REPUBLIC OF TURKEY

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE PERCEPTIONS OF TURKISH ELT PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS AND LECTURERS ON THE LEARNING AND TEACHING OF ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILLS

EMRULLAH DAĞTAN

PhD. DISSERTATION

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- Bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu,

bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi beyan ederim. 10/02/2020

İMZA

Emrullah DAĞTAN

ÖZET

TÜRKİYE'DEKİ İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENİ ADAYLARININ VE BU BÖLÜMLERDE ÇALIŞAN ÖĞRETİM ELEMANLARININ İNGİLİZCE KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNİN ÖĞRENİMİ VE ÖĞRETİMİ İLE İLGİLİ GÖRÜŞLERİ ÜZERİNE İNCELEME

EMRULLAH DAĞTAN

Doktora Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Neşe CABAROĞLU

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Dünyada ikinci dil olarak en çok öğrenilen dil olan İngilizceyi konuşabilmek; akademik kariyerde yükselme, kişisel gelişimi destekleme ve iş hayatında terfi kazanma gibi süreçler için gereken ve modern dünyanın her alanında bu dili konuşabilen kişilerin ufuklarını genişleten önemli bir ihtiyaçtır. Ancak, İngilizce'nin Türkiye'deki ulusal popülaritesine rağmen ve bu dilin Türkiye'deki yabancı dil statüsünden dolayı, insanların konuşma İngilizcesindeki yeterlilik düzeylerinin kabul edilebilir bir seviyenin altında olduğu birçok çalışma tarafından ortaya konmuştur (örn. TEPAV, 2013; Dinçer ve Yeşilyurt, 2013; Zok, 2010). Bu çalışmalarda ayrıca söz konusu sorunun çözümü için yapılan girişimlerin ve yasal düzenlemelerin İngilizceyi konuşan kişilerde kabul edilebilir bir yeterlilik düzeyi oluşturma konusunda başarısız kaldığı açıkça ortaya konmuştur. Bunların sonucu olarak, bu çalışmalarda İngilizce konuşabilmek, Türkiye'de ulusal boyutta ciddi bir sorun olarak görülmektedir.

Bu çalışma iki aşamada geçekleştirilmiştir. Çalışmanın temelini oluşturan birinci aşamanın amacı, Türkiye'deki İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümlerinde çalışan öğretim üye/elemanlarının ve bu bölümlerde okuyan son sınıf öğrencilerinin bu sorun ile ilgili görüşlerini ve çözüm önerilerini araştırarak sorunun altında yatan nedenlerine ışık tutmak ve sorunun ulusal boyutunu ortaya koyacak kapsamlı sonuçlar elde etmektir. Bu amaçla, birinci aşamada, Türkiye'nin yedi bölgesinin her birindeki en gelişmiş İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümündeki öğretim elemanları ve son sınıf öğrencilerinin görüşleri anket çalışması (34 öğretim üye/elemanı ve 361 son sınıf öğrencisi) ve yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme (38 öğretim üye/elemanı ve 48 son sınıf öğrencisi) yoluyla toplanmıştır. İkinci aşamanın amacı ise İngiliz Dili Eğitimi programının birinci yılında öğretilen Sözlü İletişim

Becerileri adlı dersi yeni almış olan öğrencilerin ve öğretim üye/elemanlarının bu dersin öğrencilerin İngilizce konuşma becerilerinin gelişimine olan katkıları ve derste yaşanan sorunlar ile çözüm önerileri hakkındaki ‘daha yeni’ görüşlerini elde etmekti. Bir ‘vaka çalışması’ olarak tasarlanan ikinci aşamada, 6 birinci sınıf öğrencisiyle odak grup görüşmesi ve dersi veren öğretim elemanı ile yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme yapılarak katılımcıların görüşleri elde edilmiştir. İki aşamada elde edilen nicel ve nitel veriler üçgenleme (triangulation) yöntemiyle sentezlenerek çalışmanın ortak bulguları elde edilmiştir.

Elde edilen bulgular ışığında Türkiye’deki İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümlerinde İngilizce konuşma becerilerinin öğretimi ve öğrenimi ile ilgili önemli sonuçlar elde edilmiştir. Öncelikle, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi bölümlerindeki öğretim üye/elemanları ile öğrencilerin İngilizce konuşma becerilerini oldukça önemli gördükleri ve bu becerileri sadece kendileri için değil uluslararası alanlarda söz sahibi olmak isteyen Türk vatandaşları için de önemli gördükleri ortaya çıkmıştır. İkinci olarak, telaffuz eğitiminin de hem öğretim üye/elemanları hem de öğrenciler için önemli olduğu ve bu eğitimin öğrenciler için olumlu sonuçlar doğurduğu ve özellikle kritik yaşın bitiminden önceki dönemlerde verildiğinde daha faydalı sonuçlar doğurabileceği anlaşılmıştır. Üçüncü olarak, hem öğretim üye/elemanları hem de son sınıf ve birinci sınıf öğrencilerinden elde edilen bulgular; İngiliz Dili Eğitimi programına yeni başlayan öğrencilerin ilk birkaç hafta boyunca sınıfta konuşulan İngilizceye adapte olmak için çabaladıkları zorlayıcı bir dönemden geçtiklerini ve bunun sebebinin de öğrencilerin bu bölüme gelmeden önce konuşma İngilizcesine çok nadiren veya hiç maruz kalmamış olmamaları olduğunu göstermiştir. Son olarak, öğretim üye/elemanları ile son sınıf öğrencilerinin görüşleri arasında önemli farklar olduğu anlaşılmıştır. Bu hususta, öğretim üye/elemanlarının son sınıf öğrencilerine kıyasla kendilerini daha yetkin, daha özgüvenli, daha tecrübeli, daha kıvançlı hissettikleri ve İngilizce konuşurken hata yapmaktan daha az koktukları görülmüştür. Bu bulgular ışığında, çalışmanın sonunda İngiliz Dili Eğitimi öğrencileri ve öğretim üye/elemanları ile karar vericiler için sonuçlar elde edilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: İngilizce, konuşma becerisi, problem, öğretim üyesi, öğrenci

ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE PERCEPTIONS OF TURKISH ELT PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS AND LECTURERS ON THE LEARNING AND TEACHING OF ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILLS

EMRULLAH DAĞTAN

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Mastery in speaking English, the language learned as the most common second language in the world, is a crucial prerequisite for various processes, such as advancing in an academic career, facilitating personal development, and gaining professional promotion, thus widening the speakers' horizons in every phase of the modern world. Notwithstanding the nationwide popularity of English and due to the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) status of English in Turkey, proficiency in spoken English among Turkish nationals has been documented to be far from satisfactory by a large body of literature (e.g. TEPAV, 2013; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; Zok, 2010). In all these studies, it has been clearly indicated that the attempts and legal arrangements that are aimed to ameliorate this situation have apparently proven unsuccessful, as far as an acceptable level of competence is concerned. As a result, in these studies, speaking English has been portrayed as a serious national challenge for Turkish speakers of English.

The present study was conducted in two phases. The aim of the first phase, which formed the backbone of the study, was to investigate the perceptions of ELT lecturers and pre-service teachers working/studying in Turkish ELT departments regarding these problems and their suggested solutions, in attempts to provide a nationwide portrayal for the problem in question. To this end, the first phase included pre-service teachers and lecturers studying/working at seven ELT departments, with one department from each of the seven geographical regions in Turkey, who were surveyed via a questionnaire (34 lecturers and 361 pre-service teachers) and a semi-structured interview (38 lecturers and 48 pre-service teachers). The aim of the second phase, on the other hand, was to elicit the 'fresher' perceptions of first-year ELT students and a lecturer who had recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding the contributions of the course

to students' improvement in English skills and the problems encountered in class regarding English speaking skills and their suggested solutions. Designed as a 'case study', the second phase consisted of a focus group interview conducted with a group of six first-year students and a semi-structured interview with one lecturer. The quantitative and qualitative data obtained in two phases were amalgamated using the triangulation method.

The findings derived from the triangulated data revealed several important outcomes regarding the teaching and learning of English speaking skills in the Turkish ELT departments. First and foremost, it was revealed that both ELT students and lecturers attributed remarkable importance to English speaking skills and considered that speaking English was highly important not only for themselves but also for Turkish nationals aiming to become international. Secondly, it was understood that pronunciation instruction was also highly important for both pre-service teachers and lecturers who also contended that this instruction led to beneficial outcomes for the learners and could be more beneficial when delivered at a young age before the end of the critical age. Thirdly, it was made clear not only by the pre-service teachers and the lecturers but also by the first-year students that during the first several weeks of the ELT instruction, the ELT students (i.e. freshmen) underwent a formidable period in which they strived to adapt to the spoken English they were exposed to in class, due to the fact that these freshmen had rarely or never been exposed to spoken English before coming the ELT department. The final conclusion drawn from the data was that there were noticeable differences between the perceptions of lecturers and pre-service teachers, whereby lecturers were found to feel more competent, more confident, more experienced, more proud, and less afraid of making mistakes/errors when speaking English compared to pre-service teachers. In light of these conclusions, several implications were formulated for ELT students and lecturers and also for policymakers.

Keywords: English, speaking, skill, lecturer, pre-service teacher

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

B.A. **:** Bachelor of Arts

EF EPI **:** Education First English Proficiency Index

EFL **:** English as a Foreign Language

EIL **:** English as an International Language

EMI **:** English-medium instruction

ELT **:** English Language Teaching

ENL **:** English as a Native Language

ESL **:** English as a Second Language

IELTS **:** International English Language Testing System

K-12 **:** The school system from kindergarten through twelfth grade

M.A. **:** Master of Arts

METU **:** Middle-East Technical University

ÖSS **:** Yükseköğretime Öğrenci Seçme Sınavı (meaning, *Higher Education Student Selection Exam*)

PhD. **:** Doctor of Philosophy

TEPAV **:** Türkiye Ekonomi Politikaları Araştırma Vakfı (meaning, *The Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey*)

TOEFL **:** Test of English as a Foreign Language

YDS **:** Yabancı Dil Sınavı (meaning, *Foreign Language Examination*)

YDT **:** Yabancı Dil Testi (meaning, *Foreign Language Test*)

YÖK **:** Yükseköğretim Kurumu (meaning, *The Turkish Council of Higher Education*)

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This introductory chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, and the aims, research questions, and significance of the study.

1.2. Background to the study

Mastery in speaking a foreign language is a crucial prerequisite for various processes, such as advancing in an academic career, facilitating personal development, gaining professional promotion, attaining prestige and so on (Richards, 2008, p. 19). More importantly, proficiency in speaking English, the language learned as the most common second language in the world (Crystal, 1989, 2003; Brown, 2001; G. Cook, 2003), provides numerous opportunities for its speakers, thus widening their horizon in every phase of the modern world. This being the case, speakers of English—they be natives or non-natives—are endowed with a global power to disseminate their feelings and thereby materialize their innate need of communication by using English within social discourses—something that would be otherwise challenging particularly for the native speakers of other languages (Wierzbicka, 2006). Additionally, mastery in communicating in English is likely to have positive contributions to a country's economic development by significantly augmenting its capacity (Phillipson, 2012; TEPAV, 2013). This, in turn, portrays English as a potent instrument by which its speakers—along with their nations—can go beyond mere communication and engage in multifaceted transactions to attain cross-border achievements in their professional activities and transactions.

In Turkey, English became the most popular second language in the 1950s, mainly as a result of the growingly overwhelming influence of the economic and military power diffused by the USA. Over time, English gradually became more pervasive and even indispensable beginning from the 1980s owing to Turkey's growing need for establishing international affairs to keep up with the globalisation processes as well as technological advancements in the world. Notwithstanding, rather than becoming a second language (i.e. English as a second language [ESL]), English has since remained as a foreign language (i.e. English as a foreign language [EFL]), in the sense that it has never been

adopted as an official language or the primary medium of instruction at a national scale. Inarguably, Turkish language has been—and still is—the primary language and also the sole lingua franca in Turkey. Nonetheless, English has inevitably been adopted as a useful and enjoyable means of communication in Turkey, particularly among the youth who employ it mainly for reaching out to the outer world. Additionally, English has also been adopted by mass media in Turkey, to the extent that some Turkish newspapers have English-language coverage or even stand-alone versions. In line with these developments, proficiency in English has become a required qualification in job applications in Turkey, mainly as a result of the growing ubiquity of internet access and the need for establishing international ties as aforementioned (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998; Acar, 2004). Based on these remarks, it is safe to consider that English, particularly the spoken form, is a crucial asset for Turkish nationals who are—or need to—engage in international transactions such as communication, commerce, tourism, and so on.

As for the importance of English, particularly spoken English, in the teaching and learning contexts, English has become a major medium of instruction at tertiary level in Turkey, particularly in private universities, and has gradually become prominent in line with the policy changes aligned with the globalization efforts of Turkey (Arık and Arık, 2018; Alptekin and Tatar, 2011). In the remaining Turkish-medium universities and tertiary programs, English is delivered as a required course or as a one-year preparatory class program. In lower levels (i.e. primary and secondary education), however, English instruction begins in early primary school grades and is decisively continued through the end of the secondary education (i.e. high school), and in a similar way to tertiary education, English is designated as the medium of instruction particularly in private schools both in primary and secondary levels (Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıltepe, 2005). However, the specific emphasis placed on spoken English within the primary and secondary education systems in Turkey (i.e. K-12) embraces both short- and long-term goals. The immediate goals are to raise learners' awareness and motivation towards learning English and also to help them develop positive attitudes towards English while long-term goals are to help learners to develop appropriate strategies for achieving effective speaking in English (Kırkgöz, 2007).

1.3. Statement of the problem

Despite the nationwide popularity of English and as a corollary of its EFL status in Turkey, proficiency in spoken English among Turkish nationals has been documented to be far from satisfactory by a large body of literature (see TEPAV, 2013; Dinçer and Yeşilyurt, 2013; Zok, 2010). What is worth noting in all these studies is that the attempts and legal arrangements that are aimed to ameliorate this situation have apparently proven unsuccessful, as far as an acceptable level of competence is concerned. As a result, speaking English is portrayed in these studies as a serious national challenge for Turkish speakers of English despite its indispensability.

This challenge has also been reflected by a worldwide index which is regularly published on a yearly basis, known as Education First (EF) English Proficiency Index (EPI). EF EPI was first launched in 2011 and systematically benchmarks the proficiency levels of non-native English-speaking countries based on the overall exam results elicited from an online test taken by the citizens of those countries. Moreover, EF EPI grades the proficiency levels of the countries as 'very high proficiency', 'high proficiency', 'moderate proficiency', 'low proficiency', and 'very low proficiency', and has been steadily developed with regard to not only the number of countries involved but also the variety of analyses conducted based on the exam results (see EF EPI: https://www.ef.com/epi/). Throughout the 9-year period thus far, Turkey has been involved into all the nine issues published by EF EPI (Table 1):

Table 1

Turkey's Ranking on EF EPI over the Period 2011-2019

Year	Score	Rank	Total Country	Category
2011	37.66	43	44	Very low proficiency
2012	51.19	32	54	Low proficiency
2013	49.52	41	60	Low proficiency
2014	47.80	47	63	Very low proficiency
2015	47.62	50	70	Very low proficiency
2016	47.89	51	72	Very low proficiency
2017	47.79	62	80	Very low proficiency
2018	47.17	73	88	Very low proficiency
2019	46.81	79	100	Very low proficiency

Note. EF: Education First, EPI: English Proficiency Index

As seen in Table 1, the score calculated for Turkey has been in a constant decline between the years 2012 and 2019 despite minimal improvements between the years 2015 and 2016. Additionally, although the score for Turkey corresponded to 'low proficiency' in the years 2012 and 2013, it has unswervingly corresponded to 'very low proficiency' over the period between 2014 and 2019 (see EF EPI reports 2011-2019).

This low achievement, according to some scholars (e.g. Doğançay-Aktuna and Kızıltepe, 2005; Kırkgöz, 2007; Zok, 2010), is considered to arise from the confinement of the learning of English to formal education settings rather than to the social environments where English is naturally acquired, as in ESL contexts. In all educational settings in Turkey, English is provided as a required course, where English is portrayed as a course to be achieved to meet the graduation criteria rather than a target language to be learned (Kırkgöz, 2007). As a corollary of this, according to Koru and Akesson (2011), the Turkish education system fails to encourage learners to attain favourable English skills due to several reasons including inadequate public funding, lack of quality textbooks to be used in English courses (p. 3). This failure, in turn, according to TEPAV (2015), decreases students' progress in speaking skills in the short term and reduces their confidence and willingness to participate in class discussion or debate in the long term.

This nationwide problem has also been addressed in some previous studies as well. TEPAV (2013), for instance, administered a nationwide survey to examine the status quo of the teaching and learning of English within the K-12 grades in Turkey, in attempts to elicit an insight into the competence of the students in spoken English and their attitudes towards English speaking skills. The study surveyed a total of 19,380 students at grades 5-12 from 13 cities and a total of 1,394 parents from 12 cities across Turkey. The survey did not only probe participants' attitudes towards the teaching and learning of English but also their socioeconomic status and students' perceived competence levels in English. The study concluded that the situation is far worse than what is actually being perceived as rather optimistic and that there is an urgent need for radical amendments in foreign language teaching policies. Some other studies elicited similar outcomes though they examined the subject matter at a single institution and/or region (e.g. Kondal, 2009; Yal, 2011; Gökdemir, 2010). Kondal (2009) sought to find out why foreign language speaking skills are less developed when compared to other skills and proposed that this phenomenon could be attributed to several factors including the use of inappropriate coursebooks, lack of emphasis on communication, incapacity of the teachers in motivating the students by creating an inviting classroom environment, and lack of

positive feedback. Additionally, Yal (2011) argued that despite the huge number of hours and classes and the large investments dedicated to English within the scope of the Turkish education system, proficiency in spoken English remains a serious challenge for Turkish nationals, particularly among the professionals recruited in academic and technology-related sectors. Another study by Gökdemir (2010) evaluated the preparatory class education provided in Turkish universities and contended that the curriculum implemented in these classes was heavily dependent on theory (e.g. grammatical knowledge) and thus ignored practical or oral development of the students and that the education process was overwhelmingly teacher-centred and thus the students had little or no chance of performing speaking throughout the lessons. On the other hand, drawing upon the low achievement of Turkey on EF EPI, Demirpolat (2015) contended that there are several problems to consider regarding the teaching of English speaking skills in Turkey including inadequate training provided to pre-service English teachers, unbalanced employment of English teachers, physical and technical inadequacies related to the teaching/learning environment, use of non-authentic class materials such as textbooks, and lack of in-service training for English teachers. As made clear by all these studies, speaking English, in a general sense, is a prevailing problem in Turkey that is closely associated with the drawbacks induced by the foreign language education policy embedded in the wider education system implemented in Turkey.

In a related manner, the learning of English speaking skills in Turkish English Language Teaching (ELT) departments has also been shown to be imperfect as far as the curricular targets of ELT education are considered. Nergis (2011) proposed that the ELT departments in Turkey "do not seem to depend on a well-thought and well-formed philosophical basis" both at pre-service and in-service levels (p. 184). In similar vein, Güney (2010) focused on the causes of speaking problems among the students at a single ELT department and contended that the causes of speaking problems are associated with insufficient language proficiency, content knowledge, and materials and methods used for teaching English. Kırkgöz (2009) and Akdoğan (2010) surveyed both students and teachers at ELT departments and claimed that both students and teachers believe that ELT training has major drawbacks that need to be ameliorated through scientific measures. Moreover, Arslan (2013) and Dinçer and Yeşilyurt (2013) evaluated the learning and teaching of English speaking skills at various ELT departments and concluded that speaking English remains a challenging activity for pre-service teachers and that the participants feel incompetent in speaking English although they have different

motivational orientations to improve their competence. Similarly, Savaşçı (2014) investigated the reasons as to why the students are reluctant to use L2 in ELT speaking classes and elicited several factors that were found to hinder the communicative competence of the students, including anxiety, fear of being despised, teacher strategy, and culture. Based on the findings of the previous studies exemplified thus far, the present study aimed to shed light on the underlying causes of these problems by eliciting the perceptions of ELT lecturers and pre-service teachers in seven state universities in Turkey and their suggested solutions, in attempts to provide a nationwide portrayal for the problems in question.

1.4. Purpose and research questions

The principal aim of this study was to investigate the perceptions of pre-service teachers, first-year students, and lecturers studying/working at Turkish ELT departments on the learning/teaching situations of English speaking skills at these departments, in attempts to depict a portrayal of the problems, perceptions, needs, and their solutions to be proposed by the participants. To this end, the following research questions were asked:

1. What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

2. What are the perceptions of lecturers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

3. What are the perceptions of first-year students who have recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding;
   a) the contribution of the course to their competence in spoken English?
   b) the problems they encountered in class (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

4. What are the perceptions of the lecturer who has recently delivered a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding;

a) the contribution of the course to the students' competence in spoken English?
b) the problems encountered (if any) when teaching English speaking skills?
c) his solutions to the problems?

1.5. Significance of the study

An extensive literature review spanning over the last several decades has indicated that there has been no study at a national scale to investigate the situation of English speaking skills in Turkey exclusively at the tertiary level. In this sense, this study will be the first report to delve into the English speaking skills at the ELT departments in Turkey (i.e. the primary source of English language education within Turkish education system) by surveying pre-service teachers, first-year students, and lecturers studying/working at these departments to create a nationwide portrait of the subject matter. Additionally, the present study will also be the first study to delve into the perceptions of ELT lecturers and students about the teaching and learning of English speaking skills as well as into the contributions, problems, and suggested solutions regarding the Oral Communication Skills course, which is an ELT course specifically aimed at teaching English speaking skills as compared to other courses.

1.6. Summary

This preclusive chapter provided introductory remarks concerning the subject matter of the dissertation along with the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose and research questions of the study, and significance of the study. The ensuing chapter will provide in-depth findings and remarks pertaining to the review of relevant literature.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides background information about speaking skills, followed by the functions and subskills of speaking as well as related notions and concepts, and ultimately the status quo of the speaking skills in Turkey.

2.2. Speaking

Speaking is a ubiquitous skill exerted almost by any human capable of producing a language (Thornbury, 2005). With this skill, human beings simply interact with each other—and even with themselves at times—to fulfil their daily needs and chores, particularly in contexts where they feel the utmost need to make their inner feelings and wishes heard or comprehended by the audience (Holtgraves, 2008). In linguistic terms, however, speaking is one of the four basic skills of a language (*i.e.* speaking, listening, reading, writing) (Hinkel, 2010; Brown, 2001). As a multifaceted skill, speaking bears close ties with multiple disciplines including sociology, psychology, applied linguistics, neurology or educational sciences (Pawlak, Waniek-Klimczak, and Majer, 2011). Speaking also encompasses a number of distinctive features that exist with other skills (i.e. the remaining three linguistic skills—reading, writing, and listening) in a relatively limited fashion (Luoma, 2009):

- Composed of idea units (conjoined short phrases and clauses)
- May be planned (e.g., a lecture) or unplanned (e.g., a conversation)
- Employs more vague or generic words than written language
- Employs fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers
- Contains slips and errors reflecting online processing
- Involves reciprocity (i.e., interactions are jointly constructed)
- Shows variation (e.g., between formal and casual speech), reflecting speaker roles, speaking purpose, and the context (pp. 9-13)

These features become discernible in the smaller units of spoken language known as *utterance* (Luoma, 2009, p. 20). Utterances are known as the ‘spoken counterpart of written sentences’ (Thornbury, 2005, p. 2) and can be produced as part of either a monologue or a dialogue depending on the context given (Brown, 2001, p. 269). In spoken interactions, speakers produce numerous utterances in a given conversation for

various purposes including engaging in social communications with other people, establishing rapport, participating in discussions, and expressing opinions (Richards and Renandya, 2002). However, when producing these utterances, speakers employ a number of elements known as 'functions' and 'constituents' of speaking, which are interchangeably required while performing spoken interactions (Richards, 2008, p. 21). These functions and constituents are elaborated in the following sections.

2.2.1. Functions of speaking

A language function is "a purpose you wish to achieve when you say or write something" (Harmer, 2007b, p. 76). This purpose can be apologizing, requesting, offering, and so on. In linguistic terms, however, these purposes are grouped into three distinct functions as *interaction, transaction,* and *performance*, depending on the overlapping similarities attributed to each of them (Goh and Burns, 2012, p. 170; Richards, 2008, p. 21; Brown and Yule, 1999, pp. 10-11; Richards, 1995, p. 68). These three functions are elucidated in the following sections in detail.

2.2.1.1. Interaction

The interaction aspect of speaking, which is also named 'interpersonal function' by Nunan (2013, p. 185), refers to the conversation taking place between/among the interlocutors in a communication model and specifically draws on the use of language for social purposes (Thornbury, 2005, p. 1; Ellis and Shintani, 2014, p. 194). The explicit use of this function is the foremost entity that a speaker is subjected to even when he/she is probed the well-known question, "*Do you speak … (language)?*" (Brown, 2001, p. 267). Moreover, interaction is the quintessential side to speaking since the speaking activity mostly occurs in the form of face-to-face interactions (Thornbury, 2005). From these notions, it follows that interaction is somewhat the showcase of speaking, through which speakers go beyond mere conversations and engage in complex exchange of views and ideas.

2.2.1.2. Transaction

The second function, transaction, is mainly concerned with "getting a task or a job done" in daily life situations and chores (Goh and Burns, 2012, p. 170). These situations commonly include an exchange of goods and services such as "classroom group

discussions and problem-solving activities, a class activity during which students design a poster, discussing computer repairs with a technician, and discussing sightseeing plans with a hotel clerk or tour guide" (Richards, 2008, p. 25). In addition, this function of speaking refers to the use of speaking for conveying messages and information in appropriate contexts (Brown and Yule, 1999, p. 11). These remarks clearly indicate that the transactional function of speaking is embedded in daily-life interactions that specifically involve an action of accomplishing a task or a job or of transmitting a piece of information or message, in which the speakers may interact either with a complete stranger or someone they are acquainted with (Brown, 2001, p. 270).

2.2.1.3. Performance

The third and the last function of speaking is known as performance, which distinctively refers to the public use of speaking skills, such as when performing a presentation or a lecture in front of a large audience (Richards, 2008; Harmer, 2007b). This function is also known as the 'extensive' function of speaking in that it involves high-level skills and an exhaustive preparation phase (Brown, 2001, p. 274). More to the point, in this type of speech, the core aim is to deliver a readily-prepared speech to a target community. However, due to its inherent nature, this type of a speech is more like a monologue rather than a dialogue (Richards, 2008; Brown, 2001).

Performance constitutes a part of a well-known linguistic dichotomy known as *competence vs. performance*, where the former part relates to what speakers know about and latter to what speakers actually do in the language given (Hymes, 1972, p. 271; Evans and Green, 2006, p. 111). As Duranti (1997) puts it: "[c]ompetence in this case is the knowledge of a language that an ideal speaker has …,[p]erformance instead is the implementation of that knowledge in acts of speaking" (pp. 14-15). Besides leading to heated debates, this dichotomy draws a clear line between the performance of speakers in their native/mother language (L1) as compared to their second language (L2), signifying that both competence and performance tend to be naturally more developed in L1 as compared to L2 but the performance part tends to be less developed than the competence part in L2 (Brown, 2000; Gass and Selinker, 2008; DeKeyser, 2009). Clearly then, the competence vs. performance dichotomy overtly indicates that a speaker—depending on his/her personal choice—may either have the knowledge of grammatical and lexical rules

of a language and not enact them appropriately, or may actively employ them to perform intelligible utterances in speaking-appropriate manners in a given conversation.

2.2.2. Constituents of speaking

Speakers of any given language could be perceived to be in the need of some elements to materialize the functions of speaking aforementioned. These elements are often cited as grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and communicative competence that are required to achieve a well-established speech (Richards, 2008, p. 27; Bygate, 2009, p. 415), which will be elaborated on in the following sections.

2.2.2.1. Grammar

Grammar, simply defined as "the system of rules governing the conventional arrangement relationship of words in a sentence," is a must-have element for a well-planned speech (Brown, 2001, p. 362). As a fully systematic construct, grammar places an immense amount of emphasis on the importance of 'flawlessness' or unconditional accuracy of the grammatical structures to be used in speaking, which thus bears an obvious reference to the accuracy vs. fluency dichotomy aforementioned (see Nunan, 2015, p. 54; Thornbury, 2005, p. 7). Meaningfully then, grammar intuitively requires a systematic flow of action on the part of the user. However, accurate use of grammar, as far as speaking is concerned, is challenged by some scholars (e.g. Thornbury, 2005), who advocate that it is possible to create elliptical utterances supported with no proper grammatical markers (e.g. "Coffee?") which can successfully convey the intended message in the presence of a supportive context (p. 20). Clearly then, although grammar is an indispensable element for speaking, its strict rules can be somehow infringed, on condition that the lacking parts of its message are compensated by the contextual elements.

2.2.2.2. Vocabulary

Vocabulary is regarded as a complementary element to grammar, in the sense that a well-planned speech cannot be envisaged as 'grammatical' without the integration of contextual words and/or phrases to grammatical markers (Richards and Renandya, 2002 p. 255; Goh and Burns, 2012, p. 170). Relatedly, vocabulary—by virtue of its interpersonal function—plays a pivotal role in the expression of positive and negative

appraisal (Thornbury, 2005, p. 22). Clearly then, the use of appropriate vocabulary is a prerequisite for a well-thought speech, particularly in the contexts requiring the performance function of speaking, e.g. presentations, lectures, and public announcements (Richards, 2008, p. 27).

2.2.2.3. Phonology

Phonology is a well-known constituent of speaking, particularly for the reason that the written forms of English words mostly do not correspond to the pronounced form of the words (G. Brown, 1996, p. 15: Saussure, 1959, p. 27). Phonology has been defined in several ways. Yule (2014, p. 40), for instance, defined it as "the description of the systems and patterns of speech sounds in a language" and added that phonology is concerned with the unconscious knowledge of the sound patterns of a language known by a speaker. Similarly, Brown (2001, p. 212) noted that phonology is "the most reliable linguistic category for predicting learner performance," implying that phonology is the foremost quality of a language that is promptly appraised by the listener/audience at the very beginning of the speech performed by a speaker. Additionally, Fromkin et al. (2011, p. 227) defined phonology as a linguistic field of study that "refers both to the linguistic knowledge that speakers have about the sound patterns of their language and to the description of that knowledge that linguists try to produce" and also noted that phonology is a versatile discipline:

> Phonology tells you what sounds are in your language and which ones are foreign; it tells you what combinations of sounds could be an actual word, whether it is (black) or isn't (*blick), and what combination of sounds could not be an actual word (*lbick). It also explains why certain phonetic features are important to identifying a word, for example voicing in English as in pat versus bat, while other features, such as aspiration in English, are not crucial to identifying a word, as we noted in the previous chapter. And it also allows us to adjust our pronunciation of a morpheme, for example the past or plural morpheme, to suit the different phonological contexts that it occurs in, (…) (p. 227).

What is common in all these definitions is that phonology is a scientific discipline investigating the systems and patterns related to speech sounds. As such, these definitions provide ample evidence for the intertwinement between phonology and a related term, 'pronunciation'. This close relationship is mainly concerned with the abstract *vs.* physical dichotomy of the articulation of speech sounds, where phonology deals with the abstract part and pronunciation with the physical articulation of the sounds (Yule, 2014, p. 40).

Pronunciation, therefore, is concerned with the production of the sounds used to make meaning while speaking (Yates & Zielinski, 2009, p. 11; Harmer, 2007b, p. 61).

The reflections of the close relationship between phonology and pronunciation can be seen in educational settings as well. Meaningfully, knowledge of phonology is of prime importance for pronunciation instruction since it allows the teachers to make a meaning of the sound system and the patterns of the language they instruct on and also to deal with the errors of their students related to pronunciation (Labov, 2010, p. 50; Harmer, 2015, p. 277). These errors, as suggested by Kelly (2001, p. 11), may not only inhibit classroom performance of the students but also may result in unintelligible utterances in their communication, where mispronunciation of segmentals (i.e. phonemes) or erroneous use of suprasegmentals (i.e. the distinctive features of pronunciation) such as stress or intonation can lead to serious problems for the speakers. In this sense, the quintessential elements of pronunciation known as segmentals phonemes and suprasegmentals play a vital role in achieving an intelligible pronunciation (ibid).

The term *phoneme* commonly refers to the smallest speech sound that distinguishes one word from another (*e.g. vat – fat*) (Yule, 2014, p. 40; Labov, 2010, p. 49; Roach, 2009, p. 36). Phonemes are known as the segmental elements of phonology which include consonants and vowels of any given language and are used to create different meanings in language (Hebert, 2002, p. 191). Additionally, phonemes are vital elements since they distinguish the words from each other, thereby paving the way for a correct and intelligible pronunciation (G. Brown, 1996, p. 3).

Suprasegmental elements, which are also known as 'prosodic features of language,' are crucial features of speech that apply to groups of segments, *i.e.* phonemes (Hebert, 2002, p. 188; Liddicoat and Curnow, 2004, p. 49; Nunan, 2015, p. 92). These elements mainly include stress, rhythm, timing, intonation, phrasing, and voice quality (Yates & Zielinski, 2009, pp. 11-14). Of these, however, intonation and stress are the most commonly studied elements in English pronunciation since they are the most important features (Kelly, 2001, p. 11; Roach, 2009, p. 44).

Intonation is another term closely associated with phonology, which refers to the rising or falling pitch of the voice in an utterance (Thornbury, 2005, p. 24; Kelly, 2001, p. 11; Roach, 2009, p. 133; Kenworthy, 1988, p. 19). Moreover, as Harmer (2007b) noted, intonation is 'the music of speech' since the rising or falling pitch of the voice may lead to a meaning change in the message transmitted in the utterance (e.g., the intonation of the word '*Yes*' may mean *'I agree*', *'Perhaps it's true'*, *'You can't be serious'*, or *'Wow, you*

are so right' depending on the rising or falling pitch) (p. 61). In addition, according to G. Brown (1996), intonation has three significant functions in language:

> There have been three major traditions in describing the functions of intonation in English. One has largely associated intonation with the expression of attitudes-the 'it's not so much what he said but the way he said it' approach. One has been largely concerned with relating intonation to syntactic structures. The third has been concerned to relate intonation to the speaker's desire to signal to the listener how to treat the information contained in the utterance (p. 89).

As shown in these three functions, intonation has a major role in the transmission of the message in an utterance. Moreover, if this message involves some new information, the new information can be marked out by means of rising intonation (Thornbury, 2005, p. 24; Goodwin, 2001, p. 120). Nevertheless, Harmer (2015) stipulated that intonation is the most problematic aspect of pronunciation since some speakers cannot hear the ‘tunes’ and cannot differentiate the rising and falling patterns of pitch, and thus cautioned that the learners should not be dismayed by this difficulty and should try hard to grasp the intricate aspects of intonation by performing extensive listening activities (p. 280).

Stress, on the other hand, is another important suprasegmental element which—much like intonation—is used for conveying the intention and/or emotion of the speaker in an utterance (Hebert, 2002, p. 188). Put another way, stress refers to a prosodic feature that is deliberately used by speakers to place the prominence on the intended segment of a word or a sentence that is perceived to convey new or significant information in the utterance (Thornbury, 2005, p. 4).

These discussions provide confirmatory evidence that both intonation and stress are important elements of pronunciation in the sense that they are the hallmarks of phonology that are used to create ample indications for the new information to be emphasized within a word or a phrase.

2.2.2.4. Communicative competence

In addition to grammar, vocabulary, and phonology, speakers also need ‘communicative competence’ to get their message across appropriately in a given context (Hughes, 2011, p. 9). The term‘ communicative competence’ was first coined by Dell Hymes in the 1960s as an alternative to the term ‘competence’ proposed by Chomsky (1965) (Hymes, 1972, pp. 269-270). By coining this new term, Hymes advocated that speaking and communication cannot rely on grammatical competence alone, but rather

includes a number of subskills that refer to the behavioural aspects of language rather than the cognitive ones (ibid). These subskills have been shown to include:

- *sociocultural competence,* which is the knowledge about social concepts and the patterns of behaviour in a given speech community,
- *sociolinguistic competence,* which relates to knowing what is accepted appropriate socially and culturally by speakers of the target language,
- *genre competence,* which refers to the knowledge of genre types (e.g. chatting, job interviews, and business presentations),
- *discourse competence,* which is knowing how to coordinate and link utterances contextually,
- *pragmatic competence,* which shares a strict correlation with the field of Pragmatics and refers to the knowledge of how to adjust the message conveyed in an utterance by taking the context into consideration, and
- *strategic competence*, which is basically concerned with the ability to control a conversation which the speaker is engaged in (adapted from Thornbury, 2005, p. 11; Brown, 2001, p. 247; Lazaraton, 2001, p. 104).

In light of the information abovementioned, it could be asserted that communicative competence is an important yet elaborate constituent of speaking which is highly dependent on the other three constituents (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, phonology) by virtue of the core interplay between its subcategories and the characteristic features of each of the other three constituents.

2.2.3. Relation of speaking to other language skills

Language consists of four basic skills, i.e. speaking, listening, reading, and writing, which are divided into two major groups as productive skills (i.e. speaking and writing) and receptive skills (i.e. reading and listening) (Nunan, 2015, p. 49; Harmer, 2015, p. 297). Although these four skills are perceived to be discrete units, all of them are interrelated and interdependent as far as the learning and teaching processes are concerned (Thornbury, 2005; Brown, 2001; Hinkel, 2010). However, of these skills, speaking is regarded by some as the most important one since people who can speak a language are instinctively labelled as the speakers of that language, while the same exclusive feature would not apply to the other three skills (see Ur, 2009, p. 120). Moreover, speaking inherently precedes the other three skills when the natural order of acquisition is considered (Hinkel, 2010).

Nonetheless, despite being a separate skill, speaking is innately linked to the other three skills in various ways. To begin with, speaking and writing are both productive

skills and are used to express feelings and ideas, although they diverge from each other due to the following reasons:

- speaking is characterized by idea units that consist of shortened phrases and clauses articulated one after another with limited or no pauses and elaborated with phonological features such as intonation and stress, whereas writing consists of relatively longer and more complex sentences that are often dependent on subordinate clauses,
- speaking occurs in real-time situations with transitory effect but writing has a relatively longer effect that can be traced for a large period of time after actualization,
- since speaking often occurs in face-to-face interactions, it makes effective use of both linguistic and paralinguistic markers (e.g. nodding, whispering, and changing intonation) which cannot be utilized by the written language (adapted from Luoma, 2009, p. 12; Harmer, 2015, p. 34; Nunan, 2015, p. 49).

Listening, on the other hand, is regarded as the primary skill that provides input for the speaking skill (Richards, 2008, p. 1). Meaningfully, proficiency in speaking requires mastery in listening, particularly in appropriate contexts and settings. By performing listening activities, speakers do not only advance their pronunciation but also familiarize themselves with the regional dialects that can be highly challenging for the speakers who have not yet become acquainted with (Harmer, 2007b). Additionally, listening is highly interrelated with speaking since both of them are inherently dependent on the phonological features of language. These features are used in speaking as part of production rather than perception during listening comprehension (Harmer, 2015; Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell,, Hill, & Pincas, 2003). From these two notions, then, it is clear that no speaking activity can exist without the involvement of listening, in that both of these skills rely heavily on the intelligibility of the language forms being produced or perceived in a context given.

Reading is the other receptive skill that also provides input for the speaking skill although that input is represented in the written form. Speakers are exposed to an overwhelming amount of written texts, notes, commercials, and so forth and they turn the messages conveyed by these materials into reading activities immediately after being exposed to. Subsequently, these messages create a stockpile of input for the speakers, thereby enriching their repertoire that they can utilize for performing spoken interactions (Harmer, 2015; Thornbury, 2005).

2.2.4. Proficiency in speaking

Proficiency in speaking is defined by Bygate (2010) as "a pool of systematic resources and the ability to use them in real contexts" (p. 63). These resources may be an accumulation of the input elicited by listening, reading, and writing activities. However, although speaking is closely related to these three skills, proficiency in any of these three skills does not entail being proficient in speaking (Broughton et al., 2003). Adversely, proficiency in speaking requires more than theoretical knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, and phonology; it exclusively requires "being able to put them to use" (G. Cook, 2003, p. 41), which pertains to the three dichotomies aforementioned, i.e. competence-performance, declarative-procedural knowledge, knowing about and being able to use a language, whereby proficiency in speaking pertains exclusively to the latter ends which refer to the active use of language (i.e. performance, procedural knowledge, and being able to use language). Clearly then, proficiency in speaking is more concerned with being able to use the linguistic repertoire in an active manner rather than merely knowing the linguistic rules and forms and storing them in memory.

Proficiency in speaking is conventionally graded into several levels that commence with 'real/false beginners' and progress towards 'elementary', 'lower-/pre-intermediate', 'mid-intermediate', 'upper-intermediate', and 'advanced', respectively (Harmer, 2007b, pp. 16-17). These conventional levels, however, have been woven into a framework called the Common European Framework (CEFR), which was developed through the collaboration between the Council of Europe and the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE) (Harmer, 2015, pp. 95). The concordance of the conventional levels with those of CEFR is as follows (Figure 1):

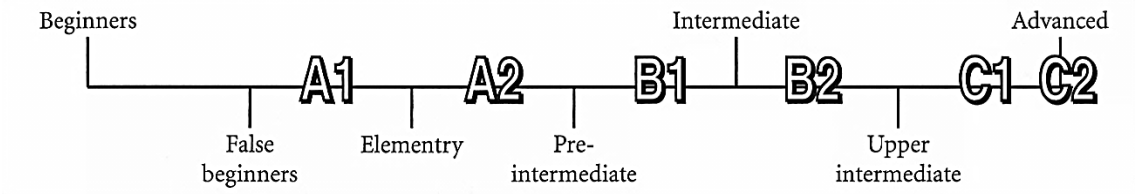


Figure 1. Concordance of conventional proficiency levels with CEFR levels (Source: Harmer, 2015, p. 95)

The CEFR classification consists of six distinct levels, each of which corresponds to a different conventional level: A1 (breakthrough or beginner), A2 (waystage or

elementary), B1 (threshold or intermediate), B2 (vantage or upper-intermediate), C1 (effective operational proficiency or advanced), and C2 (mastery or proficiency), respectively. However, what is common between these two classifications is that both of them are defined based on the 'can do' statements that are designated for each level *per se* (ibid). Meaningfully, the use of the 'can do' statements also signifies that both the conventional and CEFR levels take the procedural knowledge (i.e. performance) as the determining criteria of proficiency in speaking.

On the basis of these discussions, it seems fair to assert that proficiency in speaking requires mastery in both functions and constituents of speaking aforementioned.

2.2.5. Speaking in the mother tongue (L1) vs. target language (L2)

Speaking is the foremost language skill acquired by human beings, mainly because speaking is the most crucial element for the actualization of language (Saussure, 1959) and because language is primarily an auditory system (Sapir, 1921). Children start to articulate their first intelligible—and linguistically meaningful—sounds at around the age of two and in this way they gradually become proficient speakers by turning these primitive sounds into well-defined words and sentences (Harmer, 2007b). By way of this proficiency, the speakers naturally feel highly comfortable when speaking in L1 as compared to speaking in an L2. Accordingly, the speakers—despite undergoing the same linguistic processes with L1 while speaking in L2 (e.g. when conceptualizing, formulating, and finally articulating)—feel less comfortable and are relatively less fluent, which at times can lead to frustration or embarrassment since the speakers are challenged with the process of formulating the utterance initially in L1 and then interpreting it into L2 (Thornbury, 2005, p. 27). This distinction is made further clear by Kormos (2006):

> One of the most important differences between L1 and L2 production is that L2 learners' knowledge of the target language is rarely complete, as they often lack the language competence necessary to express their intended message in the form originally planned. Therefore, L2 speakers frequently have to make conscious efforts to overcome problems in communication, which efforts have traditionally been called communication strategies (p. xxiv)

What is obvious in this remark is that a given speaker is conceivably far less competent in L2 than in L1. In this regard, proficiency in a language is dependent on the *acquisition-learning dichotomy*, where acquisition refers to L1 and learning to L2. In linguistic terms, acquisition is defined as "acquisition means the nonconscious and

'natural' process of internalizing the rules of a language, as in first language acquisition", whereas learning is defined as "conscious, usually classroom, study, including attending to rules of grammar" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 113). As shown in these definitions, acquisition is a natural process that is not achieved through teaching, as opposed to learning which occurs mainly through education (Salzmann, Stanlaw, & Adachi (2012), p. 119). Moreover, as Harmer (2007b, p. 47) and Davies (2004, p. 440) proposed, although acquisition and learning are commonly accepted to be similar, the former one mostly refers to 'first language acquisition' and the latter to 'second language learning' since acquisition is relatively more subconscious and anxiety-free when compared to learning. More to the point, Krashen (2009) proposed that the English language teaching processes should focus on acquisition rather than learning since acquisition provides 'comprehensible input' to the learners that facilitates the understanding processes of the speakers and also advances their linguistic knowledge (p. 10). The views provided by Harmer (2007b), Davies (2004), and Krashen (2009) collectively suggest that speaking in L1 is axiomatically distinct from speaking in L2 and the differences between these two notions pave the way for the distinction of acquisition and learning.

