b; Wang, 2006; Yoon, 2019).

İkincisi, esas olarak Türk eğitim bağlamında politikanın tepeden inme, merkezi yapılanması nedeniyle, politikanın bazı niyetleri politika yukarıdan aşağıya doğru uygulanırken belirsiz hale geldi. Bu da, politika ve uygulama arasındaki uyum eksikliğine katkıda bulundu. Bu bağlamda, bu çalışmanın bulguları Bamgbose'nin (2004) "düşük düzeyde uygulananlar genellikle daha yüksek düzeyde öngörülenden farklıdır" (s. 61) iddiasını desteklemektedir. Örnek olarak, makro düzeydeki politika belgeleri, sınıfların öğrencilerin yabancı dil

yeterlilik seviyelerine göre düzenlenmesi için bir öneri içeriyordu. Ancak, karma yetenekli çok düzeyli sınıfların gerçekliği değişmeden kaldı ve bu, sınıf düzeyindeki öğretme ve öğrenme uygulamalarında sorunlara neden oldu.

Üçüncüsü, önde gelen mikro politika aktörleri olarak İngilizce öğretmenlerinin inançları, algıları ve tutumları, sınıf düzeyindeki öğretim uygulamalarında itici bir güç haline geldi, bu da politikanın bazı gerekçelerle amaçlarına ulaşmasına ve aynı zamanda diğer başka gerekçelerle politika ve uygulama arasında bir boşluğa neden oldu. İngilizce öğretmenlerinin öğretime ilişkin bilgi temeli, bu okuldaki karar verme ve öğretim uygulamalarının temel dayanağıydı. Okuduğunu anlama becerilerine ve ilgili etkinliklere karşı olumlu tutumları olduğu için, İngilizce derslerinde okuma becerileri çalışması çok daha fazla gözlenmiştir. Bununla birlikte, grup çalışması gibi diğer yönlere karşı olumsuz tutumları, politika ve uygulama arasındaki uyum eksikliğine katkıda bulunmuştur. Benzer şekilde, Atta (2015), politika ve uygulama boyutunu farklı politika aktörlerinin bakış açısından incelemiş ve politikanın okul düzeyinde uygulanmasında öğretmenlerin algılarının önem kazandığını bildirmiştir.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, İngilizce öğretmenleri dışında daha az görünür mikro politika aktörleri olarak dil öğrenenlerin, politikanın gerçekleştirilmesini bazen tatmin edici, bazen de cesaret kırıcı şekillerde etkileyen rolünü göstermiştir. Bu bağlamda öğretim politikasının gerçekleştirilmesinde öğrencilerin katkısı görülmektedir. Bu yön, dil politikası ve planlaması araştırmalarında ve müfredat araştırmalarında öğrenci aktörlüğü (yani harekete geçme kapasitesi) üzerine yükselen argümanlarla paraleldir (Manyukhina & Wyse, 2019; Vennela & Kandaharaja, 2021; Zhang, 2020). Bu çalışmanın bulguları, beş başlık altında gruplandırılabilecek dil öğrenen özelliklerini göstermiştir: 1) dil kullanıcıları, 2) dil öğrencileri, 3) düşük akademik başarı gösterenler, 4) en az görünen politika aktörleri olarak çok dilliler ve 5) kayıtsız öğrenciler. Dil öğrencileri motivasyonlarına, ilgilerine ve yeterlilik seviyelerine bağlı olarak çok çeşitli dil öğrenme uygulamaları sergilediler. Dil kullanıcıları olarak kategorize edilen yüksek yeterlilikteki öğrencilerden özellikle bahsetmek gerekir. Bu öğrencilerin

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İngilizce derslerinde ve ders dışında dil öğrenme uygulamaları ve birkaç dil öğrencisinin dil öğrenme çabaları ile çok dilli öğrenciler ve onların İngilizce derslerinde sergiledikleri hayatta kalma becerileri, öğretim politikasının sınıf düzeyinde başarılı bir şekilde gerçekleştirilmesinde dil öğrenenlerin gücünü göstermiştir. Öte yandan, kayıtsız öğrenciler gibi bazı düşük yeterlilikteki öğrenciler, öğretmenler arasında motivasyon kaybına katkıda bulunmuş ve politika ile uygulama arasındaki tutarsızlığa neden olan birkaç cesaret kırıcı uygulama sergilemişlerdir.

Son olarak, hem İngilizce öğretmenleri hem de öğrenciler, politikanın okul düzeyinde uygulanmasında çeşitli zorluklarla karşılaştı. Bazen okul yönetiminin tutumlarından etkilenmişlerdir; bazense okulun kendisini çevreleyen bağlama özgü gerçekler yaşanan zorluklara katkıda bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, esas olarak politikanın kendisinden kaynaklanan birkaç zorluk ortaya çıkmıştır. Öğretim politikasının hedefleri, öğrencilerin B1 olarak algılanan dil yeterlilikleri ile birkaç öğrencinin B1'den düşük olan gerçek dil yeterlilikleri arasındaki fark gibi zorluklara yol açmıştır. Benzer şekilde, Coşkun-Demirpolat (2015) Türkiye'de yabancı dil eğitimi sınıfların kalabalık olması, öğretmen eğitimiyle ilgili ikilemler ve politikanın kendisi gibi çeşitli sorunlara dikkat çekmiştir.

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