2.2.6. Speaking in English as an L2

English is known to be the most widely learned second language in the world (Crystal, 1989; Brown, 2001; Richards, 2008; G. Cook, 2003). In association with this ubiquity, English has become a global language that has spread into numerous realms in the world such as culture, lifestyle, economy, technology, social media, and so on (Crystal, 2003; B. Kachru, Y. Kachru, & Nelson, C. L., 2006; Nunan, 2013; Broughton et al., 2003). On the other hand, English is the most common official language in the world, being spoken in forty-four countries and covering a population of 1.6 billion (Bryson, 2001, p. 173). Moreover, English is learned and studied by both children and adults in a wide range of settings in the world, including schools, colleges, and language courses (Harmer, 2015). This overwhelming ubiquity, however, has raised an important question: *How many people speak English around the world?* (ibid, p. 1). This question mainly stemmed from the 'three-circle model' developed by B. Kachru (1985), a model that consisted of three concentric circles termed *inner*, *outer*, and *expanding circles*, each of which portrayed an approximate total number of speakers for the countries covered by the circles (Figure 2):

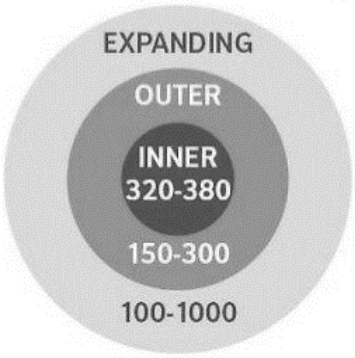


Figure 2. B. Kachru's three circles (as cited in Harmer, 2015, p. 1)

Accordingly, *the inner circle* refers to the *English as a native language* (ENL) countries where English is the national or the primary language (320-380 million) (e.g. UK, USA, Canada), *the outer circle* involves the countries where "(a) English is only one of two or more codes in the linguistic repertoire of such bilinguals or multilinguals, and (b) English has acquired an important status in the language policies of most of such multilingual nations" (150-300 million) (e.g. India, Bangladesh, Singapore), and *the expanding circle* includes the countries where English is used as an international language (100 million-1 billion) (e.g. China, Egypt, Israel) (Harmer, 2015, p. 1). However, drawing on Kachru's model, Harmer argues that these numbers are outdated since the ratio of native speakers to non-native speakers declines year by year and it is theoretically impossible to estimate even approximate numbers of speakers since there is a pervasive ambiguity as to which levels of proficiency can or should be accepted for the speakers that could be considered as eligible (p. 2). Similarly, Bryson (2001) noted that the attempts to estimate total numbers of English speakers worldwide would lead to serious problems since the status quo of English in the modern life is highly complex due to the wide variation in the use of English across the countries (pp. 173-174).

On the other hand, the three-circle model has also triggered another debate that is related to the contexts where English is spoken. Put another way, this distinction is specifically concerned with where—and in what communities—English is spoken. According to the three-circle model, English is spoken in three different contexts around the world:

- English as a native language (ENL) (e.g. the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand)

- English as a second language (ESL), (e.g. India, South Africa, Zambia, and Nigeria)
- English as a foreign language (EFL) (e.g. China, Japan, Rwanda, and Argentina) (Kamwangamalu, 2006, pp. 161-162).

As made clear in the quote above, the ENL context includes the countries where traditional linguistic origins of English exist, whereas the ESL context includes the postcolonial countries where English is in a non-native position but is widely spoken by the people in the community and the EFL context covers the countries where English is a non-native, unofficial language and is not spoken as a widespread public language (Seargeant, 2012, p. 31; Yule, 2014, p. 187). What is also clear from this model is that there is a clear-cut distinction between ENL and the other two contexts, i.e. ESL and EFL, in that ENL refers to the authentic native usage of English while the other two refer to non-native usage. Besides, the ESL and EFL contexts also diverge from each other since English is spoken—or treated—as a standard language in ESL countries, whereas it is taught as part of the curriculum in EFL countries (Pica, 2011, pp. 258-259). Nonetheless, the ESL-EFL distinction has been criticized by several authors. Nunan (2015), for instance, argued that this distinction has become problematic since English has grown to be a global English and hence called 'English as a global language' (p. 186). In the same vein, Harmer (2007a) proposed two reasons for advocating the same idea: (I) most of the nations in the world—both native and non-native—have become multilingual and they use English mainly for communication, which makes it difficult to designate them as ESL or EFL, and (II) there is a large number of EFL learners that use English for a global context rather than EFL, particularly on the internet (p. 19). Similarly, Broughton et al. (2003) postulated that there is no longer a clear-cut distinction between ESL and EFL since the ESL status of India and Sri Lanka, for example, has gradually shifted towards EFL. From these remarks, it seems obvious that the contexts where English is spoken around the world have gained a debatable status since the boundaries among these contexts, which were previously discernible (e.g. Kachru's three-circle model), have been recently and gradually blurred by the use of English in a global context.

In view of all that has been mentioned thus far, it can be concluded that speaking in English is an important asset that provides a global power for the speakers since English is spoken for communication or some other transactions such as commerce, science, and education by large numbers of people in the world, although its use and functionality is highly dependent on the context it is being spoken in, i.e. ENL, ESL, EFL, and ELF.

2.2.7. Learning L2 speaking

English is learned mainly for developing proficiency in speaking regardless of the purpose of the speech (e.g. casual or formal conversations, discussing a topic, and requesting) (Richards and Renandya, 2002, p. 201; Richards, 2006, p. 1). More to the point, mastery in speaking English is prioritized in all the language methods and approaches related to the teaching of English (Thornbury, 2005, p. 28), mainly because "learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their English course on the basis of how much they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency" (Richards, 2008, p. 19). As a result of this prioritization, learners choose to study English either because it is a required course in the curriculum or they need English to communicate with the rest of the world in multiple settings such as face-to-face communications, social media encounters, and life experiences in a different culture (Harmer, 2015; Crystal, 2003).

The term 'learning' literally refers to the knowledge or skills gained through education (Harmer, 2007b, p. 47; Davies, 2004, p. 440). However, according to Brown (2000), learning a second language is a highly demanding enterprise:

> Learning a second language is a long and complex undertaking. Your whole person is affected as you struggle to reach beyond the confines of your first language and into a new language, a new culture, a new way of thinking, feeling, and acting. Total commitment, total involvement, a total physical, intellectual, and emotional response are necessary to successfully send and receive messages in a second language. Many variables are involved in the acquisition process. Language learning is not a set of easy steps that can be programmed in a quick do-it-yourself kit. So much is at stake that courses in foreign languages are often inadequate training grounds, in and of themselves, for the successful learning of a second language (p. 1).

As can be seen from the quote above, learning a second language is a multifaceted and demanding process that affects the learners not only physically but also mentally and emotionally. In a narrower sense, however, learning the speaking skill in a second language is also highly complex as well (Ur, 2009). In effect, learners mostly learn the speaking skill for operational purposes, such as to communicate with others, to express feelings, and so forth (Broughton et al., 2003). To achieve these purposes, they try their best to attain the highest possible proficiency in speaking, in an attempt to maximize their performance in the context given (Holtgraves, 2008).

From the notions made above, it follows that the speakers who have difficulty in engaging in or commencing a spoken communication in English are highly likely to have inadequacies in the functions and constituents of speaking. However, how successful each speaker is in overcoming these difficulties is dependent on several factors that characterize the intrinsic and extrinsic capacities of the speakers when learning the functions and constituents of speaking. These factors are commonly cited as learner differences, affective factors, and external factors (Brown, 2000; 2001; Thornbury, 2005; Harmer, 2007a, 2007b, 2015; Ellis and Shintani, 2014), which will be discussed in the forthcoming sections in detail.

2.2.7.1. Learner differences

Language learners—as all other learner types—are commonly categorized as 'good' when they prove to make good progress within the course of learning process compared to their peers that are not (Nunan, 1991, p. 17). To attain that status, these learners adopt a number of favourable habits in which they:

- try to guess when they don't know something - and often succeed;
- try to get their message across even if their knowledge of the language isn't very good;
- are prepared to make mistakes;
- try to figure out how language works;
- practise whenever they can;
- analyse the way they and others talk;
- have a good self-image and confidence (Harmer, 2012, p.92; Nunan, 1991, p. 171; O'Grady, Dobrovolsky, & Katamba, 1997, p. 528).

However, to which extent each learner practises these habits depends on the unique characteristics of the learners. These characteristics may be related to their physical or cognitive profiles or to some external factors surrounding their learning environment. In linguistic terms, these parameters are grouped as sociobiographical (i.e. age, family background) and psychological (motivation, anxiety) traits of learners (Dewaele, 2007, p. 141). These traits, in turn, are collectively known as 'learner differences' which are strictly unique to each individual per se (O'Grady et al., 1997, p. 525). In the related literature, the commonly cited learner differences include:

- *Age* (i.e. the age at which learners start acquiring a language)

- *Intelligence* (i.e. a general kind of aptitude or ability that is not limited to a specific performance area but is transferable to numerous environments such as school, work, and most real-life settings)
- *Aptitude* (i.e. the ability of language learning, particularly of L2 learning in academic settings)
- *Personality* (i.e. the essential and unchanging traits of a language learner, e.g. anxious, self-confident, shy)
- *Learning styles* (i.e. personal preferences adopted by language learners when learning a language, e.g. field-independent, synthetic, levelling)
- *Learning strategies* (i.e. the thoughts and actions consciously selected by learners to assist them in learning and using language in general, and in the completion of specific language tasks, e.g. cognitive strategies, memory-related strategies) (adapted from (Tarone and Swierzbin, 2009, p. 1; Harmer, 2007a, p. 85; Ellis, 1999, p. 472; O'Grady et al., 1997, p. 525)

These differences are believed to play a key role in the success and progress of the learners throughout their educational continuum as well as their approach to learning (Tarone and Swierzbin, 2009, p. 1). In a narrower sense, however, these differences are also effective on the learning of L2 speaking, particularly in the realm of oral proficiency (Dewaele, 2007, p. 141).

2.2.7.2. Affective factors

Affective factors are different from the individual differences explicated in the previous section although they have some overlap (Leaver, Ehrman, & Shekhtman, 2005). The term 'affect' is "the general word for emotion or feelings" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 8). As such, affect is closely associated with the emotions humans adopt towards something or somebody. More to the point, in the context of language learning, affect refers to "feelings or emotional reactions about the language, about the people who speak that language, or about the culture where that language is spoken" (Gass and Selinker, 2008, p. 398). In this respect, affect contrasts with the cognitive aspect of learning (Brown, 2007, p. 153).

The factors associated with or arising from affect are known as affective factors. These factors are key elements that characterize the nature of learners' language learning processes (Kumaravadivelu, 2008). Additionally, these factors are highly effective on learners' behaviours in and out of classroom settings as well as on their success in language learning (Coleman and Klapper, 2005). Nevertheless, to what extent these factors influence L2 learning is debatable since these factors vary greatly among

individuals and are subject to continuous changes (Ellis, 1999). The affective factors that are specifically attributed to speaking have been shown to include:

- *Motivation* (i.e. a social-psychological factor frequently used to account for differential success in learning a second language)
- *Anxiety* (i.e. a sense of worry or apprehension that can get in the way when learning or using a language)
- *Affective filter* (i.e. a learner's attitudes that affect the relative success of second language acquisition, e.g. lack of motivation and self-confidence)
- *Willingness to communicate* (i.e. the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do so) (adapted from Gass and Selinker, 2008, p. 426; Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p. 33; Leaver et al., 2005, p. 93), Krashen, 2009, p. 30; Littlewood, 2004, p. 516, MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 545; 2001, p. 369).

In addition to affective factors, there are some non-personal factors that may have a remarkable effect on speakers' performance in L2 speech. These factors are known as 'external factors', which will be explicated in the forthcoming section.

2.2.7.3. External factors

Thus far, the cognitive and affective factors influencing L2 learning/acquisition processes have been elucidated. Besides these factors, however, there are several other factors that can be categorized as external factors which emanate from the sources that pertain to the entities that are inherently distant from the learners (Gass and Selinker, 2008). In the relevant literature, there are two factors categorized as external factors: culture and role of L1. Regarding the effect of culture, it is noted that when a learner learns a language, he/she unavoidably becomes acquainted with the culture of the target language. Accordingly, although some learners prefer to keep a distance from the culture of the target language and solely focuses on the functional use of that language, the other learners may have favourable attitudes towards assimilation and thus try hard to learn the culture of the target language in line with the language itself (Ellis, 1999; Barkhuizen, 2004).

As for the role of L1, it has been suggested that it is inevitable for an L2 speaker to rely on his L1 knowledge when speaking in L2, particularly when subjected to a challenging situation. In such situations, the speaker resorts to L1 in an attempt to find similarities in L1 that correspond with their counterparts in L2, in attempts to eliminate the speaking problem at that specific moment. This retrospection occurs mainly because the knowledge in L2 is often inadequate to eliminate such problems. This action, in

linguistic terms, is widely known as ‘transfer’. By transferring L1 knowledge into L2, the speaker integrates the similarities in L1 with their corresponding counterparts in L2, thereby establishing a common ground between the two languages (Ringbom and Jarvis, 2009; Gass and Selinker, 2008; Kormos, 2006).

Overall, based on the factors affecting the learning of speaking that have been expounded thus far, it wise to consider that learners have to take into account a number of factors that may have a direct or indirect influence on their progress in L2 acquisition/learning to attain success in L2 speaking. Besides learners, however, there is another group of actors (i.e. teachers) that also plays a key role in the learning of speaking skills. These actors will be explicated in the forthcoming section in detail.

2.2.8. Teaching L2 speaking

Teaching speaking has always formed the central part of ESL/EFL educations (Richards, 2008). According to Ur (2012), there are two principle goals of teaching speaking that should be applied to all speaking courses:

1. to make students actually talk a lot: Adequate time should be allowed for the learners to perform speaking in class and care should be taken to avoid excessive teacher talk and pauses.
2. to enable students use an appropriate language: Learners should be given the opportunity to speak the target language with an optimal level of pronunciation, fluency, and accuracy, to the extent that the errors do not interfere with these parameters (p. 117).

In the same vein, Goh and Burns (2012) maintained that teaching speaking is “a demanding burden for most teachers since it involves the use of several simultaneous processes (i.e. cognitive, physical and socio-cultural) and a speaker’s knowledge and skills have to be activated rapidly in real-time” (p. 166). Meaningfully, it seems clear that teaching speaking is highly challenging for the teachers in the sense that success in teaching speaking relies mainly on the teacher. As a matter of fact, a teacher is the most authoritative person in the classroom who is—or should be—in full control of multiple elements such as the learning processes of the learners as well as the sustainment of the motivation of the learners, the materials and resources to be used for the teaching processes, time management for each teaching process, the appropriateness of the context and the content chosen for teaching, and the also his/her own teaching style (Edge, 1999; Kauchak and Eggen, 2003).

As is clear from these notions, teaching is a highly demanding burden for a teacher due to the fact that the teacher is expected to be always vigilant to both the teaching and learning progress being undertaken in the classroom. However, teachers of speaking, in particular, are specifically expected to have some additional qualities. For one thing, these teachers themselves should be proficient speakers of the target language who—much like learners—have high level of mastery in both the constituents (i.e. grammar, vocabulary, phonology, and communicative competence) and the functions of speaking (i.e. interaction, transaction, and performance) and who can reflect these skills in a classroom of L2 speaking appropriately (Lazaraton, 2001; Goh and Burns, 2012). However, to what extent a teacher can fulfil these criteria is highly dependent on how successful he/she is in having the learners to perform speaking based on the linguistic forms they have been taught (ibid). Clearly then, teachers of speaking—much like learners of speaking—are likely to vary greatly since they, too, have differing contingencies and liabilities concerning the teaching of speaking. These variations have been associated with several characteristics of teachers, including teacher knowledge, teaching roles, teacher talk, and teacher identity, which will be explicated in the following sections.

2.2.8.1. Teacher knowledge

As aforementioned, L2 teachers are expected to have mastery in the knowledge types encapsulated by communicative competence (i.e. sociocultural competence, sociolinguistic competence, genre competence, discourse competence, pragmatic competence, and strategic competence). In addition to these, however, there are some knowledge types that are specifically needed by teachers who teach L2 speaking, including *content knowledge* (i.e. knowledge of purposes, target language systems, and text types), *pedagogical content knowledge* (i.e. knowing how to teach and organize teaching content and communication tools based on learners' needs), *general pedagogic knowledge* (i.e. knowledge of classroom management, ELT activities, assessment), *curriculum knowledge* (i.e. knowledge of curriculum and teaching resources), *contextual knowledge* (i.e. knowledge of learners, school), and *process knowledge* (knowledge of language analysis skills) (Shulman, 1987, pp. 9-14).

Depending on these knowledge types and considering the inherent nature of speaking, it seems safe to assert that a teacher of L2 speaking, by all means, should have a high command of all these knowledge types since teaching L2 speaking is a

multidimensional skill that requires the teacher to be in full control of the pedagogic knowledge of the subject matter as well as how to manipulate that knowledge in such a way that learners feel adequately motivated to speak the target language contextually and appropriately.

2.2.8.2. Teacher roles

The second point of differentiation among teachers is the role they assume while teaching. For Harmer (2007a), the success of a teacher in a general sense relies on how a teacher views him/herself in classroom. Accordingly, some of the teachers may see themselves as 'actors' who are always on the stage, as 'orchestral conductors' who manage classroom conversation and adjust the pace and tone, and also as 'gardeners' who sow the seeds and then monitor their growth (p. 107). In specific terms, teachers may portray themselves as a *facilitator* (who creates appropriate learning environments for learners), a *transmitter* (who transmits the knowledge, skills, and culture related to subject matter to the learners), a *controller* (who is in full control of the class and achieves class management in a professional manner), an *organiser* (who controls the engagement of the learners into tasks through clear instructions and provides feedback as needed), and so on (Harmer, 2012, p. 146). On the other hand, Richards and Lockhart (2007) contended that the roles assumed by a teacher can vary according to the ELT approach or method pursued by the teacher (e.g. Communicative Language Teaching, Grammar-Translation Method, Suggestopedia). Clearly then, the roles assumed by teachers of L2 speaking depends not only on their personal characteristics and preferences but also on some other dynamics that are contingent on the characteristics of the learners and on the teaching method or approach adopted by the teacher.

2.2.8.3. Teacher identity

Another factor related to teachers is known as 'teacher identity'. Identity in a general sense refers to a natural characteristic of an individual originating from personal parameters including personal background, interactional competence, level of knowledge, attitudes, and social relations (Miller, 2009). With regards to teaching, however, identity refers to the social roles of a teacher that are shaped in instructional settings through the interactions between the teacher and the learners and can also be shaped by some other factors such as age, gender, personal background, dynamics of the

culture, conditions at work or school, and so on (Richards, 2011a; Martel and Wang, 2015). From these notions, it follows that teacher identity refers both to the innate characteristics of a teacher that arise from his demographic background (e.g. ethnic origin, race, etc.) and also to the social functions of the teacher that evolve in teaching-related settings line with age and job-related factors.

However, the scope of teacher identity in the realm of L2 teaching, particularly in teaching English, is mainly concerned with the dichotomy of nativeness *vs.* non-nativeness, which is also a debatable issue for the learners studying second language acquisition, as aforementioned (Davies, 2004). As a corollary of this distinction, L2 teachers are divided as native-English-speaker teachers (NESTs) and non-native-English-speaker teachers (NNESTs), in which NEST refers to a teacher who has an origin in a country or nation where English is spoken as the dominant and first language both historically and culturally (i.e. an ENL country, e.g. the United Kingdom and the United States of America) and NNEST refers to a teacher who comes from a country or a nation where English is spoken as a second or foreign language (Harmer, 2015, p. 9; Llurda, 2015, p. 107; Medgyes, 2001, p. 430). However, this divergence has been the source of heated debates, leading to the emergence of a commonplace belief that native speaker is the ideal teacher to teach English (Phillipson, 2012; Harmer, 2015). Nonetheless, this view has been openly challenged by several scholars who object to the strict association between nativeness and being born in an ENL country. Among well-known opponents of this belief are Phillipson (1992) and Halliday (2005) who named this phenomenon as ‘the native-speaker fallacy’ and ‘native-speakerism’, respectively (as cited in Phillipson, 2012; Llurda, 2015, p. 107). Phillipson (2012), despite conceding that “a native speaker is the best embodiment of the target and norm for learners,” stipulated that it would be a fallacy to accept NESTs as superior teachers to NNESTs since teaching as a profession is bound up with the personal and professional competences of teachers rather than where they were born (p. 194).

As made clear by all these remarks, the dichotomy of nativeness vs. non-nativeness with regards to L2 is highly debatable not only for learners but also for the teachers. Accordingly, although there is a widespread belief that NESTs are the ideal teachers for L2 teaching only because they are relatively more competent in L2 as it is their mother tongue, this belief is faced with serious opposition that accentuates that proficiency and well-preparedness of L2 teachers precedes their nativeness or non-nativeness.

Considering the three factors that have been explicated related to L2 teachers thus far (i.e. teacher knowledge, teacher roles, and teacher identity), it can be asserted that for a teacher of L2 speaking to perform a successful teaching, the teacher is supposed to be equipped with certain types of professional knowledge which he/she should utilize by assuming appropriate roles in due settings through a professional identity. However, as shown by the remarks and the exemplary statements made by the teachers, there is more to teaching speaking than simply relying on the teacher, particularly on his/her nativeness vs. nonnativeness. Nonetheless, there are also two other factors that affect the teaching of speaking as well, curriculum and language testing (i.e., testing speaking), which will be delineated in the following sections.

2.2.8.4. Curriculum

Besides teachers, how speaking should be taught and how much weight should be given to speaking within an educational plan also play a pivotal role in the teaching of speaking (Thornbury, 2005). In a broad sense, these two issues are associated with a pedagogical term known as 'curriculum'. The term curriculum is defined as "[a] programme of study at an educational institution, usually consisting of a group of related subjects" (McArthur, 1992, p. 275). Relatedly, a curriculum is a written form that officially presents the arrangement of the contents to be taught by an educational programme and is specifically based on several key constituents including content, principles, needs, environment, goals, evaluation, and learning experiences—all of which are concerned with the subject matter being taught (Richards, 1995; Nation and Macalister, 2010). As such, curriculum lends itself to the approach or method utilized for teaching language and the approaches and methods used for language teaching form the basis of the curricula designed to provide a systematic instructional model for the language learners (Brown, 2001; Nunan, 2015). Table 2 outlines some of the most well-known ELT approaches and methods and the emphasis placed on the teaching of speaking by each approach/method (Table 2):

Table 2

ELT Methods and Approaches and their Emphasis on Teaching Speaking

Method/Approach	**Primary Objectives**	**Learning Outcomes**
Grammar-Translation Method	● directly, individual learning of the second language as an academic subject ● indirectly, ability to use language	acquisition of conscious grammatical and lexical knowledge, particularly for using them in translation from/to L1 and L2
Direct Method	Having learners acquire L2 in the same 'natural' way as L1 is acquired by children	Spontaneous use of language with little or no translation from/to L1 and L2
Audiolingual Method	To get learners to 'behave' in appropriate situations	'habit-formation'
Oral Approach	To teach the spoken language as the predominant skill in a classroom environment where target language is the only medium of communication and instruction	learning all language elements (e.g. grammar, vocabulary) by using them in spoken interactions
Communicative Language Teaching	To get learners to interact with other people in L2, both in and out of the classroom	● learning by communication ● moderate use of conscious understanding of grammar
Task-based Language Teaching	To get learners to have a high command of both fluency and accuracy	language acquisition takes place through meaning-based tasks with a specific short-term goal

Note. Adapted from Cook (2008); Nunan (2015); Celce-Murcia (2001); Brown (2011)

As clearly seen from this outline, speaking has been incorporated into each and every ELT method/approach in the aspects of both objectives and learning outcomes, though at varying degrees. However, although developing learners' spoken interaction and skills is the mainstay goal designated by almost all of these methods/approaches, Burns (2006) argued that this primary goal has not been successfully achieved by these methods/approaches due to several reasons: (I) the methods/approaches have failed to develop 'linguistic structures and forms' that are unique to teaching speaking, (II) speaking is a short-lived activity and thus these methods/approaches have mainly focused on the more permanent skills such as writing and grammar, (III) it is highly recently that the studies investigating corpora of spoken language have become commonplace, and (IV) the speaking used in instructional settings does not perfectly correspond to the speaking that occurs in natural settings along with its constituents such as discourse and phonology (pp. 236-237). From these notions, it follows that the methods/approaches

used in the realm of ELT have serious drawbacks in providing a sound basis for the teaching of speaking.

2.2.8.5. Testing L2 speaking

Testing, or assessment, is also an indispensable part of language teaching (Edge, 1999; Alderson, 2005; Madsen, 1983; Butt, 2010). Language testing, as defined by McNamara (2004), is "a process of gathering information about test-takers from observed performance under test conditions" (p. 765). In line with this definition, language testing is also performed to have an insight into the knowledge of learners as well as their progress within a given period of time and also to provide solid data to the authorities regarding the achievement of the learners in order to form a basis for educational and economic planning (Alderson, 2005; Ur, 2012; Westwood, 2008; Fulcher, 2010). However, regardless of its function, testing inherently invokes negative feelings in learners' minds, such as anxiety and doubt, and therefore is a threatening concept for learners, mainly because they fear that they will not perform as well as they anticipate. Similarly, teachers also have negative feelings towards language tests since they often are not content with the test results and are even sceptical about the genuine aim of the tests, particularly of standardized tests (Brown, 2003; Cohen, 2001).

Testing speaking, on the other hand, is the "youngest subfield of language testing" mainly because it is highly challenging not only for the teachers but also for the learners for a number of reasons (Fulcher, 2003, p. 1). First and foremost, speaking tests unavoidably assess the learners' competence in listening comprehension as well since speaking is highly dependent on listening. This being the case, the learners' achievement in listening becomes a determining factor on the accurate assessment of speaking, which can even overshadow test takers' performance in speaking tests. Secondly, testing speaking is not as practical as testing the other three skills since speaking tests are devoted to eliciting individual performance of the learners which can only be elicited through a one-to-one interaction between the learners and the teacher. Accordingly, speaking tests—unlike the tests of other three skills—cannot be administered to a whole class in a single session and thus a speaking test often requires relatively greater time and effort to administer when compared to the tests of the other three skills. The third challenge, on the other hand, is related to the reliability of the test results obtained via speaking tests. Since speaking are assessed by the teacher him/herself, speaking tests unavoidably have

a subjective nature and thus there can be no single correct answer to a question probed in speaking tests (Brown and Yule, 1999; Thornbury, 2005; Ur, 2012; Brown, 2003; Luoma, 2009; Hughes, 2003).

Overall, testing speaking seems to be a rewarding burden both for learners and teachers in the sense that the assessment of speaking requires a one-to-one interaction and thus requires immense time and effort and can also lead to controversial outcomes since the scoring of speaking tests is based solely on the subjective evaluation of the tester.

From the remarks made thus far, it can be concluded that English speaking skills are highly essential for communicating with people around the world, where English is learned, taught, and used as the most common second language.

In the preceding sections, empirical studies conducted on English speaking skills both in and outside Turkey will be delineated.

2.3. Research on speaking skills

To examine the research on speaking skills that has been conducted thus far, an extensive literature search spanning over the last 15 years (2005-2019) was performed to elicit empirical studies conducted in Turkey and in other countries over this period. The review indicated that there has been an exhaustive account of research devoted to the realm of English speaking skills both in Turkey and in other countries. The relevant studies elicited via the search are explicated in the forthcoming sections.

2.3.1. Research on speaking skills in other countries

The literature search revealed a wide variety of studies conducted on English speaking skills around the world. These studies have essentially focused on five distinct topics: (i) teaching/learning of English speaking skills, (ii) speaking problems faced by EFL/ESL learners of English, (iii) attitudes/perceptions into English speaking skills, (iv) assessment of English speaking skills, (v) willingness to communicate (WTC) in English, and (vi) English-medium instruction, which are delineated in the following sections.

For the first category, i.e. teaching/learning of English speaking skills, the literature review indicated that the studies were mostly conducted in the Middle Eastern or Far Eastern countries, as shown in Table 3:

Table 3

Studies on the Teaching/Learning of English Speaking Skills in Other Countries

Author(s) (Date)	**Country of study**	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Boonkit, K. (2010)	Thailand	To explore the factors affecting spoken proficiency among EFL learners	18 EFL students	• Factors included confidence, creativity of topics, and self-perceived speaking competence.
Gholamhussein, S. & Siamak, S. (2010)	Iran	To assess the efficacy of Philosophy-based Language Teaching (PBLT) in the learning of English speaking skills	34 non-major students	• The PBLT group excelled the control group with regard to all speaking skills except for accuracy.
Sakale, S. & Seffar, S. (2012)	Morocco	To explore the role of lexis in learners' speaking production	40 EFL teachers and 200 high school students	• Vocabulary deficiency is the primary factor associated with students' inability to speak English
Muslim, A. (2013)	Malaysia	To examine the efficacy of the oral communication skills component of the English language syllabuses administered for students majoring in polytechnics	578 students	• The syllabus seems to have little support for students' spoken English competencies.
Sarwar, M. et al. (2014)	Pakistan	To explore the extent of improvement in English speaking skills among prospective teachers of one-year teacher education program	206 prospective teachers	• The programme provides no significant improvement in the competence of prospective teachers.
Al-Tamimi, N. O. M & Attamimi, R. A. (2014)	Yemen	To examine the efficacy of Cooperative Learning (CL) in English in improving students' speaking skills and attitudes	60 first-year ELT students	• CL led to significant improvement in students' spoken competence.
Fernández-García, A. & Fonseca-Mora, M. C. (2019)	Spain	To explore factors affecting speaking proficiency among final-year EFL students	124 final-year EFL students	• Students with high emotional understanding showed better speaking skills.

As shown in Table 3, most of the studies focused on the effect of personal factors (e.g. affective factors, lexis), teaching techniques/methods (e.g. Cooperative Learning), or teaching programs (e.g. one-year teacher education program) on the improvement of English speaking skills. The conclusions drawn by these studies collectively implicated that both factors and teaching techniques/methods have a significant effect on the enhancement of English speaking skills, whereas the teaching programs evaluated by

Muslim (2013) and Sarwar et al. (2014) were found to have little or no effect on the improvement of learners' English speaking skills.

The second topic covered by the studies conducted outside Turkey was related to the problems faced by ESL/EFL learners regarding English speaking skills, as shown in Table 4:

Table 4

Studies on the Problems Faced by Learners in English Speaking Skills in Other Countries

Author(s) (Date)	**Country of study**	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Gan, Z. (2012)	China	To identify the problems encountered by EFL learners in Hong Kong in their oral English development	20 students enrolled in the English language program	• Curriculum should be revised so as to include an intensive language skills component.
Loubazid, M. (2012)	Algeria	To investigate the problems affecting EFL learners' participation in Oral Communication courses	60 EFL students	• Affective factors and large classes reduce students' participation.
Al-Jamal D. A. & Al-Jamal G. A. (2013)	Jordan	To investigate the difficulties experienced by EFL students in terms of spoken proficiency	Questionnaire: 566 students, Interview: 64 students	• Major problems included: curricular discrepancies, large classes, lack of language laboratories.
Pathan, M. M. et al. (2014)	Libya	To explore the difficulties faced by EFL students in English speaking skills	Classroom observation	• Pronunciation, use of adjectives and syntax, were noted as the most common problems.
Hosni, S. A. (2014)	Oman	To investigate the difficulties encountered by EFL students when speaking English	4 EFL teachers and 3 grade 5 classes	• Problems included lack of vocabulary and grammar, use of L1, and inhibition.

The studies listed in Table 4 paid a special attention to the challenges facing EFL/ESL learners during the learning and improvement of English speaking skills. The most common problems noted in these studies respectively included affective factors (e.g. inhibition, shyness) of the learners (see Affective Factors, Section 2.2.7.2), inadequate vocabulary and grammar use (e.g. use of adjectives), lack of pronunciation skills, and administrative problems such as incongruent curriculum and large classes.

The third topic scrutinized by the studies conducted in other countries was the attitudes and perceptions of learners regarding the learning/improvement of English speaking skills, as illustrated in Table 5:

Table 5

Studies on the Attitudes and Perceptions of Learners about the Improvement of English Speaking Skills in Other Countries

Author(s) (Date)	**Country of study**	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Ramirez, V. A. C. (2010)	Colombia	To examine the students' perceptions into the development of their oral skills during the course	45 university students	• Students achieved significant improvement after taking the course and through continuous use of English in class.
Khan, N. & Ali, A. (2010)	Pakistan	To attain university students' perceptions regarding how to improve English speaking skills	40 first- and second-year students	• Speaking skills should be emphasized. • Duration of speaking per student should be increased.
Bui, T. T. Q. & Intaraprasert, C. (2013)	Vietnam	To investigate the relationship among attitudes towards speaking English, exposure to oral communication in English, and the use of communication strategies	995 ELT students	• Holding positive attitudes towards speaking English led to higher frequency and a wider variety of strategy use.
Song, M. (2013)	UK	To examine participants' perceptions into the teaching/learning of speaking and listening skills in modern foreign language classes in China and England	790 secondary school students, 10 teachers	• The UK students showed greater variation in practice compared to Chinese students.

As clearly shown in Table 5, the studies by Ramirez (2010), Khan and Ali (2010), and Bui and Intaraprasert (2013) concluded that the learners showed positive attitudes towards learning/improving their English speaking skills and holding these attitudes led to a significant improvement in their skills. In the study by Song (2013), however, the results indicated that the UK students showed greater variation in terms of attitudes towards learning English speaking skills compared to Chinese students, which could simply be ascribed to the use of English as L1 vs. L2 (see Section 2.2.5).

The fourth category of the studies reviewed had an exclusive emphasis on the assessment of English speaking skills, as shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6

Studies on the Assessment of English Speaking Skills in Other Countries

Author(s) (Date)	**Country of study**	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Yan, W. & Liying, C. (2015)	South Korea	To examine the effect of students' performance in IELTS and TOEFL on their academic achievement in Korean universities	138 B.A. and 63 graduate Chinese students enrolled in 27 universities in South Korea	• Students' prior performance had a moderate effect on their academic success.
Gan, Z., Oon, E. P. T., & Davison, C. (2017)	China	To assess ESL students' oral performance in English language school-based assessment component	373 secondary school students	• The assessment system is reliable and valid as it showed similar scores between the students at similar bands.
Poonpon, K. (2018)	Thailand	To explore how speaking tests are integrated to an EFL classroom at a Thai university	45 university students	• Teachers should consider the appropriateness of difficulty of test tasks, test duration, and score weight.
Riaz, N., Haidar, S., & Hassan, R. (2019)	Pakistan	To investigate perceptions regarding the assessment of English speaking skills prior to university entrance.	120 first-year university students, 9 English language teachers, and 11 administrators	• Most high school graduates lack fluency in speaking. • Competence in speaking is often assessed based on nonstandard criteria.

The studies listed in Table 6 evaluated the efficacy of the speaking component of international exam systems (e.g. IELTS, TOEFL) and also evaluated the nationwide/schoolwide tests assessing speaking skills. Some of these studies (e.g. Gan et al., 2017) indicated that the speaking test administered in schools was reliable and valid, whereas some other studies (Poonpon, 2018; Riaz, 2019) noted that the speaking tests evaluated in their studies convey various problems such as lack of reliability, inappropriateness of the difficulty levels of the exam, and the administration of nonstandard criteria in the evaluation of spoken competence.

The fifth category of studies reviewed paid a special attention to an affective factor known as Willingness to Communicate (WTC) (see Section 2.2.7.2). These studies are outlined in Table 7 below:

Table 7

Studies on Willingness to Communicate in Other Countries

Author(s) (Date)	**Country of study**	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Aljumah, F. H. (2011)	Saudi Arabia	To explore EFL/ESL students' willingness to speak and participate in class discussions	Classroom observation	• Students have high levels of willingness to speak and participate.
Riasati, M. J. (2012)	Iran	To investigate the factors influencing Iranian EFL learners' willingness to speak English in language classrooms	Interview: 7 EFL students	• Factors included task type, discussion topic, interlocutor, class atmosphere, teacher, personality, and self-perceived spoken competence
Yousef, R., Jamil, H., & Razak, N. (2013)	Malaysia	To investigate Malaysian ESL learners' willingness to communicate (WTC) in English	377 pre-service ELT teachers	• Communication strategies have a direct effect on motivation, self-perceived communication competence, and WTC in English.
Kang, D. (2014)	South Korea	To investigate the effects of study-abroad experiences on EFL learners' English speaking skills, willingness to communicate (WTC) and in-class participation in an 8-week study-abroad programme in a native English country	60 EFL learners	• The learners' achieved a significant improvement in English speaking skills, WTC, and in-class participation.

The studies listed in Table 7 placed an exclusive emphasis on the factors affecting WTC in the learning and improvement of English speaking skills. These factors were revealed to include classroom dynamics (e.g. class size, discussion topics), use of communication strategies, and study-abroad experiences.

Finally, EMI emerged as a commonly researched topic in the studies conducted outside Turkey (Table 8):

Table 8

Studies on English-Medium Instruction in Other Countries

Author(s) (Date)	**Country of study**	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Kim, A., Son, Y. D., & Sohn, S. Y. (2009)	South Korea	To investigate optimal design of EMI to maximize learners' achievement	Conjoint analysis	• The proportion of cultural-studies EMI courses should be increased. • Courses should be fully EMI rather than partial.
Ismail, W. R. et al. (2011)	Malaysia	To explore students' perceptions in EMI in teaching and learning of Science and Mathematics at tertiary level in Malaysia	188 university students	• Students showed positive attitudes towards the use of EMI.
McLaren, P. B. (2011)	UAE	To examine the status quo of EMI at tertiary level in United Arab Emirates (UAE)	52 lecturers	• Arabic should be reinstated as the medium of instruction and English should be taught only as a foreign language.
Dafouz, E. (2018)	Spain	To examine the status quo of EMI at tertiary level in Spain	75 EMI lecturers	• EMI improved their linguistic and social proficiency and offered younger lecturers a more international professional identity.
Vidal, K. & Jarvis, S. (2018)	Spain	To investigate the effect of EMI on students' Proficiency level, essay quality, and lexical diversity	Analysis of essays by 195 undergraduates	• EMI leads to significant improvement in English proficiency but has a lesser effect on essay quality and lexical diversity.

As an overall impression that could be derived from the studies listed in Table 8, it can be asserted that the EMI approaches administered in countries other than Turkey have been shown to be beneficial (as reported by Ismail et al., 2011 and Dafouz, 2018) or partially beneficial (as reported by Vidal and Jarvis, 2018; McLaren, 2011) depending on the country where EMI is implemented.

A variety of other topics have also been the focus of attention in the studies on the speaking skills conducted abroad. The topics included the effect of national policy on the teaching/learning or assessment of English speaking skills (e.g. Cheng, 2008; Amin and

Greenwood, 2018; Song and He, 2015; Rahman et al., 2019), the effect of personal factors (e.g. anxiety, emotions) on English speaking skills (e.g. Joy, 2013), attempts in developing a global English proficiency test (e.g. Hamid, Hardy, and Reyes, 2019), factors affecting test takers' performance in international English tests such as IELTS, TOEFL (e.g. Fernández, 2018; Roca-Varela and Palacios, 2013; Quaid, 2018), and the washback effect of English proficiency tests (e.g. Sultana, 2018).

To sum up, the studies conducted outside Turkey regarding English speaking skills implicated that these skills have mostly been investigated in EFL/ESL countries such as Iran, Pakistan, and China rather than ENL countries such as UK and USA (for distinction between ESL and ENL, see Section 2.2.6). In line with this distinction, not only the learning/teaching of English speaking skills but also the assessment of these skills and the implementation of EMI in EFL/ESL countries, as illustrated by the results of these studies, seem to convey numerous problems for both teachers and learners, which at times may lead to ineffective classroom practices and ultimately to inadequate competence in English speaking skills.

2.3.2. Research on speaking skills in Turkish context

The literature review revealed that the studies conducted in Turkey regarding English speaking skills have exclusively focused on four main topics: (1) teaching/learning of English speaking skills, (2) attitudes towards English speaking skills, (3) assessment of English speaking skills, and (4) English-medium instruction. Of these, the first topic, i.e. teaching/learning of English speaking skills, has been explored in various settings, though most commonly with ELT students and less frequently with the students and EFL teachers at primary and high schools (Table 9):

Table 9

Studies on the Teaching/Learning of English Speaking Skills in Turkish Context

Author(s) (Date)	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Kondal, S. (2009)	To explore whether English speaking skills are underdeveloped compared to other skills among ELT students at preparatory class.	59 students	• Speaking skills were found to be significantly underdeveloped compared to other skills.
Güney, İ. (2010)	To investigate the causes of students' speaking-related problems in speaking classes and solutions suggested by students	235 students from preparatory classes and ELT department	• Language proficiency, content knowledge, and materials and methods were declared as the most challenging aspects.
Aşık, A. (2012)	To explore the use, frequency, and functions of discourse markers used by Turkish nonnative speakers of English as compared to those of native speakers.	20 pre-service ELT teachers	• Turkish speakers of English use a limited variety of discourse markers in their spoken interactions in English.
Arslan, R. Ş. (2013)	To explore ELT students' competence in basic elements of spoken communication based on their performance in the Oral Communication Skills course	64 first-year ELT students	• The students improved remarkably through in-class communicative activities.
Güngör, Ö. (2013)	To investigate the readiness level of pre-service ELT teachers in teaching English speaking skills	100 pre-service ELT teachers	• Most of the participants declared feeling ready to teach English speaking skills.
Tokoz-Göktepe, F. (2014)	To investigate the speaking problems encountered by ninth-grade high school Turkish EFL learners	120 students and 4 EFL teachers	• Insufficient language and content knowledge • Limited contact with English outside the classroom
Savaşçı, M. (2014)	To investigate the causes of the reluctance amonf students in using L2 in EFL oral communication classes	22 first-year ELT students	• Anxiety, fear of being despised, teacher strategy, and culture were revealed as the most common causes.
Aytaş, A. (2014)	To investigate the effect of Constructivist Learning (CL) approach on learners' speaking skills	75 primary school students	• CL encouraged students to active participation and also improved their English speaking skills.

Of these studies, Kondal (2009), Güney (2010), Tokoz-Göktepe (2014), and Savaşçı (2014) concluded that the learners are challenged in learning English speaking skills due to various factors such as inappropriate materials, lack of contact with English outside classroom, and learners' affective factors (e.g. anxiety, fear). The remaining studies, however, reported on favourable outcomes related to the learning of English

speaking skills, such as significant improvement of students' competence in English speaking skills with in-class communication and with teaching methods/approaches such as Constructivist Learning (CL).

The second topic examined by the studies conducted in Turkey was the attitudes of EFL learners and teachers towards English speaking skills and relevant factors (e.g. pronunciation) (Table 10):

Table 10

Studies on the Attitudes towards English Speaking Skills in Turkish Context

Author(s) (Date)	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Karahan, F. (2007)	To investigate the relationship between language attitudes towards the English language and its usage in Turkey	190 8th grade students at a private primary school	• Students showed mildly positive attitudes, particularly to Turkish people speaking English among themselves.
İnceçay, G. & İnceçay, V. (2009)	To explore the perceptions of Turkish university students regarding the appropriateness and efficacy of communicative and non-communicative activities in their EFL courses.	30 university students at a preparatory class	• Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) should be integrated into the existing educations system to support the use of communicative activities.
Coşkun, A. (2011)	To investigate pre-service teachers' attitudes towards teaching pronunciation	47 pre-service ELT teachers	• Native-speaker English is perceived as the correct model in ELT.
Dinçer, A. & Yeşilyurt, S. (2013)	To investigate pre-service English teachers' perceptions on teaching speaking skills in Turkey and the importance they attribute to these skills	7 pre-service ELT teachers	• Pre-service teachers stated feeling incompetent in oral communication skills although they regard these skills as the most important skills in English.
Yaman, İ. (2014)	To investigate the efficacy of Project-Based Learning (PBL) on the learning of English speaking skills.	43 preparatory class students	• PBL provided significant improvement in the experimental group compared to the control group.
Başöz, T. (2016)	To investigate pre-service EFL teachers' attitudes towards learning English through social media	120 pre-service ELT teachers	• Pre-service teachers perceive social media as a regular constituent of their English language learning experiences.

Taken together, all the studies listed in Table 10 concluded that both learners and teachers have positive attitudes towards the learning and improvement of English speaking skills via in-class practice or social media. However, the studies also found that

both ELT and non-ELT students/pre-service teachers feel incompetent and/or anxious when speaking English in and outside classroom settings.

The third topic scrutinized by the studies conducted in Turkey was the assessment of spoken English at different grades of Turkish education system (i.e. primary school through tertiary level) (Table 11):

Table 11

Studies on the Assessment of English Speaking Skills in Turkish Context

Author(s) (Date)	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Duran, Ö. (2011)	To explore instructors' and students' perceptions of the washback effects of classroom-based speaking tests	307 preparatory class intermediate level students and 45 instructors of English	• Both instructors and students declared positive attitudes towards speaking tests. • Speaking tests should be incorporated into all English exams.
Han, T. & Kaya, H. İ. (2014)	To explore Turkish EFL Teachers' Assessment Preferences and Practices within the scope of Constructivist Instruction	95 Turkish EFL teachers working at primary and secondary schools	• Teachers pay less attention to listening and writing. • Speaking is the most challenging skill to assess.
Külekçi, E. (2016)	To analyse the washback effect of Foreign Language Examination (YDS) in Turkey	Document analysis	• YDS mainly focuses on grammatical and textual knowledge more than pragmatic knowledge.
Akın, G. (2016)	To evaluate YDS in terms of common characteristics of adult education and English for specific purposes (ESP)	Document analysis	• YDS neglects the assessment of four language skills.
Hatipoğlu, Ç. (2016)	To investigate the perceptions pre-service teachers on the English Section of the University Entrance Exam (YDT) in Turkey	50 pre-service ELT teachers	• YDT relies heavily on the reading skills, thus ignoring other skills.
Kılıçkaya, F. (2016)	To investigate the washback effects of the foreign language section of TEOG (Transition Examination from Primary to Secondary Education)	30 Turkish EFL teachers working at primary and secondary schools	• The exam is heavily dependent on the reading skills, thus ignoring other skills, i.e. speaking, writing, listening

As clearly seen in Table 11, most of the studies focusing on the assessment of English speaking skills examined the 'washback effect' of the national foreign language tests administered in Turkey (i.e. ÜDS, YDS, YDT), a notion which is defined as 'the influence of tests on teaching' and affects not only teaching but also learning processes (Alderson & Wall, 1993, p. 117). Drawing upon washback, Külekçi (2016), Akın (2016),

Hatipoğlu (2016), and Kılıçkaya (2016) indicated that the national foreign language tests administered in Turkey are overwhelmed by the reading skills and thus pay little or no attention to the assessment of other skills including speaking, listening, and writing. As for the other studies, Han and Kaya (2014) noted that speaking is the most challenging language skill compared to other three skills and Duran (2011) declared that the participants advocate the integration of speaking skills into all English exams conducted within the scope of their preparatory class education.

The final topic covered by the studies conducted in Turkey investigated the notion of English-medium instruction (EMI), i.e. the use of English as the medium of instruction rather than Turkish (Table 12):

Table 12

Studies on English-Medium Instruction in Turkish Context

Author(s) (Date)	**Aim**	**Participants / Method**	**Conclusion(s) / Implication(s)**
Kırkgöz, Y. (2005a)	To explore the sources of motivation underlying students' decision for selecting an EMI department and to examine the problems facing students' learning and assessment processes	Survey; 203 students	• Students have both integrative and instrumental motivation • EMI leads to adverse effects such as a feeling of being distanced from their L1 and culture.
Sert, N. (2005)	To compare the efficacy of three different approaches to language instruction including EMI, English aided instruction (EAI), and Turkish-medium instruction (TMI) at tertiary level in Turkey.	Questionnaire & interview; 527 fourth-year students and 87 lecturers	• Although EMI seems to be the most favourable approach, no single approach is sufficient for teaching English. • EMI can be disadvantageous for teaching content.
Başıbek, N. et al. (2014)	To attain lecturers' perceptions into partial EMI at Engineering departments in a Turkish university	Questionnaire; 63 lecturers	• Lecturers favour full EMI instead of partial EMI.
Macaro, E., Akıncıoğlu, M., & Dearden, J.. (2016)	To explore the level of success of collaboration in lesson planning between ELT specialists and content teachers in Turkish EMI universities	18 lecturers	• EMI is essential for improving students' proficiency in speaking and also for explaining difficult concepts.
Atlı, I. & Özal, D. (2017)	To explore whether choosing an EMI programme has a contributory effect on student motivation and English language proficiency	Questionnaire; 40 students in a full EMI programme and 40 students in a partial EMI program	• Although no significant difference was found between two groups, EMI provides integrative and instrumental motivation.
Arık, B. T. & Arık, E. (2018)	To investigate the efficacy of EMI in Psychology departments in Turkish universities	Document analysis & online questionnaire (285 university students)	• EMI improved students' comprehension level. • EMI is essential for the internationalization of Turkey.
Ekoç, A. (2018)	To investigate students' attitudes towards EMI courses the problems they face, and their suggested solutions	Online questionnaire; 252 participants	• Although administering EMI seems prestigious, students face linguistic challenges in EMI courses.
Çağatay, S. (2019)	To investigate ELT students' perceptions on EMI at a state university in Turkey and to examine the effect of gender on their perceptions	Questionnaire; 146 ELT students	• More than half of the participants favour EMI. • Gender has a significant effect on participants' beliefs.

As can be understood from Table 12, EMI seems to have contributory effects in ELT departments, as reported by Macaro et al. (2016) and Çağatay (2019), while it can be disadvantageous for students in other departments, as revealed by studies such as Kırkgöz (2005a), Sert (2005), and Ekoç (2018).

Taken together, the studies conducted in Turkey regarding English speaking skills have converged at the notion that both teachers and learners experience serious difficulties not only in the learning/teaching processes of these skills but also when putting their competence in these skills into real performance. In a similar vein, studies reporting on EMI in Turkey also noted that students, particularly those majoring in fields other than ELT, have problems in understanding the content presented in English language in their EMI courses. Additionally, the studies focusing on the nationwide foreign language exams conducted in Turkey (e.g. YDS) indicated that these exams fail to foster learners' English speaking skills as the exams mostly focus on reading skills and pay little or no attention to other skills, particularly to speaking.

Other areas of interest investigated by the researchers in Turkish context regarding English speaking skills include curriculum renovation (e.g. Kırkgöz, 2008; Eskicumalı and Türedi, 2010; Çelik and Kasapoğlu, 2014), world Englishes (e.g. Kılıçkaya, 2009; Coşkun, 2010; Selvi, 2011), and anxiety in speaking English (e.g. Ünyılmaz, 2014; Karataş, 2016).

Based on the extensive review of literature on research into speaking skills, it can be claimed that none of the studies have scrutinized the notion of teaching/learning of English speaking skills at the ELT departments at a national scale. Building on this literature gap, the present study was designed to attain the perceptions of lecturers and pre-service teachers at the ELT departments across Turkey to provide an exhaustive account of the status quo of the teaching and learning of English speaking skills in these departments.

2.4. Summary

This chapter elaborated on the essentials of speaking along with their attributions and relationships with other skills, teaching/learning of speaking skills, and the empirical studies conducted in Turkey and other countries regarding these notions. The ensuing chapter will elucidate the methods and techniques used in the design and implementation of the study as well as in the reporting of research findings.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter elaborates on the research design, sampling, as well as methods and procedures employed for data collection and data analysis along with the ethical standards followed throughout these processes.

3.2. Research design

The present study was designed as a mixed-methods study so as to elicit both quantitative and qualitative data regarding the insights of pre-service teachers and lecturers at the ELT departments in Turkey into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills. The study sought to provide answers to the following research questions (also see Section 1.4):

1. What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

2. What are the perceptions of lecturers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

3. What are the perceptions of first-year students who have recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding;
   a) the contribution of the course to their competence in spoken English?
   b) the problems they encountered in class (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

4. What are the perceptions of the lecturer who has recently delivered a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding;
   a) the contribution of the course to the students' competence in spoken English?

b) the problems encountered (if any) when teaching English speaking skills?
c) his solutions to the problems?

As seen in Figure 3 below, the present study was conducted in two phases. The first phase, which formed the backbone of the study, sought answers to research questions 1 and 2. This phase consisted of a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview administered to volunteering pre-service teachers and lecturers at the sampled ELT departments. The second phase, in contrast, was essentially designed as a *case study*. Regarding this research strategy, Ragin and Becker (1992, as cited in Patton, 2015) propounded that "[a] case may be theoretical or empirical or both; it may be a relatively bounded object or a process; and it may be generic and universal or specific in some way" (pp. 259-260). Based on this definition, the case study conducted in the second phase of the present study was designed to investigate the perceived efficacy of the Oral Communication Skills course delivered during the first year of the ELT programme, in attempts to provide an in-depth insight into the data obtained in the first phase. To this end, the second phase comprised a focus group interview and a semi-structured interview administered to a group of first-year ELT students and an ELT lecturer who had recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course at a state university, respectively, specifically to elicit their 'fresher' experiences and insights regarding the subject matter compared to those of lecturers and pre-service students surveyed in the first phase. The reason for selecting first-year students was because the Oral Communication Skills course was delivered during the first year of the programme (see Section 3.6; also see YÖK ELT Curriculum).

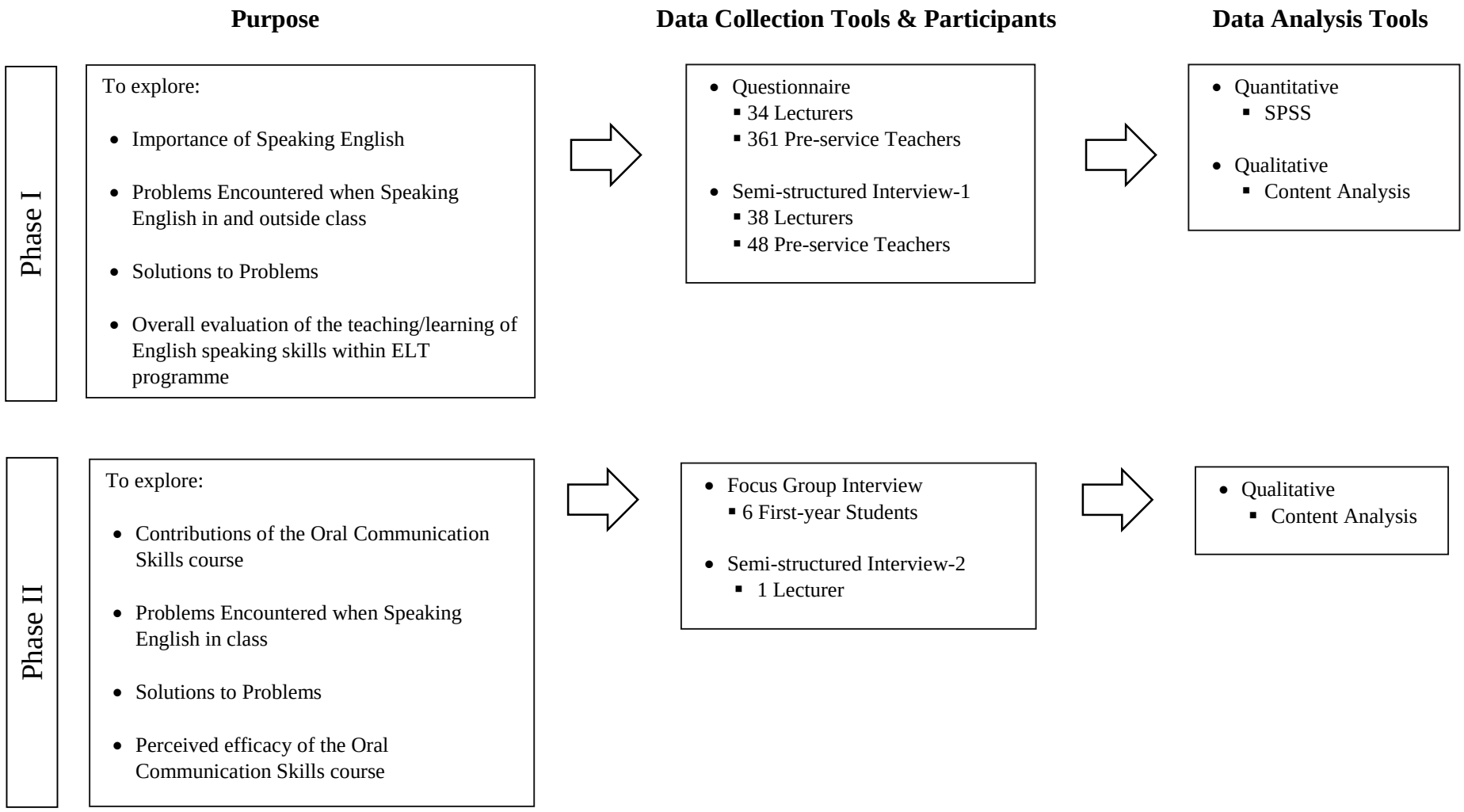


Figure 3. Overview of research process

As seen in Figure 3, a mixed-method approach was employed to create an amalgam of quantitative (i.e. data elicited via questionnaires) and qualitative (i.e. data elicited via interviews) analyses, in attempts to provide an in-depth descriptive account of the subject matter (ibid). The mixed-method approach is commonly known to provide a number of important advantages such as enhancing the understanding of a complicated issue, substantiating findings through 'triangulation' (see Section 3.8.3) and reaching numerous audiences (Dörnyei, 2011, pp. 163-166). This approach, as Creswell (2009) puts it, "is more than simply collecting and analysing both kinds of data; it also involves the use of both approaches in tandem so that the overall strength of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research" (p. 19). However, the nature of the mixed-method approach may differ based on the timing of the processes conducted within the course of action. This differentiation, according to Creswell (2009), has given birth to three distinct types of methods:

- *Sequential mixed methods*, in which the researcher aims to enhance the findings of one method with another method in a sequential manner, e.g. commencing with a quantitative method and ensuing with a qualitative method,
- *Concurrent mixed methods*, in which the researcher collects both types of data concurrently and may integrate one method into another method as a subsidiary source of data, e.g. using qualitative data for the process and the quantitative data for the outcomes,
- *Transformative mixed methods*, in which the researcher may transform the course of actions by using a sequential or concurrent method as needed, based on the theoretical grounds emerging throughout the research (p. 27).

Of these, sequential mixed methods was employed for collecting data in the present study as the two phases were implemented one after another after with an interval of three years (see Data Collection, Section 3.7). Accordingly, the selection of this method provided a two-sided account of the subject matter. Additionally, methodological triangulation was achieved to enhance the reliability and validity of the outcomes (for Triangulation, see Section 3.8.3). The tools employed for data collection are delineated in the following sections.

3.3. Data collection tools

The two phases of the study were implemented in different universities—hence using different data collection tools with different participants (see Data Collection, Section 3.7). However, after the completion of both phases, all the data collected were

amalgamated using methodological triangulation (see Section 3.8.3). Table 13 presents the data collection tools used in the study and their linkage with research questions:

Table 13

Research Design: Instruments and their Linkage to Research Questions

Procedures & Instruments		Research questions addressed	Number of participants
Phase I	Questionnaire	1 (a & b), 2 (a & b),	361 pre-service teachers 34 lecturers
	Semi-structured interview-1	1 2	48 pre-service teachers 38 lecturers
Phase II	Focus group interview	3	6 first-year students
	Semi-structured interview-2	4	1 lecturer

As seen in Table 13, the questionnaire and semi-structured interview-1 were used in phase I, of which the questionnaire was designed to address research questions 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b while semi-structured interview-1 was designed to address research questions 1 and 2 (see Section 1.4 and 3.2). In phase II, however, focus group interview and semi-structured interview-2 were designed to address research questions 3 and 4, respectively. The procedures employed in the design and implementation of these data collection tools are elaborated on in the following sections.

3.3.1. Questionnaire

Questionnaire, also known as self-completion questionnaire, is defined as "any written instrument that presents participants with a series of questions or statements to which they should react either by selecting from existing possibilities or writing out their answers" (Brown, 2001, p. 111). Due to its inherent nature, questionnaire has become the most popular data collection instrument in social sciences (Kothari, 2004, p. 100; Dörnyei, 2010, p. 1). This popularity mainly stems from its such distinctive features as simple construction, practical administration, time-saving nature, and low cost (Bryman, 2012, p. 79; Dörnyei, 2010, p. 1).

Questionnaire items can be either or open- or closed-ended. In open-ended items, the respondents are required to provide their own answers to the space provided following the item (e.g. *What do you think is the most important problem regarding …?*). In closed-ended items, however, the respondents are required to choose an option from the list provided by the researcher. Closed-ended items tend to be more popular since they enable remarkable uniformity of answers and are relatively easier to process (Babbie, 2007, p. 246). Common types of open-ended questions include (i) specific open questions, (ii) clarification questions, (iii) sentence completion items, and (iv) short-answer questions. In comparison, common types of closed-ended items include (I) *Rating scales*, which require respondents to employ their evaluative insights to choose an answer from among a series of categories unified by a scale (e.g. Likert-type scales, semantic differential scales, numerical rating scales), (II) *Multiple-choice items*, which require respondents to choose one or more answers from a list or to specify their choice by writing their own option(s) into the space provided by the researcher, which is commonly labelled as 'please specify', (III) *Rank order items*, which require respondents to rank the items given in the list based on a pre-defined criteria (e.g. age, price), (IV) *Numeric items*, which require respondents to provide a specific numeric value in the space provided by the researcher (e.g. respondent's age or work experience in years), and (V) *Checklists*, which involve a list of items or objects and require respondents to mark (or check) the items that apply to the question provided in the item (adapted from Dörnyei, 2010, pp. 26-39).

The questionnaire used in the present study was adapted from a nationwide questionnaire previously constructed and administered in Finland in 2007, titled "National Survey on the English Language in Finland: Uses, meanings and attitudes (2011)" (Leppänen et al., 2010) after obtaining an official permission from the head author of the survey (see Appendix N). The survey was designed as a part of a long-term research venture of the Centre of Excellence for the Study of Variation, Contacts and Change in English (VARIENG) at the University of Jyväskylä and comprised seven distinct sections: (I) Background information, (II) English in your life, (III) Studying and knowing English, (IV) Uses of English, (V) English alongside the mother tongue, (VI) The future of English in Finland, and (VII) Education and profession. The survey included a total of 50 items/subsections, of which the items had several options to choose from while the subsections consisted of several items designed based on a three- to five-point Likert scale. Examples of an item and a subsection are provided below:

Example item:

3. How long have you been teaching English?

1 ☐ 0-5 years
2 ☐ 6-10 years
3 ☐ 11-15 years
4 ☐ 16 years or more

Example subsection:

22. <u>In your free time</u>, how often do you do the followings <u>in English</u>?
Please answer all items 1–4.

		Almost daily	About once a week	About once a month	Less frequently	Never
1	Listen to music or podcasts					
2	Listen to speech programmes on the radio					
3	Watch films or television programmes with/without subtitles					
4	Watch documentaries					

It is commonly known that the types of questions probed in a questionnaire are typically bound to the research questions being addressed in the study (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 93). Meaningfully, to allow the Finnish survey to fit into our research questions and the cultural context of the present study, a number of alterations were applied to the questionnaire. These alterations were as follows:

- In the first step, all the words/phrases referring to or implicating the country of "Finland" and the "Finnish people" were replaced with their Turkish counterparts. To illustrate, item 4 in the original survey (What is your mother tongue?) includes 5 options: English, Swedish, Sámi, Estonian, and Russian; these options were converted to Turkish, Kurdish, and Arabic so as to make them fit into the demographic profile of Turkey.
- In the second step, the items and sections that did not fit into the cultural context or the items that were irrelevant for the purpose of the present study were removed, e.g. item 36 in the original survey that probed the respondents' attitude towards the comprehension of a given text was removed from the questionnaire used in the present study as it did not serve the goals and research questions of the study. As a result, the total number of sections were reduced from 7 to 5 (i.e. background information, competence in speaking English, uses of English, using

English speaking skills in lectures, English pronunciation) and the total number of items/subsections were reduced from 50 to 39.

- In the third step, two novel subsections were annexed to the questionnaire which were adapted from the questionnaire used by Foote et al. (2011) after obtaining an official permission (see Appendix O). The first subsection added to the questionnaire included items related to the problems encountered when speaking/listening to English during English lessons and the second subsection included items probing the importance and difficulties attributed to pronunciation. The first of these two subsections was added to the questionnaire to address the research questions 1b and 2b (*What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers/lecturers regarding the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?*) while the second subsection was added to elicit respondents' views about English pronunciation, which is a key component of English speaking skills and thus deserved being addressed to, as regards the scopes of the present study (for pronunciation, *see* Phonology, Section 2.2.2.3).
- In the final step, the revised questionnaire was customized for the target groups of the study (i.e. lecturers and pre-service teachers), thereby creating two partially distinct questionnaire forms. To achieve this, the items that were impertinent for pre-service teachers (items 3, 4, and 5) were removed from the lecturers' questionnaire and thus the total number of items/subsections in the pre-service teachers' questionnaire was reduced from 39 to 36. Subsequently, each item was checked for clarity and rephrased as needed, so as to make them fit to their corresponding respondent group, e.g. the item 5 in the subsection 26 in the lecturers' questionnaire (which corresponded to the subsection 23 in the pre-service teachers' questionnaire) was rephrased as "*The courses I teach …*" and "*The courses I take …*" for lecturers and pre-service teachers, respectively.

The draft versions of both questionnaires were meticulously checked for clarity by a colleague with an M.A. degree in Educational Sciences. Subsequently, the pilot testing of the two questionnaires was performed, since it is a prerequisite for conducting a newly developed questionnaire to the target audience (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 43; Kothari, 2004, p. 100). To perform pilot testing, the questionnaires were administered to the lecturers (n=7) and pre-service teachers (n=40) studying/working at Dicle University Ziya Gökalp Education Faculty ELT Department after obtaining an official permission

from the Dean's Office (see Appendix W). The demographic characteristics of the participants were as follows (Table 14):

Table 14

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents Included in the Pilot Study

Variable	Category	Title	N	%
Gender	Male	Lecturer	4	57.1
		PT	14	35.0
	Female	Lecturer	3	42.9
		PT	26	65.0
Age	20-30	Lecturer	3	42.9
		PT	34	85.0
	31–40	Lecturer	1	14.2
		PT	6	15.0
	41 or older	Lecturer	3	42.9
		PT	0	0.0

Note. PT = Pre-service teacher; Total number of Lecturers = 7; Total number of Pre-service teachers = 40

The entire piloting procedure was administered and supervised by the researcher. Both lecturers and pre-service teachers were surveyed on the same day. The lecturers were surveyed sequentially in their offices, and the pre-service teachers were surveyed in the same classroom simultaneously. Immediately after the administration of both surveys, both the lecturers and pre-service students were requested to indicate the sections/subsections/items they found difficult to read or understand (if any). Based on their feedbacks, a number of amendments were applied to the questionnaire. The first amendment, for example, included rewording or modifying the items that were difficult for reading or failed to convey their message to the respondents, e.g. the notion of 'three months' in the item '*Have you lived abroad continuously for three months or longer?*' was transformed to 'one year' considering that three months would not be sufficient for this item to probe the realistic response necessitated by its core message. Secondly, some items that were found—or denoted by the participants—to be irrelevant or unnecessary as per the research questions addressed in the study were removed from the questionnaire, e.g. item 9 (*Does any member of your family have a different mother tongue from yours?*). Overall, a total of six steps were followed for the development of the questionnaire to be

used for collecting quantitative data in the present study. These steps are displayed in Figure 4:

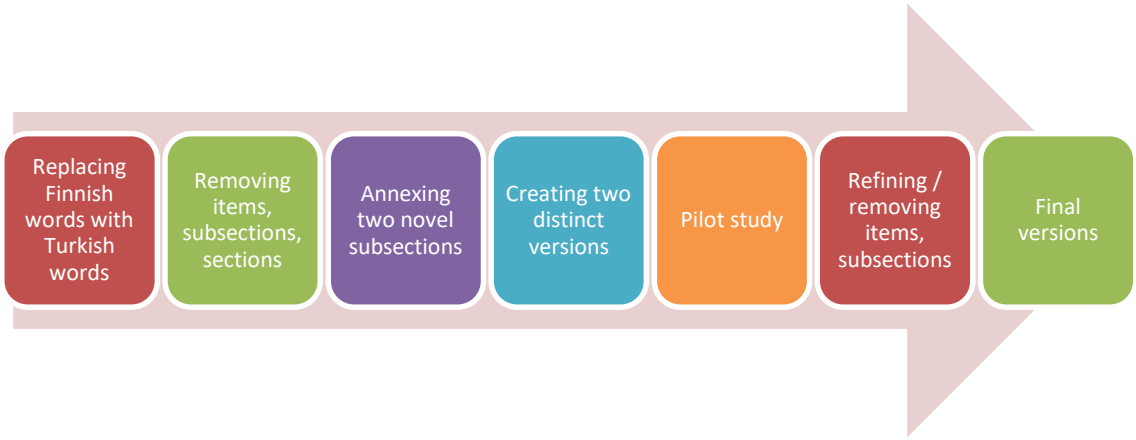


Figure 4. Steps undertaken for the development/revision of the questionnaire

As a result of the alterations illustrated in Figure 4, the total number of items/subsections was reduced from 39 to 27 for lecturers and from 36 to 24 for pre-service teachers in the final versions of the questionnaires. The final versions were re-checked by the same colleague for spelling, typographical, and/or grammatical errors and then were duplicated in the estimated numbers of both participant groups (for final versions of both questionnaires, see Appendix A and B).

3.3.2. Semi-structured interview-1

Interviews are the most widely used data collection tool used in qualitative research (Bryman, 2012, p. 469). Interviews provide a unique opportunity of examining intangible phenomena such as individuals' self-reported insights or attitudes. As Merriam (2009) puts it, interviews are necessary "when we cannot observe behavio[u]r, feelings, or how people interpret the world around them" (p. 88). Additionally, the interactive nature of interviews allows researchers to educe additional data when initial responses are unclear, incomplete, or unrelated and they also provide the respondents a unique comfort for expressing their thoughts and views, when compared to other modes (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 173).

The interviews in qualitative research can be either unstructured, semi-structured, or structured (standardized). The unstructured type is basically in the form of a 'conversation' (Burgess, 1984, as cited in Bryman, 2012, p. 471), in that it is mostly administered in informal settings where the interviewer probes only one or several short

prompts and the interviewee expresses his/her feelings/thoughts freely. Semi-structured interviews, however, involve a number of specific questions prepared by the interviewer, i.e. ‘an interview guide’ (ibid). When probing these questions, the interviewer may also intervene in the process to clarify vague terms/contexts or to probe additional questions that arise from the responses generated by the interviewee. The third type of interviews are structured (standardized) interviews which involve the same questions for all interviewees and thus do not allow digression or probing more questions. As such, these interviews are analogous to verbal questionnaires which allow researchers to make a comparison of the responses elicited from different respondents (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 173).

Semi-structured interview-1 was designed for the first phase of the study and was developed to address research questions 1 and 2 (for Research Questions, see Section 1.4). The interview involved questions that were both specific and also open to rewording/annexation as per the flow of the interviews (Lewis and Ritchie, 2003, pp. 273-274). For this interview, two distinct interview guides were designed for the participants (i.e. lecturers and pre-service teachers) and both versions were prepared in both Turkish and English languages so that the interviewees could select the language that they felt most comfortable with during the interview. The interview guides for lecturers and pre-service teachers involved a total of 5 and 4 questions in both Turkish and English versions, respectively, since the interview guide for lecturers included an extra question *(How important do you think being able to speak English is for your students, i.e. prospective teachers?)*. After preliminary drafting, both guides were checked by a colleague for spelling, typographical, and/or grammatical errors and thereby evolved to their final state (see Appendices C-F).

3.3.3. Focus group interview

Focus group interview is basically defined as “an interview with a small group of people on a specific topic” (Patton, 2015, p. 589). These groups may include 6-10 individuals who have similar backgrounds and discuss on a given topic for one to two hours. The discussion is moderated and often recorded by a facilitator who initially defines and explains about the agenda and then probes a number of introductory questions for interviewees. Throughout the interview, the moderator also ensures that every interviewee expresses his/her experiences and views. Through the end of the interview,

the moderator tries to establish a general idea based on interviewees' responses (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 40; Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 173).

In the current study, a focus group interview was designed for the second phase of the study to address research question 3 (for Research Questions, see Section 1.4). In a similar way to the semi-structured interviews administered, an interview guide was also developed for the focus group interview, consisting of three questions. The interview guide was prepared both in Turkish and English languages so as to allow interviewees to choose the language that they felt most comfortable with during the interview. Following preliminary drafting, both versions were checked by a colleague for spelling, typographical, and/or grammatical errors and thereby evolved to their final state (see Appendix G and H).

3.3.4. Semi-structured interview-2

Semi-structured interview-2 was designed for only one participant, who was to be an ELT lecturer who had recently delivered a one-year Oral Communication Skills course at an ELT department in Turkey. For this interview, an interview guide was developed to address research question 4 (for Research Questions, see Section 1.4). The interview guide was prepared in both Turkish and English languages so as to offer both options to the lecturer to be interviewed. Following preliminary drafting, both versions were checked by a colleague for spelling, typographical, and/or grammatical errors and thereby evolved to their final state (see Appendix I and J).

3.4. Sampling

Sampling is used in both quantitative and qualitative research to choose a sample (or a subset) of the target community, society, or group, mainly because it is not possible to examine or survey every single member within the target population. The outcomes to be obtained from the samples are used to draw conclusions or inferences about their larger populations (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014, p. 30). Moreover, researchers can sample not only individuals but also settings, events, and social activities (Berg, 2001, p. 30).

Sampling methods primarily fall under two categories: probability and non-probability sampling methods. In probability sampling, the samples are chosen randomly so that each element in the target population has a known chance of being selected. In

non-probability sampling, however, the samples are chosen based on some criteria or unique properties rather than by random selection, which implies that some elements in the population have a higher chance of being selected than others (Bryman, 2012, p. 187; Ritchie, Lewis, and Elam, 2003, p. 78). Table 15 presents the types of probability and non-probability sampling methods commonly used in qualitative and quantitative research:

Table 15

Types of Sampling Methods

Sampling method	**Used for …**
Probability Sampling	
Simple random sampling	Sampling elements with an equal probability of inclusion in the sample
Systematic random sampling	Selecting elements directly from the sampling frame, without resorting to a table of random numbers
Stratified random sampling	Dividing the target population into subcategories and selecting elements in proportion (based on a stratum)
Cluster sampling	Dividing the target population into similar parts or clusters
Non-Probability Sampling	
Convenience sampling	Sampling elements that are relatively available to the researcher by virtue of their accessibility
Snowball sampling	Contacting initially with a small group of people who are pertinent to the research topic and then utilizing these contacts to contact with others
Quota sampling	Generating a sample that represents a population in terms of the relative proportions of people in different categories, such as gender, ethnicity, age groups, or in combinations of these categories.
Purposive sampling	Sampling elements based on a specific strategy or criterion, so that the elements chosen are relevant to the research questions that are being addressed

Note. Adapted from Bryman (2012, pp. 198-195)

Each of the methods mentioned in Table 15 represents a single layer of sampling. However, as indicated by Bryman (2012), multi-layer sampling strategies can also be performed in quantitative and qualitative analysis particularly for sampling the settings and participants in a respective order (p. 417). In the present study, multi-layer sampling methods were utilized for both phases of the study, whereby a sampling method was utilized for sampling the research site (i.e. layer 1) and another sampling method was

employed for sampling the participants (i.e. layer 2). Table 16 presents the sampling methods utilized in the two layers for both phases:

Table 16

Sampling Methods Used for Data Collection in the Study

Sampling Layer	Sampling element	Sampling method	Phase I	Phase II
1	Research site	Criterion sampling	√	
		Convenience sampling		√
2	Participants	Criterion sampling	√	√

As seen in Table 9, for sampling the research site (i.e. layer 1), criterion sampling was employed in phase I and convenience sampling was used in phase II. For sampling the participants (i.e. layer 2), however, criterion sampling was used for both phases of the study. The procedures used for these sampling processes are delineated in the ensuing sections.

3.4.1. Sampling layer 1: Selection of ELT departments

In the first layer in Phase I, criterion sampling (see Bryman, 2012, p. 418) was used for selecting the ELT departments based on a key criterion: 'selecting the most well-established ELT department in each of the seven geographical regions in Turkey'. This criterion emerged from the need to obtain an in-depth appreciation of specific cases that are known as 'information-rich cases' (Patton, 2015, p. 77). Moreover, this criterion stemmed from the assumption that these ELT departments were more likely to involve information-rich cases when compared to other ELT departments in their region. To fulfil this criterion, the most well-established ELT department in each of the seven geographical regions in Turkey was determined on the bases of minimum university entrance exam (i.e. ÖSS) scores of the students enrolled in the ELT departments in the preceding year, i.e. 2014. These scores were retrieved from the online version of the 2014 ÖSS Minimum Scores Guideline—a guideline regularly published by YÖK which indicates the scores pertaining to the enrolments having taken place in the preceding years (see YÖK Student Placement Atlas). The guideline indicated a research universe comprising 42 ELT

departments in state universities. From among these, seven ELT departments with the highest minimum scores were sampled, with one department for each of the seven geographical regions in Turkey. Table 17 presents the universities to which the sampled ELT departments were affiliated and their corresponding geographical regions:

Table 17

Universities of the ELT Departments Sampled in Phase I

University	**Geographical region**
Boğaziçi University	Marmara Region
Dokuz Eylül University	Aegean Region
Çukurova University	Mediterranean Region
Ondokuz Mayıs University	Black Sea Region
Middle East Technical University	Central Anatolia Region
Ataturk University	Eastern Anatolia Region
Gaziantep University	South-eastern Anatolia Region

For the second phase of the study, convenience sampling strategy was employed. Dicle University Ziya Gokalp Education Faculty ELT Department located in Diyarbakır was chosen due to ease of access by the researcher.

3.4.2. Sampling layer 2: Selection of participants

In the second layer in phase I, the participants were chosen via criterion sampling strategy. This criterion was: selecting the final-year ELT students (i.e. pre-service teachers) and lecturers in the universities sampled in layer 1. Accordingly, the pre-service teachers and lecturers at the ELT departments sampled in the first layer were sampled as the participants of phase I.

Similarly, in the second layer in Phase II, the participants were identified using criterion sampling based on the following criteria: (i) an ELT lecturer teaching speaking skills (for semi-structured interview-2) and (ii) a group of first-year ELT students (for the focus group interview) who had recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course.

The characteristics and total numbers of participants that undertook each data collection tool are explicated in the following sections.

3.5. Participants

As mentioned in Section 3.3, the questionnaire was administered to 395 participants, semi-structured interview-1 was conducted with 86 participants, focus group interview was undertaken by six participants, and semi-structured interview-2 was conducted with one participant.

The 395 participants that undertook the questionnaire comprised 34 lecturers and 361 pre-service teachers, from seven universities in Turkey, as shown in Table 18:

Table 18

Demographic Characteristics of Questionnaire Participants

Variable	Category	Title	N	%
University	Ataturk	Lecturer	8	23.5
		PT	18	5.0
	Boğaziçi	Lecturer	3	8.8
		PT	56	15.5
	Çukurova	Lecturer	5	14.7
		PT	59	16.3
	Dokuz Eylül	Lecturer	5	14.7
		PT	79	21.9
	Gaziantep	Lecturer	4	11.8
		PT	34	9.4
	METU	Lecturer	7	20.6
		PT	50	13.9
	Ondokuz Mayıs	Lecturer	2	5.9
		PT	65	18.0
Gender	Male	Lecturer	12	35.3
		PT	81	22.4
	Female	Lecturer	22	64.7
		PT	280	77.6
Age	20-30	Lecturer	8	23.5
		PT	354	98.6
	31–40	Lecturer	13	38.2
		PT	4	1.1
	41 or older	Lecturer	13	38.2
		PT	1	0.3

Notes. PT = Pre-service teacher; Total number of lecturers = 34; Total number of pre-service teachers = 361

As clearly seen in Table 18, the highest participation among lecturers was from Ataturk University (n=8; 23.5%) and the highest participation among pre-service teachers was from Dokuz Eylül University (n=79; 21.9%). As for the genders, there was a female preponderance both in lecturers (n=22; 64.7%) and in pre-service teachers (n=280; 77.6%). Expectedly, the lecturers were older than the pre-service teachers, whereby most

of the lecturers were aged over 31 years (76.4%) and almost all of the pre-service teachers were aged below 30 years (98.6%) (Table 18).

Semi-structured interview-1 was administered on a voluntary basis to the participants who completed the questionnaire. Of the 395 participants who completed the questionnaire, a total of 86 participants volunteered to undertake semi-structured interview-1. Table 19 presents the characteristics of the participants that undertook semi-structured interview-1:

Table 19

Demographic Characteristics of Participants Surveyed in Semi-Structured Interview-1

Variable	Category	Title	N	%
University	Ataturk	Lecturer	6	15.8
		PT	4	8.3
	Boğaziçi	Lecturer	5	13.2
		PT	9	18.8
	Çukurova	Lecturer	7	18.4
		PT	10	20.8
	Dokuz Eylül	Lecturer	4	10.5
		PT	7	14.6
	Gaziantep	Lecturer	5	13.2
		PT	5	10.4
	METU	Lecturer	7	18.4
		PT	5	10.4
	Ondokuz Mayıs	Lecturer	4	10.5
		PT	8	16.7
Gender	Male	Lecturer	11	28.9
		PT	6	12.5
	Female	Lecturer	27	71.1
		PT	42	87.5

Notes. PT = Pre-service teacher; Total number of lecturers = 34; Total number of pre-service teachers = 361

The 86 participants comprised 38 (44.2%) lecturers and 48 (55.8%) pre-service teachers. The highest participation among lecturers was from Çukurova University (n=10; 20.8%) while the highest participation among pre-service teachers was from Boğaziçi University (n=9; 18.8%). As was the case in the questionnaire participants, there was also a female preponderance among the participants who undertook this interview, both in the lecturers (n=27; 71.1%) and in the pre-service teachers (n=42; 87.5%) (Table 19).

As explained earlier, focus group interview was implemented with a total of six volunteering first-year ELT students at Dicle University Ziya Gökalp Education Faculty ELT Department. The students were chosen on a voluntary basis among the 25 students

that were present in the classroom on the day of the survey. All six students were male and their ages ranged between 22 and 28 years.

Semi-structured interview-2, unlike other interviews, was administered to only one participant who was a male ELT lecturer aged 39 and held an M.A. degree in ELT.

3.6. Research context

As indicated in previous chapters, both phases of the study were conducted in the ELT departments at eight state universities in Turkey, with the first phase conducted in seven universities and the second phase in one university. The ELT programme at B.A. level in Turkey is the primary teacher education programme established for training prospective English teachers in Turkey, for which there is a standard curriculum managed by YÖK. In this programme, students are provided with three main types of courses: (1) *major courses*, which are related to the skills and subskills of English language (e.g. Oral Communication Skills, Reading Skills, Writing Skills and so on) or ELT methodology courses (e.g. Teaching English to Young Children), (2) *pedagogic courses*, which involve the basics of pedagogic courses that should be taught in all teacher education programmes in Turkey (e.g. Educational Sociology), and (3) *general culture courses*, which are obligatory courses taught in all B.A. programmes (e.g. Ataturk's Principles and History of Turkish Reforms) (see YÖK ELT Curriculum). In the ELT programme, the primary medium of instruction is English in the major courses, whereas the pedagogical and general culture courses are delivered in Turkish language. However, among the major courses, only the courses named Oral Communication Skills and Listening and Pronunciation, both of which are delivered during the first year of the ELT programme, has a direct relationship with the teaching and learning of English speaking skills while the remaining courses (e.g. Reading, Linguistics, English Literature) have an indirect relationship (see Kırkgöz, 2009; also see YÖK ELT Curriculum). Both of these courses are taught for two hours a week. Of these, the Oral Communication Skills course aims to train students on English speaking skills such as initiating conversations, delivering presentations, discussing on a given topic, and expressing their thoughts/feelings using verbal and nonverbal communication. As for the Listening and Pronunciation course, the primary aim is to train students on analysing a speech delivered in English in terms of comprehension, transcribing a speech using phonetic symbols, and mastering prosodic features such as stress, intonation, and pitch (see YÖK ELT Curriculum).

In line with the information above, the first phase of the present study aimed to investigate the perceptions of Turkish ELT pre-service teachers and lecturers on the learning and teaching of English speaking skills throughout the four-year curriculum, both overtly and covertly, while the second phase (i.e. the case study) aimed to elicit the 'fresher' perceptions of first-year ELT students and a lecturer who had recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding the effect of overt teaching of English speaking skills.

As mentioned above, the second phase was conducted with the students and lecturer who had completed the Oral Communication Skills course at Dicle University Ziya Gökalp Education Faculty ELT Department. Prior to the implementation of semi-structured interview-2, the lecturer was requested to provide information about the course, course content, teaching approach/methodology, and specific details about the course and/or students (if any). The lecturer indicated that the course was delivered for two hours/week and the class was divided into two branches (A & B, with 28 and 30 students, respectively). Additionally, the teaching approach in class was Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) (see Section 2.2.8.4) and the coursebook used in class was *Further Communication Strategies* by Paul (2004), which included activities such as discussions, role-plays, pair-works, group works, and whole-class activities incorporated into a wide range of themes including *attitudes, health, women in society, politics,* and *globalization*. In addition to the coursebook, the lecturer also provided the students with audio-visual materials and assignments, most of which required the use of online resources such as Youtube. As for the class environment, the seats were arranged in the standard row-seating and were fixed to the ground.

3.7. Data collection

As mentioned in Section 3.2, the questionnaire was administered in the presence of the researcher, who at times was requested to provide clarification for ambiguous points. As for the three interviews, all of them were administered via face-to-face interview while semi-structured interview-1 was also administered via telephone conversation for six participants (including five pre-service teachers and one lecturer), all of whom requested being interviewed by telephone as they indicated that they would not available for a face-to-face interview on the day of the survey (for details, see Section 3.5).

The questionnaire and semi-structured interview-1 (i.e. phase I) were administered on the same day in each ELT department, with the interview conducted after the questionnaire. Similarly, semi-structured interview-2 and focus group interview (i.e. phase II) were also administered on the same day, with the semi-structured interview conducted prior to the focus group interview. All the three interviews were conducted using a digital voice recorder (Sony® IC Voice Recorder, ICD-PX440, Sony Corp., Tokyo, Japan). Table 13 presents the dates of administration for each phase (Table 20):

Table 20

Dates of Data Collection Phases

University	**Phase I**	**Phase II**
Gaziantep University	October 3, 2016	
Çukurova University	October 4, 2016	
Dokuz Eylül University	October 10, 2016	
Boğaziçi University	October 11, 2016	
Ondokuz Mayıs University	October 12, 2016	
Middle East Technical University	October 18, 2016	
Atatürk University	October 19, 2016	
Dicle University		May 22, 2019

The procedures undertaken for each data collection method will be delineated in the forthcoming sections.

3.7.1. Phase I: Questionnaire and semi-structured interview-1

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire was administered under direct supervision of the researcher. Prior to visiting the sampled ELT departments, the researcher received an official permission from each department (see Appendices P-V) and contacted each department head by telephone to make an appointment for the planned visit. On the day of the appointment, the researcher arrived in the ELT department and convened with the lecturer who was recruited by the department head to accompany the researcher. In company with the lecturer, the researcher entered the classroom where fourth-year students (i.e. pre-service teachers) were present for the administration of the questionnaire and of semi-structured interview-1. Following a brief introduction by the lecturer, the researcher provided information regarding the scope and aim of the study as well as the ethical issues regarding data collection (e.g. confidentiality, anonymity). In the meantime, the researcher also notified the students that there would be a follow-up interview after

the implementation of the questionnaire and that the interview would take them no more than 10 minutes. The researcher emphasised that both the questionnaire and the interview will be conducted on a voluntary basis and asked the students to feel free to decline participation any time they wished. After ensuring that there was no ambiguous point regarding the procedure, the researcher distributed the questionnaire forms to the students and asked them to read the items carefully and to feel free to ask for clarification any time needed.

After the completion of the questionnaire session, the researcher collected the completed forms and reminded the students about the interview. Within a short period of time, the non-volunteering students left the classroom and the volunteering students showed their willingness by remaining in the classroom. Prior to the interview, the researcher reiterated the scope and the aims of the study and asked the students to choose the language of interview in which they would feel most comfortable (i.e. English or Turkish). The researcher also asked them to decide on the order of interviewing, so as to avoid the risk of anxiety by establishing a good rapport with the respondents (see Fontana and Frey, 2005, p. 708). Before probing the interview questions, the researcher asked each interviewee to read the consent form (see Appendix K) and sign it if he/she approved it. Before starting the actual recording, a mock recording was performed by the researcher so as to avoid the risk of poor voice quality or technical failure. The actual recording was initiated by starting the recording and probing the first question in the interview guide. After eliciting the answer to the final question in the interview, the researcher asked each interviewee whether he/she would like to add any ideas or remarks that were not brought up during the interview; however, only very few interviewees made additional remarks. At the end of each session, the researcher thanked each interviewee and finalized the recording, and then voice-checked the last recording and proceeded to the following interview session after ensuring the quality of the record. For the remaining sessions, the researcher administered the same procedure abovementioned. After completing all the interviews in the same classroom, the researcher thanked all the participants once again and then left the classroom (for Interviewing procedure, see Legard, Keegan, and Ward, 2003, pp. 142-146). Immediately after this process, the researcher backed up the recording files into a hard drive so as to avoid the risk of data loss (see Section 3.9.3). Afterwards, the researcher visited the lecturers that were present in their offices to conduct the questionnaire and semi-structured interview-1 sessions with them. After entering each office, the researcher briefly introduced himself and then asked each

lecturer to participate in the questionnaire and interview. If the lecturer did not show willingness to participate, the researcher proceeded to other offices. Both the questionnaire and interview sessions were administered to the volunteering lecturers, using the same procedure conducted with the pre-service teachers, as mentioned above. After ensuring that all the volunteering lecturers were surveyed, the researcher backed up the recording files and left the ELT department.

As mentioned earlier, the questionnaire was administered to a total of 395 participants including 361 pre-service teachers and 34 lecturers and the semi-structured interview-1 was administered to a total of 86 participants including 48 pre-service teachers and 38 lecturers. Of the 86 participants interviewed, a total of six participants (including five pre-service teachers and one lecturer) declared that they were not available for a face-to-face interview on the day of the survey and thus requested to be interviewed by telephone in the following days. To achieve this, the researcher requested these participants to read and sign the consent form (if they approved it) in advance and then shared his mobile phone number with the participants and requested them to call him (i.e. the researcher) as soon as they became available for an interview. Within several days, the participants called the researcher and the interviews were conducted by telephone, using the same procedure as in face-to-face interviews.

The interviews conducted with pre-service teachers were remarkably shorter than those of lecturers, whereby the mean duration of records was 4:20 min for pre-service teachers and 9:32 min for lecturers. Moreover, most of the pre-service teachers (n=43; 90%) and lecturers (n=28; 73.7%) preferred the Turkish language for the interview, rather than English (see Appendix X for the durations and languages of interview sessions conducted for semi-structured interview-1).

3.7.2. Phase II - Semi-structured interview-2 and focus group interview

As mentioned in Section 3.4, the second phase of the survey was implemented at Dicle University Ziya Gökalp Education Faculty ELT department after having obtained official permission for the administration of data collection. This phase, as opposed to the first phase, was conducted on a single day (May 22, 2019). Prior to the implementation of this phase, the researcher conducted a telephone conversation with the lecturer who had been delivering the Oral Communication Skills course with first-year students during the academic year 2018-2019. During the conversation, the researcher expounded on the

scope and aims of the survey and asked for an appointment for both interviews. After checking his weekly schedule, the lecturer made an appointment for May 22, 2019 for both interviews. On the day of the appointment, the researcher arrived at the ELT department and initially performed a semi-structured interview with the lecturer. However, this interview, unlike semi-structured interview-1, was conducted with paper and pencil since the interviewee refused to have his interview recorded. Conceivably, the researcher wrote down the responses provided by the interviewee, which took around 30 minutes in total. Moreover, the interview was conducted in Turkish language, as requested by the participant. After completing this interview, the researcher, in company with the lecturer, entered the classroom where the focus group interview would be conducted. Following a brief introduction by the lecturer, the researcher provided extensive information about the survey and the interview and emphasized that the interview will be conducted on a voluntary basis. Out of the 25 students that were present in the class, six students volunteered to participate in the study. Subsequently, the lecturer resumed the lesson and the researcher remained in the classroom until the lesson was finished. Once the other students and the lecturer abandoned the classroom, the researcher started the procedure with the six volunteering students remaining in the classroom. Prior to the initiation of the procedure, the researcher conversed with the students using small-talk to establish a good rapport (see Patton, 2015, p. 634). In the meantime, the researcher asked the participants about their language preference and all the participants opted for the Turkish language. Afterwards, the researcher arranged an optimal seating plan to allow the best voice quality during the recording. A mock recording was conducted to ensure the voice quality of the recording. The procedure was commenced by starting the recording and probing the first question. The interviewees took it in turns to answer each question. Throughout the session, the researcher ensured that each participant provided a sufficient response for each question. After probing the final question, the researcher asked the participants whether they had any additional remarks. After obtaining additional remarks (if any), the recording was finalized at 59:17 minutes. The researcher double-checked the voice quality of the recording and after seeing that the recording had been achieved smoothly, the researched thanked the participants and left the department. Thereafter, the researcher backed up the recording file to avoid data loss (see Section 3.9.3).

The quantitative and qualitative data collected through four instruments were collected in a single folder on the computer and were prepared for data analysis. The procedures conducted for data analysis will be elaborated on in the forthcoming section.

3.8. Data analysis

The present study collected both quantitative and qualitative data and amalgamated both data types using the analysis technique known as triangulation (see Section 3.8.3) to provide an in-depth descriptive account of the subject matter. Before proceeding to the triangulation stage, both data types were analysed separately, whereby the quantitative data was analysed using IBM SPSS version 19.0.) and the qualitative data was analysed using content analysis, as explained in detail in the following sections.

3.8.1. Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data analysis basically involves "techniques by which researchers convert data to a numerical form and subject it to statistical analyses" (Babbie, 2007, p. 405). These techniques, in turn, are based on the descriptive statistics elicited from the data obtained via questionnaires (ibid). Descriptive statistics, as delineated by Mackey and Gass (2005), are statistics that "provide a simple summary or overview of the data, thus allowing researchers to gain a better overall understanding of the data set" (pp. 250-251). These statistics are elicited after the raw data is entered in the statistical programme/software and are used to clarify the complexities existing within the raw data (Johnson, 2013, p. 288). To perform these statistics, however, the raw data entered to the software need to be identified in terms of variables. Variables, in statistical sense, are defined as "approximations of the thing being measured" and "characteristics behaviors, and phenomena being researched" (Robby and Gitsaki, 2015, p. 254). Variables can be either dependent or independent, with the former being the output variable being tested and measured in a study or experiment and latter being the variable that can be modulated or controlled to test the effectivity of the dependent variable (ibid). On the other hand, variables are also divided as continuous and categorical variables, with the former being "numeric measurements that can theoretically take on any value, or at least any value within a certain range" and the latter being variables whose values "fall into two or more distinct categories, rather than having a range of intermediate possibilities" (Johnson, 2013, pp. 289-290).

In the present study, quantitative data analysis was performed using IBM SPSS version 19.0 (IBM Corp. Released 2010. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 19.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp). To attain descriptive statistics, a number of preliminary steps were achieved. The first step was data coding, in which each item in the two questionnaires (i.e. lecturer and pre-service teacher versions) was converted to a numeric format on IBM SPSS software, as seen in Table 21:

Table 21

Codebook Developed for Entering Questionnaire Responses into SPSS Software

ITEM NO. (L – PT)	**ITEM TYPE**	**SPSS TYPE**	**SPSS MEASURE**	**SPSS VALUES**
1	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-2
2	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-3
3	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Ordinal	1-4
4	Open-ended – specific open	Numeric	Nominal	1-4
5	Open-ended – specific open	Numeric	Nominal	1-4
6	Open-ended – specific open	String	Nominal	N/A
7 – 4	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Ordinal	1-7
8 – 5	Closed-ended – checklist	String	Nominal	N/A
9 – 6	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-5
10 – 7	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-2
11 – 8	Open-ended – clarification	String	Nominal	N/A
12 – 9	Closed-ended – scale	Numeric	Scale	1-3
13 – 10	Closed-ended – checklist	String	Nominal	N/A
14 – 11	Closed-ended – checklist	String	Nominal	N/A
15 – 12	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-9
16 – 13	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-9
17 – 14	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-9
18 – 15	Closed-ended – scale	Numeric	Scale	1-4
19 – 16	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Nominal	1-5
20 – 17	Open-ended – specific open	String	Nominal	N/A
21 – 18	Closed-ended – scale	Numeric	Scale	1-5
22 – 19	Closed-ended – scale	Numeric	Scale	1-5
23 – 20	Closed-ended – scale	Numeric	Scale	1-5
24 – 21	Open-ended – specific open	String	Nominal	N/A
25 – 22	Closed-ended – multiple-choice	Numeric	Ordinal	1-4
26 – 23	Closed-ended – scale	Numeric	Scale	1-5
27 – 24	Closed-ended – scale	Numeric	Scale	1-5

Notes. L: Lecturer, PT: Pre-service teacher, N/A: Not applicable

Codebook, as seen in Table 21, is a detailed document involving the description, type (numeric, string, text), and measure (nominal, ordinal, scale) of variables (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 40). Accordingly, the SPSS type and measure of each item was determined based on the categorical type of each item. Moreover, the SPSS value of each item was defined based on the options provided for each of them. To illustrate, in a three-point Likert-type scale, a value of "0" was assigned for *No opinion*, "1" for *No*, and "2" for *Yes*. Additionally, however, no SPSS value was assigned for the items that were

classified as ‘scale’ since they had no fixed options that could be converted to a systematic numeric system (ibid).

In the second step, all the responses elicited by the questionnaires were entered into an SPSS file using their corresponding codes. The entries were double-checked by a colleague with more than 10 year’s experience in SPSS applications. Subsequently, descriptive statistics were elicited using SPSS modules including *Frequencies*, *Descriptives*, and *Crosstabs*. These statistics were then represented in the Findings chapter using frequencies (N), means (M), standard deviation, and Z score (see Section 4.2). Moreover, these statistics were also used in visual images such as graphs, bar charts, and diagrams, as applicable.

In addition to descriptive statistics, inferential statistics were also elicited from the data to determine the statistically significant differences between the perceptions of pre-service teachers and lecturers (George and Mallery, 2006). For a start, normal distribution of data was tested using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests to determine the statistical method(s) to be used for the comparison of variables (i.e. parametric or nonparametric methods). Below is an example the outcome of obtained for the item “*I feel that I speak English as well as a native speaker*.” (Table 22):

Table 22

Outcomes of Normality Tests Obtained for the Item “I feel that I speak English as Well as a Native Speaker”

Tests of Normality

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
AsWellAsNativeSpeaker	.388	392	.000	.660	392	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As clearly seen in Table 22, both tests provided a significance level of 0.000, indicating that there is no normal distribution in the data being analysed and thus nonparametric tests can be employed for comparisons (ibid, p. 388). Additionally, these outcomes were supported by the histogram plotted for the same questionnaire item (Figure 5):

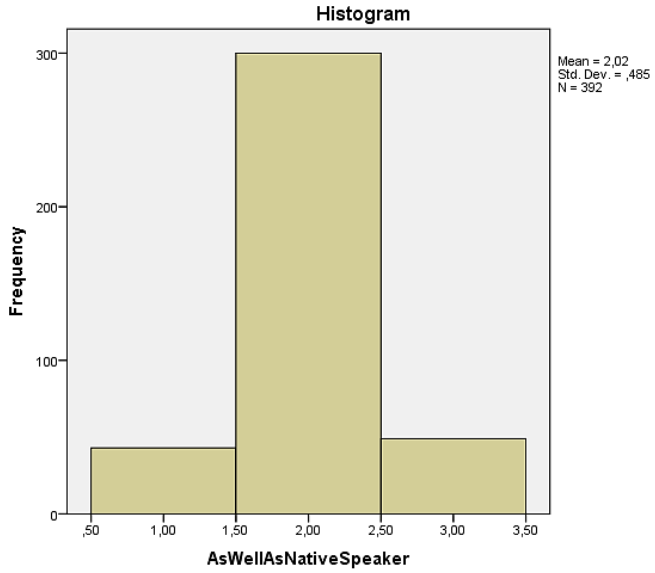


Figure 5. Histogram plot elicited by Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests

The histogram plot also indicated that the distribution is not equal and is mostly concentrated in the centre. Likewise, the same analysis was performed for all the variables to be compared between the two groups and the same outcomes were obtained (p=0.000 for both tests). Based on these findings, all the comparisons between the two groups were performed using the Mann-Whitney U test, which is the nonparametric equivalent of the independent t-test, since the number of variables in the comparison was 2 (ibid).

3.8.2. Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis, as opposed to quantitative data analysis, involves research methods that are not based on converting data into a numerical form. Rather, it involves "nonnumerical examination and interpretation of observations, for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships" (Babbie, 2007, p. 379). As such, qualitative data analysis relies heavily on the investigative and interrogative skills of the researcher as well as his/her personal insights in the context being researched. Moreover, the primary task of a qualitative researcher is to make a personal sense of a case, object or event in the data rather than making predictions related to that entity (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 113). This personal sense-making process can be administered using a well-known technique called 'content analysis', which is defined as "an approach to the analysis of documents and texts that seeks to quantify content in terms of predetermined categories and in a systematic and replicable manner" (Bryman, 2012, pp. 290-291). In such analysis, the researcher scans a pre-transcribed text to identify recurring

words, patterns or themes (Patton, 2015, p. 624) and this technique is specifically used for the analysis and interpretation of "recorded human communications, such as books, websites, paintings, and laws" (Babbie, 2007, p. 320).

In the present study, qualitative data analysis was performed using content analysis on the transcripts of three recorded interviews: (1) semi-structured interview-1 (86 participants), (2) semi-structured interview-2 (one participant), and (3) focus group interview (six participants) (for detailed information on interviews, see Section 3.3). The content analysis was conducted by administering the following procedures (Figure 6):

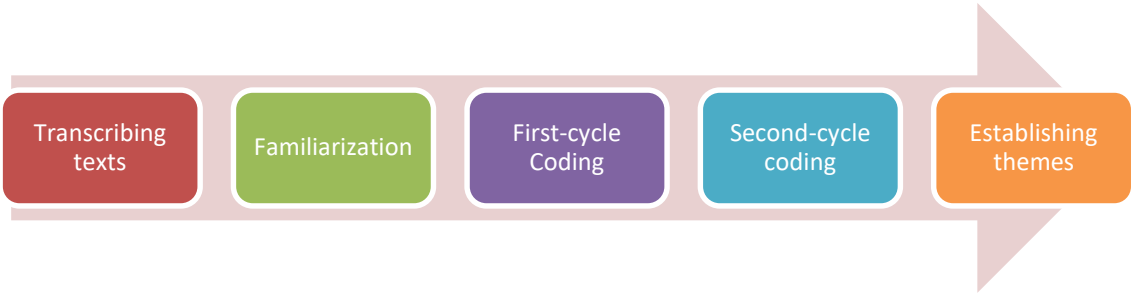


Figure 6. Overview of procedures used for content analysis

These steps are explained in detail in the forthcoming sections.

3.8.2.1. Transcription

Transcription is the foremost step taken in a qualitative (i.e. content) analysis which allows researchers to get familiarized with their text thoroughly (Dörnyei, 2011, p. 246). Transcription is a prerequisite for conversation and discourse analysis and is commonly used for the interpretation of interviews and focus group interviews. As such, transcription provides numerous advantages to researchers such as allowing them to perform more systematic and repeated examinations of the answers provided by the interviewees, to present the interview data to public investigation if needed, to defy the allegations that the researcher might have influenced and/or manipulated the course of the interview, and to use the data for additional purposes or strategies (Bryman, 2012, p. 482).

In the current study, the recordings obtained via two interviews (i.e. semi-structured interview-1 and focus group interview) were transcribed separately, using Microsoft Word (Microsoft Office Professional Plus 2010, Version 14.0.7128.5000). Both transcripts were typed using a standard format (Font: Calibri; Size: 12; Line spacing: 1.5) and using general transcription rules; conversational breaks were denoted using *(...)*,

incomprehensible parts were denoted as *(incomp)*, unclear transcriptions were denoted as *(abc)*, and paralinguistic utterances were expressed (e.g. *sighing*) (Flick, 2010, p. 301). An example excerpt of a transcript is provided below:

> *R: What do you think about 'knowing about English' and 'being able to speak English'?*
> *L02: Well … of course, 'to know English' means not only Speaking, but other abilities as well. In English you can read, think, listen to English, respond and write in English. You can speak English means that (incomp) you can repeat the words up to some elementary level and you can maybe speak probably in Intermediate level, like you can respond to some basic conversations. Maybe in the better (abc) level, at advanced level, you can respond and communicate through speaking to people maybe about news, politics, culture. So (sighing) … I mean, there are different levels in speaking.*
> *R: Researcher, L: Lecturer*

The same procedure was performed for transcribing semi-structured interview-2. However, this transcription was conducted on the detailed notes taken by the researcher during the interview since the participant (i.e. the lecturer) refused to have his voice recorded (for details, see Section 3.7).

Following the completion of all three transcripts, the researcher read along all the transcripts to check each transcript for potential spelling errors and also to familiarize himself with the general context of each transcript—a procedure termed "pre-coding" by Dörnyei (2011, p. 250). Subsequently, all the transcripts were reviewed by a colleague experienced in qualitative data analysis.

3.8.2.2. Coding

Coding is a key component of qualitative analysis referring to "the process of assigning numerals or other symbols to answers so that responses can be put into a limited number of categories or classes" (Kothari, 2004, p. 123). Put differently, coding is the procedure in which raw data are converted into a standardized numerical form that can be employed for computer-based analysis (Babbie, 2007, p. 325). In this procedure, recurring words/phrases are identified throughout the text and then grouped into codes (concepts) and categories (constructs) (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 113). These codes can be

elicited in two ways. In the first approach, the researcher performs coding based on a preconcerted template of codes. This template is also known as ‘coding manual’, which is defined as “a statement of instructions to coders that also includes all the possible categories for each subsection being coded” (Bryman, 2012, p. 299). By using this manual, the codes are deductively elicited from the text. In the second approach, however, the codes are elicited from the text by way of inductive reasoning and the researcher may need to revise or reinvestigate previous codes (Babbie, 2007, p. 296).

The coding procedure is typically administered in three stages. In the first stage, which is also known as *first-cycle coding*, the researcher highlights the words/phrases in the transcript that are directly pertinent to the subject matter and may add notes as necessary. Subsequently, the researcher establishes codes from these highlighted words/phrases and may generate his/her own codes or may directly use the words/phrases mentioned by interviewees, which is called *in-vivo coding* (Miles et al., 2014, pp. 74-80). In the second stage, second-cycle coding, the researcher forms patterns from the codes established in the previous stage. To achieve this, the researcher goes through all participants’ accounts to elicit the patterns emerging from these accounts and then clusters them under a broader category or construct. Both the first and second stages can be repeated by the researcher as many times as needed until ‘theoretical saturation’ is reached, i.e. when no new or further codes can be elicited from the data. The final stage, however, is dependent on the outcomes obtained from the coding process itself. In this stage, the codes and categories formed in previous stages are used to form overarching themes. These themes, in turn, are used for justifying the hypotheses that were built up by the researcher beforehand or those that emerged from the codes elicited from the data (Saldana, 2009, p. 161; Miles et al., 2014, p. 74; Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 115).

In the present study, all the three transcripts were coded separately. Initially, the transcript pertaining to semi-structured interview-1 was coded and the coding procedure was performed by following the three stages abovementioned. In the first stage, the words/phrases that were directly related to the subject matter addressed by the research questions were highlighted and the emerging codes were numbered in the order of occurrence. To produce codes, however, the researcher employed in-vivo coding and also created his own codes where in-vivo coding did not seem viable. An example of first-cycle coding procedure is provided in Figure 7:

The language proficiency exams implemented in our country[1] are overwhelmingly focused on grammar and academic vocabulary[2]. There is a real communication problem there; they are not the things we need[3] for authentic communication[4]. Despite this, our language proficiency is currently tested[5] in this way.	[1]Proficiency exams in Turkey [2]Grammar- and vocabulary-oriented [3]Unsuitable for communication [4] Unsuitable for authentic communication [5]Current situation	Problematic testing

Figure 7. First-cycle coding example

The example given in Figure 8 presents an excerpt taken from the interview with a preservice teacher (semi-structured interview-1, PT-09). When coding this excerpt, the codes 1, 2, and 5 were produced via in-vivo coding while the codes 3 and 4 were created by the researcher.

After performing the same procedure across the entire transcript, the researcher proceeded to the second stage and categorized these codes based on their similarities and patterns. Subsequently, both the first and second stages were administered to elicit further codes which were later used for creating categories by searching for relationships among them until theoretical saturation was reached. These categories and subcategories were then operationally defined (see Section 4.3.1).

The second transcript to be coded was the one pertaining to the semi-structured interview-2, which was administered to only one participant (i.e. the ELT lecturer who had delivered a one-year Oral Communication Skills course). For this transcript as well, codes were created from the transcript during the first and second stages, respectively. These two stages were repeated to attain further codes and categories. After reaching theoretical saturation, these categories and subcategories were operationally defined (see Section 4.3.2).

The third transcript subjected to the coding process was the one pertaining to the focus group interview which was administered to a total of six students. For this transcript, however, codes and categories were created based on the codes elicited from semi-structured interview-2, considering that both interviews shared questions that were well-aligned to each other. The codes and categories created based on the coding manual were tested through the text. Similar to the previous steps, following the revision of the codes and categories, after reaching theoretical saturation, the categories and subcategories were operationally defined (see Section 4.3.3).

After completing both quantitative and qualitative data analyses, the outcomes were amalgamated using the triangulation technique, which will be delineated in the following section.

3.8.3. Triangulation

Triangulation is simply defined as "the use of different methods and sources to check the integrity of, or extend, inferences drawn from the data" (Ritchie, 2003, p. 43). As such, triangulation is widely used for combining the data obtained via qualitative and quantitative analyses, in an attempt to obtain the same findings and also to validate them through comparisons (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 181; Bryman, 2012, 392). Denzin (1978; as cited in Patton, 2015, p. 316) described four types of triangulation: (I) *data triangulation*, which is used for combining various data sources in a single study, (II) *investigator triangulation*, which involves the recruitment of multiple researchers in a single study, (III) *theory triangulation*, which is used for combining several perspectives for the interpretation of a single dataset, and (IV) *methodological triangulation*, which involves the use of several methods for the investigation of a single topic or problem.

In the present study, methodological triangulation was employed to combine the quantitative and qualitative findings of the study, in attempts to attain a deeper insight into phenomenon from different perspectives. In the first step, the findings obtained via three interviews were combined depending on their overlapping aspects, e.g. problems encountered in class. In the second step, these findings were compared with the quantitative findings elicited via the questionnaire, so as to provide a comparative account of the subject matter. In doing so, the gaps, differences, overlaps, contrasts, and similarities between quantitative and qualitative data were identified and analysed.

3.9. Ethical considerations

Qualitative researchers engage in interventions that affect people and thus are expected to be aware of and obey a set of general rules shared by researchers. These rules are highly essential for determining what is 'right' and what is 'wrong' when conducting scientific inquiry (Babbie, 2007, p. 62; Kubanyiova, 2015, pp. 176-177). Accordingly, ethical standards are needed to prevent researchers from "manipulating their data collection, analysis, and interpretation procedures in a way that contradicts the principles of science or the scientific method or advances their personal agenda" (Bhattacherjee,

2012, p. 137) and from advancing "their private agenda and engaging in activities that are contrary to the norms of scientific conduct" (Lewis, 2003, p 66). When these standards are ignored, the researchers, according to Patton (2015), are tempted to digress from the primary aim of the research:

> The purpose of a research interview is first and foremost to gather data, not change people. . . . an interviewer is not a judge. Neither is a research interviewer a therapist. Staying focused on the purpose of the interview is critical to gathering high-quality data. Still, there will be many temptations to stray from that purpose. It is common for interviewees to ask for advice, approval, or confirmation. Yielding to these temptations, the interviewer may become the interviewee—answering more questions than are asked (p. 737).

To avoid such discrepancies, researchers are expected to follow a number of general principles concerning the respondents' rights as well as researcher-respondent relationships (Miles et al., 2014, p. 68). The followings are common principles cited in the literature (Berg, 2001, pp. 54-60; Merriam, 2009, pp. 247-248):

- informed consent
- anonymity and confidentiality
- data security
- honesty and trust
- objectivity

These principles are explicated in the following sections.

3.9.1. Informed consent

Informed consent is defined as "the knowing consent of individuals to participate as an exercise of their choice, free from any element of fraud, deceit, duress, or similar unfair inducement or manipulation" (Berg, 2001, p. 56). As such, an informed consent is a prerequisite for ensuring voluntary participation of respondents. To achieve voluntary participation, an informed consent is expected to provide sufficient information to the respondents regarding the description and aims of the survey as well as data collection procedures and should also contain information about how the anonymity and confidentiality of the participants will be secured (Kubanyiova, 2015, pp. 176-177).

To address the issues abovementioned, the researcher initially obtained an official permission from each of the seven ELT departments where the first phase of the study was planned to take place (i.e. questionnaire and semi-structured interview-1) (see Appendices P-V) and also from the one ELT department where the second phase of the

study was planned to take place (i.e. semi-structured interview-2 and focus group interview) (see Appendix W) (also see Section 3.7.2). Prior to the implementation of phase I, the lecturers in all seven universities were emailed about the survey and were asked whether they would like to participate, in an attempt to inform them about the planned survey and to obtain their personal consent prior to the survey. However, only a small portion of the lecturers provided a reply, most of whom showed willingness to participate and few of whom stated that they would not be available for undertaking the survey on the day of the survey.

After arriving at the survey settings, the researcher provided information to each lecturer and pre-service teacher about the scope and aim of the study as well as ethical issues (e.g. confidentiality, anonymity) before administering the questionnaire and also notified the participants that there would be a follow-up interview after the implementation of the questionnaire which would take them no more than 10 minutes. The researcher emphasised that both the questionnaire and the interview will be conducted on a voluntary basis and asked the pre-service teachers to feel free to decline participation any time they wished. After ensuring that there was no ambiguous point regarding the procedure, the researcher distributed the questionnaire forms to the volunteering students and asked them to feel free to ask for clarification any time needed. For the follow-up interview, the researcher delivered a consent form and requested each participant to read and then sign it if he/she approved it before undertaking the interview (see Appendix K). Conceivably, no participant declined to undertake the questionnaire or the semi-structured interview-1. In the second phase, the same procedure was implemented for both interviews (see Appendix L and M for informed consent forms for phase II) and, similarly, no participant declined to undertake the interview.

3.9.2. Anonymity and confidentiality

In line with the notion of ‘informed consent’ abovementioned, participants should be assured by the researcher that their participation is on a voluntary basis and that they will not be harmed in any way either by participation or non-participation. Harm, in this sense, encompasses both physical and educational or psychological variations, e.g. granting a bonus for participants and not granting a bonus for non-participating individuals. To avoid this risk, the researcher is expected to ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents. By ensuring anonymity, the research ascertains that

the researcher him/herself or readers of the final report of the research will not be able to identify a given response with a specific participant. By ensuring confidentiality, however, the research promises to keep participants' responses confidential and also promises not to disclose the identity of the respondents in any paper, platform, or forum even when the researcher identifies them (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 138; Bryman, 2012, p. 136).

In the current study, utmost care was taken to ensure both anonymity and confidentiality of the participants by following several strictly defined principles. First and foremost, the lecturers' interviews were conducted in the office of each lecturer, with the office door closed throughout the session. Additionally, in the case of an interruption or an unexpected visit into the office during the recording, the recording, hence the interview session, was paused and then was resumed following the interruption. As for the interviews conducted with the students, each interview was administered in the pre-planned classroom and the interview was conducted in the absence of any lecturer. However, the semi-structured interview-1 sessions were conducted in the presence of other volunteering students, as it would be rude to ask them to evacuate the classroom and to enter the classroom one after another, which, as a result, might have discouraged them to participate into the study. When reporting the results, the participants' names or initials along with the remarks that could disclose the identity of the respondents or those of other students and lecturers were not included into any transcript. Additionally, the identities of the respondents were concealed by assigning them uniform labels, e.g. PT-01 for the pre-service student 1 and L-01 for the lecturer 1.

3.9.3. Data security

Securing the records and data obtained by a research is a key issue that researchers should take utmost care about. As Berg puts it, "researchers must take intentional precautions to ensure that information does not accidentally full into the wrong hands or become public" (Berg, 2001, p. 59). In addition, these data and records should be secured in such a way that the identities of participants are not discussed or mentioned inadvertently (ibid).

To achieve data security, the researcher backed up each recording file immediately after the completion of each interview session. Subsequently, all the digital records were stored in folders that were not open to public access and were secured by a password. As

for the written records, all of them were stored in a locked cabinet that could not be unlocked by any person other than the researcher.

3.9.4. Honesty and trust

Another principle that researchers should obey when conducting qualitative research is to be honest to the target community about the aims, content, and procedures (e.g. data collection, analysis) of the study. In doing so, researchers can gain participants' trust and can reassure them that the research has been conducted with integrity and the researcher has abided by ethical standards (Miles et al., 2014, p. 74). Bhattacherjee (2012) attributes utmost importance to this principle, advocating that although the disclosure of this information to participants may be detrimental in some types of research, it is advisable to disclose it during 'a debriefing session' after the interview (p. 139).

In the present study, the aims, scope, research questions as well as data collection and analysis procedures were openly declared to each participant prior to the administration of the questionnaire and/or interview sessions. Moreover, this declaration was performed in the Turkish language so as to avoid the risk of misunderstanding. Eventually, no volunteering participant declined to participate in the survey.

3.10. Trustworthiness

Qualitative inquiries are required to meet a number of specific criteria to achieve trustworthiness, i.e. a set of tactics used for testing and confirming the quality of the findings (Miles et al. 2014, p. 257). A broader definition of trustworthiness has been provided by Given (2008) as in the following:

> In qualitative research, trustworthiness has become an important concept because it allows researchers to describe the virtues of qualitative terms outside of the parameters that are typically applied in quantitative research. Hence, the concepts of generalizability, internal validity, reliability, and objectivity are reconsidered in qualitative terms (p. 896).

In line with this definition, Patton (2015) contended that trustworthiness is applicable both to quantitative and qualitative research and that the criteria used for addressing trustworthiness vary between the two research types, whereby *credibility*, *transferability*, *dependability*, and *confirmability* are preferred in qualitative inquiry in

lieu of *internal validity*, *external validity*, *reliability*, and *objectivity* in quantitative inquiry, respectively (p. 815). These criteria will be explicated in the following sections.

3.10.1. Credibility

Credibility (or internal validity) refers to consistency between researchers' observations and the theories they develop (Bryman, 2012, p. 390). In another saying, the credibility criterion is concerned with whether the research findings are credible to the target population examined by the research and whether the final report of the research reflects 'an authentic portrait' of the subject matter (Patton., 2015, p. 815). Miles et al. (2014) proposed a number of points that should be considered for the fulfilment of the credibility criterion:

- Context-rich and meaningful descriptions,
- A convincing and plausible account of the subject matter,
- Employment of methodological triangulation,
- A well-established link between the data presented and the categories, patterns discovered or prepared by the researcher,
- Clear, coherent, and unified findings,
- A clear description of procedures used for confirming hypotheses and conclusions, and
- Identification of ambiguous points (if any) (p. 273).

To fulfil the credibility criterion in the present study, a triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods was administered (see Section 3.8.3) and also a clear and coherent description was provided for the procedures employed for both data collection (see Section 3.7) and data analysis (see Section 3.8), in an attempt to provide an exhaustive account of the subject matter. Finally, context-rich responses were cited from the transcripts and were used when presenting the findings to further clarify the findings (see Section 4.3).

3.10.2. Transferability

Transferability (or external validity) is concerned with the extent to which the findings of a research can be generalized to a larger group or other contexts (Bryman, 2012, p. 390). Meaningfully, as stated by Dörnyei (2008), "a study is externally invalid if the results apply only to the unique sample or setting in which they were found" (p. 52).

Meaningfully, then, a qualitative research is required to address the following points to fulfil the transferability criterion (Miles et al., 2014):

- A thorough and clear description of individuals and populations included in the study, which could allow adequate comparisons with other samples,
- An exhaustive account of sampling methods used in the research, as well as sampling limitations (if any),
- Inclusion of a diversity of samples wide enough to allow further applicability when appropriate,
- Congruency and consistency between the findings and previous theory, and
- Applicable outcomes drawn from the conclusions of the research (p. 274).

The findings obtained in the present study, particularly those elicited in phase I, can be transferrable since the participants included in phase I showed wide variation as they were selected from seven geographical regions in Turkey. Additionally, a clear and traceable connection was established between these findings and relevant theories reported in the literature (see Chapter V). In line with this connection, practically applicable conclusion and implications were drawn from these findings (see Section 6.2 and 6.3).

3.10.3. Dependability

Dependability (or reliability) was first derived from the concept *reliability*, which was coined by Lincoln and Guba (1985; as cited in Merriam, 2009, p. 221). Dependability refers to consistency between the results and the data collected and to the researcher's responsibility for ascertaining that the research process was observable and logical (ibid). To meet the dependability criterion, researchers are required to present an exhaustive account of the research context and the association among the participants. To achieve this, researchers may additionally request the participants to evaluate the patterns in the data (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 179-181). On the other hand, there are some other points to consider for the fulfilment of the dependability criterion (Miles et al., 2014):

- Clear and well-defined research questions that are congruent with the features of the research design,
- An explicit account of the researcher's role and stance throughout the research,
- Well-established parallelism across the elements of research design (participants, settings, dates),
- Documentation of peer or colleague review (p. 272).

In the present study, to fulfil this criterion, the linkage between the research questions and the data collection instruments was exhibited in Section 3.3 and also the researcher's role was clearly indicated throughout the sections related to data collection and data analysis processes (see Section 3.7 and 3.8). Moreover, parallelism across the participants, settings, and dates of the survey was also displayed in Sections 3.5 and 3.6. Nevertheless, although the research questions, transcripts, and the coding processes were reviewed by a colleague experienced in survey research, the codes and patterns elicited from the data, particularly those received in phase I, could not be reviewed by the participants since the participants were residing in the locations far from the residential area where the researcher was residing.

3.10.4. Confirmability

Confirmability (or objectivity) in qualitative research refers to "neutrality and reasonable freedom from unacknowledged researcher biases" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 272). In this regard, qualitative researchers are required to be objective both when conducting the interviews and reporting the research results. When conducting the interviews, researchers primarily need to be a good listener to hear and comprehend the participant's responses so as to decide how and to what extent the response is sufficient for the question probed. Additionally, they should not try to prove their proficiency over the interviewees and rather should probe the questions in a neutral manner, in attempts to elicit objective responses from participants rather than forced answers (Legard et al., 2003, pp. 142-143; Kubanyiova, 2015, pp. 176-177). In addition to these caveats, there are some other points to consider for the fulfilment of the confirmability criterion, which are explicated in the following statements (Miles et al., 2014):

- A detailed account of methods and procedures employed in the research,
- A traceable flow of data collection and data analysis processes,
- Congruence between the conclusions and the data displayed on tables and figures,
- Well-stored records of the methods and procedures employed in the research as well as the data obtained via survey, which are explicit enough to be inspected by an outsider,
- Explicit documentation of the values and biases of the researcher and their effect on the research (p. 272).

In the present study, a number of precautions were taken to fulfil the confirmability criterion both during and after the administration of the survey. First and

foremost, each respondent was given the freedom of choosing the medium of interview (i.e. Turkish vs. English) in all three interviews conducted in the study so as to elicit their objective and sincere responses (see Section 3.7). Moreover, throughout the interviews, the researcher placed all his effort into listening to each response with utmost care and employed explanatory remarks to clarify ambiguous points and also added some follow-up questions when the response was insufficient for the question probed. When probing questions in the interviews conducted in the English language, the researcher paid attention to using a neutral tone to avoid the risk of imposing his proficiency on interviewees, particularly on students (see Sections 3.7.1 and 3.7.2). Additionally, all the digital and written records collected during the research were stored securely (see Section 3.9.3).

3.11. Summary

In this chapter, the methods and procedures employed for data collection and data analysis and the ethical procedures followed throughout these processes were elaborated on in relevant sections. In the following chapter, the findings elicited via data analysis processes are explicated in detail.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

In the present study, as explained in the previous chapters, the primary aim was to investigate the perceptions of pre-service teachers and lecturers studying/working at Turkish ELT departments regarding the teaching and learning of English speaking skills. To this end, in the first phase of the study, a questionnaire was administered to a total of 395 participants (361 pre-service teachers and 34 lecturers) and a semi-structured interview (i.e. semi-structured interview-1) was conducted with a total of 86 participants (48 pre-service teachers and 38 lecturers) in seven ELT departments across Turkey. In the second phase, a semi-structured interview (i.e. semi-structured interview-2) was conducted with a lecturer and a focus group interview was conducted with six first-year ELT students.

This chapter presents the findings of the study under two headings: quantitative and qualitative findings. Findings derived from each method are presented separately in the following sections.

4.2. Quantitative findings

The quantitative findings obtained from the questionnaire data addressed the research questions 1 (a & b) and 2 (a & b), as shown below:

1. What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?

2. What are the perceptions of lecturers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?

Based on the questions above, the quantitative findings were classified into two themes: *(I) Perceptions regarding English speaking skills* and *(II) Problems related to English speaking skills*. The findings pertaining to these two themes are elaborated on in the following sections.

4.2.1. Perceptions regarding English speaking skills

Within the scope of this theme, self-perceived importance of speaking English along with the circumstances in which the lecturers (Ls) and pre-service teachers (PTs) spoke English were elucidated. Regarding the importance of speaking English, the data for pre-service teachers and lecturers revealed similar proportions (Figure 8):

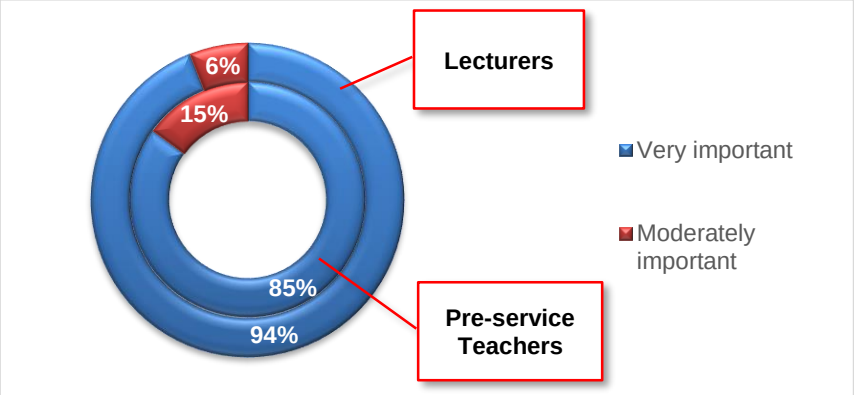


Figure 8. Self-perceived importance of speaking English

As clearly seen in Figure 9, a great majority of both Ls (94%) and PTs (85%) adhered great importance to speaking English while a small proportion of them (15% and 6%, respectively) considered that speaking in English is moderately important for them.

To have a better understanding of the remarkable importance adhered to speaking English by both groups, the circumstances in which they used spoken English actively were also queried (Figure 9):

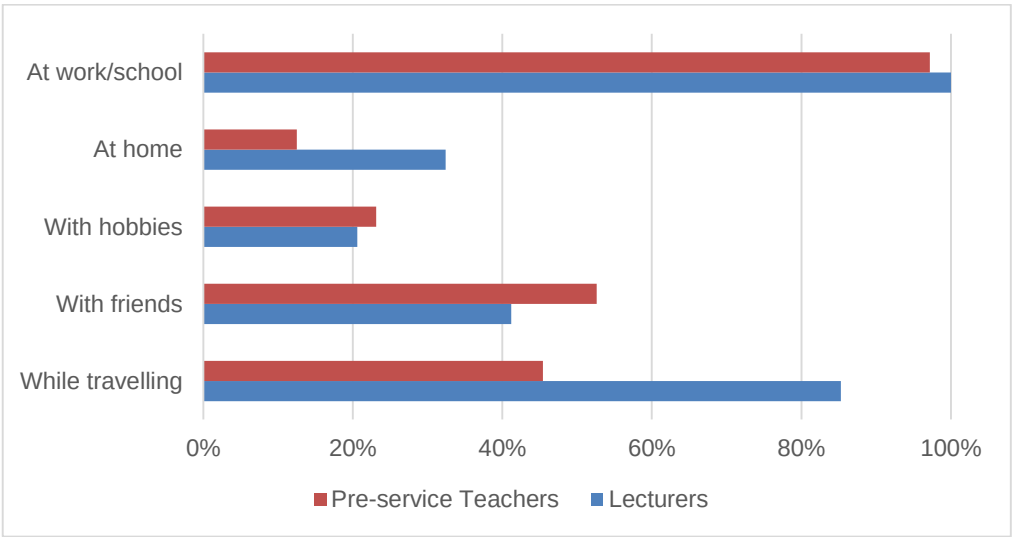


Figure 9. Circumstances of speaking English elicited from questionnaire data

Conceivably, all the Ls (100%) and a great majority of the PTs (97.2%) denoted that they spoke English at work/school. It was also revealed that more Ls than PTs used spoken English at home (32.4% *vs.* 12.5%) and when travelling (85.3% *vs.* 45.4%), whereas more PTs than Ls used spoken English when dealing with hobbies (23.1% *vs.* 21.6%) and speaking with friends (52.6% *vs.* 41.2%) (Figure 10).

Additionally, the participants were also asked to indicate how often they used spoken English in their free time on a five-point Likert-type scale consisting of levels of *Never*, *Less frequently*, *About once a month*, *About once a week*, and *Almost daily* (Table 23):

Table 23

Frequencies of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Free-Time English Speaking Activities

	LECTURERS			**PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS**		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
With your Turkish-speaking friends	33	2.33	1.43	359	2.57	1.39
With your family members	34	2.21	1.45	358	1.47	.94
With your non-Turkish-speaking friends	34	3.50	1.21	356	3.08	1.26
With yourself (monologue)	34	3.18	1.66	358	3.62	1.48
With tourists in Turkey	33	2.55	1.03	358	2.34	.89
When expressing negative feelings (such as swearing)	32	2.28	1.37	358	2.92	1.56
When expressing positive feelings (such as love)	32	2.72	1.65	358	2.97	1.48

From the findings denoted in Table 23, it is possible to assert that both Ls and PTs used spoken English occasionally in their free time, and even when they spoke, they mostly communicated in English with their non-Turkish-speaking friends, to speak with themselves, and to express their positive or negative feelings. However, the PTs were found to use spoken English less frequently—and even hardly ever—for interacting with their Turkish-speaking friends and their family members (Table 23).

Despite these numerous differences between the Ls and PTs, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed a significant difference in only two items: 'with your family members' and 'when expressing negative feelings', indicating that Ls spoke English with their family members significantly more frequently than PTs did and, conversely, PTs spoke English when expressing negative feelings significantly more frequently than Ls did ($p<0.05$) (Table 24):

Table 24

Statistical Comparison of the Frequencies of Lecturers' And Pre-Service Teachers' Free-Time English Speaking Activities

Variable	**Title**	**N**	**Mean Rank**	**Sum of Ranks**	***Z***	***p***
With your Turkish-speaking friends	Lecturer	33	177.92	5871.5	-1.030	.303
	Pre-Service Teacher	359	198.21	71156.5		
	Total	392				
With your family members	Lecturer	34	254.76	8662.00	-3.858	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	358	190.97	68366.00		
	Total	392				
With your non-Turkish-speaking friends	Lecturer	34	228.97	7785.00	-1.858	.063
	Pre-Service Teacher	356	192.30	68460.00		
	Total	390				
With yourself (monologue)	Lecturer	34	168.44	5727.00	-1.592	.111
	Pre-Service Teacher	358	199.16	71301.00		
	Total	392				
With tourists in Turkey	Lecturer	33	211.83	6990.5	-931	.352
	Pre-Service Teacher	358	195.54	69645.5		
	Total	391				
When expressing negative feelings (such as swearing)	Lecturer	32	154.17	4933.5	-2.224	.026
	Pre-Service Teacher	358	199.19	71311.5		
	Total	390				
When expressing positive feelings (such as love)	Lecturer	32	175.20	5606.5	-1.091	.275
	Pre-Service Teacher	358	197.31	70638.5		
	Total	390				

$p<0.05$

As was previously noted, the listening skill, among the four skills of a language, has close ties with the speaking skill in that the listening skill plays an important role in the teaching and learning of the speaking skill (see Section 2.2.3). Accordingly, the participants were asked to indicate how often they performed listening activities in English in their free time on a five-point Likert-type scale consisting of levels including *Never*, *Less frequently*, *About once a month*, *About once a week*, and *Almost daily* (Table 25):

Table 25

Frequencies of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Free-Time Listening Activities in English

	LECTURERS			**PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS**		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Listening to music or podcasts	34	4.24	1.30	360	4.60	.84
Listening to speech programmes on the radio	34	3.50	1.54	358	3.06	1.30
Watching films or TV programmes with/out subtitles	34	4.26	1.05	360	4.07	1.06
Watching documentaries	34	3.62	1.30	360	3.06	1.20

Table 25 indicates that although Ls and PTs listened to music/podcasts and watched documentaries at similar frequencies, Ls listened to radio and television programmes more frequently than PTs did. However, despite these differences, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated a significant difference in terms of only one variable: 'watching documentaries', implicating that Ls watched documentaries significantly more frequently than PTs did ($p<0.05$) (Table 26):

Table 26

Statistical Comparison of the Frequencies of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Free-Time Listening Activities in English

Variable	**Title**	**N**	**Mean Rank**	**Sum of Ranks**	***Z***	***p***
Listening to music or podcasts	Lecturer	34	178.38	6065.00	-1.349	.177
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	199.31	71750.00		
	Total	394				
Listening to speech programmes on the radio	Lecturer	34	230.10	7823.50	-1.857	.063
	Pre-Service Teacher	358	193.31	69204.50		
	Total	392				
Watching films or television programmes with/out subtitles	Lecturer	34	218.93	7443.50	-1.230	.219
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	195.48	70371.50		
	Total	394				
Watching documentaries	Lecturer	34	241.40	8207.50	-2.418	.016
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	193.35	69607.50		
	Total	394				

$p<0.05$

To have a deeper understanding of the importance they adhered to speaking English, both Ls and PTs were also asked to denote their views regarding three different types of L2 speakers, in attempts to question the variability their perceptions into speakers

of English with different competence levels. The first speaker type was ‘a Turkish person speaking English poorly’ (Figure 10):

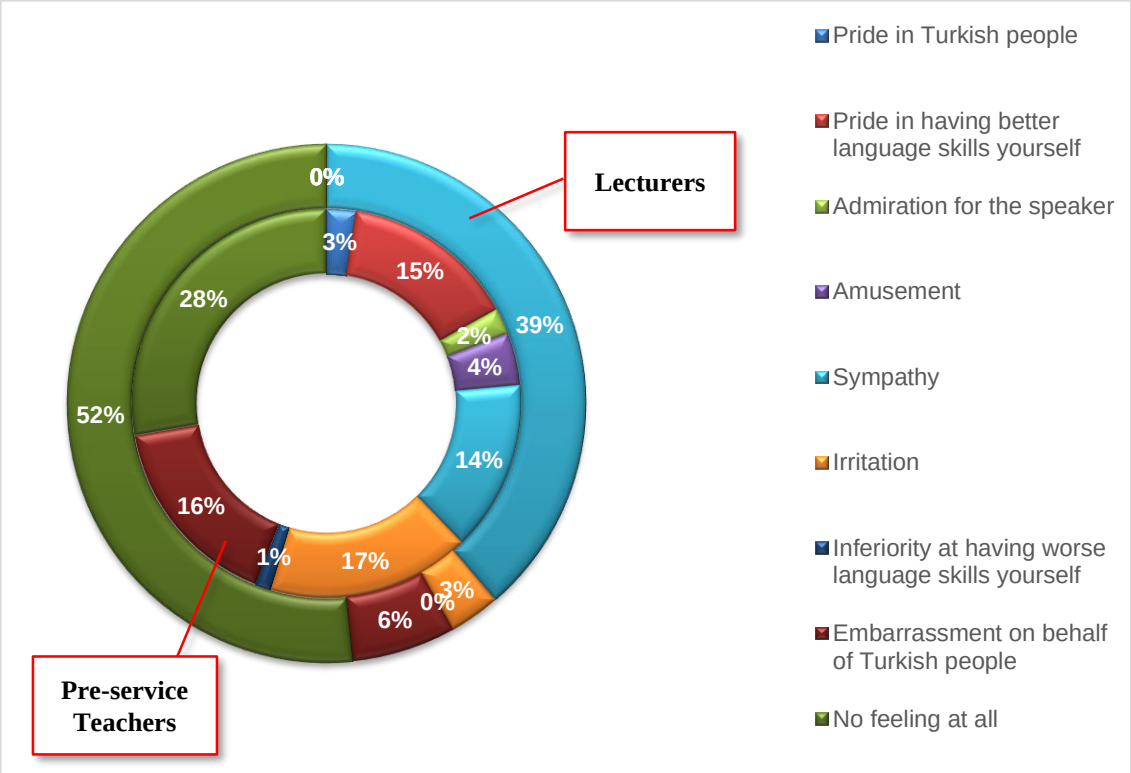


Figure 10. Feelings experienced when hearing a Turkish person speaking English poorly

More than half of the Ls (52%) stated that they had no feeling at all and more than one-third (39%) of them declared feeling sympathy when hearing such speakers. In contrast, the PTs had more diverged opinions for such speakers, 28% of whom indicated that they had no feeling at all, 17% of whom opted for irritation, and 16% of whom denoted embarrassment on behalf of Turkish people. From this divergence, it appears that the Ls in a general sense had more unified feelings when they heard Turkish people speaking English poorly as compared to PTs who had more divergent feelings (Figure 10).

The second speaker type was ‘a Turkish person speaking English fluently but with a Turkish accent’, which differed from the previous one in terms of fluency alone (Figure 11):

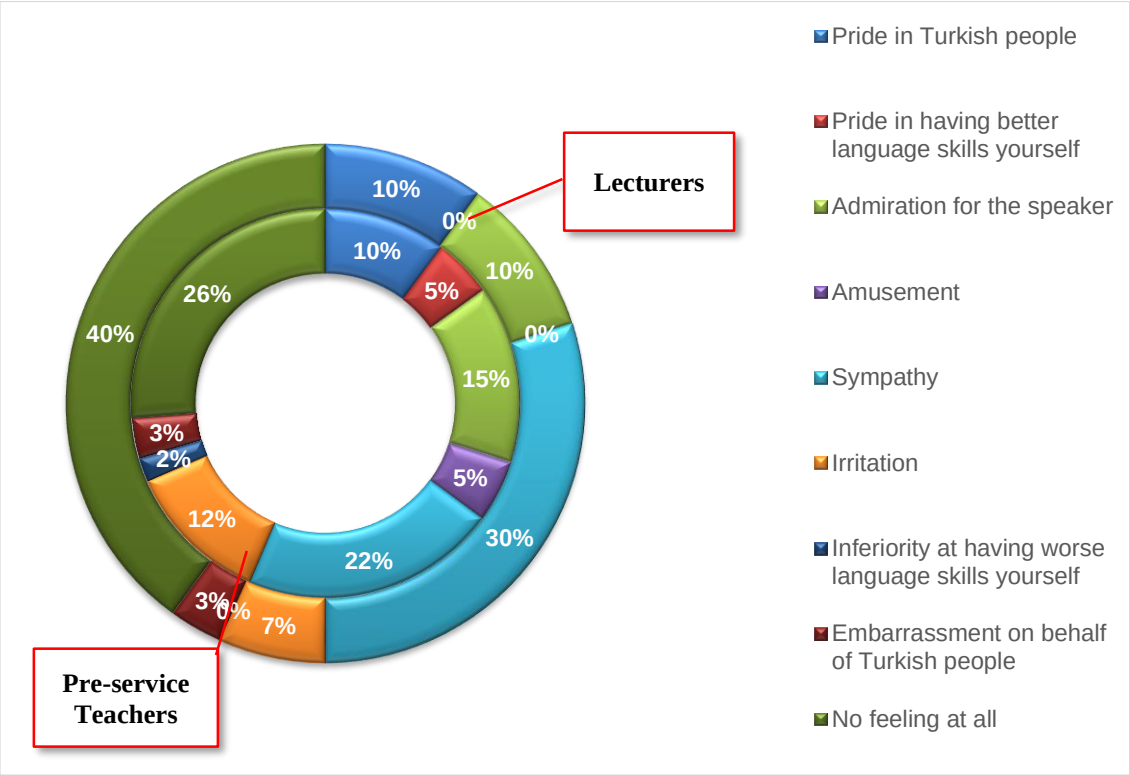


Figure 11. Feelings experienced when hearing a Turkish person speaking English fluently but with a Turkish accent

In a similar way, most of the Ls (40%) also stated that they had no feeling at all and almost one-third of them (30%) declared feeling sympathy when hearing such speakers. As for the PTs, they also had divergent feelings, as in the first speaker type, whereas, similar to LS, 26% of the PTs declared having no feeling at all and 22% of them declared feeling amusement when hearing such speakers (Figure 11).

The final speaker type was ‘a Turkish person speaking English fluently, like a native speaker of English’, which differed from the previous types with regard to both fluency and native competence in speaking (Figure 12):

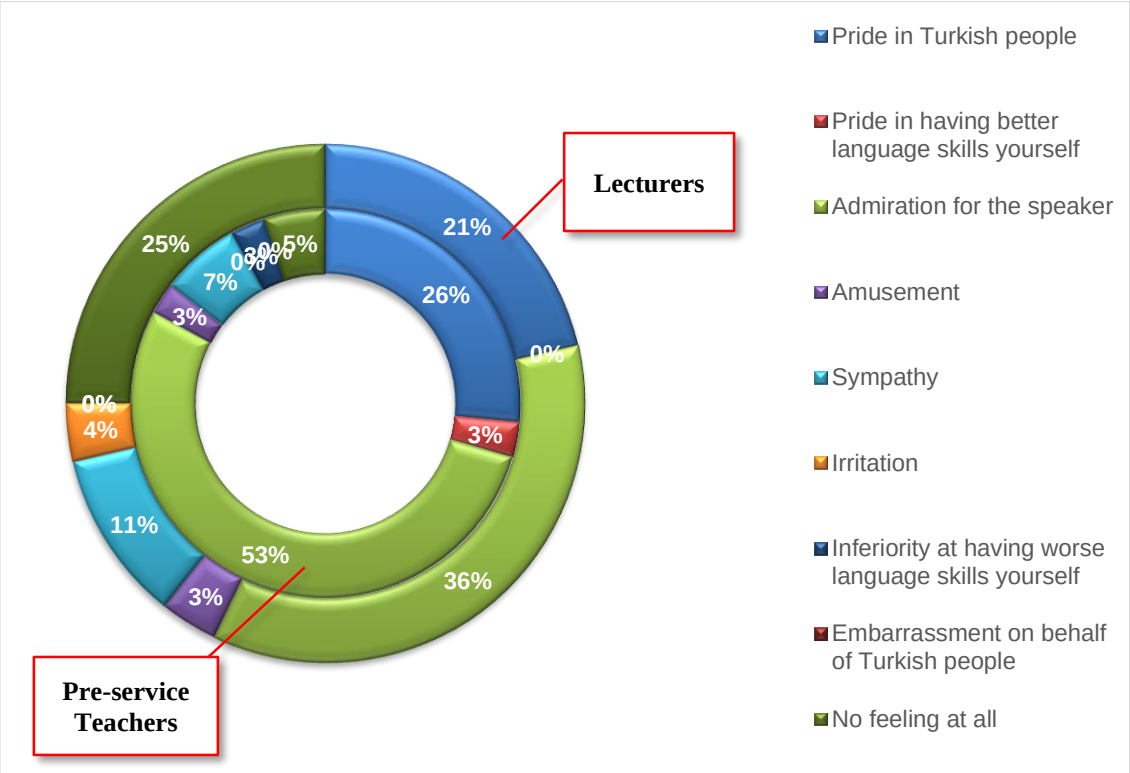


Figure 12. Feelings experienced when hearing a Turkish person speaking English fluently, like a native speaker of English

Interestingly, a dramatic change was noted in the proportions of the feelings for this speaker type (i.e. a Turkish person speaking English fluently, like a native speaker of English) both for the Ls and the PTs. Of note, more than half of the PTs (53%) and more than one-third of Ls (36%) indicated that they felt admiration for such speakers and also 26% of the PTs and 21% of the Ls indicated feeling pride in Turkish people. From these findings, it is clear that both by Ls and PTs felt greater admiration to Turkish speakers that could speak English like a native speaker and also regarded such speakers as a source of pride for Turkish people, particularly when compared to the other two speaker types aforementioned (Figure 12).

In addition to the importance of English speaking skills for Ls and PTs, both groups were also queried about the nationwide importance of English speaking skills for the people living in Turkey. These perceptions were elicited using a five-point Likert-type scale consisting of levels of *No feeling*, *Strongly Disagree*, *Disagree*, *Agree*, and *Strongly Agree* (Table 27):

Table 27

Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on the Importance of Speaking English in Turkey

	LECTURERS			**PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS**		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Young people must be able to speak English.	34	4.38	.92	361	4.48	.70
People of working age must be able to speak English.	34	4.32	.91	360	4.34	.82
Elderly people must be able to speak English.	34	3.11	1.25	359	3.16	1.20
Turkish people travelling abroad must be able to speak English.	34	4.47	.79	361	4.40	.80
Turkish people can be international without being able to speak English.	34	2.50	.79	360	2.86	.99
English speaking skills are overemphasized in Turkey.	34	2.47	.75	360	2.75	.99
English speaking skills are underemphasized in Turkey.	34	4.12	.91	359	3.63	1.27

Taken together, the findings denoted in Table 27 suggest that the Ls and the PTs acknowledged that the people living in Turkey, particularly the young and the working people, must be able to speak English so as to promote the internationalization processes of Turkey and they also agreed that English speaking skills are underemphasized in Turkey (Table 27).

However, the Mann-Whitney U test showed a significant difference in only two items between the two groups: 'Turkish people can be international without being able to speak English.' and 'English speaking skills are underemphasized in Turkey.' ($p<0.05$ for both) (Table 28):

Table 28

Statistical Comparison of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on the Importance of Speaking English in Turkey

Variable	**Title**	**N**	**Mean Rank**	**Sum of Ranks**	***Z***	***p***
Young people must be able to speak English.	Lecturer	34	195.04	6631.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	198.28	71578.50	-.180	.857
	Total	395				
People of working age must be able to speak English.	Lecturer	34	200.65	6822.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	197.20	70993.00	-.188	.851
	Total	394				
Elderly people must be able to speak English.	Lecturer	34	194.94	6628.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	359	197.19	70793.00	-.116	.908
	Total	393				
Turkish people travelling abroad must be able to …	Lecturer	34	206.91	7035.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	197.16	71175.00	-.537	.591
	Total	395				
Turkish people can be international without being …	Lecturer	34	160.75	5465.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	200.97	72349.50	-2.090	.037
	Total	394				
English speaking skills are overemphasized …	Lecturer	34	166.78	5670.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	200.40	72144.50	-1.736	.083
	Total	394				
English speaking skills are underemphasized …	Lecturer	34	232.74	7913.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	359	193.62	69508.00	-2.009	.045
	Total	393				

$p<0.05$

The last point elicited via the questionnaire was related to the importance and the learnability/teachability of pronunciation, which is an important component of speaking skills (see Section 2.2.2.3). These perceptions were elicited using a five-point Likert-type scale consisting of levels of *No feeling*, *Strongly Disagree*, *Disagree*, *Agree*, and *Strongly Agree* (Table 29):

Table 29

Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on the Importance and Teaching of English Pronunciation

	LECTURERS			**PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS**		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
Only native speakers should teach pronunciation.	34	2.68	.77	357	3.10	.99
You cannot teach pronunciation to lower levels.	34	2.53	.83	354	2.69	.73
Pronunciation instruction does not usually result in permanent changes.	33	2.76	.97	352	2.91	.96
Native-like pronunciation can only be achieved in a native country.	34	2.97	.94	357	3.51	1.08
Native-like pronunciation is an obligation for achieving fluency.	34	2.94	.85	356	3.03	.100
There is an age-related limitation on the acquisition of native-like pronunciation.	34	3.59	1.23	357	3.52	1.06
I wish I had more training in pronunciation instruction.	34	3.41	1.10	357	4.16	1.02
Pronunciation instruction is boring.	34	2.41	.74	357	2.50	.81

As seen in Table 29, both Ls and PTs agreed that pronunciation instruction has contributory effects on the improvement of English speaking skills and that both groups wished that they had received more training on pronunciation at earlier stages of their educational backgrounds. Nevertheless, it was revealed that both groups believed that pronunciation can be taught at any linguistic level and this training could be given by non-native teachers (i.e., Turkish teachers of English language) as well, although the PTs believed that native-like pronunciation could only be achieved in a native English-speaking country (Table 29).

For the items related to pronunciation, however, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated a significant difference only in three items: 'Only native speakers should teach pronunciation.', 'Native-like pronunciation can only be achieved in a native country.', and 'I wish I had more training in pronunciation instruction.' ($p<0.05$ for all), implicating that pre-service teachers showed stronger support for these beliefs compared to lecturers. These differences can be seen in Table 30:

Table 30

Statistical Comparison of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on the Importance and Teaching of English Pronunciation

Variable	Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	*Z*	*p*
Only native speakers should teach pronunciation.	Lecturer	34	149.62	5087.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	200.42	71549.00	-2.658	.008
	Total	391				
You cannot teach pronunciation to lower levels.	Lecturer	34	165.99	5643.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	354	197.24	69822.50	-1.705	.088
	Total	388				
Pronunciation instruction does not usually result in …	Lecturer	33	171.32	5653.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	352	195.03	68651.50	-1.235	.217
	Total	385				
Native-like pronunciation can only be achieved …	Lecturer	34	140.56	4779.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	201.28	71857.00	-3.107	.002
	Total	391				
Native-like pronunciation is an obligation for …	Lecturer	34	182.28	6197.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	356	196.76	70047.50	-.755	.450
	Total	390				
There is an age-related limitation on the acquisition of …	Lecturer	34	208.94	7104.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	194.77	69532.00	-.740	.459
	Total	391				
I wish I had more training in pronunciation …	Lecturer	34	121.09	4117.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	203.13	72519.00	-4.370	.000
	Total	391				
Pronunciation instruction is boring.	Lecturer	34	182.69	6211.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	197.27	70424.50	-.777	.437
	Total	391				

$p<0.05$

To sum up, the participants' perceptions elicited from quantitative data revealed that both Ls and PTs felt admiration towards Turkish persons who could speak English fluently, like a native speaker. This admiration was also reflected through their views regarding the importance of pronunciation and the contributory effect of pronunciation on the improvement of English speaking skills.

4.2.2. Problems related to speaking English

The second theme elicited from the questionnaire data was concerned with the problems encountered by Ls and/or PTs when speaking English. Based on the questionnaire data, these problems were analysed under two subheadings: *(I) speaking-related problems encountered in class* and *(II) speaking-related problems encountered in*

daily life settings. The findings pertaining to these subheadings are elaborated on in the following sections.

4.2.2.1. Speaking-related problems encountered in class

To have a clear understanding of the problems encountered in class, the participants were primarily asked to indicate how much English they spoke during their lectures, out of the total speaking time (Figure 13):

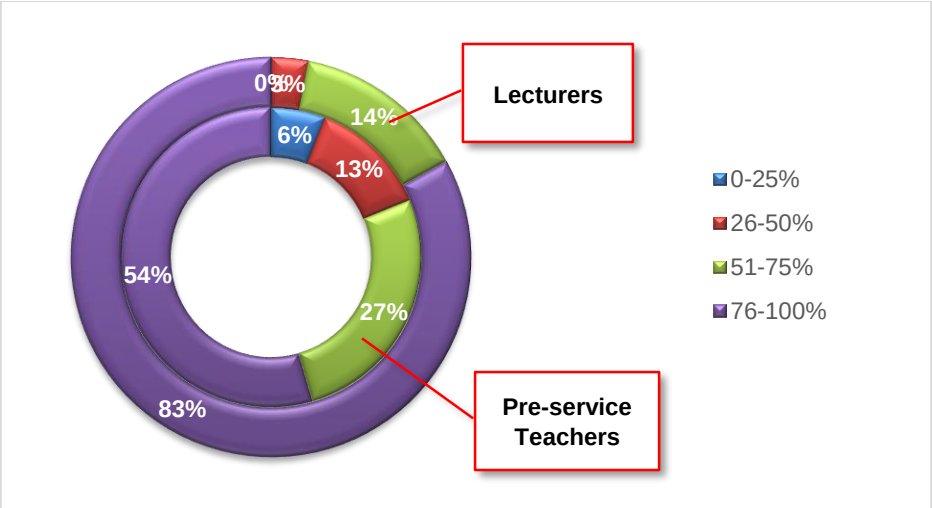


Figure 13. Proportions of the duration of speaking out of the total speaking time in class

It was revealed that a great majority of the Ls (83%) as compared to almost half of the PTs (54%) spoke in English out of their total speaking time in class. This finding clearly indicates that the Ls used English for most of their speaking time in class while the PTs could intentionally—or obligatorily—switched to L1 instead of expressing their feelings and/or thoughts in English (Figure 13).

The problems encountered in class were probed using a five-point Likert-type scale including levels of *No feeling*, *Strongly Disagree*, *Disagree*, *Agree*, and *Strongly Agree* (Table 31):

Table 31

Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on Speaking-related Problems Encountered in Class

	LECTURERS			PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
I am afraid of making mistakes when speaking English in my lectures.	34	2.47	.71	357	3.62	.98
I am afraid of being made fun of by my students/classmates when speaking English in my lectures.	34	2.26	.62	356	3.20	.98
Speaking English in class does not sound natural to me.	34	2.83	.60	357	2.90	.97
I do not feel confident enough to speak English in my lectures.	34	2.26	.48	358	3.27	.97
The courses I teach/take are not focused on improving students' speaking skills.	34	2.68	.81	357	3.28	1.13
The courses I teach/take fail to motivate me to focus on English speaking skills.	34	2.24	.50	357	3.14	1.10

The results shown in Table 31 indicated that the lecturers and pre-service teachers considered that speaking in class in a general sense did not lead to serious problems and sounded natural although PTs stated that they felt afraid of making mistakes when speaking English in class. Additionally, both groups also indicated that the courses delivered within the scope of ELT Curriculum tended to have a contributory effect in the improvement of English speaking skills rather than an impeding effect (Table 24).

In a confirmatory manner, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated a significant difference between Ls and PTs in all the items mentioned above, suggesting that the pre-service teachers experienced greater challenge in class compared to lecturers ($p<0.05$). These differences can be observed in Table 32 below:

Table 32

Statistical Comparison of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on Speaking-related Problems Encountered in Class

Variable	Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	*Z*	*p*
I am afraid of making mistakes when speaking English …	Lecturer	34	82.97	2821.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	206.76	73815.00	-6.406	.000
	Total	391				
I am afraid of being made fun of by my students …	Lecturer	34	96.62	3285.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	356	204.94	72960.00	-5.594	.000
	Total	390				
Speaking English in class does not sound natural to me.	Lecturer	34	137.31	4668.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	201.59	71967.50	-3.351	.001
	Total	391				
I do not feel confident enough to speak English in my lectures.	Lecturer	34	89.10	3029.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	358	206.70	73998.50	-6.038	.000
	Total	392				
The courses I teach/take are not focused on …	Lecturer	34	136.75	4649.50		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	201.64	71986.50	-3.308	.001
	Total	391				
The courses I teach/take fail to motivate me to …	Lecturer	34	103.09	3505.00		
	Pre-Service Teacher	357	204.85	73131.00	-5.212	.000
	Total	391				

$p<0.05$

On the whole, it was revealed that the Ls tended to speak English during their speaking time in class at a higher rate compared to PTs. Additionally, there seems to be no adverse effect of the ELT courses on the improvement of students' English speaking skills, although the students tended to feel afraid of making mistakes when speaking in class. What is more, a statistically significant difference was found between the Ls and PTs with regard to the problems encountered in class.

4.2.2.2. Speaking-related problems encountered in daily life settings

Speaking in daily life settings refers to the speaking activities performed in non-academic settings. Phrased differently, speaking in daily life settings is concerned with the daily life settings in which the Ls and PTs speak English to fulfil their daily life activities and chores such as socialising with their relatives or friends, shopping, and so on. To have an insight into these problems, the participants were initially asked to declare their self-perceived competence in speaking English on a three-point Likert-type scale consisting of levels of *Yes*, *No*, and *No opinion* (Table 33):

Table 33

Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Self-Perceived Competence in Speaking English

	LECTURERS			**PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS**		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
I feel that I speak English as well as a native speaker.	31	2.19	.75	361	2.00	.45
I feel that I speak English better than Turkish people on average.	32	2.78	.61	360	2.75	.59
I feel that I speak English well enough.	33	2.79	.60	361	2.58	.66
I am proud of my English speaking skills.	32	2.44	.84	361	2.19	.76
I am ashamed of my English speaking skills.	32	1.81	.40	360	1.97	.45

It was revealed that both Ls and PTs did not consider being able to speak English as well as a native speaker (M=2.19 and M=2.00, respectively) although they considered that they could speak better than Turkish people on average (M=2.78 and M=2.75, respectively) and could speak English well enough (M=2.79 and M=2.58, respectively). These findings implicate that the Ls and PTs had almost similar feelings regarding their competence in English speaking skills.

However, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated a significant difference in three items: 'I feel that I speak English as well as a native speaker' (p=0.030), 'I feel that I speak English well enough' (p=0.028), and 'I am proud of my English speaking skills' (p=0.043), all of which implicate that Ls felt more confident when speaking English compared to PTs (Table 34):

Table 34

Statistical Comparison of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Self-Perceived Competence in Speaking English

Variable	Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	*Z*	*p*
I feel that I speak English as well as a native speaker.	Lecturer	31	227.85	7063.50	-2.168	.030
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	193.81	69964.50		
	Total	392				
I feel that I speak English better than Turkish people on average.	Lecturer	32	203.39	6508.50	-.555	.579
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	195.89	70519.50		
	Total	392				
I feel that I speak English well enough.	Lecturer	33	231.32	7633.50	-2.193	.028
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	194.41	70181.50		
	Total	394				
I am proud of my English speaking skills.	Lecturer	32	233.17	7461.50	-2.019	.043
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	193.79	69959.50		
	Total	393				
I am ashamed of my English speaking skills.	Lecturer	32	170.66	5461.00	-1.936	.053
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	198.80	71567.00		
	Total	392				

$p<0.05$

To have a deeper insight into the challenging situations mentioned in Table 33, the participants were asked to compare themselves as a speaker of English (L2) as opposed to a speaker of their mother tongue (L1) (Figure 14):

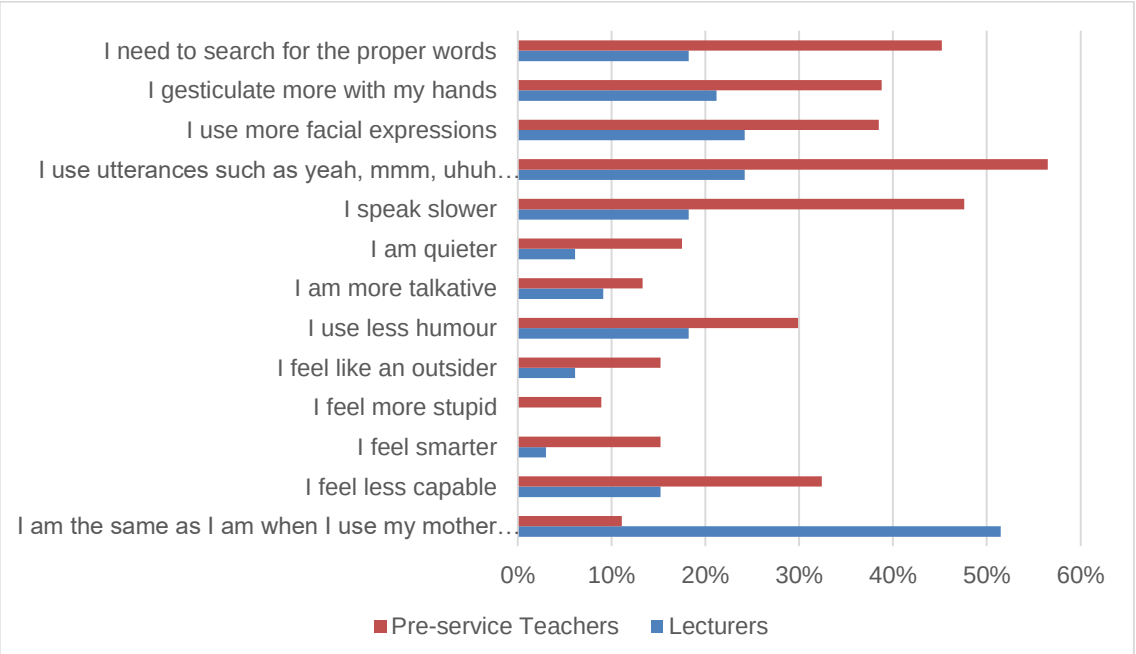


Figure 14. Self-description of lecturers and pre-service teachers as a speaker of English as compared to a speaker of their mother tongue

It became clear that the PTs experienced greater difficulty in all these occasions compared to the Ls, which could be ascribed to the difference in the accumulation of experience between the Ls and the PTs (Figure 14).

Additionally, the participants were also asked to specify the situations in which they felt challenged when speaking English (Figure 15):

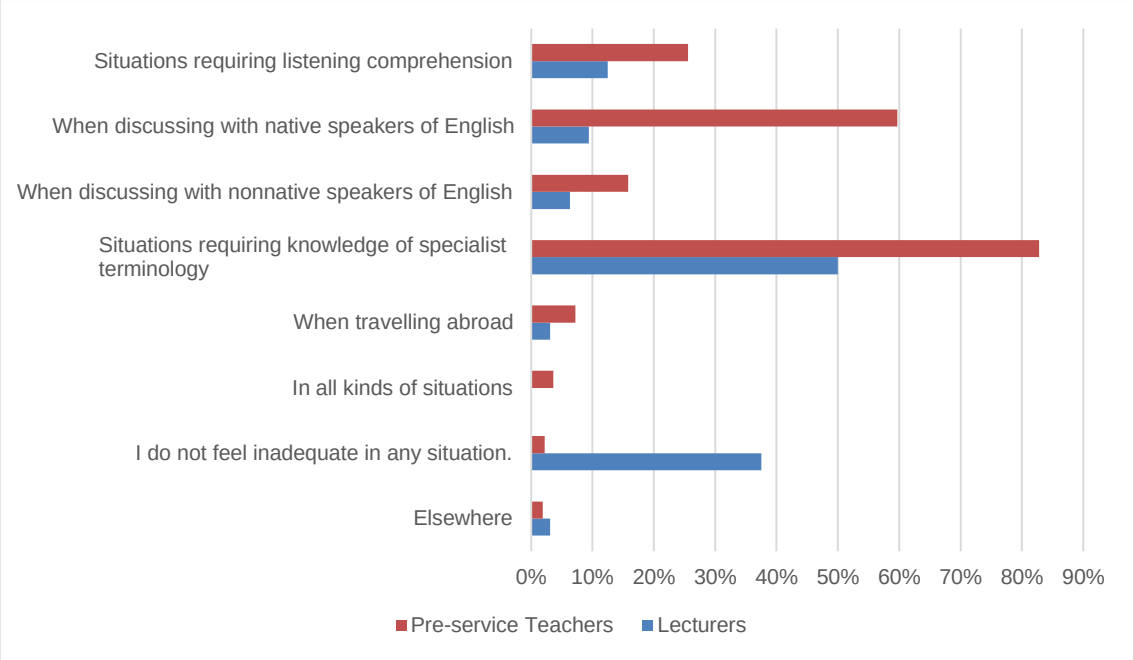


Figure 15. Challenging daily life situations related to the English speaking skills of the participants

As seen in Figure 15, the most challenging situations both for Ls (50%) and PTs (82.8%) were the situations requiring knowledge of specialist terms and jargons (e.g. technical, medical, legal terminology). Additionally, the discussions performed with native and non-native speakers and the situations requiring listening comprehension were also found to be highly challenging for the PTs, whereas they were relatively less challenging for the Ls (Figure 15).

On the other hand, the participants were asked to denote the frequencies of the problems they encountered when speaking English in daily life settings on a four-point Likert-type scale consisting of levels of *Never*, *Rarely*, *Occasionally*, and *Often* (Table 35):

Table 35

Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on the Speaking-related Problems Encountered in Daily Life Situations

	LECTURERS			**PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS**		
	N	*M*	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*
I do not feel confident enough to speak English.	34	1.53	.75	361	2.46	.97
I find it hard to speak English because I have difficulty with English idioms.	34	1.62	.60	361	2.16	.83
I avoid speaking English when I fail to achieve fluency.	34	1.41	.61	360	2.24	.98
I avoid speaking English when I fail to maintain an intelligible pronunciation.	34	1.32	.64	360	2.05	.88
I find it hard to formulate the feelings and thoughts in my mind into a "speakable" format.	34	1.41	.56	361	2.18	.85
I feel as if nobody would understand me when speaking English.	34	1.09	.29	360	1.51	.77
I feel that learning the structure of English is more important than learning speaking English.	34	1.47	.83	360	1.49	.77
I feel anxious when speaking English.	34	1.50	.62	355	2.39	.96
I prefer to remain silent to taking a risk by speaking English.	34	1.26	.45	360	2.10	.98

As shown in Table 35, the Ls indicated that they never felt inadequately confident in any of the situations abovementioned, whereas the PTs declared feeling challenged in most of them. Overall, these findings implicate that the PTs, in a general sense, experienced greater problems when speaking English compared to the Ls, which was consistent with the previous finding that indicated that the PTs experienced greater difficulty in all the daily life settings compared to the Ls (Table 35).

Similarly, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated a significant difference in all of the items abovementioned ($p<0.05$) except for the item 'I feel that learning the structure of English is more important than learning speaking English', thus supporting the previous finding abovementioned which suggested that pre-service teachers experienced greater difficulty in speaking English compared to lecturers ($p>0.05$) (Table 36):

Table 36

Statistical Comparison of Lecturers' and Pre-Service Teachers' Views on the Speaking-related Problems Encountered in Daily Life Situations

Variable	Title	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	*Z*	*p*
I do not feel confident enough to speak English.	Lecturer	34	101.26	3443.00	-5.398	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	207.11	74767.00		
	Total	395				
I find it hard to speak English because I have difficulty with English idioms.	Lecturer	34	132.97	4521.00	-3.732	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	204.12	73689.00		
	Total	395				
I avoid speaking English when I fail to achieve fluency.	Lecturer	34	110.50	3757.00	-4.875	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	205.72	74058.00		
	Total	394				
I avoid speaking English when I fail to maintain …	Lecturer	34	110.71	3764.00	-4.945	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	205.70	74051.00		
	Total	394				
I find it hard to formulate the feelings and …	Lecturer	34	106.03	3605.00	-5.300	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	361	206.66	74605.00		
	Total	395				
I feel as if nobody would understand me when …	Lecturer	34	146.12	4968.00	-3.293	.001
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	202.35	72847.00		
	Total	394				
I feel that learning the structure of English is more …	Lecturer	34	191.97	6527.00	-.351	.725
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	198.02	71288.00		
	Total	394				
I feel anxious when speaking English.	Lecturer	34	102.84	3496.50	-5.264	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	355	203.83	72358.50		
	Total	389				
I prefer to remain silent to taking a risk by speaking English.	Lecturer	34	108.53	3690.00	-5.012	.000
	Pre-Service Teacher	360	205.90	74125.00		
	Total	394				

$p<0.05$

On the whole, the quantitative data elicited in the study revealed that both Ls and PTs felt challenged when speaking English in daily life speaking situations and it seems that PTs felt more challenged compared to Ls. Moreover, most of these problems were revealed to occur in situations requiring knowledge of specialist terms and jargons as well as in discussions performed with native and non-native speakers and in situations requiring listening comprehension. Nevertheless, despite having these problems, both Ls and PTs stated that they could speak English well enough and even better than Turkish people on average, though not as well as a native speaker.

4.3. Qualitative findings

Qualitative data were based on three interviews: semi-structured interview-1, semi-structured interview-2, and focus group interview (for Data Collection Tools, see Section 3.3). After coding the transcripts elicited for these three interviews (see Section 3.8.2.2), the codes established in the first cycle were fused into categories/subcategories based on the content of the codes in the second cycle. These categories/subcategories were then defined operationally and used for analysis, as explicated in the following sections.

4.3.1. Data from phase II: Findings from semi-structured interview-1

As elucidated in Chapter III, semi-structured interview-1 was conducted during phase I with a total of 86 participants (38 lecturers and 48 pre-service teachers) from seven different universities. This interview was designed to provide answers to research questions 1 and 2, as shown below:

1. What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

2. What are the perceptions of lecturers regarding;
   a) English speaking skills?
   b) the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?
   c) their suggested solutions to the problems?

The transcripts elicited from this interview were subjected to content analysis and, as a result, eight categories were elicited following the administration of the coding process in two consecutive cycles, as shown in Table 37 (for Coding, see Section 3.8.2.2):

Table 37

Overview of Findings from Semi-Structured Interview-1 and their Operational Definitions

Categories	**Subcategories**	**Operational definition**	**Example**
Importance of speaking English	Important for lecturers	Self-perceived importance of speaking English for ELT lecturers	*Speaking English is highly important for lecturers because it is our showcase.* (L-05)
	Important for ELT students	Self-perceived importance of speaking English for ELT students, as stated both by lecturers and pre-service teachers	*We have to learn this [speaking] at least to be able to speak it for ourselves.* (PT-44)
Circumstances where English is spoken	Almost nowhere / no need	Avoiding or not needing spoken English in any circumstance	*I don't take a special venture to speak English because I don't need it in my daily life.* (L-34)
	Anywhere possible	Speaking English both at work/school and outside, wherever possible	*I speak [English] with my friends, at work, in lectures.* (PT-25)
	Mostly at work / school	Speaking English only for professional activities	*I speak [English] at school only.* (PT-02)
Speaking-related problems encountered in class	No problems in class	Speaking English in professional activities with no noticeable obstruction	*I don't encounter any problems because my students are M.A. students and they are all professionals.* (L-26)
	Switching to L1	Students' switching to Turkish due to speaking-related problems encountered when speaking English in class	*Most of the time, they [students] speak Turkish.* (L-03)
	Vocabulary choice	Students' experiencing failure or challenge in finding the correct word/phrase when speaking English in class	*I sometimes keep thinking "which word was it?" before starting speaking.* (PT-04)
	Pronunciation	Students' experiencing challenge in performing correct articulation of words/phrases when speaking English in class	*We do know the meaning, structure of words and how to use them in a sentence but we have a problem with their pronunciation.* (PT-07)

Causes of speaking-related problems encountered in class	Education/testing system	Contribution of the pre-ELT education/testing system to the problems encountered when speaking English in class	*Our education system is mostly directed to teaching English by fostering grammar, vocabulary, and reading skills.* (L-06)
	Lack of authentic contexts	Effect of the scarceness of opportunities on the challenges encountered when speaking English in class	*Our environment is restricted; there is nothing around, there aren't so many opportunities.*(PT-05)
	Affective filter	Impact of students' affective filter (i.e. motivation and anxiety levels) on their performance in spoken English in class	*Sometimes students refrain from asking something or commenting on something because they are too shy.* (L-17)
Speaking-related problems encountered outside class	No problems outside class	Speaking English in daily life settings with no noticeable obstruction	*I feel so comfortable outside class, even the people I speak to understand it quite easily.* (PT-27)
	Vocabulary choice	Experiencing failure or challenge in finding the correct word/phrase when speaking English in daily life settings	*I have problems in finding the right expressions, especially in informal talk.* (L-28)
Causes of speaking-related problems encountered outside class	Lack of authentic contexts	Effect of the scarceness of opportunities on the challenges encountered when speaking English in daily life settings	*Speaking English remains limited to school as there are not many opportunities outside.* (L-19)
	Affective filter	Impact of students' affective filter (i.e. motivation and anxiety levels) on their performance in spoken English in class	*I happen to think that I can't improve my [spoken] English no matter what I do.* (PT-40)
Suggested Solutions	Education/testing system	Amending the pre-ELT education/testing system to eliminate speaking-related problems	*The education system should provide everything; all the methods, all the skills, theories of skills, theories of methods.* (L-17)
	Authentic contexts	Enhancing opportunities both in and outside class to allow improvement in individuals' English speaking skills	*I would like to see lots of people in the street speaking in English.* (L-38)
	Continuous practice	Engaging oneself in continuous practice to improve one's English speaking skills	*They [students] can listen to live programmes on TV, they can read books, thousands of materials, millions of materials, but if they don't do it, they can't progress.* (L-36)

Perceptions on the scope of English	Competence is different from performance	Acknowledging that 'Knowing about' and 'being able to speak English' are different entities	*You may know a lot about the language but you may not be able to speak it.* (L-28)
	Competence is similar to performance	Acknowledging that 'Knowing about' and 'being able to speak English' are identical concepts	*'I can't speak English' and 'I don't know English', they actually refer to the same sense.* (L-09)

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

In the following sections, the themes displayed in the table are discussed in detail together with the excerpts from the transcripts, exemplifying each theme (*hereafter*, R: Researcher, PT: Pre-service teacher, L: Lecturer).

4.3.1.1. Perceived importance of speaking English

Almost all the Ls (36 out of 38) and PTs (45 out of 48) mentioned that being able to speak English is highly important for them and that it is the quintessential requirement of the ELT department. This importance, according to both groups, was related to the fact that English is the language of world and thus required for communicating with the outer world. More to the point, one pre-service teacher (PT-43) emphasized that being able to speak English is as important as 'bread and water'. The following excerpt exemplifies these views:

> *R: How important do you think being able to speak English is for you?*
>
> *L-02: To be honest, . . . 100% important because we are in an English department. If today I were teaching at a Chinese department now, definitely I would be asking my students to speak Chinese. In the German department, or French department, the same requirement would be brought up because that's how I was trained as a student in the department.*

Additionally, almost all the Ls (35 out of 38) also emphasised that speaking English is equally highly important for their ELT students, basing their argument on the ground that ELT students are prospective teachers of English. Moreover, L-05 also stated that speaking English is like the 'showcase' of a teacher in that the teacher acts as a role model for his/her students and L-02 contended that being able to speak English proves that you can teach English.

However, when stating their perceptions regarding the importance of being able to speak English, lecturers mostly pointed towards the professional use of spoken English (i.e. at work, while teaching), whereas pre-service teachers mostly emphasized its use as an indispensable means of communication that could be used particularly in out-of-class settings, for example with friends, which implicates that lecturers placed more emphasis on academic settings while pre-service students prioritized the use of spoken English for casual conversations.

4.3.1.2. Circumstances where English is spoken

The Ls and PTs were also asked to elaborate on the circumstances where they spoke in English. The responses given by both groups were classified into three subcategories (see Table 37): (I) *Almost nowhere / no need*, (II) *Anywhere possible*, and (III) *Mostly at work/school*, as shown in Figure 16:

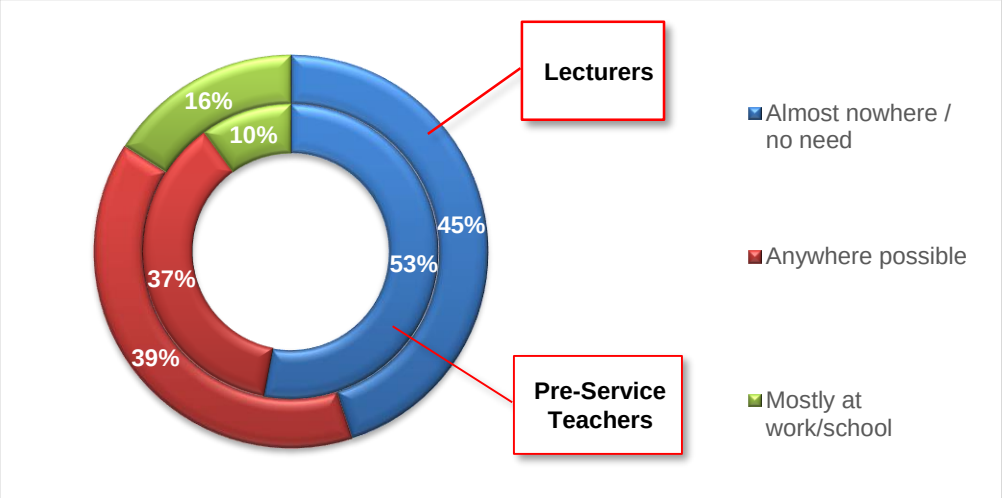


Figure 16. Circumstances of speaking English mentioned by the participants (semi-structured interview-1)

As seen in Figure 16, most of the Ls (45%) and PTs (53%) indicated that they almost never spoke English due to the lack of appropriate settings or because they felt no need for speaking English. About appropriate settings, they indicated that the ELT department they were working/studying at did not provide them an authentic environment where they could engage in continuous practice in English, preferably with native teachers and students. As for the out-of-class settings, they specifically noted that they did not need to use English since the people they communicated outside were Turkish

nationals who could not speak English and thus they accomplished their daily life activities using Turkish. These views are exemplified in the following excerpts:

R: How often do you speak English in your daily life?

L-08: No, frankly, I don't do it [speak English] so often, because you have to be in an English-speaking environment to do that. For the time being, there is no way that I could be in such an environment in my country.

PT-06: Here I cannot practise my English daily right now. Why not? Because I don't have so many foreign friends here, I've got some of them but most of them are Turkish, who speak Turkish more.

Secondly, a lesser proportion of the Ls (37%) and PTs (39%) declared that they spoke English almost anywhere, both at school and in daily life settings. However, as was shown in qualitative findings (Section 4.2.1), it was revealed that the lecturers spoke English in out-of-class settings more frequently than pre-service teachers did, whereby lecturers used spoken English mostly to chat with their family members and/or friends while pre-service teachers performed speaking mostly for communicating with their friends on face-to-face level, or online particularly with hobbies such as computer games. These notions are exemplified in the following excerpts:

R: How often do you speak English in your daily life?

L-12: I think 100% of my communication with my audience is in English. I don't think my students remember me speaking in Turkish with them. Probably you would see my outside, inside everywhere speaking English. When I communicate with my kids, one of my son lives in the UK, both of my sons were born in the UK, so it would be more natural to speak in English with them.

PT-06: I also use Skype to communicate with my friends from abroad.

Finally, a small portion of the Ls (16%) and PTs (10%) revealed that they spoke English mostly in class and/or at school and almost never spoke at home or with friends/family members. Among these participants, however, the lecturers stated that they mostly used spoken English for extracurricular activities such as conferences and projects

while pre-service teachers indicated that they used English merely for in-class communication, as was revealed in Section 4.3.1.1.

4.3.1.3. Speaking English in class

Speaking English in class is an indispensable component of ELT training, mainly because English is the primary medium of instruction in almost all the courses taught within the scope of ELT (for Medium of Instruction, see Section 2.3.2). The data elicited from the transcripts pertaining to semi-structured interview-1 regarding the theme 'Speaking English in class' were clustered into two categories: (I*) Speaking-related problems encountered in class* and (II) *Causes of speaking-related problems encountered in class* (see Table 37). These categories are explicated in the following sections.

4.3.1.3.1. Speaking-related problems encountered in class

When mentioning these problems, both lecturers and pre-service teachers mostly referred to the fact that Turkey is an EFL context and thus they could not speak in English. The speaking-related problems mentioned by both groups were clustered into four subcategories based on their overlapping features, as shown in Table 38 (for operational definitions of these subcategories, see Table 37):

Table 38

Frequencies of the Subcategories Derived from the Theme 'Speaking-related Problems Encountered in Class'

Subcategories	**Mentioned by**			
	Ls (n=38)		**PTs (n=48)**	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**
No problems in class	36	94.7	15	31.3
Switching to L1	28	73.6	16	33.3
Vocabulary choice	12	33.3	25	50.0
Pronunciation	22	57.9	5	10.4

As seen in Table 38, almost all the lecturers, as opposed to almost one-third of the pre-service teachers, indicated that they had no problems and felt adequately competent when speaking English in class. Additionally, the remaining two lecturers noted that although they did not have significant problems in general, they sometimes had difficulty

in finding the correct/word for starting speaking (i.e. difficulty in vocabulary choice). What is more, almost all the lecturers, despite being asked whether they had any personal speaking-related problems in class, diverted the attention to the notion that the speaking-problems encountered in class were on the students' side, rather than their own side as the following excerpt shows:

> *R: Do you encounter any problems when speaking English in class?*
>
> *L-05: Well, personally, as it is our field of study, I do not feel any problems, but when eliciting answers from the students, they have remarkable difficulty, particularly at the first and second grades, they try to switch to Turkish, of course we do not allow them to do. However, over time, they learn to express themselves in line with the increase in their knowledge base.*

In line with the remarks above, lecturers also emphasised that the students had noticeable problems both when speaking and listening English in class and also noted that these problems were most salient in the first year of the ELT programme and gradually became less noticeable as the students' level and experience increased. As a result of this lack of competence, as mentioned by lecturers (n=28) and pre-service teachers (n=16), the students, particularly first-year students, converted to Turkish and tried to express their thoughts/feelings or to provide a response to a question probed by the lecturer and/or classmate. Some lecturers contended that they tried to prevent students from converting to L1 to promote the usage of English in class.

As a second problem mentioned by lecturers and pre-service teachers, difficulty in finding the correct word/phrase was also revealed to be a significant problem, as mentioned by half of pre-service teachers and one-third of lecturers. In clear terms, pre-service teachers as well as lecturers propounded that they (i.e. students) had difficulty finding the correct word/phrase mostly when trying to verbalise their thoughts/emotions in English as comfortably as they would do in Turkish. Both groups also indicated that these problems sometimes led to a breakdown in students' fluency and emphasised that these words/expressions were both technical words/expressions that were rarely used in everyday conversations and even sometimes were simple words/expressions that were used relatively more frequently in daily life.

As a third problem, a large proportion of lecturers (n=22) and a small number of pre-service teachers (n=5) mentioned that the students had pronunciation-related

problems when performing speaking in class. The pre-service teachers contended that although they knew the meaning and structures of words/phrases, they had difficulty in figuring out their correct pronunciation. Additionally, one pre-service teacher (PT-46) also stated he/she was challenged particularly when listening to a person speaking with a heavy accent and at a fast rate. Conceivably, both groups attributed these problems to the fact that English was not their mother tongue.

In line with the remarks made thus far, one point that needs clarification regarding the speaking-related problems encountered in class is that the lecturers, when claiming that the problems abovementioned mostly referred to ELT students, portrayed themselves as rather self-confident speakers of English who were highly competent in the knowledge and skills encapsulated by the scope of the courses they were/had been delivering. From this notion, it follows that the lecturers' self-proclaimed perfection could be confined only to their professional knowledge, something that should be distinguished from their competence in out-of-class settings, which will be delineated in the forthcoming sections.

4.3.1.3.2. Causes of speaking-related problems encountered in class

Both lecturers and pre-service teachers, when presenting their perceptions regarding the speaking-related problems encountered in class (Section 4.3.1.3.1), also referred to the causes of those problems even before being asked to do so, mostly to support their propositions. Accordingly, all the causes of speaking-related problems encountered in class were elicited from the transcripts and, as a result, these causes were clustered into three subcategories: (I) *Education/testing system*, (II) *Lack of authentic contexts*, and (III) *Affective filter* (Table 39):

Table 39

Frequencies of Subcategories Derived from the Theme 'Causes of the Problems Encountered in Class'

Subcategories	**Mentioned by**			
	Ls (n=38)		**PTs (n=48)**	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**
Education/testing system	32	84.2	30	62.5
Lack of authentic contexts	26	68.4	16	33.3
Affective filter	25	65.8	33	68.8

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

The majority of the lecturers and more than half of pre-service teachers mentioned that the prior education (i.e., the education received by the students prior to the ELT training) and the foreign language testing system in Turkey were a cause of speaking-related problems encountered in class, particularly of the problems encountered by the ELT students, mainly because both the education and testing system were overwhelmingly dependent on the learning and teaching of grammar, vocabulary, and reading skills and overlooked other skills particularly speaking and listening. As a corollary of this disequilibrium, according to lecturers and pre-service teachers, the ELT students, after starting the ELT training, often had noticeable difficulty in performing speaking as well as in comprehending the speeches/conversations conducted in class. These notions were explicated as in the following excerpts:

R: What are the causes of these problems?

PT-17: . . . I noticed that I couldn't even read the coursebooks when I was in the first grade because their level was so high. The lecturers were speaking in English and I was looking at them in the eye, thinking "What are they talking about?", although we were so-called students who studied the foreign language department at high school.

Beside the education system, both lecturers and pre-service teachers also maintained that the foreign language test administered for high school graduates, which is a component of the university placement test (i.e. YDT), was also a source of problems related to the English speaking skills since it was heavily dependent on grammar, reading, and vocabulary and neglected the teaching and learning of other skills, particularly speaking and listening, in a similar way to the education system. As a result of this, according to the Ls and PTs, high school teachers did not put adequate emphasis on the speaking and listening skills and instead focused on the skills to be probed in the exam, i.e., reading, grammar, and vocabulary, and also placed excessive emphasis on the teaching of grammar rules rather than on having their students perform these skills in appropriate contexts.

On the other hand, more than two-thirds of the lecturers and a lesser proportion of pre-service teachers mentioned that there was a lack of authentic contexts in the ELT department/school, which was an obstruction for the improvement of ELT students'

English speaking skills. However, while the Ls specifically attributed this lack of authentic contexts to the insufficiency of speaking courses in terms of weekly duration, the PTs ascribed it to the absence of native speakers in the department/school. These views are explicated in the following excerpts:

> *R: What are the causes of these problems?*
>
> *L-28: They [ELT students] never talk, they never have the chance to develop themselves, and when they come here, there have really limited opportunities for them to talk, there aren't many speaking courses in our programme and if they are not willing to develop themselves, there aren't enough support mechanisms in the department, unfortunately.*
>
> *PT-43: I never speak [English] in my daily life … If there were 20 native speakers in this department, for instance 10 from the USA, 5 from the UK, etc., this would definitely be useful for the ELT students in the department for speaking English in non-academic settings such as in the canteen, in the street, elsewhere. However, since we aren't that international, we mostly have Turkish students around us, that's why we can't speak English. Even when we try to speak in English, it doesn't work, it doesn't become decent.*

Finally, almost two-thirds of both lecturers and pre-service teachers claimed that the speaking problems faced by ELT students are related to students' personal factors, particularly, affective filter. As an explanation to this claim, both groups contended that the ELT students, due to their affective filter, felt considerably shy when asked to produce a response in English, which could also indicate lack of self-confidence in those students. Moreover, some lecturers (e.g. L-28) asserted that this inhibition could be attributed to the fact that those students had little or no contact with foreigners before and thus had lack of exposure. Additionally, a small number of lecturers also mentioned that some students' motivation, which is another component of affective filter (see Section 2.2.7.2), was remarkably low, such that they even sometimes refrained from speaking in Turkish. According to those lecturers, the students' lack of motivation was primarily concerned with the fact that most of the ELT students believed that they would not use or need English speaking skills when they graduated from the ELT department or when they became English teachers. As a result of this misconception, the ELT students, according

to lecturers, tended to pay little or no attention to the learning of English speaking skills and regarded these skills as an ordinary course taught in the ELT department. In contrast, the pre-service teachers stated their lack of motivation was mainly concerned with the presence—and the intentional search—of a 'simpler way'. That is to say, the PTs claimed that the ELT students did not feel fully motivated to speak English particularly in the contexts where they sensed that there would be no problem with using a simpler way, e.g., switching to Turkish. These perceptions are reflected in the following excerpt:

> *R: What are the causes of these problems?*
>
> *PT-31: I do participate in the lecture by speaking English, but in the situations I feel challenged, I simply switch to Turkish, knowing that everybody will be able to understand me and will never say "What's s/he talking about, I don't understand?".*

Regarding the perceptions of lecturers and pre-service into the causes of speaking-related problems in class, it was also observed that neither lecturers nor pre-service teachers attributed those problems to lecturers. Instead, both groups ascribed those problems either to the education system and related factors (e.g. opportunities) or to personal characteristics of the students. This assumption is consistent with the previous finding that indicated that lecturers regarded themselves as fully competent in speaking English in class.

4.3.1.4. Speaking English outside class

Speaking English outside class, in a general sense, refers to using English for daily life chores and/or conversations that are conducted in non-academic settings such as at home, in the street, in shops, and so on (Harmer, 2015). About speaking English in daily life settings, two categories were elicited from the transcript pertaining to semi-structured interview-1: (I) *Problems encountered in daily life settings* and (II) *Causes of the problems encountered in daily life settings*. These two categories are explained in detail in the following sections.

4.3.1.4.1. Speaking-related problems encountered outside class

The speaking-related problems encountered by lecturers and pre-service teachers in daily life settings were clustered into two subcategories; (I) *No problems outside class* and (II) *Vocabulary choice,* which were the same as two of the subcategories elicited for the speaking-related problems encountered in class (see Section 4.3.1.3.1). The frequencies of these two subcategories are illustrated in Table 40 below:

Table 40

Frequencies of Subcategories Derived from the Theme 'Speaking-related Problems Encountered outside Class'

Subcategories	**Mentioned by**			
	Ls (n=38)		**PTs (n=48)**	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**
No problems outside class	10	26.3	29	60.4
Vocabulary choice	15	39.5	9	18.8

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

As can be seen in Table 40, almost one-quarter of lecturers as opposed to more than half of pre-service indicated that they had no problems when speaking English in daily life settings. These rates, when compared to those indicated for speaking-related problems in class (Section 4.3.1.3.1), implicate that lecturers felt more competent when speaking English in academic settings compared to non-academic settings, while pre-service teachers felt more competent when speaking English in non-academic settings compared to academic settings, which could be related to the difference between lecturers and pre-service teachers with regard to their usual out-of-class circumstances (see Section 4.2.1 and 4.3.1.2).

For the second subcategory, more than one-third of lecturers and almost one-fifth of pre-service teachers claimed that they had difficulty in choosing correct word/phrase when speaking English in daily life settings, particularly in casual conversations. Of note, both lecturers and pre-service teachers indicated that these words were mostly technical words that required the knowledge of specialist fields such as Maths, Medicine, and so on. Nevertheless, when queried about what they did to overcome such problems, neither lecturers nor pre-service teachers explained what strategies/tactics they employed (e.g.

paraphrasing). Instead, they only stated that they tried to enhance their exposure to native English by watching and/or listening to TV, videos and so on.

4.3.1.4.2. Causes of speaking-related problems encountered outside class

The lecturers and pre-service teachers also explained the causes of the problems they encountered when speaking English in daily life settings. These causes were found to be lack of authentic contexts in daily life settings and affective filter (Table 41):

Table 41

Frequencies of the Subcategories Derived from the Theme 'Causes of the Problems Encountered in Daily Life Settings'

Subcategories	**Mentioned by**			
	Ls (n=38)		**PTs (n=48)**	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**
Lack of authentic contexts	35	92.1	40	83.3
Affective filter			15	31.3

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

As seen in Table 41, the lack of authentic contexts was revealed as the major cause of speaking problems encountered by lecturers and pre-service teachers when speaking English outside class. Both groups also contended that this scarcity led to limited exposure to spoken English for both lecturers and pre-service teachers and ultimately led to lack of practice in English speaking skills, mainly because most of the people they socialised with in their daily life were Turkish-speaking people—a finding that was consistent with the findings denoted in Section 4.3.1.3.1. These remarks are depicted in the following excerpt:

> *R: Do you encounter any problems when speaking English in your daily life?*
>
> *PT-05: Very rarely. I also complain a lot about it [the scarcity] but it [speaking] occurs really rarely because I don't have foreign friends around me, even almost none, which is a barrier for me. I mean although speaking English is an alternative for me, I don't do it, it is really non-existing in reality, I don't have such an alternative.*

As a second cause of speaking-related problems encountered outside class, only pre-service teachers (n=15) stated that affective filter was a barrier for their improvement in spoken English. However, as opposed to the findings shown in Section 4.3.1.3.1, pre-service teachers pointed towards different aspects of affective filter. To illustrate, they claimed they were inhibited from speaking English in non-academic settings mainly because they felt embarrassed when speaking with their classmates outside and also regarded such a venture as futile and unnatural.

4.3.1.5. Suggested solutions

During the interviews, both the lecturers and pre-service teachers proposed several solutions regarding the speaking problems they encountered in both in- and out-of-class settings. These suggested solutions were clustered into three subcategories based on the frequencies of the codes/categories elicited: (I) *Education/testing system,* (II) *Authentic contexts,* and (III) *Continuous practice* (Table 42):

Table 42

Frequencies of Subcategories Derived from the Theme 'Solutions Suggested for Speaking Problems'

Subcategories	**Mentioned by**			
	Ls (n=38)		**PTs (n=48)**	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**
Education/testing system	35	92.1	46	95.8
Authentic contexts	20	52.6	26	54.2
Continuous practice	12	31.6	15	31.3

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

As shown in Table 42, the solutions regarding the education system had the highest frequency for both lecturers and pre-service teachers. These subcategories are explained in the forthcoming sections.

4.3.1.5.1. Education/testing system

Almost all the lecturers and pre-service teachers proposed that the education/testing system (i.e., pre-ELT education/testing) should undergo a bottom-up

amendment, in such a way to support the teaching and learning of English speaking skills. For this amendment, both groups specifically emphasised that the education/testing system should integrate all four skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, writing) and the two subskills (i.e., vocabulary and grammar) so as to dispense them equally into all the teaching and learning processes. They also suggested that the education system should also impose the teaching of how to use these skills and subskills in real-life settings for the establishment of appropriate communications.

Moreover, some Ls and PTs explicitly demanded that the communicative skills, particularly speaking, should be prioritized over the other skills so that the students/learners could express themselves both in academic and non-academic settings in a proper manner, as shown in the following excerpt:

R: How do you think these problems can be eliminated?

L-30: First of all, it [the education system] should make students communicatively competent so that they can communicate in daily life settings, academic situations, both spoken and written, they can follow what's going on easily, and they can meet the demands of our current era, where people travel or use technology very effectively.

Undoubtedly, such a revision would not only eliminate the speaking-related problems mentioned thus far such as switching to L1, lack of motivation, and vocabulary choice but also would alleviate the impact of the causes of these problems such lack of authentic contexts and affective filter.

4.3.1.5.2. Authentic contexts

As mentioned in Section 4.3.1.3.2 and 4.3.1.4.2, both lecturers and PTs contended that the lack of authentic contexts was a significant cause of the problems encountered both in and outside class. In accordance with this scarcity, almost half of lecturers and pre-service teachers implicated that there was an ample need for authentic contexts in which the ELT students as well as lecturers could feel in a natural environment that would contribute to the improvement of their English speaking skills. These authentic contexts, as proposed by both groups, could be established in Turkey, for example, by importing native English teachers or promoting attendance to academic organizations such as

conferences, symposia, or outside Turkey, for example, by promoting students and lecturers to stay abroad for a certain period of time, particularly in an English as a native language (ENL) country such as UK or USA (see Section 2.2.6).

4.3.1.5.3. Continuous practice

Almost one-third of both lecturers and pre-service teachers proposed that the ELT students themselves needed to take some actions to eliminate the problems they encountered when speaking English—actions that would specifically focus on improving their attitudes towards improving their English speaking skills. In clearer terms, both groups proposed that the ELT students should try harder and practise more and more to achieve automaticity in speaking English even when they faced challenges such as lack of authentic contexts. Moreover, both groups also noted that the ELT students should sustain this practise by using opportunities such as smartphones, TV channels, books, internet, and so forth, as exemplified in the following excerpts:

R: How do you think these problems can be eliminated?

L-36: They [ELT students] can listen to live programmes on TV, they can read books, thousands of materials, millions of materials, but if they don't do it, they can't progress.

PT-10: We may talk to foreigners via social platforms such as Skype, Messenger, and so on.

However, when presenting their solutions to the speaking-related problem, the lecturers, who previously declared having difficulty in finding the correct word/phrase when speaking English (see Section 4.3.1.3.1 and 4.3.1.4.1), did not propose any solutions regarding this problem neither for themselves or their colleagues; rather, they presented their solutions only for the students.

4.3.1.6. Perceptions on the scope of English

As mentioned in Section 2.2.1.3, 'knowing about' vs. 'being able to speak a language' is a significant distinction commonly associated with the competence vs. performance distinction, with the former elements basically referring to the knowledge of rules (i.e. procedural knowledge) and the latter elements to the active usage of the

knowledge and skills in appropriate contexts (i.e. declarative knowledge). Based on the close relationship between this dichotomy and speaking skills, both lecturers and pre-service teachers were asked the following question during the interview: *What do you think the scope of teaching English should be? What do you think about the concepts 'knowing about English' and 'being able to speak English'?* Depending on the answers elicited to this question, two subcategories were elicited: (I) *The same* and (II) *Different* (Table 43):

Table 43

Frequencies of the subcategories derived from the category 'Perceptions on the Scope of English'

Subcategories	**Mentioned by**			
	Ls (n=38)		**PTs (n=48)**	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**
Different	33	86.8	43	89.6
The same	5	13.2	5	10.4

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

As can be seen in Table 43, a great majority of both lecturers and pre-service teachers acknowledged that there is a noticeable distinction between knowing about English and being able to speak English. To illustrate this difference, both groups contended that being able to speak English, or any given language, refers to being able to produce that language appropriately in given contexts while knowing about that language merely indicates the knowledge of that language that cannot be heard or felt by others. Additionally, some other lecturers (e.g. L-22) argued that being able to speak English is more comprehensive than knowing about English and that the former involves the latter.

On the contrary, a small number of lecturers and pre-service teachers claimed that these two terms are actually the same, elaborating that knowing about a language entails being able to speak it. Moreover, these lecturers and pre-service teachers also noted that despite the identicalness of these terms, they are perceived to be different in Turkey owing to the problems with the education system. These views are illustrated in the following excerpt:

R: What do you think about the concepts 'knowing about English' and 'being able to speak English'?

PT-42: Actually, they are the same but in our country there is a general perception suggesting that they aren't [the same]. As a matter of fact, if we know about a language, we should be able to speak it. These terms are misperceived because we have some problems with this distinction.

Thus far, the findings elicited from semi-structured interview-1 were presented together with excerpts illustrating the findings. In the following sections, the qualitative findings obtained in phase II (i.e. focus group interview and semi-structured interview-2) are presented in detail.

4.3.2. Data from phase II: Findings from focus group interview

The focus group interview conducted in the present study was administered by the researcher to a group of six ELT students. This interview involved three questions (see Appendix G and H), all of which were designed to address research question 3 (*What are the perceptions of first-year students who have recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding: a) the contribution of the course to their competence in spoken English? b) the problems they encountered in class (if any) when speaking English?, c) their suggested solutions to the problems?*). For this interview, the following categories and subcategories were elicited (Table 44):

Table 44

Overview of Focus Group Interview Data

Categories	**Subcategories**	**Operational definition**	**Example**
Contributions of the course	Fluency	Contributions of the course to students' fluency	*When I came here [to the course], I couldn't speak fluently, but this course helped me become fluent.* (S-01)
	Pronunciation	Contributions of the course to students' pronunciation	*I used to pronounce it [certificate] as /sertifikeit/, but I later corrected it thanks to this course.* (S-04)
	Vocabulary	Contributions of the course to students' vocabulary	*When discussing about a totally new topic in class, we inadvertently got to learn new words.* (S-01)
Speaking-related problems encountered in class	Adaptation	Students' challenge in adapting to the English spoken by the lecturer and classmates in class at the beginning of the first year	*At the beginning of the semester when I started to take up this course, I was kind of not good in speaking.* (S-05)
	Seating arrangement	Effect of seating arrangement on students' performance in speaking English in class	*I gradually noticed the negative impact of seating arrangement on the students.* (S-02)
	Peer influence	Effect of classmates on students' performance in speaking English in class	*There were some classmates with advanced [English] speaking skills in class, which did not only impact the class order but also complicated the comprehension of others.* (S-01)
Suggested Solutions	Course hours	Increasing the weekly and overall durations of the course	*First of all, the weekly duration of the course should be increased.* (S-01)
	Seating arrangement	Modifying the seating plan in class	*The seating plan should be U-shaped, for the least.* (S-02)
	Continuous practice	Engaging oneself in continuous practice to improve one's English speaking skills	*They [students] can listen to live programmes on TV, they can read books, thousands of materials, millions of materials.* (S-03)
	Placement test	Administering a placement test to create achievement-based classes	*There should be separate classes divided based on students' achievement levels (S-05).*

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

As seen in Table 44, a total of three themes were elicited from the data pertaining to the focus group interview: (i) *Perceived contributions of the course,* (ii) *Speaking-related problems encountered in class,* and (iii) *Suggested solutions*. These themes are explicated in the following sections.

4.3.2.1. Perceived contributions of the Oral Communication Skills course to students' competence

At the beginning of the interview, the students elaborated on the environment established in the Oral Communication Skills course they had been receiving for the last one year. According to students, the course was taught mostly in English, which provided an authentic environment for their progress in English speaking skills, and mostly included speaking-directed activities such as pair-work, group work, and whole-class activities, which provided an appropriate environment for continuous practice. The students also mentioned the caring attitude of the lecturer, elaborating that he was more like a speaking partner than an ordinary course teacher, which facilitated their adaptation to the course environment and helped them develop positive attitudes towards the course. As a corollary of these positive factors, all the six students clearly indicated that the Oral Communication Skills course had significant contributions to their competence and improvement in English speaking skills. For one thing, all the students acknowledged that the course helped them to improve their fluency in spoken English. In their statements, they indicated that they had serious difficulty even in starting a conversation during the early periods of the course and over time this problem was gradually alleviated and they became remarkably fluent. Secondly, half of the students (n=3) claimed that they had significant improvement in terms of pronunciation. To illustrate, one student (S-04) contended that he initially pronounced the 'certificate' as /sertifikeit*/ but corrected this mistake owing to the continuous practice administered in class. Finally, two students claimed that the course had a contributory effect on their English vocabulary, particularly in speaking. This improvement, according to those students, was related to the learning of new words and the continuous usage of the words during in-class activities.

4.3.2.2. Speaking-related problems encountered in class

About the speaking-related problems in class, almost all the students (n=5) emphasized that they had remarkable difficulty in adapting to the class environment during the first weeks of the course, as was mentioned in the Findings from semi-structured interview-1 (Section 4.3.3). The students attributed this problem to students' the lack of exposure during their pre-ELT education. However, the students contended that this problem, as a result of the contributory effects of the course mentioned in

previous section, was alleviated and that they gradually became more competent over time.

The second problem mentioned by students (n=3) was the seating arrangement in class. In clear terms, the students stated that their inflexible seating arrangement (i.e. seats fixed to the ground) posed a hindrance for their improvement in English speaking skills, as explained in the following excerpt:

> *R: Did you encounter any problems when speaking English or listening to a classmate or the teacher speaking English in class? If yes, what problems were they? Did the frequency of these problems decline over time?*
>
> *S-01: In our classroom, we are seated in an such a way that we can see the nape of the classmate sitting in front of us, which makes it difficult to hear his/her speech because we are not seated face-to-face. It also makes difficult to hear someone speaking at a distance of ten meters because he/she is not facing you but just facing the classmate in front of him/her. Therefore, there is a problem with the seating arrangement.*

The final problem stated by the students (n=2) was that there were wide gaps between high and low achievers in class, which at times could have a negative impact on the class environment. The students specifically noted that the high-achievers, who had received training in ENL countries such as UK and USA sometime in the past, could speak English more proficiently than the remaining classmates and thus sometimes engaged in heated debates, thereby leaving out the remaining students.

4.3.2.3. Suggested solutions

The solutions suggested by the students established a strong parallelism with the problems they mentioned. As a first solution, almost all the students (n=5) proposed that the weekly duration of the Oral Communication Skills course should be increased to augment the total talking time per student and also the course should be extended to the subsequent years as well, to maximise the opportunities for students' practice.

As a second solution, half of the students suggested that the seating plan in class should be changed so as to facilitate in-class activities performed by the students. According to the students, the seating plan could be changed to the U-shaped plan, which

thereby would allow a natural speaking environment in which students are seated face-to-face and maintain eye contact throughout their speech.

As a third solution, two students (S-01 and S-05) suggested that the ELT students should continue practising both during their ELT training and after graduation, i.e. when they become EFL teachers. To achieve this, as stated by students, the students—as well as EFL teachers—may seek for opportunities provided by governmental or non-governmental organizations or they could simply practise spoken English with their friends, colleagues, or, for the least, could practise English by watching or listening to authentic materials on TVs, internet and so on.

Finally, two students (S-01 and S-02) proposed that a placement could be administered immediately after students' enrolment to the ELT programme to divide students into separate classes based on their achievement. However, as stated by the students, although such an implementation may not be welcome by all the students, it could eliminate the wide gap between high and low achievers.

4.3.3. Findings from semi-structured interview-2

This interview, as mentioned in Section 3.3, was administered to a single lecturer who had recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course at an ELT department. The interview, in a similar way to the focus group interview, consisted of three questions (see Appendix I and J) that were designed to address research question 4 *(What are the perceptions of the lecturer who has recently delivered a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding; a) the contribution of the course to the students' competence in spoken English?, b) the problems encountered (if any) when teaching English speaking skills?, c) his solutions to the problems?).*

The data elicited from the transcript pertaining to semi-structured interview-2 were categorized into three themes, as shown in Table 45:

Table 45

Overview of Semi-Structured Interview-2 Data

Categories	Subcategories	Operational definition	Example
Contributions of the course	Thinking in English	Contributions of the course in promoting students' thinking in English	*As the weeks passed on, the students began thinking English rather than in Turkish when speaking English in class.*
	Vocabulary	Contributions of the course to students' vocabulary	*The course helped students gain new words and to use them in live discussions in class.*
	Politeness	Contributions of the course to students' politeness level	*Some students initially could not produce polite language even in Turkish; over time, they started to produce polite structures both in Turkish and English.*
Speaking-related problems encountered in class	Adaptation	Students' challenge in adapting to the English spoken by the lecturer and classmates in class at the beginning of the first year	*During the first weeks, I realized that the students had difficulty understanding me, I mean the course teacher.*
Suggested Solutions	Course hours	Increasing the weekly and overall durations of the course	*Increasing the weekly course hours back to 3 2 hours would be to the benefit of the students.*
	Other courses	Increasing students' exposure to native English in other courses	*I advise them [lecturers teaching other courses] to allow students to watch films, documentaries, etc. to enhance their [students'] oral skills.*

Notes. L = Lecturer, PT = Pre-service teacher

The three themes elicited from the data included: (i) *Perceived contributions of the course,* (ii) *Speaking-related problems encountered in class,* and (iii) *Suggested solutions*. These themes are explicated in the following sections.

4.3.3.1. Perceived Contributions of the Oral Communication Skills Course to Students' Competence

The lecturer interviewed in semi-structured interview-2, in a similar way to the students interviewed in the focus group interview, indicated that the Oral Communication Skills course had favourable contributions to students' competence and improvement in English speaking skills although the students came from a background characterized by little or no training in speaking skills. However, in addition to improvement in speaking-related skills such as fluency and accuracy, the lecturer emphasised that the course helped

the students to think in English rather than in Turkish when speaking English, which made them feel more comfortable when speaking English. This transition, according to the lecturer, was a corollary of the native environment created in class.

Secondly, the lecturer also noted that the course had significant contributions to students' vocabulary-related skills. To illustrate, the lecturer contended that the students initially had noticeable difficulty in forming a sentence when speaking English due to their hesitation in choosing the correct word for the given context. Thanks to this course, however, the students started learning new words/phrases both through in-class activities and home assignments that required pre-class studies such as researching a given topic. The students, after a certain period of time, started to use not only their previously known words/phrases but also the newly learned ones in live discussions performed in class.

As a third contribution, the lecturer stated that the course improved the students' politeness as well. In clear terms, the lecturer expounded that the students, at the very beginning of the first semester, initially had difficulty in maintaining politeness when speaking both in Turkish and English, which made them sound rude when speaking in either language. According to the lecturer, this course helped those students to take politeness into consideration when speaking not only in English but also in Turkish and also to adjust the level of their politeness according to the context given.

4.3.3.2. Speaking-related problems encountered in class

About the speaking-related problems encountered in class, the lecturer only mentioned about the challenging adaptation period, which was also stated by the students. The lecturer also noted that during that period, the students had difficulty in both understanding his speech and performing speaking in a proper manner (i.e. producing well-formed, logical, and grammatical sentences with intelligible pronunciation). However, this problem, according to the lecturer, became less prominent as the time passed and as the students became growingly more competent.

4.3.3.3. Suggested solutions

The final question in the interview probed the lecturer's solution proposals regarding the speaking problems encountered in class. About the solutions, the lecturer proposed that the weekly duration of this course should be increased from two hours to

three hours, as was before, and that the class should be divided into several branches so as to increase the student talking time (STT) in class (see Section 5.3).

As a second solution, the lecturer proposed that the other courses taught within the scope of the ELT programme should maximise students' level of exposure to authentic materials. To achieve this, as proposed by the lecturer, the lecturers of those courses could increase the extent of English spoken during the teacher talking time (TTT) (see Section 5.3) and could also provide students with authentic English-language films and documentaries during their lectures.

4.4. Summary

In this chapter, the findings of the study, both qualitative and quantitative, were expounded in detail. The discussion and triangulation of these findings and their comparison to relevant studies in the literature will be elaborated on in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, findings elicited from the qualitative and quantitative data are discussed in the light of relevant literature. The chapter is organized according to the research questions, some of which were coalesced to present similar notions in tandem. Section 5.2 presents the perceptions of pre-service teachers and lecturers regarding the teaching and learning of English speaking skills in the ELT departments (research questions 1a and 2a; *What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers/lecturers regarding English speaking skills?),* Section 5.3 presents the perceptions of these participants on the problems encountered by these participants when speaking English (research questions 1b and 2b; *What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers/lecturers regarding the problems they encounter (if any) when speaking English?),* Section 5.4 presents the solutions suggested by the participants for speaking-related problems (research questions 1c and 2c; *What are the perceptions of pre-service teachers/lecturers regarding their suggested solutions to the problems?),* Section 5.5 presents the perceptions of first-year students and the lecturer regarding the contributions of the Oral Communication Skills course to students' improvement in English speaking skills (research questions 3a and 4a; *What are the perceptions of first-year students/lecturer who have recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding the contribution of the course to their competence in spoken English?),* Section 5.6 presents the perceptions of first-year students and the lecturer regarding the problems encountered in class when speaking English (research questions 3b and 4b; *What are the perceptions of first-year students/lecturer who have recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding the problems they encountered in class [if any] when speaking English?),* and Section 5.7 presents the perceptions of first-year students and the lecturer regarding the solutions to speaking-related problems (research questions 3c and 4c; *What are the perceptions of first-year students/lecturer who have recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course regarding their solutions to the problems?).*

5.2. Perceptions of pre-service teachers and lecturers regarding English speaking skills

The foremost perception queried in the interview (i.e. semi-structured interview-1) was the importance lecturers and pre-service teachers adhered to English, particularly to spoken English. It was revealed that both pre-service teachers and lecturers attributed remarkable importance to speaking and also considered that speaking English is a crucial asset both for themselves and for Turkish young people, people of working age, elderly people, and people travelling abroad. Additionally, they also noted that Turkish people should be able to speak English to become international. In a similar fashion, Dinçer and Yeşilyurt (2013) investigated pre-service English teachers' perceptions on the importance they attributed to English speaking skills and found that the pre-service teachers regarded speaking as the most important skill among all language skills. These perceptions seem highly plausible due to the fact that English has become a global language that has been well integrated into numerous realms in the world such as culture, lifestyle, economy, technology, social media, and so on (Garcia, 2010, p. 409; Nunan, 2013, pp. 152-154). Along similar lines, as proposed by Crystal (2003), English is a global language which has a 'special role' in that it fulfils several important criteria such as being recognized in almost every country in the world, being spoken by large numbers of people, and being spoken as the most ubiquitous language learned in educational settings even in countries where it has no official status (pp. 3-5).

Another finding drawn from the quantitative and qualitative findings was that pre-service teachers and lecturers spoke English predominantly in academic settings (e.g. at school, conferences) while pre-service teachers spoke English in daily life situations (i.e. with friends and themselves and when expressing negative feelings) less frequently than lecturers did. This divergence of preferences could be ascribed to the notion of 'speech styles' devised by Labov (1970, as cited in Ellis, 2019, p. 98), who contended that the speech styles of a language speaker may vary depending on the degree of attention paid by the speaker to his/her speech. Based on this attention, according to Labov, the speech style of the speaker can vary on a continuum of two ends including *vernacular style* (i.e. informal language) and *careful style* (formal language) (ibid). Accordingly, it appears that the speech style of pre-service teachers is more inclined to the careful style (i.e. the language spoken in classroom) rather than the vernacular style (i.e. the language spoken in daily life settings).

The perceptions elicited from pre-service teachers and lecturers made it clear that both groups admired Turkish people who spoke English fluently, like a native speaker of English, more than Turkish people who spoke English poorly or less fluently. Likewise, Coşkun (2011) evaluated pre-service teachers' attitudes towards teaching pronunciation in Turkish context and found that the participants perceived native-speaker English as the correct model in English pronunciation. From these notions, it appears that both lecturers and pre-service teachers generally admired speakers that achieve fluency hence *automatization* more perfectly than the other speaker types. Automatization, also known as automaticity, is defined as "absence of attentional control in the execution of a cognitive activity" (Segalowitz and Hulstijn, 2005, p. 371). In speaking, however, automatization is portrayed as a swift action of retrieving the linguistic knowledge that is required at the moment of the speaking activity. This swift action is a determining factor in performing well-formed sentences within an acceptable course of time during a given conversation (Ellis, 2005, p. 286). Nevertheless, automatization is a source of debate related to the question of 'intelligibility' (Nelson, 2011, p. 2) which, in basic terms, refers to "a property of utterances such that their phonetic segments, intonation, and rhythm are clear enough for listeners to begin the process of interpretation" (Brown and Miller, 2013, p. 232). In other words, how understandable a speaker is when he/she produces verbal language is closely associated with the proficiency of the speaker. In similar vein, as cautioned by Brown and Yule (1999), all the attempts of a speaker remain futile unless he/she becomes able to produce language in an acceptable and intelligible manner (p. 25).

In addition to the admiration abovementioned, both pre-service teachers and lecturers also stated that although they considered themselves as persons who could speak English better than Turkish people on average and well enough, they believed that they could not speak as well as a native speaker. A similar outcome was reported by numerous studies conducted in Turkish context (e.g. Kondal, 2009; Tokoz-Göktepe, 2014; Han & Kaya, 2014), in which the participating EFL learners/teachers reported that they could not speak English as well as native speakers. An extensive body of literature suggests that the accurate use of a language has strong ties with the nativeness vs. nonnativeness dichotomy (Gilbert, 2008, p. 42, Harmer, 2015, p. 278; Luoma, 2009, p. 11). In due course, it seems fair to assume that the more native the accent of a speaker is, the better (Richards, 1982, p. 6). However, reflecting on Morley (1992), Gilbert (2008) maintained that aiming to speak like a native speaker drags the speaker into a 'perfection trap' and therefore the ideal aim should be to achieve 'a listener-friendly pronunciation' both in

social and business-related settings (p. 42). Additionally, Harmer (2015) stipulated that those aiming to achieve a native-like accent need to master all the phonological features of a native variety but those aiming to achieve 'international intelligibility' should focus on the essential elements of pronunciation such as consonant clusters or sentence stress rather than intonation and the use of schwa (p. 278) (see Phonology, Section 2.2.2.3). From these notions, it appears that the native vs. nonnative distinction seems somehow hazardous since languages, particularly English, are becoming extremely diversified within the course of the globalization process (see Section 2.2.6).

Both lecturers and pre-service teachers in our study contended that there is an age-related limitation on the acquisition of native-like pronunciation. It is inherently known that the age at which learners start acquiring a language is an important issue for the linguistic development of the learners (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p. 43). This importance arises from the common fact that young learners learn linguistic skills better and faster than older learners (Saville-Troike, 2012, p. 87). Of these skills, pronunciation is oftentimes at the centre of attention since the learners beginning to acquire L2 speaking during early childhood are more likely to achieve native or nativelike proficiency in L2 pronunciation compared to older individuals (Gass and Selinker, 2008, p. 405). This view lends itself to a well-known hypothesis in the literature, termed Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). CPH was first introduced by Penfield and Roberts (1959, as cited in Gass and Selinker, 2008, p. 405) and posits that there is a critical period in a child's life that commences during the onset of language development and terminates before puberty. This phenomenon, according to CPH, is attributed to the natural predisposition of the brain to language learning within this particular period. Additionally, this period involves four consecutive phases, in which effective language learning begins at the onset phase, progresses to its highest level at the peak phase, terminates at the offset phase, and ultimately regresses to its earliest form in the flattening phase, respectively (ibid).

In a related manner to participants' perceptions on the relationship between age and pronunciation, both pre-service teachers and lecturers also contended that pronunciation instruction could lead to permanent changes and that pronunciation could be taught to lower levels as well. As mentioned in Section 2.2.2.3, pronunciation is closely linked to the realm of phonology and hence to speaking skills (Harmer, 2007b, p. 61). The reflections of this close relationship, as clarified by Labov (2010), can be seen in educational settings as well and it is inevitable that the knowledge of phonology is of prime importance for pronunciation instruction since it allows teachers to make a meaning

of the sound system and of the patterns of the language they instruct on and also to deal with the errors of their students related to pronunciation (p. 50). Accordingly, pronunciation instruction, as proposed by lecturers and pre-service teachers, is vital for all L2 learners of English regardless of their age and grade in education.

As a last remark, most of the pre-service teachers and lecturers believed that 'knowing about' and 'being able to speak English' are different entities due to their inherent nature. In the literature, these two entities refer to a well-known linguistic dichotomy known as competence vs. performance, in which the former part relates to what speakers know about and latter to what speakers actually do in the language given (Hymes, 1972, p. 271; Evans and Green, 2006, p. 111) (see Section 2.2.1.3). Additionally, the distinction between knowing about and being able to speak a language is directly related to another important distinction known as *declarative vs. procedural knowledge,* in which declarative knowledge mainly refers to the lexical forms stored in the memory of the speakers and procedural knowledge refers to the syntactic use of linguistic forms particularly by speakers with high proficiency (DeKeyser, 2009, pp. 120-121; Pasternak and Bailey, 2004, p. 157). According to Ellis (2015), both of these paradigm sets are both analogous and interchangeable since the former parts of the dichotomies (*i.e.* competence and declarative knowledge) refer to 'the representations of the facts', whereas the latter parts (*i.e.* performance and procedural knowledge) collectively adhere to 'the representations of the actions in particular situations' (p. 17).

5.3. Perceptions of pre-service teachers and lecturers regarding the problems encountered when speaking English

Almost three-quarter of lecturers and one-third of pre-service teachers declared that the students switched to L1 (i.e. Turkish) when trying to verbalise their thoughts/emotions in English. Both groups also noted that the students were also challenged in terms of maintaining intelligible pronunciation and fluency. These findings were consistent with those of a study conducted in Omani context by Hosni (2014), who, in a similar way to our study, evaluated the difficulties experienced by EFL students when speaking English and found that the most common problems were students' switching to L1 and failure to maintain fluency. In another study, Pathan et al. (2014) explored the difficulties faced by EFL students in English speaking skills in Libyan context and revealed that pronunciation, use of adjectives, and syntax were declared as the most

common problems. It is an undeniable fact that speakers naturally feel highly comfortable when speaking in the mother tongue (L1) as compared to speaking in a foreign language (L2). Along similar lines, Thornbury (2005) maintained that despite undergoing the same linguistic processes with L1 while speaking in L2 (e.g. conceptualizing, formulating, and finally articulating), speakers feel less comfortable and are relatively less fluent in L2 compared to L1, which at times can lead to frustration or embarrassment on the speakers' side since the speakers are burdened with the process of formulating the utterance initially in L1 and then interpreting it into L2 (p. 27). What is obvious in this remark is that the mastery of a speaker is conceivably far lower in L2 when compared to his/her mastery in L1, and thus speaking in L2 is axiomatically distinct from speaking in L1 (Harmer, 2007b; Davies, 2004). On the other hand, the failure of pre-service teachers in verbalising their thoughts could be explained by the theory known as the Model of Speech Production (Ellis, 2019, p. 269). According to this theory, there are three phases involved in a speech process, among which *conceptualization* refers to the content of the message conveyed or intended by the speaker, *formulation* is concerned with the linguistic design of the message by recalling the lexical and grammatical form from long-term memory, and *articulation* is the performance of speech conducted by the speaker. According to Ellis (2015), these three phases are actuated automatically and sequentially in L1 speakers while they can be difficult for L2 learners to perform in unison, particularly for those with limited proficiency. These remarks seem to suggest that the problem encountered by pre-service teachers is concerned with the articulation phase rather than the other two phases.

Another challenge that was closely related to the problem mentioned above was that most pre-service teachers and some lecturers, when speaking English, did not feel the same as they were when they used L1. Additionally, some of both lecturers and pre-service teachers also indicated that they had difficulty in producing 'natural language' when speaking English, which was reflected as using utterances such as *yeah*, *mmm*, and *uh uh* more frequently, speaking slower, searching for the proper words, gesticulating more, using more facial expressions, feeling less capable, using less humour, and being less capable in the situations requiring knowledge of specialist terms and jargons more frequently when speaking in English as compared to when speaking in Turkish (see Chapter IV, Figure 15). These discrepancies, according to Baker (2010), are highly expectable since L2 speech in bilingual speakers is typically incomplete, involves more hesitation, errors, and slips, and often conveys traces of L1 (p. 337). In turn, these discrepancies, according to Gass and Selinker (2008), are linked to a concept termed

‘social distance’, in which an L2 speaker “does not feel an affinity with the target language community” (p. 403). Building on the same concept, Gass and Selinker also claimed that such a lack of affinity could be more obvious if one of these two languages is dominant over the other in the learning environment of the speakers.

One-third of lecturers and half of pre-service teachers declared that they experienced vocabulary-related problems when speaking English not only with technical words/jargon but also with simple words. In a similar way, Sakale and Seffar (2012) investigated the difficulties experienced by EFL teachers and high school students in Moroccan context and found that vocabulary deficiency was the most common factor leading to inability to speak English among the participants. As mentioned in Section 2.2.2.2, vocabulary is a crucial element for speaking a language, in that speaking a language without using vocabulary is virtually unthinkable (Goh and Burns, 2012, p. 170). In similar vein, Thornbury (2005) maintained that formulating vocabulary items prior to a speech can be highly challenging for an L2 speaker particularly when he/she is planning to speak about a previously untried genre or a new topic with new interlocutors, and in such circumstances the speaker can remain ‘tongue-tied’ or ‘completely mute’ (p. 6). Thornbury also suggested that this problem can be associated with numerous factors including the differences between L1 and L2 knowledge of the speaker and the seldom access to the knowledge by the speaker (p. 19). To eliminate such problems, as suggested by Ellis (2015), speakers should make use of communication strategies such as avoidance, circumlocution, and paraphrasing to provide a similar explanation or equivalent word/phrase for the vocabulary item causing communication breakdown (p. 270).

The analyses of quantitative and qualitative data also revealed that pre-service teachers were not proud of their English speaking skills and felt less confident than lecturers when speaking English in class. Correspondingly, a previous study by Dincer and Yeşilyurt (2013) evaluated the self-perceived competence of ELT teachers in Turkish context and reported that the teachers felt incompetent in speaking English although they regarded speaking as the most important skill in English. Goh and Burns (2012) maintained that such problems are commonly encountered by learners of L2 speaking and asserted that performing speaking could be a serious challenge for learners although the learners may be proficient in other skills/subskills such as grammar. On the other hand, these differences between lecturers and pre-service teachers could be associated with the higher level of experience and practice among lecturers compared to those of pre-service teachers. On this notion, Harmer (2007b) asserted that learners acquire a wider variety of

life experiences as they become older and practice more, and as a result, they learn to cope with problems via these experiences (p. 15). According to Chamorro-Premuzic (2013), however, the differences between lecturers and pre-service teachers mentioned above could also be related to the *personality* of learners, which is categorized as a learner difference, as explicated in section 2.2.7.1. Personality is a psychological term which refers to "the essential and unchanging characteristics of an individual (what makes us who we are)" (ibid, p. 27). As such, personality is commonly used in combination with the term 'trait' (i.e. 'personality traits'), which basically refers to a 'characteristic of a person' (Saville-Troike, 2012, p. 95; Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015, p. 15). Accordingly, language learners are perceived to convey several key traits that determine their success in language learning processes, some of which can be contrastive to each other such as anxious vs. self-confident, shy vs, adventurous, introverted vs. extroverted, and inner-directed vs. other-directed (Saville-Troike, 2012, p. 95).

Another problem stated by both lecturers and pre-service teachers was related to the duration of teacher and student talks in English in the classroom. It was revealed that lecturers generally spoke English more during their talking time in class compared to pre-service teachers, clearly indicating that pre-service teachers switched to L1 during their talking time more frequently than lecturers did. This phenomenon, as mentioned above, could be attributed to the inadequacy of pre-service teachers' speaking skills as compared to those of lecturers. Additionally, it could also be ascribed to the notions termed *teacher talking time* (TTT) and *student talking time* (STT) mentioned by Harmer (2007b, p. 38). According to Harmer (2007b), TTT is an important factor affecting students' participation in in-class activities and in the acquisition of the input conveyed through TTT. In a related manner, Ellis and Shintani (2014) contended that an ideal L2 learning environment is based on an effective TTT which is not dependent solely on L2 but occasionally switches to L1 of the students, particularly when explaining relatively more difficult points, in order to create a non-threatening and anxiety-free learning environment for students. While doing so, however, students should avoid switching to L1 as much as possible so to avoid becoming dependent on L1 during both production and comprehension processes (p. 225). These data seem to suggest that while L2 teachers may switch to L1, though in a limited fashion, for example to explain some difficult points, switching to L1 may not be tolerated for students as it may hinder their development in speaking skills.

Both quantitative and qualitative analyses also indicated that pre-service teachers were afraid of making mistakes when speaking English in class, while lecturers were not.

In a similar way, Savaşçı (2014) evaluated the cause of reluctance among first-year ELT students in speaking English in oral communication classes and found that fear of being despised was a significant factor contributing to students' reluctance. This sense of fear could be a corollary of pre-service teachers' affective factors including motivation, anxiety, and affective filter (see Section 2.2.7.2). Of these factors, motivation, in terms of L2 learning, lends itself to the reason as to why a learner is learning language-related elements (Leaver et al., 2005, p. 103). Additionally, motivation "generates, directs, and sustains what [students] do to learn" (Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro, et al., 2010 p. 69) and also refers to "the desire to initiate L2 learning and the effort employed to sustain it" (Ortega, 2009, p. 168). Based on this claim, the pre-service teachers' fear of making mistakes might be related to the lack of motivation depending on the context.

On the other hand, the pre-service teachers' fear of making mistakes could also be related to anxiety, which is a major cause of apprehension, fear, and tension in second language learning that creates a threatening environment for the learners (Dörnyei, 2001; Ortega, 2009). As contended by Coleman and Klapper (2005), anxiety mostly influences the speaking skill among the four language skills, particularly speaking in L2, mainly because speakers rely on their spoken repertoire that can be insufficient at times, to actualize their speaking task in front of their peers or a large audience. As a result, speakers can remain speechless, forget the crucial words and phrases needed for conveying the essential message, and even their heart beats extremely faster (ibid). From these notions, it follows that anxiety is a negative trait that should be as low as possible for a learner to become successful in L2 instruction. However, despite its adverse effects, anxiety is not an all-negative trait; instead, a reasonable degree of anxiety is desirable, to the extent that it enables an optimal level of arousal (Ormrod, 2012; Gass and Selinker, 2008). Clearly then, an optimal level of anxiety can be a useful tool for L2 learners for accomplishing more challenging tasks, particularly those pertaining to speaking.

The final affective factor that could be associated with the pre-service teachers' fear of making mistakes is affective filter. As mentioned in 2.2.7.2, if the affective filter of a learner, particularly of an L2 learner, is excessively high, then the speaker is challenged to digest the linguistic input provided to him/her. Therefore, affective filter should be appropriately low for the input to be received by the learner (Gass and Selinker, 2008; Mitchell and Myles, 2004; Krashen, 2009). Additionally, as explained by Saville-Troike (2012), the components of affective filter (e.g. motivation, anxiety, self-confidence, and self- esteem) should be taken under control so as to prevent an elevation

in the level of affective filter. In light of these remarks, it appears that pre-service teachers' fear of making mistakes seems more related to affective filter than to motivation and anxiety, in the sense that affective filter is an overarching affective factor that encompasses the other two factors.

On the other hand, a closer look at the pre-service teachers' fear of making mistakes requires distinguishing the terms 'mistake' and 'error' from each other. According to Corder (1982), mistakes are nonrecurrent errors of performance while errors refer to the blunders of learners that recur systematically and indicate a chronic problem within the structure in question (p. 10). In a similar fashion, Edge (1989, as cited in Harmer, 2007a, p. 155) also proposed two distinct types of mistakes: 'slips' which can be/are corrected by learners themselves and 'errors' which cannot be corrected by learners and thus require additional explanation for correction. On the other hand, the mistakes/errors committed by learners of L2 speaking can be divided into three categories based on their inherent features: (i) *developmental mistakes/errors,* which are similar to those experienced by children during the acquisition of L2 and as an L1, (ii) *interference mistakes/errors,* which reflect the structure of learners' L1, and *unique mistakes/errors,* which are categorized as neither developmental nor interference mistakes/errors (Ellis and Shintani, 2014, p. 61). Based on the classifications mentioned above, it seems fair to suggest that pre-service teachers are afraid of committing errors rather than mistakes and these errors would mostly probably be interference or unique errors rather than developmental errors.

Finally, the pre-service teachers' fear of making mistakes/errors could also be associated with the approach used for correcting their mistakes/errors by teachers. Ellis and Shintani (2014) and Harmer (2007a) maintained that the correction of mistakes/errors is a challenging task that needs to be handled with care. In line with this caveat, Ellis and Shintani (2014) proposed a number of issues that should be taken into consideration when correcting oral mistakes/errors, such as avoiding a 'negative emotional response' in learners, allowing learners to correct their own mistakes, and avoiding over- or under-correction (p. 257). Likewise, Harmer (2007a) proposed that oral mistakes/errors can be corrected via two approaches: *online (on-the-spot) correction*, which is more suitable to oral activities and occurs during the conversation delivered by the learner, and *offline (after-the-event) correction*, which occurs after the completion of the conversation (pp. 158-159). Building on the same distinction, Ellis and Shintani (2014) proposed that online correction can be preferred if the primary aim is accuracy and offline correction can be

preferred if the primary aim is fluency (p. 251). However, regardless of the type of correction, Ur (1996, as cited in Ellis and Shintani, 2014, p. 252) argued that although learners inherently wish to be corrected by their teachers, they actually do not wish all their mistakes/errors corrected. Taken together, these data suggest that lecturers/teachers should be careful about when to and how to correct learners' oral mistakes/errors.

5.4. Perceptions of pre-service teachers and lecturers regarding their suggested solutions to speaking-related problems

Almost all the lecturers and pre-service teachers claimed that both the education system (i.e., pre-ELT education) should undergo a comprehensive revision that would involve the integration of all four skills (i.e., speaking, listening, reading, writing) and the two subskills (i.e., vocabulary and grammar) into all the teaching/learning processes, which, if achieved, would form a sound basis for the teaching/learning of these skills and subskills in real-life settings for establishing authentic and fluent communications. In a similar way to the present study, a study conducted in Chinese context by Gan (2012) evaluated the oral problems encountered by EFL learners in Hong Kong and also reported that the participants proposed that the curriculum should be revised to include all language skills in tandem. On this notion, Brown (2001) stated that an effective teaching approach requires meticulous concentration on multiple skills of the language and thus an excessive emphasis on the rules and forms of that language will inevitably impede the automatization targeted by the education system (p. 56). Similarly, Hinkel (2010) propounded that the integration of language skills is a vital quality that should be inherent in any programme focusing on the teaching of communicative skills (p. 114). In a similar way, Brown (2001) noted that the integration of all skills is high essential for the teaching communicative skills since the productive and receptive skills are 'two sides of the same coin' and thus cannot be split and that the skills integrated to each other in a given context do not hamper the progress of one another, rather they reinforce the learnability of one another since each skill has a unique richness (p. 234). As a rebuttal to these views, however, Hinkel (2010) cautioned that the integration of all skills in tandem might have several drawbacks as well, such as dispersing learners' attention on several skills rather than directing it towards a single skill, causing greater workload on the teacher and the learner, and the possibility of varying proficiencies of learners across the skills integrated (p. 117).

In similar vein, some of the lecturers and pre-service teachers that proposed the integration of all skills and subskills also suggested that speaking should be emphasised over other skills and subskills. A similar finding was also obtained by a similar study conducted in Pakistan by Khan and Ali (2010), in which the authors evaluated first- and second-year students at an EFL programme and reported that the participants proposed that the speaking skill should be emphasised over other skills/subskills to improve the quality of the EFL instruction. Meaningfully, this proposal could be related to the overarching importance of speaking as compared to other language skills, as mentioned by Ur (2009):

> Of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred to as 'speakers' of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing: and many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak (p.120).

Drawing upon the importance of speaking skills, Thornbury (2005) claimed that the speaking skill is often neglected in English teaching schemes and even when it is taught, it is mostly thought as a means for practising grammar rather than as a standalone entity. As a result, according to Thornbury, no matter how competent the learners become in grammar and vocabulary, they are inadequately prepared for the speaking interactions taking place outside the classroom (p. 28). Likewise, Richards (2008) explained the exclusive importance of speaking by noting that mastery in speaking is a crucial asset which learners often depend on to evaluate and declare their success in language learning and to appraise the efficacy of the English teaching programme they are receiving (p.19). In addition to these remarks, Goh and Burns (2012) contended that both the teaching and learning of speaking skills are a crucial part of any language education programme in that these skills do not only provide the communicative power to learners but also play a key role in the arrangement of syllabus content (p. 165).

Besides the education system, both lecturers and pre-service teachers suggested that the testing system (i.e. nationwide English proficiency tests such as YDS, YDT) should also be revised to cover all language skills and subskills rather than focusing exclusively on the assessment of reading, vocabulary, and grammar. This disequilibrium has also been documented by a large body of literature (e.g. Külekçi, 2016; Akın, 2016; Hatipoğlu, 2016; Kılıçkaya, 2016). Language testing, as mentioned in Section 2.2.8.5, is a crucial part of language teaching. This importance lies at the heart of the impact of a

language test on the teaching/learning processes pertaining to that test, an effect which is termed ‘washback’ (see Section 2.3.2). Washback, also known as *backwash*, is simply defined as the effect of testing—particularly language testing—on learning and teaching (Hughes, 2003; Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Fulcher and Davidson, 2007; Luoma, 2009). Put straightforwardly, washback is the influence of a test on the instructional activities and processes with regards to how learners prepare for that test (Brown, 2003). In a broader spectrum, however, a test may influence not only what and how teachers teach but also what and how learners learn. Additionally, it may also influence the rate of teaching and learning as well as the attitudes of learners and teachers towards the constituents of learning and teaching such as the content and teaching methods (Fulcher, 2010). On the other hand, washback can be both *positive* and *negative* depending on its outcome. In simple terms, positive washback occurs when the learning and teaching activities correspond well with the scopes of the test and negative washback occurs when these activities fail to match with the scopes of the test at a reasonably acceptable level (Bachman and Palmer, 1996; Hughes, 2003).

The second solution proposed by both lecturers and pre-service teachers posited that there was need for authentic contexts both in and outside class in which learners (i.e. pre-service teachers) could practise their knowledge and skills and in this way could maximise their competence in spoken English. These contexts, according to lecturers and pre-service teachers, could be both in Turkey (e.g. recruiting native teachers in Turkey) or abroad (e.g. travel-abroad opportunities). Considering that Turkey is classified as an EFL country where English is spoken as a foreign language rather than as a second or native language (see Section 2.2.6), it seems fair to assert that there are few or no regular authentic contexts across Turkey where L2 learners can perform continuous interaction with native speakers of English. This scarcity has also been documented in several previous studies. In a systematic review, Kırkgöz (2005b), maintained that although there have been radical changes in the foreign language education policy in Turkey over the last decade, there is still need for enhancing opportunities for L2 learners of English in Turkey to eliminate the discrepancies between what learners learn in classroom and the English spoken in the real world (p. 167). In a similar way, Tokoz-Göktepe (2014) evaluated the speaking problems encountered by ninth-grade high school Turkish EFL learners and reported that the students had little or no contact with authentic English contexts outside classroom. To solve such problems, according to Koru and Akesson (2011), Turkey can import native teachers of English from ENL countries and recruit

them in Turkish schools to create communication opportunities for Turkish learners of English. Nevertheless, as explicated in section 2.2.8.3, the effectiveness or supremacy of a native English teacher over a nonnative English teacher is a problematic issue since, according to Pasternak and Bailey (2004), there is no well-established definition for the term 'native speaker' itself and thus the native-nonnative dichotomy is inherently a problematic distinction. Pasternak and Bailey also noted that what is important for a teacher of English is not actually where he/she was born but rather how competent the teacher is in performing the procedural knowledge rather than the declarative knowledge (pp. 157-159). To better illustrate this phenomenon, the authors provided a diagram consisting of two-way continua with four quadrants that indicated the proficiency level of the teachers in L2 teaching (Figure 17):

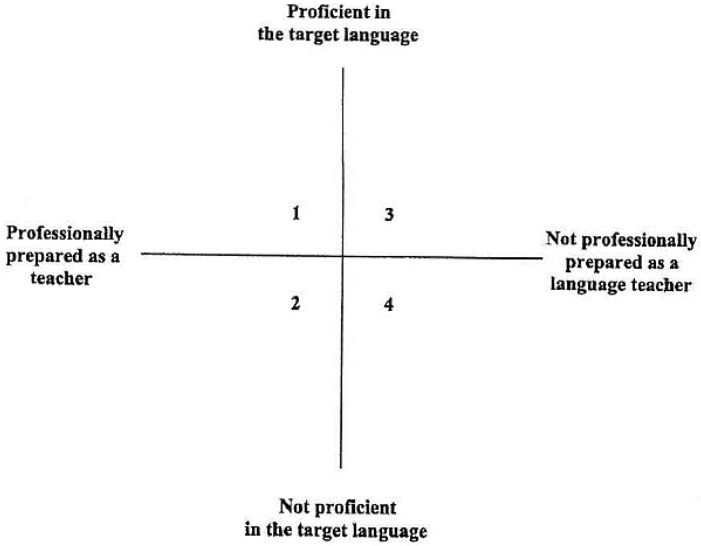


Figure 17. Continua of L2 proficiency and preparation for an L2 teacher (Source: Pasternak and Bailey, 2004, p. 161)

As seen in Figure 19, Pasternak and Bailey attributed the idealness of a teacher of English to the levels of teacher's proficiency and preparedness rather than to his/her nativeness, implicating that the most ideal teachers are those who are both proficient in L2 and are well prepared for teaching the subject matter, hence those who fall into quadrant 1 on this diagram.

In the same vein, the lecturers and pre-service teachers suggested that Turkish ELT students and teachers could be supported and encouraged to spend a certain amount of time in an ENL country, which would allow them to improve their oral competence in a native context. In a similar manner, Kang (2014) evaluated the effect of study-abroad experiences on EFL learners' competence in English speaking skills and reported that

those experiences resulted in significant improvement in learners' English speaking skills, WTC, and in-class participation. For this proposal as well, Koru and Akesson (2011) contended that sending English teachers in Turkey to an ENL country for training would be highly beneficial in terms of participants' improvement in oral competence and gaining international experience that would grant them a unique access to global platforms as well. In a similar way, Arnold & Fonseca-Mora (2015) advocated that a stay-abroad experience in an ENL country does not only improve learners' oral competence but also their vocabulary and knowledge of target culture (p. 228).

As a last solution, both pre-service teachers and lecturers proposed that ELT students should practise regularly by engaging themselves in speaking-oriented activities such as watching films, documentaries or listening to radio programmes in English. Adopting a similar stance, Nunan (2013) devised a number of out-of-class tasks through which learners could improve their speaking skills, some of which included engaging in peer review sessions, performing dialogue journals with other speakers, participating in conversations with foreigners, and engaging in projects and surveys (p. 76). Similarly, Harmer (2007a) proposed some other activities that could help L2 students to sustain their oral development outside class, including doing extensive research on the internet about a given subject, talking to oneself in English (i.e. performing monologues), replaying or designing conversations in one's head, getting hold of songs that appeal to the individual's interests, and watching English-language videos on YouTube or other online video portals (p. 105). On similar grounds, Thornbury (2005) advocated that performing out-of-class activities is highly essential for L2 learners to maintain automaticity and proposed a number of techniques that could be useful for achieving this: (i) *tape diaries*, in which learners can record their speech and share it with their peers of teacher for evaluation and feedback, (ii) *audio and video conferencing*, in which learners can communicate with real people via live video or audio conferencing on the internet, (iii) *human-computer interaction*, in which learners can chat with computerized programs known as 'chatterbots', and (iv) *portfolios and diaries*, in which learners can keep written records of their out-of-class experience and then reflect on these records to monitor their progress (pp. 108-111). However, Harmer (2007a) cautioned that while performing out-of-class activities, learners should pay a special attention to mastering oral practice to promote their automaticity rather than focusing on task completion. As a complement to this caveat, Brown (2000) stipulated that the practice performed in oral communication should be both meaningful and contextual so as to facilitate automaticity in speaking (p.

73). If such caveats are ignored, according to Schmid and Bot (2004), the lack of regular practice in L2 learners leads to a phenomenon termed ‘language attrition’, in which the language learning process of the learner is reversed and the learner gradually loses his/her prior knowledge and skills as a result of the lack of or irregular practice (p. 210).

5.5. Perceptions of first-year students and the lecturer regarding the contributions of the Oral Communication Skills course

As mentioned in sections 3.3.3 and 3.3.4, a focus group interview and a semi-structured interview were conducted with a group of six first-year students and a lecturer, respectively, who had recently completed a one-year Oral Communication Skills course, to attain their ‘fresher’ perceptions regarding the effectiveness of the course along with the problems encountered in class and their suggested solutions. In the interviews, both the students and the lecturer clearly indicated that the course had significant contributions to the students’ competence and improvement in English speaking skills such as fluency, pronunciation, and vocabulary. A similar outcome was previously reported by two studies including a study from Turkey (Arslan, 2013) and the other from Colombia (Ramirez, 2010), both of which concluded that the Oral Communication Skills course led to a significant improvement in students’ competence through in-class communicative activities. However, Sarwar et al. evaluated the effect of oral communication courses on pre-service teachers’ improvement in English speaking skills and revealed that the courses had no significant effect on the students’ improvement. Regarding the effect of oral communication courses, Nation and Newton (2009) contended that the language courses focusing on a specific skill (e.g. speaking) tend to have favourable effects on learners such as improving their skill-focused knowledge and consciousness and helping them develop targeted strategies (p. 8).

The lecturer interviewed in the second phase of the study also proposed that the course helped students think in English and also to maintain and adjust politeness when speaking English. In a confirmatory manner, a study conducted in Vietnamese context by Bui and Intaraprasert (2013) revealed that the exposure of ELT students to oral communication in English and the use of communication strategies resulted in the development of positive attitudes towards English speaking skills, which in turn facilitated the improvement of students in oral skills.

5.6. Perceptions of first-year students and the lecturer regarding speaking-related problems encountered in class

The problems mentioned by the students converged at three distinct points: *experiencing a difficult adaptation period, seating arrangement in class,* and *the gap between high- and low-achievers in class,* of which the first problem was also mentioned by the lecturer. About the adaptation period, almost all the six students and the lecturer noted that they (i.e. students) experienced remarkable difficulty in adapting to the class environment during the first weeks of the course since their exposure to spoken English before coming to this course was remarkably low, a problem which was also mentioned in Section 5.4. However, the students noted that this problem became gradually less effective as they became more competent over time through the contributions of the course. The same phenomenon was reported by Riaz et al. (2019), who investigated the perceptions of first-year university students, English language teachers, and administrators regarding the assessment of English speaking skills prior to university entrance in Pakistani context. The study found that most high school graduates lacked fluency in speaking since the competence in spoken English was often assessed based on nonstandard criteria. Additionally, Al-Tamimi and Attamimi (2014) also noted the first-year ELT students initially had difficulty in achieving spoken English but their competence, in line with findings from our study, gradually improved by the administration of Cooperative Learning (CL) in oral communication skills courses. Conceivably, the difficulties experienced by first-year ELT students could be a corollary of the education/testing system administered prior to ELT education in Turkey which placed an overwhelming emphasis on the teaching/learning of reading, grammar, and vocabulary and placed little or no emphasis on the remaining language skills including speaking, listening, and writing (see Section 4.3.1.3.2.1). Moreover, according to Harmer (2007b), the learners' inability to speak a foreign language could be related to some factors such as the presence of other students that dominate or intimidate these students, fear of making mistakes and the lack of prior experience in speaking freely or in front of classmates or a teacher. For the elimination of such problems, Harmer proposed that the teacher may employ a number of techniques that could encourage those students, such as engaging those students in pair-work and role-play activities, allowing the students to talk in a controlled manner at first and then to gradually perform fluent speech, and

encouraging them to record their speech outside classroom and send the recording to the teacher for feedback (pp. 182-183).

Another problem, as stated by the students, was that there were wide gaps between high and low achievers in the class, which at times could have negative impact on the class environment. According to Harmer (2007a), L2 classes, particularly those in state schools, typically have students with mixed abilities and thus the teacher may need to administer a placement test to divide the class into multiple divisions based on the students' achievement. In the absence of such an opportunity, however, the teacher may need to take a number of actions to deal with the mixed abilities of the students. First, the teacher can give students different contents, tasks, and assignments depending on their competence. Second, the teacher can offer extension or follow-up tasks to students that finish earlier than their classmates. Third, the teacher can identify the strengths of each student and then allow them to perform their talents by designing appropriate contexts (pp. 143-146).

The final problem, which was proposed by the students, posited that the seating arrangement in class was a hindrance for their improvement in English speaking skills. In specific terms, the students proposed that the seating plan should be U- or O-shaped instead of the classic seating arrangement.

5.7. Perceptions of first-year students and the lecturer regarding their suggested solutions to the problems related to speaking English

First, almost all the students and the lecturer collectively proposed that the weekly and total durations of the Oral Communication Skills course should be increased to allow more time for both TTT and STT, which was mentioned by pre-service teachers and lecturers in the first phase of the study (see Section 5.3). A similar finding was obtained by Khan and Ali (2010), who reported that the first- and second-year ELT students proposed that the STT should be increased and also the speaking skills should be overemphasised. Regarding this proposal, Dörnyei (2012) adopted a similar stance and proposed that "one or two hours a week—even for seven or eight years—will not produce advanced second language speakers" and argued that this 'drip-feed' approach oftentimes annoys adult L2 speakers as it makes them to think that they have made little progress although they have been studying for a long time (p. 252).

For the second solution, the students proposed that the students (i.e. first-year students) should extend their speaking practice to their out-of-class life and the lecturer suggested that the level of student' exposure to English should be raised in other courses. Of these, the suggestion proposed by the students was consistent with the proposal mentioned in section 5.4, implicating both first-year and final-year students (i.e. pre-service teachers) should perform out-of-class activities to maintain automaticity. In contrast, the lecturer's proposal required the lecturers of other courses, rather than the students, to take an action and thus was addressed administrative bodies and/or policymakers rather than students and/or the lecturer delivering the Oral Communication Skills course.

The third solution, as suggested by the students, was to adjust the seating plan in class according to the speaking activities to be performed in class. Harmer (2007a) expounded that there are three main types of seating plans, each of which may have distinct advantages and disadvantages. The first type is known as the *orderly-row seating*, which is the classic or ordinary seating plan administered in almost all classes, in which the teacher is seated at the far end of the class and is faced towards the students seated in rows, one behind another. This seating plan allows the teacher to perform whole-class activities in a better way compared to other seating plans in that it allows the teacher to have a clear view of each student and to maintain direct eye contact with each of them. The second type of seating plan includes *circle* (i.e. O-shaped) or *horseshoe* (U-shaped) plans, which are named based on the physical shape pertaining to the organization of the seats and are mostly used for small-group activities (<20 students). The horseshoe seating can be more advantageous over the circle seating since the teacher is seated in the open end of the arrangement in the horseshoe seating and hence situated in close proximity to the board, overhead projector, and/or computer, while the teacher in the circle seating plan is seated within the ring and thus has a less dominating position. However, both the circle and horseshoe seating plans can be advantageous over the orderly-row seating since they allow students to exchange feeling and information through oral communication, eye contact, and mimes and gestures and thus lead to a stronger sense of equality among students. The final type of seating is termed *separate tables*, in which students are seated in groups of 4-6 participants and the groups are physically separated from one another. Despite being less common compared to other seating plans, this seating plan is most useful for group-work activities, during which the teacher can walk around groups to check their progress (pp. 178-180).

As a final solution, the students proposed that a placement test could be administered to eliminate the gaps between high- and low-achievers in an Oral Communication Skills class. J. D. Brown (1996) defined placement test as a type of test administered “with the goal of grouping together students of similar ability levels” and maintained that placement tests, particularly those administered in language programs, may provide beneficial outcomes for teachers particularly by allowing them to focus on individual weaknesses and strengths of students (p. 8).

5.8. Summary

In this chapter, the findings elicited from the quantitative and qualitative data were discussed in light of literature. In the preceding chapter, these discussions are further analysed to present the overall conclusions and implications of the study.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the conclusions of the study based on the qualitative and quantitative findings obtained in the two phases of the study. Additionally, the implications of the findings for the research context related to English speaking skills are also elucidated in this chapter. Finally, recommendations for future research will be discussed at the end of the chapter.

6.2. Conclusions

The present study aimed to investigate the perceptions of Turkish ELT pre-service teachers and lecturers on the learning and teaching of English speaking skills. Based on a research design consisting of two phases, the study elicited the perceptions of both first-year and final-year students and lecturers studying/working at eight ELT departments across Turkey. These perceptions were derived from the quantitative data elicited via a questionnaire and the qualitative data obtained through two semi-structured interviews and a focus group interview. Each conclusion drawn from our data reflects a collective assumption derived from multiple interrelated findings.

As a foremost conclusion of the study, it was revealed that both ELT students and lecturers attributed remarkable importance to English speaking skills and considered that speaking English is highly important not only for themselves but also for Turkish nationals aiming to become international. However, despite this overwhelming perceived importance, more than half of lecturers and pre-service teachers declared that they did not speak English in their daily life settings, mainly because these settings did not involve any tasks or conversations that required speaking English. As a result, instead of focusing on speaking English, both lecturers and pre-service teachers indicated that they mostly mastered other language skills in English, i.e. listening, reading, and writing. As for the other half of the lecturers and pre-service teachers who performed speaking at both school and in daily life settings, they declared having common problems such as hesitation, failure to find the correct word/expression, and difficulty in expressing themselves as comfortably as they did in L1 when speaking English, with the pre-service teachers

feeling greater challenge than lecturers in all of these occasions. Both the pre-service teachers and lecturers attributed this discrepancy to the inherent difference between knowing about a language (i.e. declarative knowledge) and being able to speak that language (i.e. procedural knowledge). As a panacea for this discrepancy, both the pre-service teachers and lecturers recommended that improvement in spoken English requires authentic contexts both in and outside classroom where English is spoken as the primary medium of communication. These contexts could be established both in Turkey (e.g. by importing native teachers of English) or abroad (e.g. by supporting and encouraging lecturers/students to spend a certain amount of time in an ENL country). However, in the absence of such contexts, it was recommended that performing out-of-class practice, e.g. watching films, listening to radio programmes, and recording one's voice, could be performed to maintain fluency and automatization in spoken English.

As a second conclusion, it was also revealed that pronunciation instruction was also highly important for both pre-service teachers and lecturers and that they maintained that this instruction resulted in beneficial outcomes for the learners, could be delivered to lower levels as well, and could be more beneficial when delivered at a young age before the end of the critical age. Both the lecturers and pre-service teachers also indicated that they wished they had received more training on pronunciation and that they admired Turkish people who spoke English fluently, like a native speaker, rather than those who spoke English less fluently and poorly.

As a third conclusion, not only the pre-service teachers and the lecturers but also the first-year students indicated that during the first several weeks of the ELT instruction, the ELT students (i.e. freshmen) underwent a formidable period in which they strived to adapt to the spoken English they were exposed to in class, due to the fact that these freshmen had rarely or never been exposed to spoken English before coming the ELT department. This lack of exposure, according to all the participants, was a result of the education and the testing system the students had received before enrolling in the ELT department, both of which relied heavily on the reading skill and the two subskills (i.e. grammar and vocabulary) and paid little or no attention to the remaining language skills including speaking, listening, and reading. A remedy for this problem was recommended to be an overhaul of both the education and testing systems, which would involve the integration of all language skills and subskills, which would allow both of these systems to place equal weight on all these skills and subskills and would also allow the testing system to achieve positive washback rather than negative washback. Nonetheless, it was

revealed that after this challenging period in the first year, the students showed remarkable improvement both in the production and comprehension of spoken English as through the Oral Communication Skills course they received throughout the first-year and also via the courses delivered throughout the four-year period in the ELT program.

The final conclusion drawn from the data was that there were noticeable differences between the lecturers and pre-service teachers with regard to their attitudes, perceptions, and suggested solutions, which could be related to the plausible difference between the ages, experiences, and competence levels of the lecturers and the pre-service teachers. On the whole as expected, it was clearly understood that the lecturers felt more competent, more confident, more experienced, more proud, and less afraid of making mistakes/errors and spoke English more in school/class and had fewer/less frequent problems when speaking English compared to pre-service teachers.

6.3. Implications of the study

In line with the conclusions elucidated in Section 6.2, a number of implications were elicited for ELT students, ELT lecturers, and policymakers, which are delineated in the following sections.

6.3.1. Implications for ELT students

The implications elicited for ELT students as learners of spoken English are outlined in the following statements:

- ELT courses are mostly instructed in English language and thus the students need to be sufficiently competent to understand and produce spoken English in class, both of which could be relatively more challenging for the first-year students particularly in the several first weeks of the first semester.
- To achieve effective speaking both in and outside classroom, ELT students need to keep their knowledge and skills revived via continuous practice which can be maintained by keeping themselves exposed to native English by, for example, watching films, documentaries, and TV programmes in English and listening to radio programmes. While doing these activities, however, they need to pay attention to practising the spoken language verbally and mastering meaningful and contextual oral practice, even through monologues when they cannot find anybody else to interact with.

- ELT students need to be aware of the duration and quality of their student talking time (STT) when speaking English in class and should avoid switching to L1 to the possible extent.

6.3.2. Implications for ELT lecturers

The implications elicited for ELT lecturers as teachers of English are as follows:

- Although ELT lecturers rarely have problems when speaking English in and outside classroom, they may have vocabulary-related problems particularly in the situations requiring the knowledge of special terms and jargon. To overcome this problem, they too may need to perform continuous practice in out-of-class contexts such as home, with friends, and so on.
- ELT lecturers need to be aware of the fact that most of their first-year students (i.e. freshmen) will have difficulty in understanding and producing spoken English due to their lack of prior exposure to spoken English. Accordingly, they may help such students by facilitating their adaptation process.
- Some ELT students may refuse to speak English in class not only in L2 but also in L1, either as a result of their low level of competence or their affective filter which may inhibit their willingness to communicate. In such cases, ELT lecturers may need to pay special attention to such students and may also assign them different tasks to promote their participation into in-class activities.
- ELT students may also avoid speaking in class due to their fear of making mistakes. Once this sense fear is established by the lecturer, the lecturer may try to eliminate this conception by taking care particularly in handling those students' mistakes/errors and by encouraging them to increase their participation into in-class activities, which could be at a slow pace at first and then could be speeded up depending on the students' progress.
- In a similar way to STT, teacher talking time (TTT) is also an important factor affecting students' performance and improvement in spoken English since TTT provides the first-line input for the ELT students. Accordingly, the ELT teachers need to adjust both the duration and quality of their TTT so as to

allow sufficient time for students' STT and also to promote their participation. However, although lecturers may at times need to switch to L1 to provide a better explanation for some difficult points or to better make use of the time available, the lecturers are advised to restrict their use of L1 and also to prevent the students from switching to L1 to the possible extent.

- ELT lecturers, particularly those delivering courses related to spoken English, are advised to arrange the seating plan in class depending on the activity to be performed by the students. Accordingly, a U- or O-shaped seating plan could be preferred for pair-work activities while a seating plan of separate tables could be more beneficial for group-work activities.

6.3.3. Implications for policymakers

The implications elicited for policymakers are as follows:

- First and foremost, the ELT lecturers and students advocated that there should be a comprehensive reform in the education and testing systems administered at the grades prior to the ELT education, i.e. primary through high school. Within this reform, all the language skills and subskills in English need to be integrated in order to assess—and promote the teaching of—all these skills and subskills in tandem, so as to foster positive washback rather than negative washback in the tests used for assessing proficiency in English (e.g. YDS, YDT). Once achieved, this reform would not only promote the learning of all language skills, particularly speaking, but also would eliminate the adaptation problem facing the ELT students at the very beginning periods of the ELT instruction.
- The Oral Communication Skills course delivered within the scope of the ELT programme is considered to be inadequate in terms of its weekly duration (since it is delivered in two hours a week) and total duration (since it is delivered in the first year only). Accordingly, it is demanded that both weekly and total durations of this course should be extended so as to allow more time for both STT and TTT.
- Both ELT lecturers and students have difficulty in producing natural English, particularly in contexts that require the knowledge of special vocabulary and

jargon. To eliminate this, authentic contexts could be established either in Turkey (e.g. by recruiting native teachers in Turkey) or in other countries (e.g. by promoting overseas education/travel for lecturers and students). In doing so, the lecturers and students would not only become more competent in spoken English abut also would become more confident and more international as well.

- Pronunciation instruction (in English) is beneficial for learners' improvement in English speaking skills. Therefore, the scope of pronunciation instruction within the ELT Curriculum could be expanded, which, once achieved, would also promote both STT and TTT in class.
- After enrolling in the ELT programme, the students could be subjected to a placement test to group them according to their competence levels. In doing so, the effect of high- or low- achieving students on their classmates could be minimized.

6.4. Limitations of the study

The primary limitation was that the study only included the ELT departments in Turkey and was conducted with the pre-service teachers and lecturers studying/working at these departments at the time of the survey. As a second limitation, one ELT department was chosen from each geographical region in Turkey for phase I, which amounted to a total of 7 ELT departments, and one ELT department was sampled for phase II. As a third limitation, considering that the inclusion of Master's and Doctoral degrees would lead to an immense jumble of data, only the Bachelor-degree ELT departments were surveyed, as concerns the scope of the study. The fourth limitation was that the second phase of the study had a relatively small number of participants both for semi-structured interview-2 and focus group interview. As a final limitation, the study only included the state universities in Turkey, thus excluding the private universities (i.e. foundation universities) in Turkey.

6.5. Recommendations for future research

In accordance with the limitations explicated above, future studies are recommended to delve into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills in other

English-major departments in Turkey such as English Language and Literature, English Linguistics, and American Language and Literature. As a second suggestion, future studies may conduct research in private universities in Turkey or may compare the status quo of English speaking skills in state universities with that of private universities in a single study. As a third suggestion, future research may focus on the learning and teaching of English speaking skills in different contexts such as primary and high schools, or higher grades such as M.A. or PhD. As well, they may specifically focus on the emphasis placed on English speaking skills in students preparing for the university entrance exam (i.e. ÖSS). As a final suggestion, future studies may compare the status quo of English speaking skills in Turkey with that of another EFL country (e.g. Iran) or ESL country (e.g. India) to attain country-based differences.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Questionnaire for lecturers

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LECTURERS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. **What is your gender?**

   1 ☐ Male
   2 ☐ Female

2. **What is your age?**

   1 ☐ 20-30
   2 ☐ 31-40
   3 ☐ 41 or over

3. **How long have you been teaching English?**

   1 ☐ 0-5 years
   2 ☐ 6-10 years
   3 ☐ 11-15 years
   4 ☐ 16 years or more

4. **What is the last degree you achieved?**

   1 ☐ B.A.
   2 ☐ M.A.
   3 ☐ Ph. D.
   4 ☐ Other, please specify: _____

5. **What is your field of specialization?**

   1 ☐ English Language Teaching (ELT)
   2 ☐ English Linguistics
   3 ☐ English Language and Literature
   4 ☐ Other, please specify: _____

6. **What was the language of your basic education?**

   You may choose several options.

   1 ☐ Turkish
   2 ☐ English
   3 ☐ Arabic
   4 ☐ Other, please specify: _____

7. **How long have you studied English in total?**

   Study is understood here as any form of institutional education and self-study.

   1 ☐ I have not studied English at all
   2 ☐ Less than a year
   3 ☐ 1–2 years
   4 ☐ 3–5 years
   5 ☐ 6–10 years
   6 ☐ 11–15 years
   7 ☐ More than 15 years

8. **At what stages and places have you studied English so far?**

   Please consider even minor learning as studying.

   You may choose several options.

   1 ☐ Preschool
   2 ☐ Kindergarten / Nursery School
   3 ☐ Compulsory education (7–16 yrs.)
   4 ☐ High school
   5 ☐ University
   6 ☐ Domestic language courses
   7 ☐ Language courses abroad
   8 ☐ Self-study

9. **English speaking skills can be learnt both in English lessons and everyday contexts. Where have you learnt your English speaking skills?**

   Choose only one answer.

   1 ☐ Only in English lessons
   2 ☐ In English lessons and elsewhere, equally
   3 ☐ Mainly outside the classroom
   4 ☐ Only outside the classroom
   5 ☐ No opinion

10. **Have you lived abroad continuously for 1 year or longer?**

    1 ☐ No ► IF "No", MOVE ON TO Q. 12.
    2 ☐ Yes

11. **If "Yes", please indicate on the grid below the most three countries (excluding Turkey) where you have lived continuously for one year or longer and where you used English as the medium of communication, how long your stay was, and the reason for the stay.**

Country	Length of Stay (Months)	Reason for Stay (Study, work, etc.)
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Appendix A. Questionnaire for lecturers (continued)

COMPETENCE IN SPEAKING ENGLISH

12. How would you describe <u>your competence in speaking English</u>?

Please answer all items 1–5.

		Yes	No	No opinion
1	I feel that I speak English as well as a native speaker.			
2	I feel that I speak English better than Turkish people on average.			
3	I feel that I speak English well enough.			
4	I am proud of my English speaking skills.			
5	I am ashamed of my English speaking skills.			

13. In which kind of situations do you feel your English speaking skills are inadequate?

You may choose <u>several</u> options.

1 ☐ In situations which require listening comprehension (e.g. on the telephone)
2 ☐ When discussing with native speakers of English
3 ☐ When discussing with non-native speakers of English
4 ☐ In situations that require knowledge of specialist terminology or jargon
5 ☐ When travelling abroad
6 ☐ In all kinds of situations
7 ☐ Elsewhere, please specify: _____
8 ☐ I do not feel that my English skills are inadequate in any situation.

14. Compare yourself as a <u>speaker of English</u> and as <u>a speaker of your mother tongue</u>, and choose those statements that best describe you <u>as a speaker of English</u>.

You may choose <u>several</u> options.

When I speak English, I … .

1 ☐ need to search for the proper words
2 ☐ gesticulate more with my hands
3 ☐ use more facial expressions
4 ☐ use utterances such as yeah, mmm, uhuh more
5 ☐ speak slower
6 ☐ am quieter
7 ☐ am more talkative
8 ☐ use less humour
9 ☐ feel like an outsider
10 ☐ feel more stupid
11 ☐ feel smarter
12 ☐ feel less capable
13 ☐ am the same as I am when I use my mother tongue

15. How do you feel when you hear a Turkish person speaking English <u>poorly</u>?

Choose the <u>one</u> option that best describes your feelings.

Do you feel:

1 ☐ Pride in Turkish people
2 ☐ Pride in having better language skills yourself
3 ☐ Admiration for the speaker
4 ☐ Amusement
5 ☐ Sympathy
6 ☐ Irritation
7 ☐ Inferiority at having worse language skills yourself
8 ☐ Embarrassment on behalf of Turkish people
9 ☐ No feeling at all

Appendix A. Questionnaire for lecturers (continued)

16. How do you feel when you hear a Turkish person speaking English fluently but with a Turkish accent?

Choose the one option that best describes your feelings.

Do you feel:

1 ☐ Pride in Turkish people
2 ☐ Pride in having better language skills yourself
3 ☐ Admiration for the speaker
4 ☐ Amusement
5 ☐ Sympathy
6 ☐ Irritation
7 ☐ Inferiority at having worse language skills yourself
8 ☐ Embarrassment on behalf of Turkish people
9 ☐ No feeling at all

17. How do you feel when you hear a Turkish person speaking English fluently, like a native speaker of English?

Choose the one option that best describes your feelings.

Do you feel:

1 ☐ Pride in Turkish people
2 ☐ Pride in having better language skills yourself
3 ☐ Admiration for the speaker
4 ☐ Amusement
5 ☐ Sympathy
6 ☐ Irritation
7 ☐ Inferiority at having worse language skills yourself
8 ☐ Embarrassment on behalf of Turkish people
9 ☐ No feeling at all

18. How often do you have the feelings stated below?

Please answer all items 1–9.

		Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
1	I do not feel confident enough to speak English.				
2	I find it hard to speak English because I have difficulty with English idioms.				
3	I avoid speaking English when I fail to achieve fluency.				
4	I avoid speaking English when I fail to maintain an intelligible pronunciation.				
5	I find it hard to formulate the feelings and thoughts in my mind into a "speakable" format.				
6	I feel as if nobody would understand me when speaking English.				
7	I feel that learning the structure of English is more important than learning speaking English.				
8	I feel anxious when speaking English.				
9	I prefer to remain silent to taking a risk by speaking English.				

Appendix A. Questionnaire for lecturers (continued)

USES OF ENGLISH

19. How important is speaking in English to you personally?

1 ☐ Very important
2 ☐ Moderately important
3 ☐ Not very important
4 ☐ Not important at all
5 ☐ No opinion

20. In what circumstances do you speak English?

You may choose several options.

1 ☐ At work
2 ☐ At school or in my studies
3 ☐ At home
4 ☐ With hobbies
5 ☐ With friends
6 ☐ While travelling
7 ☐ Other, please specify: _____
8 ☐ I never speak English.

21. In your free time, how often do you speak English … ?

Please answer all items 1–7.

		Almost daily	About once a week	About once a month	Less frequently	Never
1	with your Turkish-speaking friends					
2	with your family members					
3	with your non-Turkish-speaking friends					
4	with yourself (monologue)					
5	with tourists in Turkey					
6	when expressing negative feelings (such as swearing)					
7	when expressing positive feelings (such as love)					

22. In your free time, how often do you do the followings in English?

Please answer all items 1–4.

		Almost daily	About once a week	About once a month	Less frequently	Never
1	Listen to music or podcasts					
2	Listen to speech programmes on the radio					
3	Watch films or television programmes with/without subtitles					
4	Watch documentaries					

Appendix A. Questionnaire for lecturers (continued)

23. Followings are statements about the importance of speaking English in Turkey.

Respond to each statement, giving your initial reaction.

Please answer all items 1–7.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No feeling
1	Young people must be able to speak English.					
2	People of working age must be able to speak English.					
3	Elderly people must be able to speak English.					
4	Turkish people travelling abroad must be able to speak English.					
5	Turkish people can be international without being able to speak English.					
6	English speaking skills are overemphasized in Turkey.					
7	English speaking skills are underemphasized in Turkey.					

USING ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILLS IN LECTURES

24. In which of your courses do you use English as the primary medium of instruction?

Please name three courses.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

25. How much English do you speak in your lectures, out of the total speaking time?

Estimate the average percentage.

1 ☐ 0-25%
2 ☐ 26-50%
3 ☐ 51-75%
4 ☐ 76-100%

Appendix A. Questionnaire for lecturers (continued)

26. What problems do you encounter in your English lessons <u>when speaking English</u>?

Respond to each statement, giving your initial reaction.

Please answer all items 1–6.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No feeling
1	I am afraid of making mistakes when speaking English in my lectures.					
2	I am afraid of being made fun of by my students when speaking English in my lectures.					
3	Speaking English in class does not sound natural to me.					
4	I do not feel confident enough to speak English in my lectures.					
5	The courses I teach are not focused on improving students' speaking skills.					
6	The courses I teach fail to motivate me to focus on English speaking skills.					

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

27. Followings are statements about the <u>English pronunciation</u>.

Respond to each statement, giving your initial reaction.

Please answer all items 1–8.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No feeling
1	Only native speakers should teach pronunciation.					
2	You cannot teach pronunciation to lower levels.					
3	Pronunciation instruction does not usually result in permanent changes.					
4	Native-like pronunciation can only be achieved in a native country.					
5	Native-like pronunciation is an obligation for achieving fluency.					
6	There is an age-related limitation on the acquisition of native-like pronunciation.					
7	I wish I had more training in pronunciation instruction.					
8	Pronunciation instruction is boring.					

Appendix B. Questionnaire for pre-service teachers

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. **What is your gender?**

   1 ☐ Male
   2 ☐ Female

2. **What is your age?**

   1 ☐ 20-30
   2 ☐ 31-40
   3 ☐ 41 or over

3. **What was the language of your basic education?**
   You may choose several options.

   1 ☐ Turkish
   2 ☐ English
   3 ☐ Arabic
   4 ☐ Other, please specify: _____

4. **How long have you studied English in total?**
   Study is understood here as any form of institutional education and self-study.

   1 ☐ I have not studied English at all
   2 ☐ Less than a year
   3 ☐ 1–2 years
   4 ☐ 3–5 years
   5 ☐ 6–10 years
   6 ☐ 11–15 years
   7 ☐ More than 15 years

5. **At what stages and places have you studied English so far?**
   Please consider even minor learning as studying.
   You may choose several options.

   1 ☐ Preschool
   2 ☐ Kindergarten / Nursery School
   3 ☐ Compulsory education (7–16 yrs.)
   4 ☐ High school
   5 ☐ University
   6 ☐ Domestic language courses
   7 ☐ Language courses abroad
   8 ☐ Self-study

6. **English speaking skills can be learnt both in English lessons and everyday contexts. Where have you learnt your English speaking skills?**
   Choose only one answer.

   1 ☐ Only in English lessons
   2 ☐ In English lessons and elsewhere, equally
   3 ☐ Mainly outside the classroom
   4 ☐ Only outside the classroom
   5 ☐ No opinion

7. **Have you lived abroad continuously for 1 year or longer?**

   1 ☐ No ► IF "No", MOVE ON TO Q. 9.
   2 ☐ Yes

8. **If "Yes", please indicate on the grid below the most three countries (excluding Turkey) where you have lived continuously for one year or longer and where you used English as the medium of communication, how long your stay was, and the reason for the stay.**

Country	Length of Stay (Months)	Reason for Stay (Study, work, etc.)
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Appendix B. Questionnaire for pre-service teachers (continued)

COMPETENCE IN SPEAKING ENGLISH

9. How would you describe <u>your competence in speaking English</u>?

Please answer all items 1–5.

		Yes	No	No opinion
1	I feel that I speak English as well as a native speaker.			
2	I feel that I speak English better than Turkish people on average.			
3	I feel that I speak English well enough.			
4	I am proud of my English speaking skills.			
5	I am ashamed of my English speaking skills.			

10. In which kind of situations do you feel your English speaking skills are inadequate?

You may choose <u>several</u> options.

1 ☐ In situations which require listening comprehension (e.g. on the telephone)
2 ☐ When discussing with native speakers of English
3 ☐ When discussing with non-native speakers of English
4 ☐ In situations that require knowledge of specialist terminology or jargon
5 ☐ When travelling abroad
6 ☐ In all kinds of situations
7 ☐ Elsewhere, please specify: _____
8 ☐ I do not feel that my English skills are inadequate in any situation.

11. Compare yourself as a <u>speaker of English</u> and as <u>a speaker of your mother tongue</u>, and choose those statements that best describe you <u>as a speaker of English</u>.

You may choose <u>several</u> options.

When I speak English, I … .

1 ☐ need to search for the proper words
2 ☐ gesticulate more with my hands
3 ☐ use more facial expressions
4 ☐ use utterances such as yeah, mmm, uhuh more
5 ☐ speak slower
6 ☐ am quieter
7 ☐ am more talkative
8 ☐ use less humour
9 ☐ feel like an outsider
10 ☐ feel more stupid
11 ☐ feel smarter
12 ☐ feel less capable
13 ☐ am the same as I am when I use my mother tongue

12. How do you feel when you hear a Turkish person speaking English <u>poorly</u>?

Choose the <u>one</u> option that best describes your feelings.

Do you feel:

1 ☐ Pride in Turkish people
2 ☐ Pride in having better language skills yourself
3 ☐ Admiration for the speaker
4 ☐ Amusement
5 ☐ Sympathy
6 ☐ Irritation
7 ☐ Inferiority at having worse language skills yourself
8 ☐ Embarrassment on behalf of Turkish people
9 ☐ No feeling at all

Appendix B. Questionnaire for pre-service teachers (continued)

13. How do you feel when you hear a Turkish person speaking English fluently but with a Turkish accent?

Choose the one option that best describes your feelings.

Do you feel:

1 ☐ Pride in Turkish people
2 ☐ Pride in having better language skills yourself
3 ☐ Admiration for the speaker
4 ☐ Amusement
5 ☐ Sympathy
6 ☐ Irritation
7 ☐ Inferiority at having worse language skills yourself
8 ☐ Embarrassment on behalf of Turkish people
9 ☐ No feeling at all

14. How do you feel when you hear a Turkish person speaking English fluently, like a native speaker of English?

Choose the one option that best describes your feelings.

Do you feel:

1 ☐ Pride in Turkish people
2 ☐ Pride in having better language skills yourself
3 ☐ Admiration for the speaker
4 ☐ Amusement
5 ☐ Sympathy
6 ☐ Irritation
7 ☐ Inferiority at having worse language skills yourself
8 ☐ Embarrassment on behalf of Turkish people
9 ☐ No feeling at all

15. How often do you have the feelings stated below?

Please answer all items 1–9.

		Often	Occasionally	Rarely	Never
1	I do not feel confident enough to speak English.				
2	I find it hard to speak English because I have difficulty with English idioms.				
3	I avoid speaking English when I fail to achieve fluency.				
4	I avoid speaking English when I fail to maintain an intelligible pronunciation.				
5	I find it hard to formulate the feelings and thoughts in my mind into a "speakable" format.				
6	I feel as if nobody would understand me when speaking English.				
7	I feel that learning the structure of English is more important than learning speaking English.				
8	I feel anxious when speaking English.				
9	I prefer to remain silent to taking a risk by speaking English.				

Appendix B. Questionnaire for pre-service teachers (continued)

USES OF ENGLISH

16. How important is speaking in English to you personally?

1 ☐ Very important
2 ☐ Moderately important
3 ☐ Not very important
4 ☐ Not important at all
5 ☐ No opinion

17. In what circumstances do you speak English?

You may choose several options.

1 ☐ At work
2 ☐ At school or in my studies
3 ☐ At home
4 ☐ With hobbies
5 ☐ With friends
6 ☐ While travelling
7 ☐ Other, please specify: _____
8 ☐ I never speak English.

18. In your free time, how often do you speak English … ?

Please answer all items 1–7.

		Almost daily	About once a week	About once a month	Less frequently	Never
1	with your Turkish-speaking friends					
2	with your family members					
3	with your non-Turkish-speaking friends					
4	with yourself (monologue)					
5	with tourists in Turkey					
6	when expressing negative feelings (such as swearing)					
7	when expressing positive feelings (such as love)					

19. In your free time, how often do you do the followings in English?

Please answer all items 1–4.

		Almost daily	About once a week	About once a month	Less frequently	Never
1	Listen to music or podcasts					
2	Listen to speech programmes on the radio					
3	Watch films or television programmes with/without subtitles					
4	Watch documentaries					

Appendix B. Questionnaire for pre-service teachers (continued)

20. Followings are statements about the importance of speaking English in Turkey.

Respond to each statement, giving your initial reaction.

Please answer all items 1–7.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No feeling
1	Young people must be able to speak English.					
2	People of working age must be able to speak English.					
3	Elderly people must be able to speak English.					
4	Turkish people travelling abroad must be able to speak English.					
5	Turkish people can be international without being able to speak English.					
6	English speaking skills are overemphasized in Turkey.					
7	English speaking skills are underemphasized in Turkey.					

USING ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILLS IN CLASS

21. In which of your courses English is used as the primary medium of instruction?

Please name three courses.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

22. How much English is spoken in your lectures, out of the total speaking time?

Estimate the average percentage.

1 ☐ 0-25%
2 ☐ 26-50%
3 ☐ 51-75%
4 ☐ 76-100%

Appendix B. Questionnaire for pre-service teachers (continued)

23. What problems do you encounter in your English lessons <u>when speaking English</u>?

Respond to each statement, giving your initial reaction.

Please answer all items 1–6.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No feeling
1	I am afraid of making mistakes when speaking English in class.					
2	I am afraid of being made fun of by my classmates when speaking English in class.					
3	Speaking English in class does not sound natural to me.					
4	I do not feel confident enough to speak English in class.					
5	The courses I take are not focused on improving students' English speaking skills.					
6	The courses I take do not focus on English speaking skills.					

ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

24. Followings are statements about the <u>English pronunciation</u>.

Respond to each statement, giving your initial reaction.

Please answer all items 1–8.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No feeling
1	Only native speakers should teach pronunciation.					
2	You cannot teach pronunciation to lower levels.					
3	Pronunciation instruction does not usually result in permanent changes.					
4	Native-like pronunciation can only be achieved in a native country.					
5	Native-like pronunciation is an obligation for achieving fluency.					
6	There is an age-related limitation on the acquisition of native-like pronunciation.					
7	I wish I had more training in pronunciation instruction.					
8	Pronunciation instruction is boring.					

Appendix C. Semi-structured interview-1 form for lecturers (Turkish version)

ÖĞRETİM ÜYE/ELEMANLARI İÇİN YARI-YAPILANDIRILMIŞ GÖRÜŞME-1 FORMU

1. İngilizce öğretiminin kapsamı sizce ne olmalıdır? ‘İngilizce bilme’ ile ‘İngilizce konuşabilme’ kavramları hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

2. Bölümünüzde hangi derslere giriyorsunuz? Derslerinizde İngilizce konuşurken herhangi bir sorunla karşılaşıyor musunuz? En sık karşılaştığınız sorunlar nelerdir? Sizce bu sorunlar nasıl giderilebilir? Bu sorunlarla karşılaşmanızın sebepleri nelerdir?

3. İngilizce konuşabilmek sizin için ne kadar önemlidir? Günlük hayatınızda İngilizce konuşurken herhangi bir sorunla karşılaşıyor musunuz? En sık karşılaştığınız sorunlar nelerdir? Sizce bu sorunlar nasıl giderilebilir? Bu sorunlarla karşılaşmanızın sebepleri nelerdir?

4. Sizce, İngilizce konuşmanın öğrencileriniz (yani gelecekteki öğretmenler) için önemi nedir?

5. İngilizce konuşma becerilerinizi geliştirmek ve yukarıda bahsettiğiniz sorunları aşmak için ne tür kişisel aktiviteler yaparsınız?

Appendix D. Semi-structured interview-1 form for lecturers (English version)

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW-1 FORM FOR LECTURERS

1. What do you think the scope of teaching English should be? What do you think about the concepts ‘knowing about English’ and ‘being able to speak English’?

2. What courses do you lecturer in your department? Do you encounter any problems when speaking English in class? How do you think these problems can be eliminated? What are the causes of these problems?

3. How important do you think being able to speak English is for you? Do you encounter any problems when speaking English in your daily life? If yes, what are the most common ones? How do you think these problems can be eliminated? What are the causes of these problems?

4. How important do you think being able to speak English is for your students (i.e. prospective teachers)?

5. What personal activities do you perform to improve your English speaking skills and to overcome the difficulties you have mentioned?

Appendix E. Semi-structured interview-1 form for pre-service teachers (Turkish version)

ÖĞRETMEN ADAYLARI İÇİN YARI-YAPILANDIRILMIŞ GÖRÜŞME-1 FORMU

1. İngilizce öğretiminin kapsamı sizce ne olmalıdır? 'İngilizce bilme' ile 'İngilizce konuşabilme' kavramları hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?

2. Derslerinizde İngilizce konuşurken herhangi bir sorunla karşılaşıyor musunuz? En sık karşılaştığınız sorunlar nelerdir? Sizce bu sorunlar nasıl giderilebilir? Bu sorunlarla karşılaşmanızın sebepleri nelerdir?

3. İngilizce konuşabilmek sizin için ne kadar önemlidir? Günlük hayatınızda İngilizce konuşurken herhangi bir sorunla karşılaşıyor musunuz? En sık karşılaştığınız sorunlar nelerdir? Sizce bu sorunlar nasıl giderilebilir? Bu sorunlarla karşılaşmanızın sebepleri nelerdir?

4. İngilizce konuşma becerilerinizi geliştirmek ve yukarıda bahsettiğiniz sorunları aşmak için ne tür kişisel aktiviteler yaparsınız?

Appendix F. Semi-structured interview-1 form for pre-service teachers (English version)

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW-1 FORM FOR PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

1. What do you think the scope of teaching English should be? What do you think about the concepts ‘knowing about English’ and ‘being able to speak English’?
2. Do you encounter any problems when speaking English in class? How do you think these problems can be eliminated? What are the causes of these problems?
3. How important do you think being able to speak English is for you? Do you encounter any problems when speaking English in your daily life? If yes, what are the most common ones? How do you think these problems can be eliminated? What are the causes of these problems?
4. What personal activities do you perform to improve your English speaking skills and to overcome the difficulties you have mentioned?

Appendix G. Focus group interview form for first-year students (Turkish version)

1. SINIF ÖĞRENCİLERİ İÇİN ODAK GRUP GÖRÜŞME FORMU

1. Son bir yıldır aldığınız Sözlü Konuşma Becerileri dersinin İngilizce konuşma becerilerinize katkı sağladığını düşünüyor musunuz? Cevabınız evet ise, hangi yönden katkı sağladığını düşünüyorsunuz ve bu dersi almadan önceki seviyeniz ile bu dersi aldıktan sonraki seviyeniz arasında akıcılık, doğruluk, telaffuz, kelime bilgisi ve dil bilgisi açısından ne tür farklar olduğunu görüyorsunuz?

2. Derste İngilizce konuşurken veya sınıf arkadaşlarınızın/öğretim elemanının İngilizce konuşmasını dinlerken herhangi bir sorunla karşılaşıyor muydunuz? Cevabınız evet ise, ne tür sorunlarla karşılaşıyordunuz? Bu sorunlarla karşılaşma sıklığınız zaman ilerledikçe azaldı mı?

3. Bu sorunlar için çözüm önerileriniz neler olabilir?

Appendix H. Focus group interview form for first-year students (English version)

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW FORM FOR 1st YEAR STUDENTS

1. Do you think that the Oral Communication Skills course you have been receiving over the last year has contributed to your English speaking skills? If yes, in what ways has it done and what differences can you notice between your pre- and post-course competence with regard to fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar?

2. Did you encounter any problems when speaking English or listening to a classmate or the teacher speaking English in class? If yes, what problems were they? Did the frequency of these problems decline over time?

3. What solutions would you suggest for these problems?

Appendix I. Semi-structured interview-2 form for the lecturer (Turkish version)

ÖĞRETİM ÜYE/ELEMANI İÇİN YARI-YAPILANDIRILMIŞ GÖRÜŞME-2 FORMU

1. Son bir yıldır yürüttüğünüz Sözlü Konuşma Becerileri dersinin öğrencilerinizin İngilizce konuşma becerilerinize katkı sağladığını düşünüyor musunuz? Cevabınız evet ise, hangi yönden katkı sağladığını düşünüyorsunuz ve öğrencilerinizin bu dersi almadan önceki seviyeleri ile bu dersi almalarından sonraki seviyeleri arasında akıcılık, doğruluk, telaffuz, kelime bilgisi ve dil bilgisi açısından ne tür farklar olduğunu görüyorsunuz?

2. Derste İngilizce konuşurken veya öğrencilerinizin İngilizce konuşmasını dinlerken herhangi bir sorunla karşılaşıyor muydunuz? Cevabınız evet ise, ne tür sorunlarla karşılaşıyordunuz? Bu sorunlarla karşılaşma sıklığınız zaman ilerledikçe azaldı mı?

3. Bu sorunlar için çözüm önerileriniz neler olabilir?

Appendix J. Semi-structured interview-2 form for the lecturer (English version)

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW-2 FORM FOR THE LECTURER

1. Do you think that the Oral Communication Skills course you have been delivering over the last year has contributed to your students' English speaking skills? If yes, in what ways has it done and what differences can you notice between your students' pre- and post-course competence with regard to fluency, accuracy, pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar?

2. Did you encounter any problems when speaking English or listening to students' speaking English in class? If yes, what problems were they? Did the frequency of these problems decline over time?

3. What solutions would you suggest for these problems?

Appendix K. Informed consent form for semi-structured interview-1 participants

INFORMATION SHEET FOR SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW-1 PARTICIPANTS

Dear Ms./ Mr. _____,

The aim of the interview you are about to participate in is to discuss your perceptions into the teaching and learning of English speaking skills. The results of this research are intended to contribute to the elimination of the problems with the learning and teaching of these skills.

During the interview you will be asked 5 questions and the interview will take approximately 15-20 minutes. The interview will be recorded and the tape will be heard by no one other than myself.

After the interview, the tape will be transcribed by me. This transcription will only be seen by my supervisor, Ms. Nese CABAROGLU, who is a lecturer at the Department of English Language Teaching at Çukurova University.

At later stages of the research, some direct quotations from the interview may be made in my PhD dissertation. However, no information giving 'clues' about your identity will be disclosed under any circumstances. You will be given a code letter/number and be referred to by that throughout the research (e.g. ST1 or LCT1). Your anonymity will always be preserved.

After this Information Sheet you will be asked to sign a consent form.

If you have any questions about the interview, the interview procedure and how the data will be used in the future, please do not hesitate to ask now.

Emrullah DAĞTAN

CONSENT FORM

I participate in this interview entirely voluntarily. I have read the Information Sheet and I give my consent to the researcher, Emrullah DAĞTAN, to make direct quotations from the transcriptions in her dissertation and in any subsequent publications, provided that I remain anonymous at all times.

Date :_____

Name :_____

Signature :_____

Appendix L. Informed consent form for focus group interview participants

INFORMATION SHEET FOR FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW PARTICIPANTS

Dear Ms./ Mr. …….

The aim of the interview you are about to participate in is to discuss your beliefs about the Oral Communication Skills course you attended throughout the last academic year. The results of this research are intended to contribute to the development of ELT students' speaking skills in the future.

During the interview you will be asked 3 questions and the interview will take approximately 30-60 minutes. The interview will be recorded and the tape will be heard by no one other than myself.

After the interview, the tape will be transcribed by me. This transcription will only be seen by my co-supervisor, Ms. Neşe CABAROĞLU, who is a lecturer at Çukurova University Education Faculty Foreign Languages Department.

At later stages of the research, some direct quotations form the interview may be made in my PhD dissertation. However, no information giving 'clues' about your identity will be disclosed under any circumstances. You will be given a code letter/number and be referred to by that throughout the research (e.g. ST1). Your anonymity will always be preserved.

After this Information Sheet you will be asked to sign a consent form.

If you have any questions about the interview, interview procedure and how the data will be used in the future, please do not hesitate to ask now.

Emrullah DAĞTAN

CONSENT FORM

I hereby consent to being interviewed under the circumstances mentioned above.

Date :……..

Signature : …….

Appendix M. Informed consent form for semi-structured interview-2 participant

INFORMATION SHEET FOR SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW-2 PARTICIPANT

Dear Ms./ Mr. …….

The aim of the interview you are about to participate in is to discuss your beliefs about the Oral Communication Skills course you have been delivering throughout the last academic year. The results of this research are intended to contribute to the development of ELT students' speaking skills in the future.

During the interview you will be asked 3 questions and the interview will take approximately 10-15 minutes. The interview will be recorded and the tape will be heard by no one other than myself.

After the interview, the tape will be transcribed by me. This transcription will only be seen by my co-supervisor, Ms. Neşe CABAROĞLU, who is a lecturer at Çukurova University Education Faculty Foreign Languages Department.

At later stages of the research, some direct quotations form the interview may be made in my PhD dissertation. However, no information giving 'clues' about your identity will be disclosed under any circumstances. You will be given a code letter/number and be referred to by that throughout the research (e.g. L1). Your anonymity will always be preserved.

After this Information Sheet you will be asked to sign a consent form.

If you have any questions about the interview, interview procedure and how the data will be used in the future, please do not hesitate to ask now.

Emrullah DAĞTAN

CONSENT FORM

I hereby consent to being interviewed under the circumstances mentioned above.

Date :……..

Signature : …….

Appendix N. Permission obtained from Leppänen, S. for the usage of the questionnaire (Leppänen et al., 2010)

Leppänen, Sirpa <sirpa.h.leppanen@jyu.fi> Fri, 18 Dec 2015, 09:22

to me

Dear Emrullah,

My apologies for the delay in getting back to you. The ending of the term is always a very busy one.

I did indeed consult my colleagues, and got a few answers from them. Most of them agreed that you can get our permission to use our survey instrument, but one of my colleagues pointed out that when you use and refer to our survey in your presentations and publications, you need to indicate clearly that the copyright for the survey belongs both to our research team and Statistics Finland. If you commit to doing this, you have our permission.

Best of luck with your work,

Sirpa Leppänen
Professor of English
University of Jyväskylä
Finland

Appendix O. Permission obtained from TESL Canada Journal for the usage of pronunciation-related items devised in the questionnaire by Foote, J. A., Holtby, A. K., & Derwing, T. M. (2011)

TESL Canada Journal <teslcanadajournal@tesl.ca> Thu, 12 Sep 2019, 17:31

to me

Dear Emrullah,

We do not mind if you use parts of the survey, but please be sure to properly reference the article whenever you use it.

Best,

Michael

TESL Canada Journal

EDITORS

Dr. Farahnaz Faez
Western University

Dr. Antonella Valeo
York University

EDITORIAL ASSISTANT

Michael Karas
Western University

Appendix P. Permission obtained from Atatürk University

T.C.
ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Kâzım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi Dekanlığı

Sayı : 29202147-900-E.1600086026 07.04.2016
Konu : Uygulama İzni

REKTÖRLÜK MAKAMINA
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : 05.04.2016 tarihli ve 88179374-302.08.01-E.1600083943 sayılı belge.

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Doktora Programı öğrencisi Emrullah DAĞTAN'ın "Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmeni Adaylarının ve Bu Bölümlerde Çalışan Öğretim Elemanlarının Konuşma Becerisinin Öğrenimi ve Öğretimi İle İlgili Görüşleri Üzerine İnceleme" başlıklı anket çalışmasını, Fakültemiz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında bizzat kendisi yapması koşuluyla Dekanlığımızca uygun görülmektedir.

Bilgilerinizi arz ederim.

Prof.Dr. Halil Ahmet KIRKKILIÇ
Dekan V.

Atatürk Üniversitesi Kazım Karabekir Eğitim Fakültesi 25240 Erzurum
Tel: +90 442 2314001
Elektronik Ağ: http://www.atauni.edu.tr/fkazim-karabekir-egitim-fakultesi
Kep Adresi: atauni@hs01.kep.tr
Bilgi: Lütfi Yaşar TUTUK
Faks: +90 442 2314288
E-Posta: kkegfak@atauni.edu.tr

Bu belge, 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5. maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.
www.ataumi.edu.tr adresinden doğrulama yapabilirsiniz. Doğrulama Kodu=DE670C4

Appendix Q. Permission obtained from Boğaziçi University

T.C. BOĞAZİÇİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü

Sayı:48816937-302.15-254

10 Kasım 2016

EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ DEKANLIĞINA,

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Doktora Programı öğrencisi Emrullah Dağtan'ın tez çalışması ile ilgili anket ve görüşme yapabilmesine bölüm kurulu tarafından izin verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla arz ederim.

Doç. Dr. Gülcan Erçetin
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü
Başkanı

EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ
GÜN 11.11.2016
SAYI : 1453

34342 Bebek - İstanbul Telefon 0212 359 64 79 Faks 0212 257 50 36 http://fed.boun.edu.tr

Appendix R. Permission obtained from Çukurova University

Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Kurulu
Toplantı Tutanağı

Toplantı Tarihi: 13 Haziran 2016, saat 12.00
Toplantı Yeri: İktisat Bölümü Toplantı Salonu
Toplantıya katılamayan üye: Prof. Dr. Mustafa ÖZTÜRK

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi ABD doktora öğrencisi Emrullah DAĞTAN'ın, Doç. Dr. Neşe CABBAROĞLU danışmanlığında yürütmekte olduğu "An investigation into the perception of Turkish ELT pre-service teachers and lecturers on the learning and teaching of speaking skill (Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının ve bu bölümlerde çalışan öğretim elemanlarının konuşma becerisinin öğrenimi ve öğretimi ile ilgili görüşleri üzerine inceleme" başlıklı doktora tez çalışması için kullanmayı düşündüğü anket çalışmasının etik yönden değerlendirilmesi için, Kurul'umuz tarafından görevlendirilen Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU'nun hazırladığı rapor incelendi.

Sonuçta; anket formu ve veri toplama yönteminin, "Çukurova Üniversitesi Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Yönergesi" hükümlerine uygun olduğu kanaatine varılarak, bu belgenin "Etik Kurul Onay Belgesi" olarak verilmesine, toplantıya katılan üyelerimizin oy birliği ile karar verildi.

Prof. Dr. H. Mahir FİSUNOĞLU (Kurul Başkanı) Prof. Dr. Serap Çabuk Prof. Dr. Mustafa ÖZTÜRK (Katılamadı)

Prof. Dr. Tahir BALCI Prof. Dr. Meral ATİCİ Prof. Dr. Mustafa APAYDIN

Prof. Dr. Nurçay TÜRKOĞLU Prof. Dr. Birnur ERALDEMİR Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU

Appendix S. Permission obtained from Dokuz Eylül University

T.C
DOKUZ EYLÜL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
BUCA EĞİTİM FAKÜLTESİ

Sayı : 85316909/302/08.01
Konu: Emrullah DAĞTAN Anket İzni

20.04.2016-061642

.../.../2016

REKTÖRLÜK MAKAMINA
(Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı)

İlgi : 07/04/2016 tarih ve 47855647-044-E.8749 sayılı yazımız.

İlgi yazı ekinde anılan Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Doktora Programı öğrencisi Emrullah DAĞTAN'ın "An Investigation into the Perceptions of Turkish ELT Pre-Service Teachers and Lecturers on the Learning and Teaching of Speaking Skill (Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmeni Adaylarının ve Bu Bölümlerde Çalışan Öğretim Elemanlarının Konuşma Becerisinin Öğrenimi ve Öğretimi ile İlgili Görüşleri Üzerine İnceleme)" konulu tez çalışması için Fakültemiz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Bölümü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında anket uygulama isteği çalışmayı kendilerinin yapması şartı ile uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

Prof. Dr. Süleyman BAŞLAR
DEKAN V.

D.E.Ü. REKTÖRLÜK GELEN NO
22.04.2016 11.25 - 16892

Uğur Mumcu Caddesi 135 Sokak No.5 35150 Buca / İZMİR Tel.: 0- 232 - 4204582-4204583-4204584-4204585-4204586-4204587 – 4204588 – 4207902 – 4409608 – 4409609 – 4409611 – 4409612 – 4409613 – 4409615 – 4201472 Fax.: 0-232-4204595 – 0-232-4409610 web: www.deu.edu.tr/egitim e-mail: egitim@deu.edu.tr

Appendix T. Permission obtained from Gaziantep University

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 14/04/2016-7175

T.C.
GAZİANTEP ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

Sayı :87841438/044/
Konu :ANKET VE GÖRÜŞME İZNİ

ÇUKUROVA ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi :31/03/2016 tarihli, 13117 sayılı ve "ANKET VE GÖRÜŞME İZNİ" konulu yazı

Üniversiteniz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Doktora öğrencisi Emrullah Dağtan'ın Doç.Dr.Neşe Cabaroğlu danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmeni Adaylarının ve Nu Bölümlerde Çalışan Öğretim Elemanlarının Konuşma Becerisinin Öğrenimi ve Öğretimi ile İlgili Görüşleri Üzerine İnceleme" başlıklı tez çalışmasına ilişkin anket çalışmasını Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında yapması uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

Prof.Dr.Fahrettin GÖĞÜŞ
Rektör Yardımcısı

BELGENİN ASLI
ELEKTRONİK İMZALIDIR
15.04.2016

H.Şenay DİREKCİ
Bilgisayar İşletmeni

Üniversite Bulvarı P.K. 27310 Şehitkamil / Gaziantep, TÜRKİYE
Tel: : 0 (342) 360 12 00
E-Posta: : bilgi@gantep.edu.tr
Evrakı Doğrulamak İçin : http://193.140.136.124/enVision/Dogrula/ND339RC
Ayrıntılı bilgi için irtibat:
Faks: 0 (342) 360 10 13
Elektronik ağ:http://www.gantep.edu.tr/

Bu belge 5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanununun 5. Maddesi gereğince güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Appendix U. Permission obtained from METU

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

DUMLUPINAR BULVARI 06800
ÇANKAYA ANKARA/TURKEY
T: +90 312 210 22 91
F: +90 312 210 79 59
ueam@metu.edu.tr
www.ueam.metu.edu.tr

Sayı: 28620816/422
Konu: İAEK Başvurusu

31 EKİM 2016

İlgili Makama,

Çukurova Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Programı doktora öğrencilerinden **Emrullah Dağtan**, "*Türkiye'deki İngilizce Öğretmeni Adaylarının ve Bu Bölümlerde Çalışan Öğretim Elemanlarının Konuşma Becerisinin Öğrenimi ve Öğretimi ile ilgili Görüşleri Üzerine İnceleme*" başlıklı araştırması kapsamında ODTÜ Eğitim Fakültesi Yabancı Diller Bölümü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında veri toplamak üzere ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kuruluna (İAEK) başvurmuştur. Araştırmacının, öğrencisi olduğu Çukurova Üniversitesinin Etik Kurulundan almış olduğu onay ODTÜ İAEK tarafından görülmüş ve ODTÜ İAEK tarafından bir değerlendirme süreci başlatılmamıştır.

Prof. Dr. H. Canan Sümer
ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurul Bşk.

Appendix V. Permission obtained from Ondokuz Mayıs University

T.C.
ONDOKUZ MAYIS ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

Sayı : 49933177-044-E.9372
Konu : Emrullah DAĞTAN'ın Anket ve Görüşme İzni

23/04/2016

ÇUKUROVA ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 31/03/2016 tarihli ve 27224817-044/E.13117 sayılı yazınız.

İlgide kayıtlı yazınızda belirtilen Üniversiteniz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı doktora öğrencisi Emrullah DAĞTAN'ın hazırlamakta olduğu "An Investigation into the Perceptions of Turkish ELT Preservice Teachers and Lectures on the Learning and Theaching of Speaks Skill" başlıklı tez kapsamında Üniversitemiz Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında anket ve görüşme yapma talebi Rektörlüğümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof.Dr. Hasan GÜMÜŞ
Rektör V.

BELGENİN ASLI
ELEKTRONİK İMZALIDIR
25.04.2016
Ayhan Can Saraç
Hizmetli

Adres: Ondokuz Mayıs Üniversitesi Rektörlük Binası
Telefon: 0362 312 19 19 Faks: 0362 457 60 91
Elektronik Ağ: http://www.omu.edu.tr/
Kep Adresi: omu@hs01.kep.tr
Ayhan Can SARAÇ
ayhancan.sarac@omu.edu.tr
Dahili Tel : 7014

5070 sayılı Elektronik İmza Kanunu'na uygun olarak Güvenli Elektronik İmza ile üretilmiştir.
Evrak teyidi https://ebyssorgu.omu.edu.tr adresinden 6MBH-KRLV-85EV kodu ile yapılabilir.

Appendix W. Permission obtained from Dicle University

T.C.
DİCLE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Ziya Gökalp Eğitim Fakültesi

Sayı : 29472877 -044-
Konu : Emrullah DAĞTAN (Dilekçe)

YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜNE

İlgi : 26/02/2016 tarihli, 15932 sayılı ve "Emrullah DAĞTAN (Dilekçe)" konulu yazı

Emrullah DAĞTAN'ın doktora tezi kapsamında uygulamayı planladığı anket incelenmiş ve Anabilim Dalımızda uygulamasına bir sakınca olmadığı kanaatine varılmıştır.

Gereğini arz ederim.

Doç. Dr. Nilüfer BEKLEYEN
Anabilim Dalı Başkanı

Evrakı Doğrulamak İçin : https://ebelge.dicle.edu.tr/enVision/Validate_doc.aspx?V=BE8A3LVKM

Dicle Üniversitesi Rektörlüğü, 21280-Diyarbakır
Telefon:+90 412 248 80 30 Faks+90 412 248 83 20
e-Posta dicle@dicle.edu.tr Elektronik Ağ:http://www.dicle.edu.tr

Ayrıntılı bilgi için irtibat: Nilüfer Bekleyen
Evrak Pin Kodu: 02662
Ayrıntılı bilgi irtibat tel.: 8835

Appendix X. Durations of semi-structured interview-1 sessions (in minutes) and languages of interviews

INT	DRT	LNG	INT	DRT	LNG	INT	DRT	LNG
PT-1	06:00	Eng	PT-30	03:10	Tur	L-11	10:59	Tur
PT-2	05:10	Tur	PT-31	03:56	Tur	L-12*	20:15	Eng
PT-3	06:46	Eng	PT-32	04:20	Tur	L-13	10:23	Tur
PT-4	04:59	Tur	PT-33	04:25	Tur	L-14	11:46	Tur
PT-5	10:56	Eng	PT-34	02:16	Tur	L-15	4:55	Tur
PT-6	03:18	Eng	PT-35	03:47	Eng	L-16	5:09	Tur
PT-7	02:14	Tur	PT-36	03:18	Tur	L-17	07:08	Tur
PT-8	02:45	Tur	PT-37	03:13	Tur	L-18	05:20	Tur
PT-9	03:48	Tur	PT-38	02:36	Tur	L-19	05:10	Tur
PT-10	02:36	Tur	PT-39	04:07	Tur	L-20	11:11	Tur
PT-11	03:23	Tur	PT-40	04:14	Tur	L-21	08:02	Tur
PT-12	02:43	Tur	PT-41	05:52	Tur	L-22	08:49	Tur
PT-13	02:57	Tur	PT-42	03:40	Tur	L-23	15:51	Tur
PT-14	02:50	Tur	PT-43	06:40	Tur	L-24	09:10	Tur
PT-15*	05:20	Tur	PT-44	04:22	Tur	L-25	14:53	Tur
PT-16	04:39	Tur	PT-45*	05:44	Tur	L-26	04:35	Eng
PT-17	05:05	Tur	PT-46*	05:17	Tur	L-27	15:26	Eng
PT-18	03:51	Tur	PT-47*	06:58	Tur	L-28	10:21	Eng
PT-19	04:43	Tur	PT-48*	09:51	Tur	L-29	07:28	Tur
PT-20	05:16	Tur	L-1	07:29	Tur	L-30	07:54	Eng
PT-21	06:27	Tur	L-2	12:08	Eng	L-31	06:16	Eng
PT-22	04:18	Tur	L-3	08:29	Eng	L-32	15:05	Tur
PT-23	02:41	Tur	L-4	05:21	Tur	L-33	11:54	Tur
PT-24	01:44	Tur	L-5	11:01	Tur	L-34	06:14	Tur
PT-25	02:16	Tur	L-6	12:05	Tur	L-35	12:21	Tur
PT-26	03:19	Tur	L-7	12:13	Tur	L-36	12:14	Eng
PT-27	02:40	Tur	L-8	06:06	Tur	L-37	10:29	Eng
PT-28	03:03	Tur	L-9	05:51	Tur	L-38	04:36	Tur
PT-29	05:03	Tur	L-10	07:59	Tur			

Notes. PT = Pre-service teacher, L = Lecturer, INT = Interviewee, DRT = Duration, LNG = Language, Tur = Turkish, Eng = English. * denotes the participants who were interviewed via telephone.

CURRICULUM VITAE (CV)

PERSONAL DETAILS

Name – Surname	: Emrullah DAĞTAN
Place & Date of Birth	: Diyarbakır – 1984
Marital Status	: Married
e-mail	: emrullah.dagtan@dicle.edu.tr

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

2012 – 2020 Doctoral Degree – English Language Teaching (ELT)
Çukurova University Graduate School of Social Sciences, Adana, Turkey
Dissertation title: *An investigation into the perceptions of Turkish ELT pre-service teachers and lecturers on the learning and teaching of English speaking skills*

2009 – 2012 Master's Degree – English Language Teaching (ELT)
Dicle University Graduate School of Educational Sciences, Diyarbakır, Turkey
Thesis title: *An examination on the washback effect of the interuniversity board foreign language test (the example of Dicle University)*

2001 – 2005 Bachelor's Degree – English Linguistics
Mersin University Faculty of Science and Letters, Mersin, Turkey

WORK EXPERIENCE

2007 – Present EFL Lecturer
Dicle University School of Foreign Languages, Diyarbakır, Turkey

2006 – 2007 EFL Teacher
Turkish Ministry of National Education, Mermer Primary School, Diyarbakır, Turkey

PUBLICATIONS

Oral presentations

1. Dağtan E. & Cabaroğlu N. (2017, April). *English speaking skills at the ELT departments in Turkey: Problems and Solutions*. Presented at the Third Çukurova International ELT Teachers Conferences - "Reshaping teaching and Learning English for the 21st Century". Çukurova University, Adana, Turkey (20-21.04.2017).

2. Dağtan E. (2014, March). *ELT Students' and Teachers' Beliefs about Pronunciation Instruction*. Presented at the LIF2014 - Language in Focus - Exploring the challenges and opportunities in Linguistics and English Language Teaching. Antalya, Turkey (27-29.03.2014).

Book chapters

1. Dağtan, E. (2015). Konuşma becerisinin öğretimi (Teaching the speaking skill). In N. Bekleyen (Eds.), *Dil Öğretimi (Language Teaching)* (pp. 333-350). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.